



**PERCEPTIONS OF FINAL YEAR UNDERGRADUATE
EDUCATION STUDENTS ABOUT THE INFLUENCE OF A
READING CULTURE ON THEIR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
AT SELECTED UNIVERSITIES IN TANZANIA**

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. Four universities were involved in the study namely: Sokoine University of Agriculture, Mzumbe University, Teofilo Kisanji University and University of Iringa. Social Cognitive Theory informed the study. Pragmatism paradigm underpinned this study, while mixed methods using survey questionnaire and interviews were used for the data collection. Questionnaire was used to collect data from 312 students and 62 lecturers while interview was administered to 50 subject librarians. Quantitative data were analysed using IBM SPSS version 20.0 to generate tables, charts, percentages and frequencies, while Chi-square was generated to determine relationships between variables. Finally, qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis. Reliability and validity were ensured by adopting instruments from studies with acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value of >0.7 . The study adhered to the ethical protocol of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The findings showed that there was a high level of awareness among students, lecturers, and librarians regarding influence of reading culture on students' academic achievements. The students perceived their reading self-efficacies as enabler to promoting reading culture. The findings revealed students rarely spent time reading for leisure, for information or for entertainment. The results also showed students rarely visited the library. The results further showed that factors which motivated students to read include reading to gain knowledge, reading for entertainment purposes, reading for examinations, tests, assignments and research projects.

The study concluded that students in universities lacked reading culture but were motivated to read for the purpose of passing examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. There was absence of policy on reading culture and this impacted negatively on students' academic achievement. The study consequently advanced recommendations among them strategies, policy, curricular transformation, programmes and guidelines in order to improve academic achievement of students.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late parents Elias Mwageni, Hadija Semlula and my late wife Shukuru Mabena. May God rest your souls in Eternal Peace.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BEST	Brofenbrenner's Ecological System Theory
EVT	Expectancy Value Theory
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
HELs	Higher Education Institutions
HESLB	Higher Education Students Loans Board
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IEA	International Association for Evaluation of educational Achievement
IQ	Intelligent Quotient
LIS	Library and Information Science
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MU	Mzumbe University
NBPs	National Book Policies
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
SAUT	Saint Augustine University of Tanzania
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TCU	Tanzania Commission for Universities
TEKU	Teofilo Kisanji University
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Studies
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UKZNDE	University of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UoI University of Iringa
URT United Republic of Tanzania
USA United States of America
USAID United States Agency for International Development

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

The concept of reading culture refers to attitude and behaviour of seeking for knowledge, information or entertainment, a practice acquired from reading books, journals, magazines, newspapers and internet sources (Ronald, Benard and Ondari, 2014; Haliru, Abdulkarim, Mohammed, Dangani, 2015). Reading culture is enshrined in attitudes, behaviours, perceptions, beliefs and practice to acquire knowledge, skills and information for success not only for academic purposes but also for lifelong learning (Olasehinde, Akanmode, Alaiyemola and Babatunde, 2015; Edeole and Adejoke, 2016). Haliru *et al.*, (2015) assert that reading culture is a shared value practised at home, at school and at universities. Reading culture is an important virtue in creating a knowledge based society and at universities play an important role in this regard (Akabuike and Asika, 2012). Cull (2011) and Erdem (2015) insist that students at universities provide the benchmark for the practice of intensive and effective reading culture. The study by Thanuskodi (2011) titled “Among LIS students at Annamalai University in India” revealed that university students are expected to read a lot to broaden their cognitive domains.

Reading culture and academic achievement are inextricably intertwined. The studies by Amrai, Motlagh, Zalan and Parhon (2011), on; ‘The relationship between academic motivation and academic achievement in among Tehran University students in Iran’, Khreisat and Kaur (2014), on; ‘Recreational reading habits of the Arab Jordanian tertiary students’, Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014), on; ‘Reading habits among students and its effects on academic performance in Ghana’, Loh (2015), on; ‘Building a reading culture in Singapore’, and Özönder (2015), on; ‘Prospective ELT students, foreign language reading attitudes and motivation at Hacettepe University in Turkey’ found that reading culture is linked to students’ academic achievement. Hughes-Hassel (2008) and Pfof, Dörfler and Artelt (2013) posit that reading culture acts as a stimulus for academic achievement in universities. Reading culture enables students at universities to improve critical thinking, understand themselves and the world, and interpret the situations and events (Haliru *et al.*, 2015).

Reading culture helps students to acquire skills, knowledge and information to enhance academic achievement. Ifedili (2009), Akanda, Hoq and Hasan (2013) and Motshekga (2015) concur that reading culture provides individuals with skills, experience, knowledge, right attitude and social progress and is necessary for enhancing academic achievements at universities. Furthermore, the study by Olasehinde *et al.* (2015), on ‘Promoting reading culture at Landmark University in Nigeria’ reported that reading culture bridges the interactions of teachers and students in teaching and learning.

Recognizing the importance of reading culture Banou, Kostagiolas and Olenoglou (2008) and Ruterana (2014) conceded that reading culture improves the teaching and learning process. Most studies seem to suggest that developed countries have a higher rate of reading culture among the citizens compared to developing countries (Jonsson and Olsson, 2007). Haliru *et al.* (2015) in a study that assessed reading habits in Nigeria noted that there is a crisis of mass failure among the students in Nigeria and this is attributed to poor reading culture. It is therefore imperative to inculcate good reading culture among students at schools, colleges and universities. Therefore, reading culture should be instilled as an attitude and behaviour rather than an aspect taught as a skill (Igwe, 2011; Adaora, 2016).

The advent of Information Communication Technologies (ICT’s) has created expectations that the integration of electronic resources into libraries would enhance the reading culture of students, especially at university. Consequently, many universities the world over have endeavoured to adopt ICT’s to facilitate easy access to information and promote the culture of reading to enhance teaching and learning. On the contrary, the adoption of ICT in universities has not yielded significant impact on reading culture of the students (Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015). Also, it has been found that electronic resources alone cannot enhance reading culture which is required to positively impact academic achievements of students at universities. While ICT is a good facilitator for learning at universities, reading culture is a powerful and contributing factor to the effective use of such technologies.

1.2 University education and the status of reading culture in Tanzania

University education is the impetus for the citizens to acquire knowledge, information, skills and experiences for lifelong learning. The establishment of university education in Tanzania is connected to University of London in Europe. In 1961, University of London affiliated University College of Dar Es Salaam. In 1963, University College of Dar Es Salaam, University of Nairobi in Kenya and Makerere University in Uganda harmonized higher learning education to be University of East Africa under affiliation of University of London. Dar Es Salaam University College catered only Faculty of Law. The structure of university education in Tanzania is 3 years or more which varies depending on course of study.

In recent years, there is a prevailing decline of reading culture that affects academic achievement in universities in Tanzania. The study by Masabo (2015), on; ‘The declining of reading culture in Tanzania’ found that reading culture is declining among students in tertiary and universities in Tanzania. This situation affects students’ academic achievement. Istoroyekti (2016), on; ‘Issues challenging universities in Tanzanian higher education’ reported that the quality of higher learning education in Tanzania and Africa in general, is at stake. The university graduates are lacking necessary knowledge, experiences and skills to compete in the global world. This trend threatens the implementation of Tanzania’s Development Vision of 2025 which aims at economic development and building the nation of well-educated populace hence to improve people’s lives.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Reading culture is a practice built through individual’s positive attitude and behaviour towards reading over a certain period of time. It is a natural phenomenon that a student develops a reading attitude and eventually it leads to a behaviour and habit to read hence achieve in academic and life endeavours. Studies have shown that a lack of reading culture at universities, leads to poor academic achievement of students. Several studies have shown declining of reading culture at universities world over and Tanzania in particular (Shahriza and Hasan, 2007; Mustapher and Britto in the Daily news, 2011; Guardian Newspaper interview by Kitabu, 2011; Citizen Newspaper, 2013; Masabo, 2015; Said, 2016 and Tungaraza, 2017). Besides, there are concerns that students around the world including those at universities in Tanzania read mainly

in anticipation of examinations, research projects, tests or assignments. Some of these studies also show that 60 percent of students visit the library because of examinations, assignments, tests and research works (Mustapher and Britto, 2011; Dominic, 2015).

The concern about declining reading culture is seemingly not confined to Tanzania alone. In the context of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus universities by Pehlivan, Serin and Serin (2010), on; ‘Determining reading interests and habits of candidate teachers, USA Midwestern Liberal Arts University by Hoeft (2012), on; ‘Why university students don’t read’ Malaysia the Universiti Teknologi in Malaysia by Mohamed, Rahman, Chew Tin, Hashim, Maarof, Sharliana, Mat Nasir and Fazirah Jumari (2012), on; ‘Reading behaviours of students in Kolej Datin Seri Endon (KDSE)’ and Nigeria, ‘The influence of e-resources use at Nigerian universities’ Ajayi, Shorunke and Aboyade (2014) found that students at universities lacked reading culture.

The tendency of undergraduate students at universities to only read during examinations, tests, assignments and research projects has a negative impact on academic achievement. In this regard, Akabuike and Asika (2012) and Hoeft (2012) contend that students in college and universities are reading for passing examinations at the expense of gaining knowledge, skills, experiences and leisure. Ifedili (2009), Aina, Ogungbeni, Adigun and Ogundipe (2011) and Al Shawwa, Abulaban, Abulaban, Merdad, Baghlaf, Algethami, Abu-shanab and Balkhoyor (2015) acknowledge that low academic achievement and the tendency to read for examinations at universities leads to academic failure, examination malpractice, student dropouts, higher rate of unskilled manpower, poverty, frustration, illiteracy and loss of self-esteem.

Despite attempts to understand correlation between reading culture and academic achievements around the world there is paucity of studies that have been undertaken to understand how reading culture influences academic achievements of final year undergraduate education students in the universities in Tanzania. Therefore, this study investigated the perceptions of students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania.

1.4. Research objectives

The research objectives of this study are:

- 1) To investigate the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students.
- 2) To examine final year undergraduate education students' perceptions on their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit.
- 3) To determine the extent of final year undergraduate education students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.
- 4) To find out the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects
- 5) To identify the factors that influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students.
- 6) To establish strategies used by universities to promote reading culture among students.

1.3.1. Research questions

The following research questions were addressed:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

1.4. Significance of the study

The study aimed at understanding reading culture and how it influences academic achievement at universities in Tanzania. The study would help in the design of information service systems that are tailored to meeting users' needs. The study would create awareness on the extent of reading culture and how it impacts the academic endeavour in Tanzanian universities. This is important in order to inform resource allocation, capacity building and infrastructure development at universities. The study provides evidence based data to inform national and institutional policies, practices, curricular reviews and pedagogies to encourage reading culture in universities. The study's findings bridge the gaps between realistic practices in academic settings and underlying theories of the reading attitudes and behaviours of university students. The study identified factors influencing reading culture as well as the challenges of instilling reading culture among students. Finally, interventions to address reading culture are provided.

1.5. Scope and limitation of the study

The study investigated the influence of reading culture on academic achievement among final year undergraduate education students in Tanzanian universities. The study was conducted in 4 out of the 37 registered universities in Tanzania. The four universities were purposively selected from which two were public – Sokoine University of Agriculture and Mzumbe University and another two private - University of Iringa and Teofilo Kisanji University) These four universities were chosen because they are the largest in terms of students' enrollment, academic staff complement and the number of librarians. For example Sokoine University of Agriculture was established in 1965 and currently has a population of 5475 undergraduate students, 503 lecturers and 55 librarians (SUA Profile, 2014). University of Iringa on the other hand was established in 1994 and currently has a population of 1325 undergraduate students, 98 lecturers and 16 librarians (UoI Profile, 2014).

The unit of analysis was final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students and subject librarians who serviced education faculties. The term *undergraduate student* refers to the post-secondary or college student who pursues and has not yet been awarded a bachelor's degree in a higher learning institution. The term *lecturer* on the other hand is used in this thesis to refer to a teacher who qualifies to teach in higher

learning institutions. In a Tanzanian context a lecturer must be in possession of at least a master's degree. The term *librarian* refers to an information professional with at least a bachelor's degree. However, subject librarians covered information professions with at least a diploma in information science serving academics and students in the discipline of education at the universities surveyed.

Students in the faculty of education were chosen because they form the largest cohort in any single field of study at the universities in Tanzania. This is because when disbursing loans the government, through Higher Education Students Loans Board (HESLB) gives priority to education students. In addition the government prioritizes the training of primary, secondary and college teachers in Tanzania. Moreover, final year undergraduate education students were purposively selected because it was assumed they had acquired necessary skills and experiences from their first year of study. This assumption is also supported by Hermida (2009) and Akabuike and Asika (2012); where it was observed that students in their first and second year of study at colleges and universities have hardly acquired a culture of reading.

Furthermore, the study adopted Social Cognitive Theory which links reading culture with environments, cognitive domains, attitude, behavioural patterns and academic achievements. Methodologically, the study used pragmatism paradigm which allows mixed methods of both quantitative and qualitative approaches at par in the single study. The study was limited to reading culture and academic achievement at universities in Tanzania. The study was limited to culture as an attitude and a behavioural pattern. Reading attitude and behaviour are inner drives observed from beliefs, perceptions and emotions.

Some respondents were not freely willing to participate in the study particularly, lecturers and subject librarians citing concerns about confidentiality of the information they would need to provide. The researcher assured them of privacy and confidentiality making reference to the consent letter and the fact that participation in the study was voluntary. The respondents were further assured that the results would not be divulged to any third party and would only be used for academic purposes. Nevertheless, students at Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA),

Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) and fully participated in the study.

1.6 Definition of key terms

This section presents operational terms that are used in the current study such as academic achievement, attitude, behaviour, perception and reading culture.

1.6.1 Academic achievement

Academic achievement is the degree, extent or level of learning outcomes of students at schools, colleges or universities (Kpolovie, Joe and Okoto, 2014; Steinmayr, Meißner, Weidinger and Wirthwein, 2014; York, Gibson and Rankin, 2015). Academic achievement is the extent to which an individual student has acquired knowledge, skills and experiences in the specific set of academic goals (Fakude, 2012; Li, 2012; Illahi and Khandai, 2015; Verma, 2016). In this study context, academic achievement is a measuring standard and reputation of the university outputs (Mushtaq, 2012; Illahi and Khandai, 2015; York, Gibson and Rankin, 2015). Thus, grades and grade point average (GPA) are the measuring scales in achieving in tests, assignments and examinations. These measuring scales are the only means to measure academic achievements of individual students and the institutions as well (Mushtaq, 2012; Mendezabal, 2013; Illahi and Khandai, 2015; York, Gibson and Rankin, 2015; Siahhi and Maiyo, 2015).

1.6.2 Attitude

Attitude is a set of beliefs, feelings, drives and experiences towards behaviours, objects or people. Attitude is accrued from observations, experiences and environments in which the individual is exposed. Positive attitude exposes individuals to motivation to repeat a required behaviour in the society (Nxumalo, 2016). In teaching and learning processes, attitude is influenced by social, cognitive and environmental domains (De Boer, PiJl and Minnaert, 2011). Attitude is an integral phenomenon to determine individual behaviours. It enables students to develop motivation which in reciprocal enhances students' academic achievement. To instil attitude to the students, teachers should demonstrate positive attitude towards desired behaviours for the students to observe and imitate to improve their academic achievement (Ulug, Ozden and eryilmaz, 2011).

1.6.3 Behaviour

Behaviour is characterized with repeated observable actions used to determine individual's attitudes towards phenomenon (Bergner, 2011; uher, 2016). Behaviour as a result of attitude, experiences and environments in which individuals are nurtured plays a vital role in all development endeavours. In academic environment, behaviour is a concept associated to regular reading behavioural patterns built over a period of time to indoctrinate positive reading culture (Akabuike, 2015; Dominic, 2015). In reciprocal, reading behavioural patterns influence teaching and learning processes and they are used to assess and evaluate the acquisition of knowledge, skills and information for permanent change of attitude (Chu and Chang, 2008). Furthermore, there is a linear impact on behaviour and students' academic achievement (Loes, Saichaie, Padgett and Pascarella, 2012).

1.6.4 Motivation

Motivation is internal and external drives which make individuals to assess, evaluate and devote efforts for desire to attaining set goals. Internal motivation emanate within individual personal traits while external motivation is influenced by external environments such as value, incentives and expectations (Singh, 2011). Motivation is influenced by four factors. These include: personal psychology, goal orientation, purpose and infrastructure towards attaining goals (Amrai *et al.*, 2011). In academic pursuits, motivation is used to explain the individual judgement that facilitate students to engage in learning process. Motivation determines attitude, behaviour, cognitive domains, self-efficacy and self-regulation important in teaching and learning processes (Gbollie and Keamu, 2017). Therefore, motivation is of paramount importance in academic environments and there is a correlation between motivation and academic achievement (Ayub, 2010; Gamboa, Rodriguez Acosta, Garcia-Suaza, 2013; Dishon-Berkovist, 2014).

1.6.5 Perception

Perception is a set of beliefs, feelings and opinions of people about a particular phenomenon in the society (Lukhele, 2013). According to Ihuoma (2012) perceptions are concerned with attitudes, behaviours, thoughts, feelings and ideas influenced by cognitive domains, previous experiences and the environments. In this study perceptions are a set of beliefs, attitudes,

behaviours, opinions and feelings that influence reading culture to improve students' academic achievement.

1.6.6 Reading culture

Reading culture is defined as an attitude and behavioural patterns which involves feelings, drives, cognitive patterns, perceptions and motivations to practice a behaviour (Rana and Kausar, 2011; Igbokwe, Obidike and Ezeji, 2012; Ihuoma, 2012; Mohamed *et al*, 2012; Palani, 2012; Karadeniz and Can, 2014; Akarsu and Harputlu, 2014; Medar and Kenchakkanavar, 2015). Reading culture is an intentional and repeated reading behaviour which is influenced by value and attitude towards the act of reading (Ronnås, 2009; Jegbfume, Yaji and Dala, 2017; Oyewole, 2017). In this study reading culture is regarded as patterns of reading attitude and behaviours which guide students to acquire knowledge, skills and experiences for academic purposes and lifelong learning.

1.7. Theory

This sub-section introduces theoretical framework that is covered more comprehensively in chapter two. Theory establishes interplay between key variables and constructs to structure, guide and predict the phenomena (Glanz, Rimer and Viswanath, 2008; Verhoeven, 2011). There are common theories to help explain the impact of reading culture on academic achievement. These include Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is an empirical human motivation and personality theory. In social context SDT explains the effect of social environment and self-regulation essential for growth, integrity and achievements. SDT differentiates between two types of motivation namely; intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation occurs when a person takes action reinforced by his or her personal interests whereas extrinsic motivation is influenced by external forces (Reiss, 2012; Brusio and Stefaniak, 2016). SDT provides a framework to understand human motivation, personality and engagement of students in learning activities. However, SDT does not stipulate anything about individuals' cognitive aspects (knowledge, skills and past

experiences) (Jang, 2008). Therefore, this study did not find SDT suitable as it lacks cognitive aspects essential in the teaching and learning process.

Brofenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST) is linked to five interventions that influence development of attitude and behaviour. These systems include microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem (Glanz, Rimer and Viswanath, 2008). BEST believes that environment is the most powerful aspect to influence the attitudes and behaviours of individuals (Woodside, Caldwell and Spurr, 2006). Societal interventions include psychological and behavioural patterns that are significant in shaping attitudes and behaviours (Glanz, Rimer and Viswanath, 2008). Consequently, students' attitudes and behaviours are learned from their surrounding environments. Therefore, the teaching and learning environment is a basic component of understanding and planning educational goals. Geldenhuys and Wevers (2013) found BEST suited to education settings as it gives an overview of basic aspects that influence students' attainment of educational goals. However, this study did not adopt BEST since it considers environment, psychological and behavioural patterns as the only factors that influence individuals in success. BEST does not consider cognitive aspects of the teaching and learning process.

Expectancy Value Theory (EVT) explains attitude and behaviour in constructs such as attainment value (importance for identity or self), intrinsic value (enjoyment or interest to perform a task), utility value (usefulness or relevance of that particular achievement) and costs in terms of time, efforts and psychological impacts. EVT believes that the increase of motivation to perform a behaviour is directly proportional to the extent of individual expectations and value beliefs in that particular expected outcomes (Nagengast, Marsh, Scalas, Xu, Hau and Trautwein, 2011). Further, EVT predicts that existing relationship among behavioural patterns, expectations and motivation reinforces individuals to practice a behaviour. EVT posits that achievement and motivation determine prediction of success, outcomes and academic achievement. In addition, EVT discusses how value or valence influences the worth of a particular behaviour and how expectancies for success function. Expectancies are individual's specific beliefs that impact achievements and one's ability to reach a goal. Expectancies are tied to self-efficacy, value and

self-concept, a belief in one's ability to reach the goals. In addition these constructs predict academic achievement of individual students (Guo, Marsh, Parker and Morin and Yeung, 2015). EVT components (individual belief, value to a belief and expectancies from the outcomes) in the education context provide students with the lens to analyse the relationship between what is learnt and their lives. EVT provides a framework of how individuals value and decide in achieving expectations. Therefore, EVT postulates a framework of underlying phenomena for a new insight in the study under investigation. However, EVT does not consider environments, cognitive domains and psychological states as influential attitude and behaviour in the teaching and learning process. For this reason EVT is not adopted in this study.

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) originated from Expectancy Value Model which failed to address attitudes and behaviours of individuals to perform a task (Glanz, Rimer and Viswanath, 2008). TRA demonstrates the importance of individual subjective norm, belief, behaviour and intention to determine human attitude and behaviours (Pryor and Pryor, 2009; Tlou, 2009). TRA addresses the psychological determinants of people's attitude and behaviours; it posits that attitudes result from individual beliefs (Orr, Thrush and Plaut, 2013). The core assumption of TRA is that human beings usually behave in a sensible manner taking into account the available information and implicitly or explicitly consider the implication of the outcomes. TRA predicts the behaviour change by observing attitudes and beliefs. For example, academic achievement as a positive attitude of students might lead to positive reading culture. TRA is relevant to inform reading culture in the context of the teaching and learning process. This theory considers individual intentions without taking into consideration cognition and environments that an individual operates in. For the purpose of this study, the environments include teaching and learning environments (classrooms and libraries). Therefore, this study does not consider TRA as an appropriate lens to underpin the research problem because it fails to incorporate environments and cognitive aspects in predicting attitudes and behaviours.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was extended from TRA to add behavioural control construct among the personal factors that influence intention to perform a behaviour (Yan and Sin, 2014; Taylor, 2015). Perceived behavioural control explains the power of self-perceptions of individuals. It attempts to understand behaviours when people cannot exercise full control over

the internal and external factors that make it possible to engage in a given behaviour. TPB is mainstreamed into constructs namely: attitude, behavioural intention, subjective norms, perceived power which are driven from personal factors including psychological influences and perceived behavioural control.

Furthermore, intention is a central focus to predict individuals towards performing a specific behaviour (Tlou, 2009). Therefore, these aspects in TPB are coined into two components: beliefs about the consequences of the behaviours and the positive or negative judgments about the behaviours. TPB is useful to predict individual attitudinal and behavioural change. In the context of this study, TPB addresses only the fourth research question of this study which addresses attitude and goal directed behavioural patterns and behavioural intention. TPB fail to consider other variables that influence behaviours such as past experiences of individuals and psychological drives. TPB does not establish environments which are believed to be powerful in influencing the teaching and learning process. TPB as the extension of TRA bears the same weaknesses of TRA, and it is not suitable to adopt in this study.

Social Cognitive Theory explains the complex nature of behaviour intention which is influenced by shared interaction among learning, achievement motivation and the environments in which an individual operates (Burney, 2008). SCT posits that the teaching and learning process is influenced by environment, behaviour and social interactions of people. SCT relates environment, personal experience, behavioural capability, personal knowledge, skills to perform a behaviour, observational learning from other people's experiences, reinforcement to perform or not to perform and outcomes expectations through self-regulation (Erlich and Russ-Eft, 2011).

This study was underpinned by SCT. It presents a consistent and coherent process of acquiring new attitude and behaviours through learners' experiences. SCT provides the basis for understanding specific underlying issues in reading culture and academic achievement. SCT addresses key variables and constructs such as environment, attitude, behaviour and cognitive patterns. These variables and constructs are useful in addressing this study's research problem. Therefore, the theoretical basis of this study was grounded on SCT. SCT is useful in understanding human behaviours and attitudes. It emphasizes the adoption process that enables

individuals to acquire pre-requisite skills as well as the confidence to perform certain behaviour. SCT focuses on behavioural patterns, behavioural change, observational learning, cognitive, expectancies (outcomes of the behaviour which are central themes in learning for permanent change), goal-directed, reinforcements, self-efficacy, academic achievement, environments and attitudes. Table 1.1 presents the research questions mapped onto variables and constructs of SCT.

Table 1.1 Mapping research questions to variables of SCT

Research questions	SCT's variables
1. What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students in Tanzanian universities?	Reading culture and academic achievement.
2. To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?	Attitude, behavioural patterns, self-efficacy, self-regulation, self-concept, self-control and reading culture.
3. To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?	Goal directed behavioural patterns, information resources usage, behavioural intention and motivation.
4. What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?	Reinforcements, attitudes, behaviour, environments and library resources use.
5. What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?	Social environments, physical environments, attitudes, behaviours and reinforcements.
6. What strategies have been adopted by universities to promote a reading culture among students?	Behavioural change, attitudes, reading culture, curricular interventions, pedagogies, assessment and evaluation.

1.8. Preliminary literature review

This section presents an initial literature review which briefly accounts for the variables and constructs embedded in the study research questions. It only serves to introduce key aspects of literature that is substantively discussed in chapter three covering a wider scope of empirical and theoretical sources.

The extant literature shows that studies on reading culture are not new. The studies started with the influence of the holy books of both Islam and Christianity that demonstrated reading as a means to acquire knowledge and God communicates with people in knowledge based mode (Aina *et al.*, 2011). Important to note, principal verses of the divine inspired prophet Mohamed (PBUH) is about reading (Sana, 2013). Records from ancient times show that government officials, professionals, literary and cultural minded people were acquainted to reading books to improve their education standards and achievements (Kanade and Chudamani, 2006). In the 18th and 19th centuries reading culture concerns covered international scope adopted in the Dutch institutional reading culture (Honings and Lubbers, 2012).

The importance of reading culture in academic achievements and life endeavours is emphasized in numerous studies. Guardian (2015: Online), Kari (2015) and Jegbfume, Yaji and Dala (2017) insist that a culture of reading is crucial for independent knowledge acquisition and lifelong learning. Jonsson and Olsson (2007) in the Ugandan context and Ajayi, Shorunke and Aboyade (2014), on; 'Reading culture in Nigerian universities' viewed reading culture as an attitude, behaviour and habit of reading not just for school driven purposes, but also for lifelong learning. Similarly, studies by Kachala (2007), on; 'Reading culture in Malawi' and Igwe (2011), on; 'Reading culture in Nigeria' found that a reading nation is an informed and knowledgeable society and contributes positively to economy of the country. Reterana (2014) carried out a study on; 'Reading culture in Rwanda' found that reading culture among the youths in tertiary institutions not only boosted their academic excellence, but also contributed to their country's growth prospects. A positive reading attitude leads to positive reading experience and higher academic achievement (Shahriza and Hasan, 2007; Abro and Qaisrani, 2017). Haliru *et al.* (2015) aver that a student who develops a reading culture has a great opportunity to perform well in academics.

According to Akabuike and Asika (2012) and Gong and Gao (2014) reading culture improves academic achievement and enhances civilization in the societies. Reading culture has the role to promote natural talents, produce skilled manpower, and generate knowledge and intellectual capital to contribute effectively to the society (Igwe, 2011; Thanuskodi, 2011; Akanda and

Hasan, 2013). Reading not only gives people new ideas, information and insights, it also helps them to become more complete in every aspect.

Despite its importance in development, reading culture has declined considerably the world over as shown by several studies undertaken from different perspectives (Kanade and Chudamani, 2006; Chen, 2007; Mokhtari, Reichard and Gardner, 2009, Aina *et al.* 2011; Akabuike and Asika, 2012; Palani 2012, Akarsu and Dariyemez, 2014, Erdem, 2015; Karadeniz and Can, 2015, Medar and Kenchakkanavar, 2015; Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015; Tokas, 2015 and Adaora, 2016). Extant literature have also reviewed reading culture in relation to academic achievement such as studies by Oyewumi and Ebijuwa (2009), on; 'Reading culture in African University', Winne and Nesbit (2010), on; 'Psychology of academic achievement', by Igwe (2011), on; 'Reading culture for development in Nigeria' and Mushtaq and Khan (2012), on; 'Factors affecting students' academic achievement in Pakistan'.

Toivonen (2013) argues that in decades, various western countries have seen considerable decline in reading culture. The study undertaken by Granado (2014) in Spain revealed that future university lecturers expected to inculcate reading culture to the students did not demonstrate positive attitude and behaviour towards reading. Ho (2008) reported that reading culture is not taking place among individuals in Hong Kong. The study by Mohamed *et al* (2012) argued that even though we are in the world of abundant resources, reading does not seem a popular culture in Malaysian universities. Ronald, Benard, and Ondari (2014) are of the view that reading culture in developing countries African countries in particular are among the lowest in the world. There is a growing concern about lack of reading culture among Rwandans at general in schools, colleges and universities (Ruterana, 2012). Students at universities still have poor reading culture which leads to poor academic achievement (Akabuike and Asika, 2012).

Studies such as Nabuyanda (2011) and York, Gibson and Rankin (2015) asserted that factors inhibiting reading culture include: lack of professional librarians, lack of reading materials, poor publishing industries, poor teaching and learning environments and the central focus of students on reading for examinations rather than developing an attitude and behaviour of reading. Khreisat and Kaur (2014) attributed poor reading culture to the rise of interest in emails,

facebook and online chatting at the expense of books for knowledge acquisition. Aina *et al.* (2011) claimed that the decline of reading culture among the students is due to the educators and parents who are also the product of societies that lack reading culture, computer illiteracy and spend more time on internet surfing rather than reading. Ndikubwayezu (2009) emphasizes that the reason Rwandans lack reading culture is because the society is not aware of the importance of developing the culture of reading.

Other studies have attributed poor reading culture to poor economies, examination malpractices and corruptions (Doiron and Asselin, 2010, Aina *et al.*, 2011). Astin's Inputs-Environments-Outcomes (I-E-O) Model establishes other factors affecting reading culture. These factors include; new experiences students face at universities, unfavourable family backgrounds, attitudes, behaviours, skills, values and beliefs of individual students (York, Gibson and Rankin, 2015). However, many countries endeavour to introduce reading culture programmes as a realization of the importance and decline of the same. Universities in particular introduce reading culture through programmes on attitude and behaviour in reading (Haron, 2009). The major concern being not only how reading culture influences academic achievement of the students but also instilling reading culture practice for lifelong learning (Adaora, 2012).

Recently, studies have developed interests to investigating reading culture and academic achievement at universities such as Erdem (2015), Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma (2015) and Adaora (2016). The literature reviewed thus far appear to suggest that in Africa and elsewhere in the world there is a general decline in reading culture which in effect has resulted in low academic achievement at schools, colleges and universities. Muswazi and Yumba (2007) pointed out that the demand on higher education institutions to produce graduates who can effectively function in the information and knowledge economy is being hampered by poor reading culture.

Therefore, Nabuyanda (2011), on a study; 'Factors inhibiting reading culture among students in Zambia', Issa, Aliyu, Akangbe and Adedeji (2012), on; 'Reading interests and habits of the federal polytechnic in Nigeria', Palani (2012), on; 'Promoting reading habits in India', Lukhele (2013), on; 'The relationship among reading attitude, reading abilities and academic achievement in Swaziland' Medar and Kenchakkanavar (2015), on; 'Reading habits among university

students in Philippines’, Tokas (2015), on: ‘Reading interests and habits and academic achievement: A comparative study in India’ Adaora (2016), on; ‘Reading habits of theological and management university students in Nigeria’ and Verma (2016), on; the relationship between reading culture and academic achievement in India’ have established the need to instil reading culture specifically in primary, secondary schools and colleges. They propose promoting an anthropological approach to reading culture focusing on attitudes and behaviours (Ifedili, 2009). Furthermore, universities should be provided with library facilities to improve scholarships to effect students’ academic achievements. Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu (2014) add that libraries are responsible for cultivating reading culture as a means of improving information access, skills, experiences and knowledge acquisition.

Preliminary literature review show that little is known about reading culture and academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students at universities in Tanzania. Moreover, the existing literature seems to focus on reading culture in general or with respect to academic achievement at universities in developed countries while very few studies cover developing countries. This fact is confirmed by A-Nafisah and Al-Shorman (2011) who point out that most studies on reading culture were conducted in western countries where English is a first language. In contrast very few studies have been conducted in developing countries where English is a second language. Khreisat and Kaur (2014) assert that there are many studies on reading culture of secondary school students as compared to undergraduate students at universities.

The literature reviewed therefore underscores the need for research on the influence of reading culture and academic achievement at universities in the context of developing countries. From the literature reviewed it is also evident that reading culture is important in addressing and improving academic achievement. The study by Honings and Lubbers (2012), on; ‘Dutch institutional reading culture in the Netherlands’ confirmed the need for more studies to build attitude and behaviour favourable to reading culture at universities.

1.9. Research methodology

The comprehensive research methodology, methods and research design is covered in chapter four of this thesis. This part only introduces key issues detailed in chapter four. Göktürk (2009:1) acknowledges that paradigm is “a set of assumptions, concepts, values and practices and constitute a way of viewing reality for the community that shares them especially in an intellectual discipline”. Paradigm is generally underlying worldviews which scholars employ to explain a certain social phenomenon (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

There are different common paradigms researchers employ to explain their studies. These paradigms include positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism. Positivism paradigm is based on the belief that the realities can only be obtained through scientific inquiries (Kaboub, 2008; Noor, 2008). The positivist paradigm is a quantitative approach that believes in ontological dualistic objective in the process to reveal the truths. It views reality as the process of verifying the theories through observable phenomena by the use of senses (Peprah, 2014). According to Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls and Ormston (2014) positivism is a scientific approach used to study human behaviour in a natural setting. Post-positivism on the other hand is concerned with the realities obtained through scientific approaches and observations explained over perceptions and people’s experiences. Unlike positivism, post-positivism stresses that reality in research is not obtained based on how many times a response is repeated rather the social perceptions, feelings and opinions people have from their experiences (Noor, 2008). Post-positivism uses deductive and inductive theory building on scientific method and observations of people in their real lives (Guest, Namey and Mitchell, 2013).

Interpretivism paradigm believes in the underlying people’s experiences, perceptions and happenings in their daily lives. It applies already known knowledge and theories to explain the research procedures (Ritchie *et al.*, 2014). It is based on the reality observed through subjective experience which individuals experience in their lives (Goldkuhl, 2012). The findings are interpreted and correlated to experiences and perceptions of people in the social contexts. Interpretivism approach is assumed useful as it applies some scientific procedures in quantitative and qualitative research though it is an integral approach of qualitative approach.

Pragmatism involves mixed methods approach in research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Hall, 2012). Mixed method approach informs plural approaches of both quantitative and qualitative, techniques and procedures of research that are situational and circumstantial to the needs and purpose of the study (Porcino and Verhoef, 2010; Wisdom and Creswell, 2013). Creswell (2009) and Hall (2012) are of the view that the strengths of pragmatism paradigm are that it is not biased towards any one system of philosophy and reality. Denscombe (2008), Migiro and Magangi (2011) and Ngulube (2012) assert that the use of mixed methods approach complements and strengthens each other to give the possibility of obtaining a comprehensive picture of a social phenomenon and realizing the limitations of single method approach. However, there other scholars who still argue that there is no appropriate paradigm and qualitative and quantitative approach are incompatible to employ in a single study (Hall, 2012). Pragmatism is believed to deal with actions and situations that arise from personal and group attributes (Goldkuhl, 2012). It explains the worldview through observations intervened in people's experiences, opinions and realities that happen in social life.

This study is underpinned by pragmatism paradigm. Pragmatism paradigm is consistent with reading culture and academic achievement variables as it deals with observable phenomena such as attitude, behaviour and perceptions of students in academic settings. Pragmatism paradigm provides a deep understanding of the research problem that deals with attitudes, feelings, behaviours, social and cultural context which are in most cases situational and dynamic. In addition, pragmatism paradigm combines different approaches in data gathering and this helps the researcher to collect diverse data. Qualitative and quantitative approaches enable the researcher to probe the realities in the complex phenomena which involve attitude and behaviours and how they influence students' academic achievement.

This study was conducted in four purposively selected universities in Tanzania of which two are public and another two are private. The universities selected for this study were Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) and Mzumbe University which are public universities and Teofilo Kisanji University and Iringa University which are private universities. To reiterate SUA is selected because it is a public university, the largest and oldest University in Tanzania in terms of establishment, the number of students and academics. Similarly, Mzumbe University is an old

university compared to other public universities in Tanzania. Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) are also among the largest and the oldest private universities in terms of establishment, the number of students, academics and librarians.

The population of study consisted of final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching in the field of education and subject librarians. According to Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) (2016), Tanzania is estimated to have 52 public and private universities and university colleges offering varying academic programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Of the 52 universities, 37 are full-fledged with 12 being public, 25 private and 15 are university colleges consisting of 2 public and 13 private. The population of the study in the four universities consists of 2709 undergraduate students, 88 lecturers and 132 librarians. University Human Resources and Admissions Offices, 2015 were used as the sampling frame.

Purposive sampling was used to select final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching final year education students and subject librarians. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that enables a researcher to deliberately identify informants based on readiness, availability and ease of accessing them. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) demonstrate that purposive or judgmental sampling enables a researcher to use his/her judgment to choose elements that best suit and answer research questions to meet the objectives of the study.

The population was stratified into three (students, lecturers and subject librarians) and a sample size from each stratum was drawn using the table for determining sample size at 5% error margin and 95% confidence level proposed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:250). The sample size was then proportionately calculated based on the population strength of each group in the population of students, lecturers and subject librarians respectively. Both primary and secondary data were collected using questionnaire and interview.

Table 1.2 is a mapping of research questions to data collection tools and data analysis strategies.

Table 1.2 Mapping research questions to the instruments

Research question	Data collection tools	Data analysis strategies
1. What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievements of final year undergraduate education students in Tanzanian universities	Survey questionnaire and interview	SPSS and thematic analysis
2. To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment than for academic pursuit?	Survey questionnaire and interview	SPSS and thematic analysis
3. To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?	Survey questionnaire and interview	SPSS and thematic analysis
4. What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?	Survey questionnaire and interview	SPSS and thematic analysis
5. What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?	Survey questionnaire and interview	SPSS and thematic analysis
6. What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?	Survey questionnaire	SPSS and thematic analysis

1.10.1. Structure of the dissertation

This dissertation is organized into seven chapters as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

Chapter one provides background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions and significance of the study, scope and limitation of the study, definition of key terms, theory, preliminary literature and research methodology.

Chapter Two: Theoretical framework

Chapter two provides theoretical framework and covers: Introduction, Self-determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), suitability of Social Cognitive Theory which provided a framework for this study and summary.

Chapter Three: Literature review

Chapter three covers theoretical and empirical literature and identifies gaps in the literature.

Chapter Four: Research methodology

Chapter four covers research paradigms, research design, research methods, data collection techniques, data analysis and presentation of findings, validity and reliability, ethical consideration and summary.

Chapter Five: Data analysis and presentation of the findings

Chapter five covers introduction, the findings. The findings are presented using graphical tools such as figures, tables, pie and bar charts.

Chapter Six: Discussion of research findings

Chapter six discusses and interprets research using theory and literature.

Chapter Seven: Summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations

Chapter seven presents a summary of findings and conclusions. In addition, the chapter covers contribution of the study, recommendations and suggested further areas for research.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

A theoretical framework is an organized plan to guide the research processes, communicate new knowledge to other people hence contribute to existing practices and policy (Msabila and Nalaila, 2013; Grant and Osanloo, 2014). Furthermore, theoretical framework guides the general perceptions of the study, aims, motives, methods, techniques and theories which in one way or another explain the study phenomenon (Ezzy, 2013; Msabila and Nalaila, 2013). Therefore, theoretical framework bridges the gaps between the known and unknown in research worlds.

When presenting a theoretical framework it is important to explain the meaning of theory and model which are often confused with one another. The term theory refers to a systematically streamlined constructs and assumptions that enable researchers to understand and predict outcomes of social phenomenon. In this regard, The Research Council of Norway (2011), Blackstone (2012) and Brown and Matusovich (2013) opine that theory is a reflective assumption to explain variables and social phenomena to predict the outcomes. Bhattacharjee (2012) and Ezzy (2013) assert that theories are explanations that predict observable and non-observable behaviours that are reduced consistently with the established significant assumptions.

In contrast, a model is defined by Msabila and Nalaila (2013:76) as a “symbolic representation that helps the researcher to express abstract concepts and relationship easily, using minimal words”. Thus, the functions of the model are to outline aspects that establish interrelated phenomena in the study and guide the organization of the research (Shafique and Mahmood, 2010). Again Shafique and Mahmood view a model as an instrument that points out key ideas in the research phenomena that reflect the link among constructs and variables.

Theories and models are useful tools that serve several purposes; they act as a lens to understand the study, identify relevant phenomena, classify phenomena, formulate constructs, summarize phenomena, predict observable variables, contribute to the existing knowledge, guide what to study, analyse meaning of the study results and disseminate the results to broaden the

understanding (Luneburg, 2011b; De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delpont, 2011; Keat and Urry, 2011; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Msabila and Nalaila, 2013). It is important for any studies to be grounded by a theory or a set of theories to establish the relationship between what is already known in that particular discipline and the new knowledge from the study findings (Msabila and Nalaila, 2013).

This chapter presents the theoretical foundation underpinning the investigation of perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania.

The study sought to address the following research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

The theories reviewed in this chapter include Self-determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). The SCT was chosen to underpin this study while the other theories/models reviewed provided a broad framework for understanding reading culture and academic achievement landscape.

2.2 Self-determination theory (SDT)

Self-determination theory (SDT) was developed and revised by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan over years 1975, 1980, 1985 and 1991 respectively. SDT is used to inform studies on students' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the teaching and learning process (Kusurkar, Croiset and Ten Cate, 2011; Perlman, 2013; Riley, 2016). SDT states that students should be fully involved in the teaching and learning process so as to achieve in academic endeavour (Niemiec and Ryan, 2009).

Motivation is concerned with inner drives, reinforcements and feelings to acquire or retain certain desired behaviours (Santrock, 2009; Riley, 2016; Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). Motivation drive is of two types, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation occurs when a person takes action because of his or her inner personal drives whereas extrinsic motivation is influenced by external forces to perform a behaviour (Walsh, 2011; Reiss, 2012; Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012). Intrinsic motivation satisfaction is therefore concerned with the fact that one has accomplished a personal goal. On the other hand extrinsic motivation is concerned with academic achievements and appreciation from the teacher in the context of learning (Walsh, 2011; Alexander and Winne, 2012; Gairns, Whipp and Jackson, 2015). Perlman (2013) and Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele (2016) stressed that schooling is all about students' engagement in academic set objectives and instructions, without motivation nothing will be attained.

Motivation is influenced by social and environmental patterns for individuals to perform behaviours (Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). SDT as a personality and behavioural theory predicts the impact of social and environments in developing attitudes, values and motivations of individuals in a group of people. In an education context, SDT articulates the effect of social, environments and self-regulation for growth, integrity and achievements (Karabenick and Urdan, 2010). Ryan (2009) observes that social psychology is mostly influenced by social and environments on people's attitudes, values, motivation and behaviours as predictors of learning and achievements. Jang (2008) demonstrates that SDT provides a framework to understand human motivation and personality. The study by Yazdani and Godbole (2014) establishes that students' academic achievement is resulted from motivation and reading behaviour. SDT views

the process of learning as adopting attitudes, values, behaviours and motivations that are in most cases influenced by environments in which individuals grew up (Deci and Ryan, 2008; Alexander and Winne, 2012).

Müller, Palekčić, Beck, Wanninger (2007) and Zimmerman (2012) further point out that SDT as a social learning theory establishes that learning is a process of acquiring knowledge, experiences, skills and information for permanent change in attitudes and behaviours. These changes of attitudes and behaviours are motivated by individual efforts, environmental set ups and personality built intrinsically and extrinsically to individuals. SDT believes that human beings are naturally self-motivated and determined to achieve a certain goal and the developments of attitudes, behaviours and values are integral in the learning process (Deci and Ryan, 2008 and Walsh, 2011). In this regard, SDT has demonstrated a significant support for the consideration of environments and psychological experiences as students in the schooling process are motivated to learn by environments, motivation and emotions (Müller *et al.*, 2007; Perlman, 2013). Furthermore, SDT explains how environments hinder or perpetuate individual achievements in various endeavours and enable students to adopt experiences, knowledge, skills and understanding from learning process (Niemic and Ryan, 2009).

SDT incorporates three factors that make an individual accomplish a certain goal. These include: autonomy, an individual decision to fulfill a desire which is not influenced by internal or external forces, individual competence to perform a task which is a strong belief in the ability that one has to engage and perform well a task and relatedness which is the way individuals draw skills, attitudes, behaviours and values from others in building a belief to individuals' abilities and appreciations from other people (Deci and Ryan, 2008; Ryan, 2009; Walsh, 2011; Alexander and Winne, 2012). Therefore, autonomy, competence and relatedness can be facilitated through building a power of one's choice and outcomes that result from practising a certain attitude, behaviour or value (Lyness, Lurie, Ward, Mooney and Lambert, 2013; Kaur, Hashim and Noman, 2015; Riley, 2016). Of the three factors, autonomy is central and functions to predict learning and academic achievement in academic settings (Guay, Ratelle and Chanal, 2008; Kusrkar, Croiset and Ten Cate, 2011).

SDT postulates that the learning process takes place only if there are individual autonomy and engage students to decide what to learn, how to learn and enables teaching and learning environments (Müller *et al.*, 2007; Kusrkar, Croiset and Ten Cate, 2011;). Lyness *et al.* (2013) and Kaur, Hashim and Noman (2015) observed the need for autonomous for the students to learn to avoid imposed over control of the educators and maintain students centred learning and teaching process. It was suggested that there should be a sensible control from the educators to make sure that students learn in accordance to the approved educational objectives (Lyness *et al.*, 2013). However, SDT posits that educators and parents involvement in teaching and learning are among the factors contributing to autonomous motivation and academic achievement (Deci and Ryan, 2008, Guay, Ratelle and Chanal, 2008; Alexander and Winne, 2012).

SDT is useful in promoting perceived autonomous learning for acquiring permanent changes in attitudes and behaviours. It stresses confidence, motivation, emotions and students focused on learning as important components to achieve in academic work (Niemic and Ryan, 2009; Lyness *et al.*, 2013). However, Jang (2008) claims that SDT does not stipulate anything about individuals' cognitive aspects (knowledge and skills) which are central in the teaching and learning processes. Nabavi (2012) observed that cognitive factors are important for learning to take place. Therefore, SDT is not suited to fully investigate perceptions of final year undergraduate education students with regard to their reading culture.

2.3 Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory (BEST)

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST) was introduced by Urie Bronfenbrenner in 1970. BEST explains how human beings learn diverse attitude and behaviours in societal patterns of life. It explains the power of environment to influence attitude and behaviour of individuals in the society (Bronfenbrenner, 2009; Lewthwaite, 2011; Anders, Cadima, Evangelou and Nata, 2017). The first environments that come across are the first images and the most powerful to all aspects considered influential towards behavioural development of the students (Johnson, 2008; Santrock, 2009).

Bronfenbrenner divided the environmental cycle in developing attitudes and behaviours into five folds: microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem (Bronfenbrenner,

2009; Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield and Karnik, 2009; Leonard, 2011). Microsystem behavioural development is concerned with social-cultural patterns emanating from individual knowledge and experiences acquired from environments (Geldenhuys and Wevers, 2013). Macrosystem stage explains the social-cultural influences related to the prior experiences and knowledge. The stage emphasizes the power of environments in which individuals are nurtured to influence psychological and behavioural growth. It further, emphasizes the influence of the people that surround an individual and how they contribute towards the environment (Bronfenbrenner, 2009; Venter, 2013).

Mesosystem develops out of the relationship among different environments such as family, school and peer groups involved influencing attitude and behaviour of individuals. The Exosystem on the other hand is the influence from a strange environment in which an individual is partially involved to influence the behaviours. Macrosystem establishes the influences of cultural values, customs, beliefs, experiences, attitudes, gender, living standard and behaviours that play a great role in academic achievement. Macrosystem helps to explain cultural influences related to the prior experiences and knowledge of individuals in the society and it emphasizes the power of socio-cultural and socio-economic aspects (Woodside *et al.*, 2006; Johnson, 2008). Chronosystem in contrast explains the technological development of the communities, modern definition of family and populace in a certain environment.

BEST provides a critical eye in examining the environment in its broader context in developing behaviours. BEST is helpful in giving an overview of basic aspect that influence development of individual students in five subsystems of microsystem, mesosystem, chronosystem, macrosystem and exosystem. Students in academic settings are encircled in the relationship among system levels in which attitude and behaviour are developed in achieving their academic work. Also, BEST considers home, peer group and school environments as basic components in planning educational objectives (Geldenhuys and Wevers, 2013). BEST states that students who perform in academic work are the results of environments in relation to teachers, parents, peer group and five system levels (Johnson, 2008; Leonard, 2011; Lewthwaite, 2011).

Thus, BEST fills the gap of many behavioural theories that cover a limited scope in explaining what exact environment exists in teaching and learning context. BEST perceives environments in its broader perspective to include home, peer group and school as barriers for learning to take place. BEST also establishes a strong relationship and link among aspects that reflect the realities of living in the natural environments. However, the inadequacy of BEST is that it concentrates more on the influence of environment as a powerful and independent variable that influence behaviours and fails to address cognitive domains which also have very strong roles in establishing behaviours (Santrock, 2009).

2.3 Expectancy value theory (EVT)

Expectancy Value Theory (EVT) was initially developed by Tolman in 1932 and later enhanced by Lewin in 1938, Victor Vroom and Atkinson in 1964 and Porter and Lawler in 1968 (Wigfield, Tonks and Klauda, 2009; Seals, 2016). EVT posits that people's successes depend on the results of performing a behaviour and the personal gains from that particular behaviour (Luneburg, 2011a; Karabenick and Urdan, 2010; Brown and Matusovich, 2013). EVT asserts that there are four constructs namely needs, motivations, past experiences and interest of individuals that influence a behaviour. These four constructs of EVT are also presented in three drives for an individual to perform a behaviour. These are effort (expectancy) or self-efficacy, imparting skills and knowledge to students to perform a behaviour, value reward which is an understanding of the importance of the outcomes of the behaviour in the sense that performing a behaviour is rewarding as per the value of that particular reward. Finally, identifying mentors who perform well in that particular behaviour (Karabenick and Urdan, 2010; Luneburg, 2011a).

The theory discusses how value or valence influences the importance of getting along with behaviour and how expectancies and beliefs motivate for successes (Wigfield, Tonks and Klauda, 2009; Adcroft, 2011). Expectancies are individual specific beliefs that impact achievements and one's ability to reach a goal. The expectancies are tied to self-efficacy and self-concept, a belief to one's ability to competence, value, socio-cultural and psychological determinants to reach the goals in academic contexts (Droar, 2006). This theory is made up of constructs such as attainment value (importance for identity or self), intrinsic value (enjoyment or interest to perform a task), utility value (usefulness or relevance of that particular

achievement) and costs in terms of time, efforts and psychological impacts. Also, EVT suggests that achievement motivation from the constructs determines prediction of outcomes.

The importance of individual expectancy to succeed relates to how that success is valued by individuals and influence beliefs, attitude, behaviour, perception and individual goals (Wigfield, Tonks and Klauka, 2009). Karabenick and Urdan (2010) point out that self-efficacy becomes effective when an individual is self-motivated and self-regulated towards a certain task. EVT in academic context demonstrates how some students perform well compared to others and beliefs and value of achievement determine the extent of achievement in education (Ramirez, Emmioglu and Schau, 2010; Hood, Creed and Neumann, 2012). The expectancy value of achievement further explains gender differences in acquiring behaviours linking individual academic goals attainment which is not the focus of this study (Hood, Creed and Neumann, 2012).

EVT demonstrates academic attainment and personal intrinsic value as constructs central to understanding reading culture and academic achievement. This theory has three components (individual belief, value to a belief and expectancies from the outcomes) which in the education context provide students to see the relationship between what is learnt and their lives. Students develop positive or negative individual belief, value and attitudes over behaviours and environments that influence the acquisition of knowledge and skills (Ramirez, Emmioglu and Schau, 2010; Wigfield and Cambria, 2010a).

EVT has been applied in education settings to explain behaviours and motivation of students in the teaching and learning process (Wigfield and Cambria, 2010a; Seals, 2016). Brown and Matusovich (2013) and Finelli, Richardson and Daly (2013) believe that EVT explains academic goals through its expectancy for success, value and motivation to perform behaviours. Expectancy and individual belief of the students and its effect in reading and academic achievement (Gao, Lee and Harrison, 2008). Correspondingly, it is affirmed that when a student has developed values, beliefs and expectations to a particular task it increases the level of performing behaviours (Choi, Fiszdon and Medalia, 2010; Ramirez, Emmioglu and Schau, 2010). EVT provides a framework on how individuals value and decide to achieve their expectations. Droar (2006) and Trautwein, Marsh, Nagengast, Lüdtke, Nagy and Jonkmann

(2012) are of the view that EVT establishes the power of motivation, value, beliefs and expectations to achieve the outcomes and instructors have a role to treat students as per their required expectations.

However, EVT does not consider environments and psychological states that may have an effect on individualistic outcomes. Therefore, EVT was not suitable to inform the current study because EVT does not consider environment as a powerful component to influence individual attitude and behaviours. EVT generalizes that an individual who is promised a reward will certainly perform a behaviour and it fails to demonstrate how individuals establish goals to achieve in academic work (Droar, 2006).

2.4 Theory of reasoned action (TRA)

Theory of reasoned action (TRA) was developed by social psychologists Icek Ajzen and Martin Fishbein in 1975 and revised in 1980 to understand and predict human behaviours (Sharma, 2016). TRA posits that individual success is determined by behaviour, attitude, behavioural beliefs, behavioural intention which is a drive to perform a behaviour, outcome evaluations to determine the attitude, normative beliefs, subjective norms and motivation (Otieno, Liyala, Odongo and Abeka, 2016; Sharma, 2016). TRA addresses the psychological determinants of people's attitudes and behaviours in which intention is the most powerful variable to influence decisions of individuals (Hsiung, 2014; Montano and Kasprzyk, 2015). Thus, volitional human behaviour to perform a desired achievement level is taken over by intention to act upon and predict outcomes through subject norms, behaviour, attitude and behavioural control (Knabe, 2012). However, in reciprocal, attitude, behaviour, value and subject norms determine the intention for individuals to perform a behaviour (Otieno *et al.*, 2016). In other words, the expected results prior to performing a behaviour drives one to either perform or not to perform that particular behaviour and the determinants are beliefs, attitudes and intention. The more an individual expects positive consequences the more he/she will have positive attitude and belief towards that particular behaviour. Similarly, the more an individual expects negative results the more negative attitude and belief is developed against it.

According to Hsuing (2014) and Otieno *et al.* (2016) the core assumption of TRA is that human beings usually behave in a sensible manner taking into account the information around them and implicitly or explicitly consider the consequences before performing behaviours. That academic achievement as a positive attitude and belief may lead to positive reading culture for students. TRA predicts the behaviour change by observing intention, attitudes and beliefs as drives. This theory considers individual intention as an antecedent variable without taking into consideration the environments that surround individuals. Burney (2008) stressed that environment is very important as the key variable in teaching and learning process. Thus, for the purpose of this study, the environments include teaching and learning environments (classrooms and libraries). Further, Paimin, Hadgraft, Prpic and Alias (2016) confirmed that TRA was not suitable to understand success factors of engineering students in Asia because of environment variations. Also, the TRA assumes individualistic approach to determining personal behaviours whereby an individual behaviour can also be influenced by group behaviours. TRA assumes that all behaviours are intentional while there are other behaviours which are unintentional.

2.5 Theory of planned behaviour (TPB)

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) was developed by Icek Ajzen in 1988 as an extension of Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) to study attitudes and behaviours of individuals. TPB extended TRA drawing from other theories such as Control Theory (CT) and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) in which three constructs were added. These include behavioural control (a feel to repeat a behaviour), internal and external control beliefs and perceived power of perceptions over performing behaviours (Knabe, 2012; Montano and Kasprzyk, 2015; Sharma, 2016). TPB posits that individuals choose to perform behaviour through cognition, attitude, social importance and intention for the behaviour to be part of individuals (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Knabe, 2012). TPB believes in the influence of beliefs in developing a behaviour to perform a specific task (Lee, Cerreto and Lee, 2010). It also attempts to understand behaviours when people cannot exercise full control over the internal and external factors that make it possible to engage in a given behaviour.

According to TPB there are specific beliefs that influence individuals to adopt behaviour from others and attitude change involves behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs

(Pooreh and Nodeh, 2015). It emphasizes that behavioural beliefs are built within individual perceptions towards positive or negative outcomes to adapt a behavioural pattern. On the other hand, attitude results from behavioural beliefs in practising a behaviour. Lee, Cerreto and Lee (2010) concur that individuals perceive a behaviour and develops a belief upon his or her self-efficacy to perform and value it because other people have succeeded through practising that specific behaviour. The theory of planned behaviour is basically coined in attitudes, behaviour, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control, intention and practice of the behaviour (Lee, Cerreto and Lee, 2010; Morris, Marzano, Dandy and O'Brien, 2012). TPB's components are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

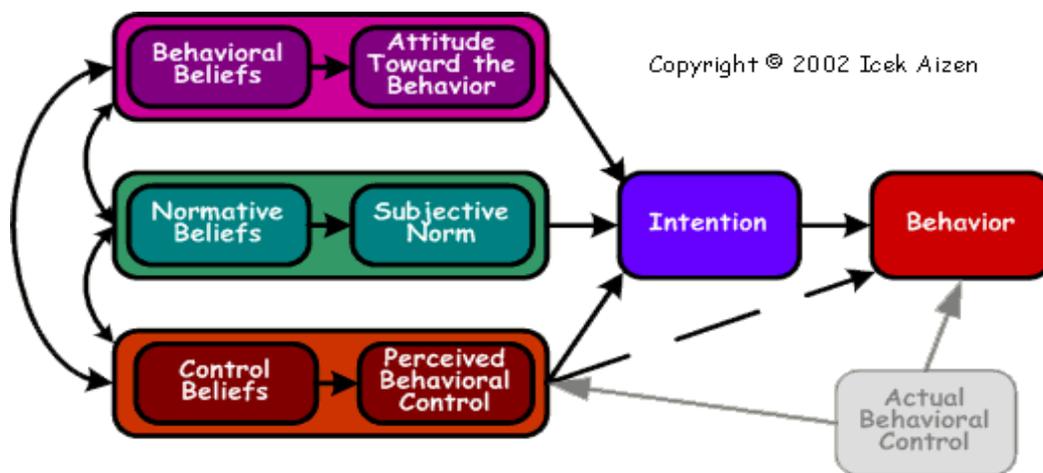


Figure 2.1: Theory of planned behaviour (Source: Ajzen, 2002)

Normative beliefs come from applicability of behaviours observed from other people that might prompt individuals to re-perform that particular behaviour. Subjective norms are an aspect explained in normative beliefs when individuals see the significance to perform a behaviour adopted from a member of the community (Pooreh and Nodeh, 2015). Hence, the powers of control beliefs influence or hinder individuals to perform a behavioural task (Lee, Cerreto and Lee, 2010). Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele (2016) perceive behavioural control to be determined by motivation (intention) and behavioural control which is a self-assessment of the academic progress and evaluation. Furthermore, behaviour towards achievement is determined by intention and ability of individual students to perform the goals. Therefore, the intention of an individual,

personal attributes and behavioural control determine the quantity of success (Small, Chauncey and McKenna, 2010). The studies by Knabe (2012) and Pooreh and Nodeh (2015) found that TPB's subject norms, attitude, and behavioural control in the learning process increase students' intention for success.

Through its attributes towards behaviour change (subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and intentions), TPB predicts individuals intentional behaviour. Hsiung (2014) confirms that intention to act upon a behaviour is directly proportional to the attitude to acquire that particular behavioural target. Hence, intentions are surpassed by attitude and behaviour as drives upon actual practical norms in academic environments. TPB fails to show the relationship among its constructs because teaching and learning environments at universities involve psychological aspects that include individual past behaviour and experiences. However, it is not necessary that the components will influence individuals to perform a behaviour (Lee, Cerreto and Lee, 2010). TPB as an extension of TRA bears the same weaknesses of TRA as the theory does not establish environments which are believed necessary in influencing teaching and learning process at universities (Burney, 2008).

2.6 Social cognitive theory (SCT)

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) was developed by Edwin Holt and Harold Chapman Brown in 1931 and later expanded by a Canadian psychologist Albert Bandura in 1961, 1963 and 1986. SCT was initially known as Social Learning Theory (SLT) until mid-1980s when Albert Bandura incorporated cognitive domains to be SCT to place a focus on cognitive interventions (Nabavi, 2012). SCT expounds the dynamic nature of interaction between personal elements and predictions of attitudes and behaviours (Chiu, Hsu and Wang, 2006). SCT is an observational adaption of individuals in the learning environments to shape attitudes and behaviours (Fryling, Johnston and Hayes, 2011; Cook and Artino, 2016). In SCT context, observation involves environments, individual interactions and observing others. Nabavi (2012) and Harinie, Sudiro, Rahayu and Fatchan (2017) assert that individuals always learn through observing, imitating and modelling.

According to Henry (2011) self-efficacy and self-regulation are not only concerned with students but also educators involved in the process of teaching and learning. Self-efficacy and self-regulation make students develop attitudes and behaviours intended by educators in the specific learning environments. Self-efficacy, self-regulation and outcome expectations are the central themes in SCT whereby outcome expectations are the forethought in planning learning objectives (Chiu, Hsu and Wang, 2006). However, self-efficacy is the most important that guarantees academic achievement (Nodoushan, 2012; Cook and Artino, 2016). According to Bandura self-efficacy is the belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the causes of action required in achieving goals, tasks and challenges. Human behaviour results from environments, cognitive aspects and attitude (Burney, 2008; Schwarzer, 2014). Boakye (2015) posits that self-efficacy is dedicated significantly to individuals when they demonstrate their abilities to do any particular task in this case reading attitude to achieve in academics. Learning depends on self-efficacy where students develop confidence to establish reading culture attitude. Therefore, students with high self-efficacy are able to devote efforts and time to accomplish learning goals.

Self-efficacy is a mechanism which stimulates individuals' inner feelings to perform a task which is of value to them in this case reading culture (Burney, 2008). It facilitates individual thoughts, views and the choice either to perform or not to perform a behaviour (Karabenick and Urdan, 2010). Hence, self-efficacy helps individuals and institutions perform a set of goals and assess the extent of what has been achieved (Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). Self-efficacy involves four aspects in explaining individual confidence and ability to accomplish a goal. These aspects include vicarious experience, mastery experience, social or verbal persuasion and emotional arousal (Karabenick and Urdan, 2010; Shooter, 2013; Chen, Vansteenkiste, Beyers, Boone, Deci, Van der Kaap-Deeder and Ryan, 2015). Vicarious experience is concerned with adoption of related success from other colleagues. It is believed that if an individual learns through observing other performers this will raise his/her self-confidence to perform new experiences. Mastery experience is the perceived experiences which individuals have acquired from their environments and if they succeed this evokes the desire to perform better. Emotional arousal as an aspect of self-efficacy is concerned with psychological impediments to fulfill a certain goal as any impediments should be constant to maintain the balance to acquire attitudes

and behaviours and social persuasion (Henry, 2011; Boakye, 2015). There are three agencies that cause behavioural change namely; direct personal agency (individual agency), proxy agency (relying on others to act to secure desired outcomes) and collective agency through socially coordinative and independent efforts. These three agencies make things happen, though environment is a stimulus that controls human behaviours (Burney, 2008). In addition, the environment is a key factor to developing attitude and behaviour which are the outcome of learning as people learn from others through adopting values and experiences that are valued by the society.

Self-regulation idea in education was first introduced by Gardener in 1963 (Nodoushan, 2012). Self-regulation in learning is the most exceptional attribute of human beings that distinguishes them from other animals in acquiring attitudes and behaviour (Mahmoodi, Kalantari and Ghaslani, 2014). Self-regulated learning is a practice of individual self-control over cognition, motivation, behaviours and environments to enable learning process to occur (Cleary, Callan and Zimmerman, 2012; Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014). Therefore, self-regulated learning is the systematic planning, goal setting, self-monitoring, actual learning practices, processes, assessment and evaluating necessary changes in attaining academic achievement (Nodoushan, 2012; Ghaslani, 2014). Self-regulation involves the drives, interests, beliefs and values organized for the individuals to achieve a set of plans from different variables such as knowledge, personal efforts and past experiences (Karabenick and Urdan, 2010; Mahmoud, Kalantari and Ghaslani, 2014).

In the learning process self-regulation makes an individual organize, assess and adapt some necessary changes for future academic achievement influenced by values, environments and behaviour (Zimmerman and Schunk, 2011; Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011). Self-regulation is important to achieve in academia as it addresses the relationships among environments, attitudes, behaviours and individual drives (Santrock, 2009). Self-regulation is an open ended learning circle which gives feedback of achievement that makes individuals increase more efforts to perform better (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011; Zimmerman, 2012; Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). Self-regulation cyclic mode is revealed in Self-regulated Learning Model (SRLM) developed by Zimmerman to explain SCT (Panadero and

Alonso-Tapia, 2014). SRLM establishes the part played by forethought phase which is a belief that predicts academic achievement before actual learning begins. Performance phase measures what extent learning goals are fulfilled and self-reflection phase evaluates set goals predicted in the forethought phase (Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012; Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014; Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016).

Zimmerman developed a self-regulated learning model to simplify the idea of self-regulation as a variable in SCT. Self-regulation model establishes the impact of environments, personal drives, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in developing behaviours and attitudes to the students which are significant in academic achievement. Santrock (2009) and De la Fuente, Zapata, Martinez-Vicente, Sander and Cardelle-Elawar (2015) concede that self-regulation enables students to control their behavioural acquisition patterns to overcome internal and external influences in academic environments. SRLM gives the understanding to engage students in teaching and learning process. It demonstrates that in order to fulfill teaching and learning process there should be planning, practising and evaluating whether the academic goals are achieved or not (Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012; Zumbunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011). Other researches have shown that the importance of self-regulation process vary depending on the specific contexts in which students learn (Cleary, Callan and Zimmerman, 2012). Likewise, in this context educators and students are to plan on reading culture, practice and evaluate it through academic achievement.

The Zimmerman's self-regulation learning model is presented in Figure 2.2.

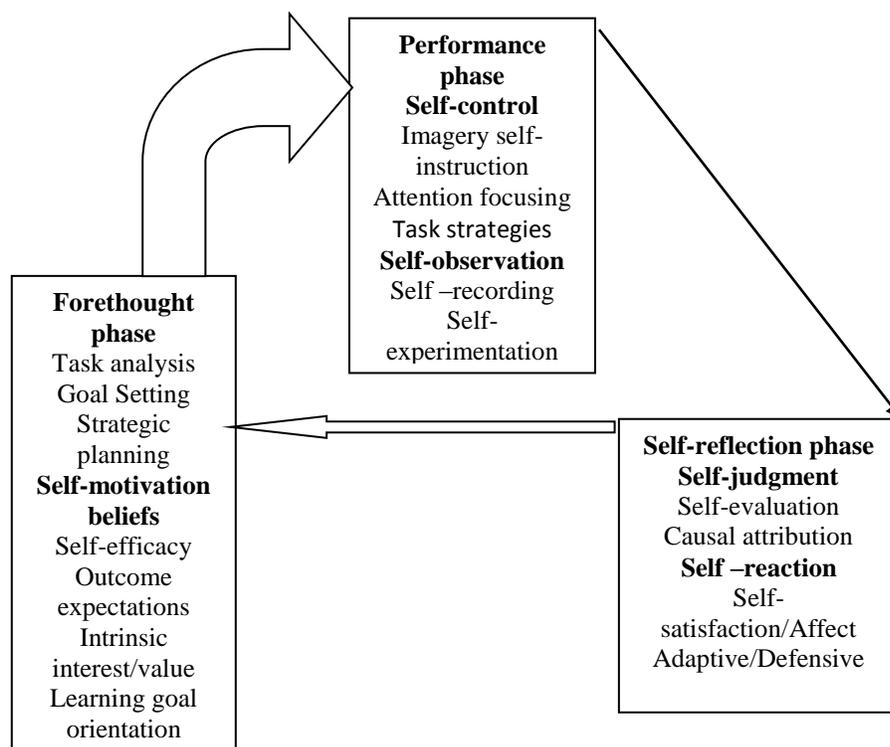


Figure 2.2: Self-regulation learning model (Source: Zimmerman’s self-regulation model, 2002)

SRLM components demonstrate their influence in the culture of reading through motivation (Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014). Therefore, self-regulation learning widens the scope to address motivational aspects, attitudes and behaviours in academic achievement such as individual attributes, planning academic outcome expectations, practising, self-assessment and evaluation (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011; Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012).

Forethought phase is a base of establishing self-regulation where the students regulate and develop a behaviour to perform a task (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011; Nodoushan, 2012; Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012; Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014; Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). In SCT context, self-regulation happens when students are motivated to regulate their knowledge and experiences to attain academic goals. This process involves identification of the goals, instruments for performance assessment, personal efforts to perform a task, evaluation of the goal set and personal motivation to attain specific learning achievement (Panadero and

Alonso-Tapia, 2014; Brusco and Stefaniak, 2016). Also, SCT maintains that a student plans the skills, behaviour or attitude to acquire and assess his or her ability that is embedded in experiences and knowledge and examines the goals achieved as per the expectations (Schunk and Zimmerman, 2012). In the Forethought phase, educators are responsible for stimulating the students' motivation by assigning learning schedules and providing the understanding of the value of that particular task. This is because; if the students do not see any values in a learning objective they won't devote time to accomplish it (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011). Therefore, the development of forethought phase in the teaching and learning process depends on personal efforts of the students and the educators.

Self-regulation learning - Performance phase on the other hand refers to an actual doing of the practice to fulfill the academic goals (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011; Nodoushan, 2012; Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). It shares self-control and self-observation variables which also appear in forethought phase. Self-control is a coherence of variables and plans linked and monitored by time, motivation, interest, guideline and the understanding of the teaching and learning environment to achieve academic goals. Similarly, Panadero and Alonso-Tapia (2014) and Mahmoodi, Kalantari and Ghaslani (2014) add that self-control is the assessment of whether the set goals are achieved or not and individuals are motivated to observe and evaluate themselves as per the criteria. Also, individual efforts are assessed through the time spent on developing a certain behaviour and in this study context is reading culture. Self-reflection phase is an evaluation stage which analyses levels of performance of the students against the criteria set previously (Nodoushan, 2012; Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014).

The three phases that make teaching and learning happen. SRLM adds that other aspects including personal, behavioural and environmental influence individual behaviours. Collectively, the aspects work hand in hand to explain self-regulated learning process and research shows that self-regulated students are more participatory in the process of academic achievement (Zumbrunn, Tadlock and Roberts, 2011). Therefore, there is a need for educators to instil self-regulatory strategies in the students to flexibly change according to circumstances at a particular specified time (Mahmoodi, Kalantari and Ghaslani, 2014).

Mahmoodi, Kalantari and Ghaslani (2014) view self-regulation among the complimentary attribute possessed by human beings and works to put together the relationship among educators, students and environments to make learning process happen at schools, colleges and universities. The scenario gives educators and students an opportunity to establish permanent changes of attitudes and behaviours in the process of teaching and learning. Studies show that students who perform poorly do not have self-regulated attitudes and behaviours, they depend only on examinations, assignments, tests and research projects as drives to read independently (Santrock, 2009; Karabenick and Urdan, 2010).

SCT assumes that knowledge and skills acquisition at universities can positively or negatively be effected by students' intentional attitudes, motivation and environments that surround learning process. Banou, Kostagiolas and Olenoglou (2008) observe that reading culture as a behavioural pattern at universities is based on attitudes and behaviours of students. The way individuals perceive a belief, value and the environments over a learning process, influences their attitudes and behaviours (Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). Thus, teaching and learning environments involve cognitive self-ability, confidence and individual efforts to establish attitudes and behaviours (Burney, 2008). Hence, educators are the ones to enliven the attitude and behaviour favorable to academic achievement. Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman (2010) are of the view that teaching and learning process should incorporate reading culture context as an important aspect. SCT posits that reading culture occurs when the enabling environments for learning to take place exists and when teaching and learning environments encourage the students to collaborate.

Therefore, reading culture is pertinent to teaching and learning process and academic achievement. Khreisat and Kaur (2014) point out that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are important factors in the development of reading culture at universities. Hence, academic achievement is influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the choice to perform a certain task is influenced by cognitive and self- regulation to the environment in which teaching and learning process take place (Marsden, Ma, Deci, Ryan and Chiu, 2015). Santrock (2009) emphasizes once more, that students who acquired strong self-regulation perform well in academia. Therefore, there is a strong impact of self-regulation components on academic achievement.

2.8 Suitability of SCT in underpinning this study

SCT was selected to underpin this study because of its constructs that are directly encapsulated in the research questions such as environment, attitude, behaviour, academic achievement, self-efficacy, self-regulation and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These constructs are important in acquiring permanent attitudes and behaviours in teaching and learning process. The theory also encompasses all behavioural aspects stipulated in other theories described above. Santrock (2009) concurs that SCT has instrumental contribution that include behavioural and cognitive patterns, observational and self-regulated approach in teaching and learning process. Also, SCT has a regulatory process that articulate cognitive process, belief, application of individual past experiences and the environments. Thus, SCT is the most influential theory of learning and development of humankind (Nabavi, 2012). Furthermore, SCT is widely employed in the teaching and learning environments as it addresses factors that affect cognitive domains, attitudes and behaviours of individuals. Burney (2008), Fry, Ketteridge and Marshall (2008) and Hood, Creed and Neumann (2012) reported that cognitive domains, attitude and behaviour are very important constructs towards academic achievement for lifelong learning and in curricular developments.

SCT has been criticized for concentrating more on factors related to environments to determine teaching and learning process and that it lacks individual internal and external motivation (Smith, 2006). SCT is claimed to consider more behaviour than cognitive domains which are assumed vital in teaching and learning process (Santrock, 2009). However, one of the strengths of SCT is flexibility (Nabavi, 2012). The theory has recently incorporated cognitive domains, expectancies, value, self-regulation and confidence which are critical to influence attitudes and behaviours in the teaching and learning process (Smith, 2006).

SCT is useful in understanding human attitudes and behaviours as it emphasizes the adoption process of changes that enable individuals to acquire pre-requisite skills and confidence to perform certain behaviours. Furthermore, SCT is useful in understanding human behaviours, behavioural patterns, behavioural change, observational learning, cognitive, expectancies (outcomes of the behaviour which are central themes of learning for permanent change), goal-directed, reinforcements, self-efficacy, academic achievement, environments and attitudes. SCT

is chosen for this study as it has been used widely to explain reading culture and academic achievement through its key variables of environment and cognitive domains. Santrock (2009) concurs that SCT is suitable in explaining development of behaviours, cognitive domains and environments in the process of acquiring skills and knowledge. Henry (2011) claims that among the strengths of SCT is that it develops individuals attitudes and behaviours through experiences, observing the achievements of other people, the power of environments to influence individuals, self-regulation, the specific self-efficacy of both educators and students in the process of teaching and learning.

2.5 Summary

This chapter presented the meanings of basic concepts that include theoretical framework, theory and model. This was followed by roles of theories in research. The chapter also presented theories that are used to underpin research in reading culture and academic achievement. In particular the following theories were discussed: Self-determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Social Cognitive Theory (SCT). The Social Cognitive Theory was selected and justified to underpin this study because of its wide use and acceptability in studying reading culture and academic achievement.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Literature review aims at establishing the originality, need for and credibility of the study (Denney and Tewksbury, 2013; Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi, 2013; Ramdhani, Ramdhani and Amin, 2014; Mertler, 2016). Ellis and Levy (2009), Bhattacharjee (2012) and Grant and Osanloo (2014) are of the view that literature review focuses on appropriate paradigms, theories, methodologies, designs and methods. Literature review helps the researcher to understand the body of knowledge as stated in the existing literature and identifying gaps to be filled by the proposed study.

This study sought to address the following research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies have been adopted by universities to promote a reading culture among students?

The literature reviewed in this chapter covers both empirical and conceptual literature from scholarly journals, books, textbooks, peer-reviewed books, essays, newspapers, conference

proceedings, encyclopedias, dictionaries, theses, dissertations magazines, databases and websites covering the scopes of international, Africa and Tanzania in particular. The literature reviewed covers the following themes: the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement, students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy, students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects, the trend of reading attitude among the students in academic environments, factors influencing students' reading culture in academic environments and strategies towards promoting reading culture in academic institutions.

3.2 The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement

There are a number of factors which influence academic achievement at schools, colleges and universities. These factors include: environment, curricular, teaching and learning process and personal attributes including individual student academic ability and personal relation between educators and students, beliefs, personality patterns, self-efficacy and self-concept (Illahi and Khandai, 2015; Montgomery and Kehoe, 2016; Verma, 2016). According to the study by Ali, Haider, Munir, Khan and Ahmed (2013), on; 'Factors contributing to the university students' academic achievement at Islamia University in Pakistan', Sumra and Katabaro (2014), on; 'Declining quality of education: Suggestions for arresting and reversing the trend in Tanzania' and Oredein (2016), on; 'Effects of school variables on student academic performance in Nigeria' found that age, gender, language, teaching and learning environments, lack of motivation, socio-economic status, parents or guardians and time spent on reading influence students' academic achievement. The study by Al Shawwa *et al.* (2015), on; 'Factors influencing academic performance of the university students in King Abdul-Aziz University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia' attributed social media as the factor influencing academic achievement of the students. Also, Sibanda, Iwu and Benedict (2015), on a study of; 'Factors influencing academic achievement of university students in South Africa' found other factors influencing academic achievement of university students such as lack of self-motivation, laziness to attend lecture sessions and the level of commitment and confidence of the students.

Studies show that of all factors influencing academic achievement, reading culture is a central factor in all academic walks (Cambria and Guthrie, 2010; Issa *et al.*, 2012; Piaw, 2012; Bastug,

2014; Mashayeka *et al.*, 2014; Saaid and Wahab, 2014; Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014; Siahhi and Maiyo, 2015). Reading culture influences life endeavours of individuals and development of the countries (Kırmızı, Akkaya, Bıçak and İşçi, 2014; Akarsu and Harputlu, 2014; Saaid and Wahab, 2014; Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015). In education, reading culture is a focus and an essential instrument in academic achievement as well as for lifelong learning (Gudaganavar and Halayannavar, 2014; Kırmızı *et al.*, 2014; Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014; Erdem, 2015; Medar and Kenchakkanavar, 2015). The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement has been demonstrated in the vast literature that exists on this subject. Reading culture is an enabler for academic achievement (Issa *et al.*, 2012; Pitan, 2013; Kpolovie, Joe and Okoto, 2014; Ntereke and Ramoroka, 2017).

In information science discipline, reading culture is viewed as an attitude and behaviour through which individual's academic achievement is realised (Bastug, 2014; Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere, 2015). Attitudes and behaviours play an important role in students' academic achievement (Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014). Lukhele (2013), Nxumalo (2016) and Verma (2016) found that individual students who developed attitudes and behaviours on reading culture are likely to perform better in their academic endeavours than students who do not. The studies conducted by Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo (2014), on 'Study habits, use of school libraries and students' academic performance in Nigeria' and Nxumalo (2016), on; 'Relationship between reading ability, vocabulary, reading attitudes and academic performance in Swaziland' confirmed that students with poor reading culture also had poor academic achievement. Studies by Karim (2006), Aina *et al.* (2011), Gudaganavar and Halayannavar (2014), Mashayeka *et al.* (2014), Nwokocho (2014), Illahi and Khandai (2015), Siahhi and Maiyo (2015), Onjoro (2016) and Verma (2016) agree that reading has a significant impact on academic achievement at school, colleges and universities.

Social Cognitive Theory regards reading culture as an enabler for individuals to acquire desired academic outcomes (Doiron and Asselin, 2010). Accordingly, reading culture is acquired only if individual student develops attitude and behaviour to practice it for academic pursuits (Onjoro, 2016). Reading culture provides students with a chance to monitor, assess and evaluate learning process for improvement (Soliman and Neel, 2009). Mashayeka *et al.* (2014), Siahhi and Maiyo

(2015) and Verma (2016) noted that academic institutions focus on provision of academic excellence and their reputations are counted in terms of academic outcomes. To enhance academic achievement as a major focus of academic institutions, universities should engage fully in imparting reading attitude and behaviour to students. However, the change of attitude and behaviour is a gradual process which requires time and enabling environments (Allen, 2013; Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015). Universities must therefore create environments in which students can be motivated to develop reading attitude and behaviour.

Onjoro (2016) showed that reading culture influences students' academic achievement either positively or negatively. To Onjoro reading culture is a vital determinant of academic achievement. In this regard, students who have already developed reading culture attitude and behaviour are likely to do well in their academic work (Pitan, 2013; Verma, 2016). Karadeniz and Can (2014) observed that a student who does not read will not acquire knowledge, skills, information and experiences. Academic achievement remains the core value central to the goals of any schools, colleges and universities (Gudaganavar and Halayannavar, 2014; Mashayeka et al., 2014; Illahi and Khandai, 2015; Siah and Maiyo, 2015).

3.3 Students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a central concept in SCT which explains a belief of one's abilities to perform certain behaviour (William and Aldred, 2011; Artino, 2012). Self-efficacy is an enabler for individual students to evaluate their capabilities to perform desired behaviours. Behaviour is influenced by individual past experience, attitude and observation from other people (Shikalepoh, 2016). Authors such as Naseri and Zaferanieh (2012), (Piercey, 2013), Kargar and Zamanian (2014) and Boakye (2015) are of the view that self-efficacy as a belief is developed through four sources. These sources include:

- (i) Mastery experiences which entail the learning through personal experiences attained from previous related tasks and competences. Mastery experiences help to encourage the students to perform in academic achievement;
- (ii) Vicarious experiences (personal evaluation) is an individual observation on other people's success in similar activities in learning process. Vicarious experience is a positive will which reinforces individuals to perform a task;

- (iii) Social persuasion is concerned with the outlooks of other people on individual capability;
- (iv) Emotional arousal source is the physical, environment or emotions which evoke in the course of doing a behaviour. Over emotional state might hinder individuals to perform a task well.

Like self-efficacy, reading self-efficacy is a belief of the students to develop attitude and behaviour towards reading (Boakye, 2015). Reading self-efficacy in Social Cognitive Theory predicts academic achievement in relation to self-abilities of students. SCT explains self-efficacy in relation to how beliefs, behaviours and enabling environments influence each other in academic achievement (Artino, 2012; Ojonugwa, Hamzah, Bakar and Rashid, 2015). Reading self-efficacy is associated with learning that enables students to have power to choose the behaviour to perform. Therefore, students have personal agency to decide to perform behaviours.

SCT outlines four personal agents for the learning to take place. These agents include:

- (i) Intentionality which explains that students learn with expectations in the future from the attitude, behaviour, skills, experience and knowledge acquired in the course of learning;
- (ii) Forethought which is an extension of intentionality to prepare a plan of action to achieve prospected outcome;
- (iii) Actual planning for the future outcomes of the behaviours;
- (iv) Self-reactiveness which is self-regulation and self-reinforcement which enables students to perform behaviours.

Studies such as Erlich and Russ-Eft (2011), Watabe (2011), Li (2012), Boakye, (2015), Ojonugwa, Hamzah, Bakar and Rashid (2015) and Cherry and Freud, 2017) have stated that reading self-efficacy has a direct impact on reading culture and academic achievements. Tiemensma (2009) also noted that observations and perceptions influence reading culture. This means students self-efficacy and reading efficacy motivate them to become confident and enhance their academic achievement (Erlich and Russ-Eft, 2011).

Several studies have been undertaken in different contexts on reading culture and academic achievements. For example; Piercey (2013), on; 'Reading self-efficacy in early adolescence at University of Kentucky in UK', Yoğurtçu (2013), on; 'The impact of self-efficacy perception on reading comprehension on academic achievement in Turkey' and Boakye (2015), carried out a study on; 'The relationship between self-efficacy and reading proficiency in a South African tertiary institution'. Similarly, Hedges and Gable (2016), a study on; 'The relationship of reading motivation and self-efficacy to reading achievement in USA' and Whitten, Labby, and Sullivan (2016), conducted a study on; "The impact of pleasure reading on academic success in USA' and found that a relationship existed among reading self-efficacy, attitude and academic achievement of the students. This kind of relationship helps the students to believe in their capabilities and therefore develop their cognitive domains (Yoğurtçu, 2013). Thus, reading self-efficacy is an important dimension in reading culture as it helps students to build confidence to perform behaviours to the level of their ability. Nevertheless, any interventions to develop reading culture of students should integrate understanding of students' attitude and self-efficacy about reading (Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman, 2010). The study by Ojonugwa, Hamzah, Bakar and Rashid (2015), on 'Evaluating self-efficacy of polytechnic engineering students in Nigeria' found that for the students to acquire self-efficacy there should be interventions to adopt a student centred teaching and learning approach.

Most studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic achievement and self-efficacy and attitude are confined to developed countries such as USA, China and Turkey. Furthermore, Li (2012) noted that many researchers studied on attitude, self-efficacy and academic achievement of students did not find any agreement on the relationships. However, it was found that self-efficacy of individual students have great influence in teaching and learning processes (Mazumder and Ahmed, 2014). Therefore, it was expected that the current study can provide insights of the impact of reading attitude and behaviour on students' academic achievement.

3.4 University library and development of reading culture

University library is a storehouse where library users obtain knowledge, skills and experiences (Nagata, Toda and Kytömäki, 2007; Doiron and Asselin, 2010; Hawwau, 2015; Itsekor and

Nwokeoma, 2017). It is inestimable a hub of any academic institutions where students visit to read for academic purposes, leisure or entertainment (Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo, 2014; Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu, 2014; Abubakar and Diyoshak, 2015; Kayuni, 2017; Omosebi and Okhakhu, 2017; Onanuga, Ilori, Pelemo and Ogunwande, 2017). Furthermore, university library plays a critical role to inculcating reading culture practices as it provides information services, collection of print and non-print materials for reading, studying and consultations. The study by Otike (2011), on; 'Reading culture, cultivation and its promotion in Kenya' revealed some efforts made by libraries to create awareness on the library products and services available in libraries to inculcate reading culture to the students. In particular, it serves to meet the general mission of academic institutions of teaching, learning and research works (Omehia, Obi and Itohowo, 2008). Therefore, university library is very crucial for information, communication transformation and promotion of reading culture to the library users (Itsekor and Nwokeoma, 2017).

3.5 Students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than for examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

The role of library does not end with the availability and accessibility of reading resources only but the extent to use the resources. According to Chettri and Rout (2013) reading culture, a key variable for this study is measured by the extent of use of the library reading for leisure, information or entertainment without reinforcement of examinations. Reading for leisure, information or entertainment provides readers with knowledge about current issues, research and academic information (Njeze, 2013). Leisure reading also enhances reading skills for the students (Palani, 2012; Njeze, 2013). Ashrafi-rizi, Sajad, Rahmani, Bahrami and Papi (2014) in a study on 'The affective factors on library anxiety of students in Iran' which used Bostick's Library Anxiety model to measure usage of the library found that students had 2.68 and 2.66 anxiety score which was not satisfactory. These results suggest that students had no attitudes and necessary skills in searching library resources. According to Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014) and Rimensberger (2014) underutilization of libraries by most students is due to universities and education systems as a whole having turned to be results oriented as measured by examinations, tests and assignments and not for independent reading. The studies by Akanda, Hoq and Hasan (2013), Bhatti (2013) and Ngugi and Mberia (2014) found that students visit the

library purposely to read for examinations, assignments, supplementing learning process, research activities and borrowing books. Yusuf and Iwu-James (2010), in the study on; ‘Use of academic library’ revealed that 88 percent of respondents used the library to prepare for examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. The study by Afolabi (2017), on; ‘An evaluative study of the roles of school libraries in learning in Nigeria’ revealed that the majority of the students (197, 82%) used the library for tests and examination preparations. Another study by Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu (2014), on; ‘Attitude as a determining factor to electronic information resources use in university libraries in Nigeria’ found that undergraduate students underutilized electronic resources due to a lack of reading attitude and behaviour.

The underutilization of library resources is also attributed to a number of factors. Mwatela (2013) and Onanuga *et al.* (2017) noted that underutilization of library resources is caused by lack of skills which enable students to be self-directed library users, university environments in which students are preoccupied with lectures, assignments, tests and research projects than visiting the library. Likewise, the factors which make students use the library are associated with the librarians’ attitudes to providing services, types of reading materials and how conducive the library environments are (Ashrafi-rizi *et al.*, 2014; Hawwau, 2015). Furthermore, the application of ICTs in libraries has made students lacking in ICT skills experience problems in accessing resources (Gakibayo, Ikoja-Odongo and Okello-Obura, 2013; Omosebi and Okhakhu, 2017). Abubakar and Diyoshak (2015) acknowledged that university libraries are faced with financial constraints to make up to date and relevant reading materials available to users and this discourages students from using library resources.

Moreover, librarians and lecturers select reading materials in libraries as per their personal interests without considering students’ interests (Applegate *et al.*, 2014). But, this argument is contested as students’ motivations and interests are complex in education settings (Seitz, 2010; Applegate *et al.*, 2014). Social Cognitive Theory underscores the importance of environments in teaching and learning besides the cognitive, behavioural and emotional aspects that enhance learning (Wigfield, Tonks and Klauda, 2009). This argument is sometimes contestable as students’ reading motivations, attitude and behaviours are complex in teaching and learning processes (Seitz, 2010; William and Aldred, 2011; Ntereke and Ramoroka, 2017). It has however

been established that students' involvement in deciding on reading materials enhanced their reading attitude and behaviour (Applegate *et al.*, 2014).

Therefore, university libraries should be equipped with qualified librarians, relevant and updated reading materials to encourage the use of information resources (Bhatti, 2010; Fabunmi and Folorunso, 2010). Sunday and Ajibola (2015) recommended that university libraries should create awareness of the resources available in order to nurture students' reading attitudes and behaviours. This includes provision of free internet services and help desks to assist students develop reading culture (Onanuga *et al.*, 2017). Yusuf and Iwu-James (2010) and Hoeft (2012) suggested that students should be given reading assignments on how to utilize library resources without necessarily invoking reinforcement of examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.

3.6 The trend of reading culture in academic environments

Reading attitude and behaviour refer to acquired experiences that value reading as a means for understanding, knowledge and skills in all life endeavours (Fabunmi and Folorunso, 2010; Lone, 2011; Issa *et al.*, 2012; Lukhele, 2013). Studies such as Igbokwe, Obidike and Ezeji (2012), Issa *et al.* (2012), Bastug (2014), Erdem (2015) and Ntereke and Ramoroka (2017) illustrate that reading is essential for academic achievements. Reading attitude and behaviour facilitate learning (Bharuthram, 2012; Papaja, 2012; Bastug, 2014; Khan, 2016). Also, reading culture and conducive learning environments are necessary to control dropouts (Nonis and Hudson, 2006; Khan, 2016).

Reading attitude and behaviour develop over time to create positive reading culture, beliefs about the outcomes of reading, understanding, experiences and knowledge (Karim, 2006). Kırmızı *et al.* (2014) assert that for the students to acquire reading culture they ought to observe successful readers around them to draw interests in it. This is inline with Morni and Sahari's (2013) and Kırmızı's *et al.* (2014) view that a belief on the importance of reading, higher self-concept, family, home and school environments play a great role in influencing reading attitude. To them it should not be taken for granted that if a student is instructed to read, he or she will do so even if he or she does not realise the importance of practising it (Daniels and Steres, 2011). Therefore,

individual beliefs and the importance of outcomes build a positive attitude towards reading (Kırmızı *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, teachers' beliefs about their students influence academic achievement. This is especially so when students realize that their teachers believe in their abilities, they are thus more inclined to taking a greater interest to perform well (Daniels and Steres, 2011).

Reading culture attitude is a cyclical process and takes time to become a behaviour (William and Aldred, 2011; Allen, 2013; Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015). Developing reading culture attitude and behaviour is a result of individuals practising reading repeatedly (Aina *et al.*, 2011; Illahi and Khandai, 2015; Verma, 2016). Issa *et al.* (2012) claim that it is not necessary to regard reading culture merely as an attitude and behaviour of repetitive practices of reading without gaining information, experiences, skills and knowledge to contribute to the growth of individuals in society. To them, reading culture should be assessed and evaluated through the extent of acquiring educational goals. Some scholars such as Nonis and Hudson (2006) believe that time spent on developing reading attitude and behaviour directly impact on students' academic achievement.

Previously, reading culture was perceived as an attitude and behaviour cultivated in schools, colleges and universities (Egong, 2014). In this regard, the academic institutions were dedicated to provide students with conducive environments to acquire reading culture for permanent change of their attitudes and behaviours (Ogbodo, 2010; Mohamed *et al.*, 2012) and consequently, to prepare citizens for the developments and future of the nations (Khurshid, 2014). Students were expected to have a higher reading culture than others in society as academic institutions were centres to nurture reading culture attitude and behaviour (Lukhele, 2013; Erdem, 2015).

University graduates were predicted to continue reading even outside academic gains, examinations or certificates after attaining their degrees (Adjah, 2014). The level of education is the main determinant of reading culture according to Chaudhry and Low (2009). They found that non-graduates have low reading culture than graduates. Egong (2014) revealed that students who were expected to have reading culture and satisfactory academic achievement but did not have

it, was not because of lack of reading culture. Kamalova and Koletvinova, (2016) asserted that the decline of reading culture is observed even from the educated people who were expected to be adept in positive reading attitude and behaviour (Ilogho, 2011; Adjah, 2014). It would appear that the decline of reading culture is a universal challenge around the world (Lauristin and Vihalemm, 2014; Kamalova and Koletvinova, 2016). Currently, numerous studies, newspaper articles and reports show that reading culture is low especially among women in Netherlands, Japan, Thailand, Malaysia, America, Brazil, Pakistan, Nigeria, Swaziland, South Africa, Kenya and Tanzania (Pitan, 2013; Egong, 2014; Saaid and Wahab, 2014). Adjah (2014), Lukhele (2013) and Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere (2015) all agree that there is a tremendous relapse of reading culture attitude and behaviour among individuals the world over.

The study by Mohamed *et al.* (2012), on; 'Reading behaviours of university students in Kolej-Malaysia' found that reading culture is not part of the values in Malaysia even among higher education students. The studies by Ilogho (2011), Igbokwe, Obidike and Ezeji (2012), Morni and Sahari (2013) and Saaid and Wahab (2014) revealed that university students read because of passing examinations and not for knowledge acquisition and that reading culture at universities is declining. Students want to pass their examinations without reading (Onyoro, 2016). Indications of lack of reading culture among the students in schools, colleges and universities are usually reflected in cheating, plagiarism and corruption to obtain high grades. It has also been reported that the decline of reading culture has increased violence and examination malpractices in higher learning institutions and this is worrying education stakeholders (Aina *et al.*, 2011; Pitan, 2013; Kari, 2015). A study by Pitan (2013) shows that university undergraduate students perform poorly in examinations, research projects, tests and assignments because of lack of reading culture. This is because students consider reading for its own sake a waste of time (Aina *et al.*, 2011; Pitan, 2013; Onyoro, 2016). This is exacerbated by the fact that education systems of today are designed to facilitate passing examinations, tests, assignments and research projects and not for knowledge building (Nonis and Hudson, 2006; Montgomery and Kehoe, 2016). Aquino (2011), Mendezabal (2013), Al Husaini (2013), Adjah (2014) and Saaid and Wahab (2014) acknowledge that university students lack time to read widely and depend on very short reading materials unlike books to prepare for their examinations. Similarly, a study by Ifedili (2009) noted that students read textbooks only and they read when it is examinations time. As a

result, students do not perform well in their examinations, assignments and tests (Guthrie et al., 2006; Ogbodo, 2010).

Lukhele (2013) and Soliman and Neel (2009) posited that students at higher learning institutions lack reading culture as they rely on lecture notes rather than reading intensively to acquire knowledge, experiences and skills. The studies by Oyewumi and Ebijuwa (2009), Piaw (2012), Adjah (2014) acknowledge that the decline of reading culture among students is entrenched in the study make up to such an enormous extent that they do not read even lecture notes. Aquino (2011), Mendezabal (2013) and Morni and Sahari (2013) stressed that there is alarming failures in higher academic institutions. This is due to the fact that students have no attitudes and behaviours to read independently (Mendezabal, 2013). Similarly, Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010) observed that the intellectuality of today's educational outputs from universities has dropped due to lack of reading culture.

Studies by Bharuthram (2012), Bastug (2014) and Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi (2014) confirm that students who read because of tests, assignments or examinations always perform poorly in their academic endeavours. Therefore, without reading culture students and their teachers cannot expect to make any meaningful pursuit in academia (Nwokocha, 2014; Kamalova and Koletvinova, 2016). Nonis and Hudson (2006) affirm that despite the challenge of low reading culture among students the world over, there are few studies to gain better understanding the scope and extent of reading culture among students at universities. Most of the researches on reading culture are of international scope and African contexts are covered minimally and with focus on primary and secondary schools than on college and university environments (Onjoro, 2016).

Studies by Bharuthram (2012), Lukhele (2013), Bastug (2014) and Boakye (2015) confirmed that there are few studies to address the effect of reading culture and academic achievement in different environments and more so in developing countries. This has perhaps influenced the thinking by scholars such as Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010) and Pitan (2013) that developing countries have no reading culture. Therefore, studies are needed in the developing country contexts to establish the extent of reading culture and academic achievement.

The study by Ilogho (2011) commented that in Africa curricular have failed to address lack of reading culture among the students as such curricular do not motivate the students to read independently. Furthermore, the curricular has relegated reading culture as an important factor in academic achievement (Issa *et al.*, 2012). Nsamenang and Tchombe (2011) suggested that curricular for academic programmes in Africa should be reviewed to suit African environments and challenges. This would shape people's knowledge, skills, perceptions and experiences. Scholars such as Nonis and Hudson (2006) and Tiemensma (2009) believe that together with reading attitudes and behaviours, there are other variables that influence academic achievement such as motivation, teaching and learning environments and psychological factors. However, these variables are not isolated but are complementary (Nonis and Hudson, 2006; Tiemensma, 2009). Therefore, necessary programmes are needed to streamline reading culture attitudes and behaviours in education systems taking consideration of all factors influencing academic achievement (Akarsu and Harputlu, 2014; Siahı and Maiyo, 2015). Moreover, parents, educators, institutions, researchers, educationalists, students and the entire community have a larger role to play to develop reading attitude and behaviour among students (Khurshid, 2014; Kırmızı *et al.*, 2014; Nwokocha, 2014; Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014; Siahı and Maiyo, 2015; Onjoro, 2016).

3.7 Factors influencing students' reading culture in academic environments

In general, factors that hinder acquisition of reading culture among students include psychological factors (motivation, personal drives and personal decision) and social and environmental factors (Chaudhry and Low, 2009; Ilogho, 2011; Akindele, 2012). Another factors that influence reading culture are cognitive domains (Chaudhry and Low, 2009), the ability of individual students, attitudes and behaviours that interact with the environments (Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele, 2016). Furthermore, Fakude (2012), Lukhele (2013), Onyango Indoshi and Ayere (2015) viewed laziness towards reading and shortage of interesting library materials as hindrances to reading culture.

Tiemensma (2009) observed that the decline of reading culture is because the practice appear strange and people are sometimes unfamiliar with it or not used to, they do not know the

importance of it and they see it associated only with schooling. Nsamenang and Tchombe (2011) observed that transformational changes to read through books are difficult to adopt and when adopted has not yielded quality of life for the Africans. The study by Karim (2006), on, 'Reading habits and attitude in Malaysia' revealed that there has never been reading culture in Malaysia so it is difficult to create an attitude which was not there previously. Studies by Ifedili (2009), Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014) and Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma (2015) identified factors of poor reading culture and attributed them to the colonial education system and traditions. Africans are used to word of mouth to acquire knowledge, skills and experiences (Tiemensma, 2009; Nsamenang and Tchombe, 2011). In addition, young people are expected to observe the attitudes and behaviours of their elders from whom they acquire knowledge (Chaudhry and Low, 2009). In traditional African culture there were no writings and records for individual young people to refer to when learning. Furthermore, reading culture was not part of daily routines of African traditional life (Strauss, 2009).

The decline of reading culture has also been attributed to poverty which prevails in most developing countries. Chaudhry and Low (2009) are of the view that poor Africans cannot afford to buy books for self-study in their homes. Besides, the existing libraries are not utilized well to develop a reading culture among people and help eradicate poverty that pervades developing countries (Aina *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, the dearth of reading materials in the libraries and teaching methods used in schools, colleges and universities play great roles towards the decline of reading culture (Strauss, 2009; Lukhele, 2013). However, Mohamed *et al.* (2012) observed the university students in Malaysia do not have reading culture values and their reading culture is therefore not influenced by availability or otherwise of libraries.

The advancement of technologies has made access to information easy (Walia and Sinha, 2014; Çetin and Howard, 2016; Mangen and Weel, 2016). The advanced technologies have made it possible to access information in less time hence enabling acquisition of knowledge, skills and experiences but largely for only passing examinations (Ilogho, 2011; Jamil, Tariq and Jamil, 2013; Walia and Sinha, 2014). The study by Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma (2015) found that despite adoption of ICTs in libraries at universities in Uganda, reading culture is still not significantly impacted among students. The technologies seem instead to be propagating the decline of

reading culture among students (Kamalova and Koletvinova, 2016). Reading culture is also negatively impacted because most of the students suffer from technophobia (Lukhele, 2013; Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere, 2015). The study by Kamalova and Koletvinova (2016) and Ilogho (2011) reveal that the decline of reading culture is attributed to advanced media and global communications whereby reading books has been replaced by technologies. Most college and university students today are part of an internet generation as per their ages, they prefer chatting to reading (Loan, 2011; Dominic, 2015). This view is inline with Igbokwe, Obidike and Ezeji (2012), Shehu and Shehu (2014) and Daniel, Esoname, Chima and Udoaku (2017) view that nowadays students have lost the culture of reading as they spend a lot of their time on internet and social media communicating with non-stop short messages day and night. Furthermore, reading culture has declined because many students prefer watching television and video games to self-reading (Adjah, 2014; Onjoro, 2016). Furthermore, today's students are proud of the number of films watched instead of the number of books read (Egong, 2014).

The decline of reading culture among the communities the world over is attributed to the failure of educational institutions (Mohamed *et al.*, 2012). Issa *et al.*, (2012) have observed that lack of reading culture at universities can be attributed to governments that no longer fund education adequately. Lukhele (2013) and Pitan (2013) argued that students in developing countries attend schools with poor reading culture, infrastructures and information materials. As a result students are not equipped to encounter different interventions before entering universities (Bastug, 2014). Likewise, home and school environment are not conducive for inculcating reading culture (Yaji, Dala and Danburam, 2017).

Adoption of foreign languages especially in many developing countries contributes to individual students failing to acquire reading culture. Foreexample; in Tanzania, Kiswahili is the language widely used in pre-primary and primary schools. English language is introduced in post-primary schools and higher learning education as a medium of instruction (Yogi, 2017). Therefore, there is a missing link of language between pre-primary, primary and post-primary levels. This leads to the students to lack a foundation of English proficiency when they reach tertiary and university levels (Gran, 2007). Consequently, the decline of reading culture which in reciprocal affects academic achievement in higher learning institutions.

The study by Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010) recommended that reading attitude and behaviour should be instilled to the students in local languages rather than foreign languages. In contrary, individual students are forced to learn foreign languages such as English language first before instrumenting reading attitude and behaviour in their first languages (Tiemensma, 2009; Issa *et al.*, 2012). Fakude (2012) lauded that university students need to be imparted with specific reading attitude and behaviours that favour academic achievement and lifelong learning.

3.8 Strategies towards promoting reading culture in academic institutions

Development of human beings in all spheres of life is largely dependent on reading culture (Adjah, 2014; Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere, 2015; Siahhi and Maiyo, 2015). Studies by Aina *et al.* (2011) and Montgomery and Kehoe (2016) confirmed that reading culture has definitely declined in many societies of developing countries. This has resulted in higher rates of failures among university students in examinations, tests, assignments and research projects (Fakude, 2012).

The decline of reading culture needs creative strategies to restore lifelong learning in academic institutions (Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014). Daniels and Steres (2011) and Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah (2012) observed that in order for reading culture to be part of the students there should be initiatives to make reading culture a priority. Many studies have been undertaken to understand common initiatives aimed at enhancing attitudes and behavioural dynamics towards reading culture among the students (Doiron and Asselin, 2010; Lauristin and Vihalemm, 2014). Zimmerman (2012), Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere (2015) and Siahhi and Maiyo (2015) have suggested reading culture interventions in policy, curricular and programmes, strengthening library services in schools and at family level, training in reading culture administered to lecturers, parents and students. The reading culture can be enhanced through silent reading and readers' programmes in computerized reading management (Bahrami, Rajaeepour, Rizi, Zahmatkesh and Nematollahi, 2011; Palani, 2012).

Increasingly, a number of approaches are being applied at schools, colleges and universities to reinforce and maintain reading culture to enhance students' academic achievements. The study by Daniels and Steres (2011) reveals that reading culture programme has increased the extent of students' engagement in teaching and learning processes. Studies by Banou, Kostagiolas and

Olenoglou (2008) established a great need to transform attitudes and behaviours of reading culture beyond reading for passing assignments, tests, research projects and examinations towards knowledge, skills and experiences. Similarly, there should be enabling environments, motivation and cognitive abilities to learn and develop reading culture for the success of the students in academic work (Blum, 2007; Khurshid, 2014). Universities as centres for reading culture should work to transform curricular to promote acquisition of necessary skills for lifelong reading (Bharuthram, 2012; Mashayeka *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, educational institutions should teach students sustainable reading culture that would exist even after attaining their degrees (Ilogho, 2011). In addition, reading culture should be embedded in assignments for the students to acquire so that it becomes their behaviour (Ifedili, 2009; Illahi and Khandai, 2015). Moreover, students should not be restricted to only reading books for the curricular rather institutions should make available information materials that are of interest for the students (Ilogho, 2011; Nwokocha, 2014). Students should be granted the autonomy to decide what information materials to read, time and environments they feel comfortable to acquire knowledge, skills and experiences without any interference (Daniels and Steres, 2011).

Though numerous institutions including NGOs are striving to restore reading culture there is no promising results among university students due to lack of proper coordination and involvement of different stakeholders and integration to the national strategy of reading culture (Mahala, 2010). Therefore, strategies on the consolidated national reading programmes are needed to remedy the poor reading culture. In addition, Akindele (2012) suggested that students in schools, colleges and universities should be discouraged from television watching all day and night long without reading. Moreover, provision of lecture notes and handouts to the students should be discouraged for the students to develop attitudes and behaviours to organise their own notes (Adjah, 2014). Furthermore, students should be encouraged to read other books in the libraries rather than their lecture notes as libraries still play a great role in promoting reading culture (Verma, 2016). Additionally, relevant books and professional librarians should be available to reinforce reading culture to the students (Fabunmi and Folorunso, 2010). Information professionals should also partner with education stakeholders such as education policy makers, education ministries, NGO's and media in order to promote reading culture among the students (Adjah, 2014; Verma, 2016).

Other strategies for promoting reading culture would include book fairs, training, orientations, giving the students enough time for self-reading, reading campaigns, book clubs in the schools, colleges, universities and communities as building block to create nations of readers (Al Husaini, 2013; KIRMIZI *et al.*, 2014; Nwokocha, 2014). Morni and Sahari (2013) observed that teaching and learning methods in universities should be transformed to encourage the students develop reading culture. Finally, reading culture programmes should start from pre-school to the university level to build permanent attitudes and behaviours of reading culture among students at all levels (Akindele, 2012; KIRMIZI *et al.*, 2014).

3.9 Key variables of theory underpinning this study

This sub-section outlines key variables from the theories relevant to this study and is discussed in-depth in chapter two on theoretical framework. The key variables include reading culture and academic achievement, attitude, behavioural patterns, motivation, reinforcements, cognitive domains, psychological aspects, social and physical environment, behavioural intention and behavioural change and teaching and learning processes.

3.9.1 Reading culture

Reading culture variable is discussed in different sub-themes that include the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement, the trend of reading culture and the use of information resources for academic achievements. Reading culture is basically developed through individual values, beliefs and expectations on the results (Fakude, 2012). Reading culture is also reinforced by motivation, drives, experiences from other people and academic support (Dent, 2013).

There are challenges of instilling reading culture in the students such as short time allotted to reading, lack of variety of reading materials, internet surfing, television and video watching (Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah, 2012). Libraries are of paramount importance to enhance reading culture as is embedding curricular in different programmes of interest (Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah, 2012; Ogbonna, 2015; Edeole and Adejoke, 2016).

3.9.2 Academic achievement

Academic achievement in academic institutions is the major focus assessed and evaluated through tests, assignment, research projects and examinations (Fakude, 2012; Kpolovie, Joe and Okoto, 2014). Academic achievement plays an important role in any academic institutions as a determinant of education centred goals. The importance of academic achievement in schools, colleges and universities can only be achieved through reading culture. Therefore, Reading culture is an integral element of academic achievement in universities (Bastug, 2014; Mashayeka, *et al.*, 2014; Saaid and Wahab, 2014; Somuah, Dankyi and Dankyi, 2014; Siahhi and Maiyo, 2015). Moreover, reading culture is the most important attitude and behaviour for individuals to acquire knowledge, development and personality (Erdem, 2015; Edeole and Adejoke, 2016).

There are several challenges faced by students in an attempt to achieve academic endeavours. These include environmental and psychological elements. Fakude (2012) asserts that environmental aspects include infrastructure such as library facilities, availability of teachers; psychological aspects such as motivation, self-efficacy, self- control and individual expectations.

3.10 Summary of literature review

This chapter presented literature reviews from various studies on the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. The literature reviewed was informed by research questions and variables from SCT such as attitude, behavioural patterns, self-efficacy, self-control, motivation, reinforcements, cognitive domains, psychological aspects, social and physical environment, behavioural intention and behavioural change and teaching and learning processes. The literature reviewed indicated various approaches used to promote reading attitude and behaviour among academic stakeholders. Furthermore, literature shows numerous studies that have been carried out focusing on the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. The studies reviewed all agree that there is a strong impact of reading culture on academic achievement in schools, colleges and universities. There are various enablers of reading culture revealed by literature such as self-efficacy, self-concept, self-control, environments, self-ability, self-regulation, motivation, personal perceptions, beliefs and expectations over the outcomes.

The literature revealed that the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement is influenced by environmental, cognitive and psychological aspects. The literature emphasized that the central pursuit of academic achievement should be the basic educational objective (Erdem, 2015).

The literature reviewed did not find many empirical studies on the "Perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania" as revealed by Mustapher and Britto (2011), Kitabu (2011), Masabo (2016) and Tungaraza (2017). The current study addressed this gap by looking specifically at the perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. The literature reviewed also revealed large amounts of empirical studies from the UK, USA, China, Greece, Turkey and Russia. Few empirical literature reviews were from developing countries such as Iran, Pakistan, India, Nigeria, Ghana, Rwanda, South Africa, Malawi, Swaziland and Kenya. Nevertheless from both the developed and developing country contexts there are limited empirical studies on perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement. The literature of reading culture and academic achievement seem focused more on the environmental, socio-cultural settings, values and experiences of developed countries (Li, 2012). This study focusing on universities in Tanzania aims to bridge this gap.

Furthermore the literature reviewed was concentrated on investigating reading culture attitude of the students in specific courses such as mathematics and statistics (Li, 2012) from a broad field such as education. The literature further showed that extant literature focuses more on reading culture in pre-primary, primary, secondary schools and colleges than universities.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Research methodology is a consistent plan on how the study is to be carried out including research designs, research methods and research instruments (Wahyuni, 2012; Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi, 2013). Research methodology also provides an organized framework for describing and predicting the phenomena within the lens of a given paradigm to answer the research questions (Wahyuni, 2012; Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement. This study addressed the following specific research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

This chapter consists of the following sub-sections: research paradigms, research design, research methods, study population, data collection procedures, data analysis and presentation of research findings, validity and reliability, ethical consideration and summary of the chapter.

4.2 Research paradigm

The term paradigm originated from a Greek word *paradeima* which means patterns of universal principles of viewing the world to solve the underlying social problems (Blackstone, 2012; Iacob, Popescu and Ristea, 2015). Paradigm is an organized framework to explain reasoning and observation in the research process (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Babbie, 2016). Paradigm is also a worldview concerned with assumptions for the researcher to choose the research design, research methods, ontology and epistemology that guide a research process (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The worldview is influenced by people's value, experiences and beliefs from their societies.

Paradigm explains philosophical interventions in research, sets down the bedrock of motivation to do a study and the expected outcomes to answer the research questions (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Bhattacharjee (2012) asserts that paradigm is the key to observe people's experiences, beliefs, values, attitudes and behaviours for the generalization of social realities. Paradigm guides the discussions on how research is to be conducted and guides the researcher to the existing knowledge (Munyua and Stilwell, 2012).

Paradigm provides the basis for examining phenomena and appropriate choice of methodology, research designs, research methods and the associated literature reviews (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013). The paradigm is fundamental for the researcher to set down the framework for the study (Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). The choice of the paradigm depends on the pertinent influences of the researcher's drives, reinforcements, interests, beliefs, experiences and socio-cultural phenomena (Creswell, 2014).

Researchers typically employ four paradigms to guide their studies which include positivism, post-positivism, interpretative and pragmatism paradigm. Kumar (2011) distinguished paradigms into three types to include systematic, scientific or positivism and qualitative, ethnographic, ecological or naturalistic paradigm. Thomas (2010) is of the view that there are two worldviews which include objectivistic and constructivist. Fazlıoğulları (2012) generalizes that regardless of the various types of paradigms, all of them have specific research problems to inform. Therefore,

the purposes of the study and research problem have the great role to determine the research paradigm to guide the study at hand (Kumar, 2011).

Paradigms are associated with the concepts of ontology and epistemology. Ontology is concerned with origins and nature of knowledge creation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Thomas, 2010; Wahyuni, 2012). On the other hand epistemology is concerned with what is known and acceptable knowledge in a specific field of study (Iacob, Popescu and Ristea, 2015; Ranjbar, 2015). Epistemology is also all about a belief on knowledge inventions and the relationship between the researcher and the means to acquire knowledge (Munyua and Stilwell, 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). Ontology in contrast entails objective belief that there is reality beyond human thinking capacity and people are not concerned with the world existence (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Gray, 2013). Further, ontology is also concerned with how individuals perceive the world reality either objectively, subjectively or both with the influences of their experiences, beliefs, values and perceptions (Wahyuni, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). Types of paradigms to apply in research are influenced by whether the study is qualitative or quantitative. Quantitative studies often apply positivism, post-positivism or pragmatic paradigms while qualitative studies use interpretive, pragmatism or post positivism paradigms (Cronje, 2014; O'Neil and Koekemoer, 2016).

4.2.1 Positivism paradigm

Positivism paradigm is referred to as scientific method, science research or empirical science (Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013; Creswell, 2014). According to Kangai (2012) and Aliyu, Bello, Kasim and Martin (2014) positivism is traced back to the work of August Comte in the 18th century who attempted to separate scientific inquiries from theological beliefs. Thus, Emile Durkheim and Ludwig Wittgenstein expanded positivism approach to associate with quantitative approach (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Denscombe, 2014). This was an attempt on whether quantitative method could work independently without subjective elements (Morgan, 2007; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2013). Positivism is owing to the assumptions that application of natural science, theory testing, observation and reasoning are the means to understand attitudes and behaviours of individuals (Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013; Aliyu *et al.*, 2014).

Positivism posits that reality should be studied objectively to understand the world (Wahyuni, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). Thus, theory and observations cannot operate independently to generate knowledge and reality. Theories provide meanings to what the researcher observed and in turn observations help to validate the theories. Hence, theories should be proved by a systematic observation of phenomena in the social settings to understand the world realities (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Positivism paradigm believes that understanding knowledge is directly associated with observable and measurable or testable phenomena that can be proven through theories (Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013). Positivism believes in the notion that different researchers in the same factual phenomenon generate the same results and can be universally generalized to apply in other different contexts, culture or environmental settings (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

Lazarsfield holds that positivism paradigm is biased and has structural limitations to study a phenomenon by the means of quantitative approach without subjective experiences and observations from the people. Positivism is also considered biased in building knowledge and reality relying on participant's observations that can be influenced by the researcher's interests than the realities experienced in the world (Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013). Positivism fails to differentiate natural science and social sciences as its approach treats human beings as objects without considering humanistic, attitudinal and behavioural dynamics (Thomas, 2010; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). Due to these shortcomings, positivism paradigm was superseded by the thinking of post-positivism (Creswell, 2014; Essaysuk, 2015). Karl Popper came up with post-positivism, constructivism or post - empiricism which confirmed that it is impossible to prove the truths and realities of the phenomena without subjective norms (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013). Therefore, positivism paradigm would not be applied for this study as it does not consider subjective norms such as attitudes and behaviours in studying a phenomenon (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013).

4.2.2 Post-positivism paradigm

Post-positivism, constructivism or post - empiricism was influenced by the works of Aristotle, Issac Newton, Emile Durkheim, Francis Bacon, John Locke, August Comte and Emmanuel Kante in the 19th century (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2014). Post-positivism claimed

objectivity, realism and dualism as their ontological and epistemological stance respectively. Post-positivism also asserts that reality is there beyond the researcher's thinking capacity (Thomas, 2010; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013).

According to post-positivism the world cannot be explained in a scientific manner because of the phenomena which cannot directly be measured without observing people's experiences and observations such as attitudes, behaviours, emotions, drives, opinions and feelings (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Cronje, 2014). Post-positivism also believes that reality in certain contexts cannot be generalized and applied to different contexts, culture or environmental setups (Wahyuni, 2012). Therefore, post-positivism believes that the world is subjective and phenomena can be explained through observation and reasoning. Besides, subjective perspective is attained through observing participants by means of interview to explore their most inner emotions, attitudes, behaviours, events and feelings (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Drobot, 2012). Post-positivism believes that the social world can also be studied as the natural world with application of scientific approaches (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2014). Quantitative approach was associated with post-positivism employing experimental and survey methods with numeric worldview (Armitage, 2007).

Both positivism and post-positivism paradigm are intertwined in the quantitative approach. Hence, they are not suitable for this study because the study is not quantitative per se but is about subjective realities embedded in beliefs, values, perceptions, experiences, attitudes and behaviours of the people in their natural settings. Additionally, the purpose of this study is not to test theories as per postulates of positivism and post-positivism paradigms. According to Battacherjee (2012) knowledge is acquired through observation of peoples' experiences, beliefs and values through interviews and questionnaires.

In the early 20th century positivism and post-positivism ideologies were rejected by anti-positivism who advocated interpretive paradigm to employ qualitative approach in research (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Battacherjee, 2012). Moreover, it was claimed that post-positivism cannot stand as a philosophical worldview. This argument was supported by Creswell (2007) who noted that post-positivism is an expansion of positivism as it bears beliefs of positivism.

Hence, post-positivism was replaced by interpretive worldview as an alternative paradigm (Vosloo, 2014).

4.2.3 Interpretive paradigm

The interpretive paradigm is referred to as constructivism, social constructivism, humanistic, phenomenological approach or naturalistic worldview. Interpretive paradigm originated from the works of Mannheim, Berger and Luekmman's in 1967 and Lev Vygotsky in 1978 (Munyua and Stilwell, 2012; Creswell, 2014). Positivism and post-positivism were criticized because knowledge construction is not based only on objectivity but also subjectivity (Battacherjee, 2012; Wahyuni, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013; Creswell, 2014). Also, epistemologically, interpretive paradigm believes that reality comes from people's perceptions, beliefs, values and experiences about the world (Fazlıoğulları, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013; Aliyu *et al.*, 2014). Ontologically, interpretive views reality as produced from the people's experiences in multiple realities (Thomas, 2010; Drobot, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013).

Interpretive paradigm is based on phenomenology and symbolic interactionism stances (Vosloo, 2014). Phenomenology is about how human beings perceive the world they live in and symbolic interactionism is concerned with the process of interpreting the world (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Therefore, world knowledge and reality are constructed, interpreted and judged in accordance with individual's ideologies and socio-cultural underlying influences (Hussain, Elyas and Nasseef, 2013; Creswell, 2014).

Interpretive paradigm is associated with qualitative approach because it assumes that quantitative is inadequate to explain phenomena as human beings are central to the research undertakings (Terrell, 2012; Denscombe, 2014). Interpretive paradigm works around personal understanding in giving out the meaning of observable and non-observable phenomena (Elyas and Nasseef, 2013; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). This paradigm is based on subjectivity and it is guided by researcher's interpretation of social reality through people's perceptions, experiences, observations, values, beliefs and interactions (Munyua and Stilwell, 2012; Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013).

Interpretive paradigm has strengths because it considers people's perceptions, experiences, observations and beliefs and values subjectively (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). It also addresses the roles of the researcher and the influences of environments and culture on research (Wahyuni, 2012; Essaysuk, 2015). However, observing experiences, beliefs and values of the people with regard to their attitudes and behaviours which are dynamic in nature can consume a lot of researcher's time (Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013). Interpretive approach has been criticized because it fails to address complex nature of human attitudes and behaviours. This led to emergence of pragmatism paradigm.

4.2.4 Pragmatism paradigm

Pragmatism paradigm is an American philosophical approach traced back to early 1860 and propounded by John Dewey and William James. This is the research methodology worldview which gained a wider popularity to study a research phenomenon with mixed methods (Armitage, 2007; Creswell, Garrett and Amanda, 2008; Cameron, 2011). Pragmatism basically focuses on the possibility to combine quantitative and qualitative approaches in one study (Creswell, 2014; Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Denscombe, 2014). This is because single approach of either quantitative or qualitative has been found less useful to address some complex phenomena in social sciences (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

Therefore, mixed methods is a resultant of little agreement of two block worldviews on the practicability and applicability of single or multiple methods in research (Feilzer, 2010; Denscombe, 2014). Pragmatism explains that objectivity and subjectivity are not mutually exclusive. Hence, the ontology, epistemology and beliefs over axiology and methodology are applicable in the single study to understand the phenomenon. Pragmatism encompasses ontology, epistemology and axiology to map the research procedures (Wahyuni, 2012).

Denscombe (2014) points out that pragmatism articulates some core assumptions that there is no best single method that can independently produce knowledge. Pragmatists believe in the fact that knowledge is coined in actions, consequences, social problem oriented, mixed method approach and real world practices (Creswell, 2014). Besides, pragmatism allows the researcher

to experience freedom of methodology choice in different worldviews (Armitage, 2007; Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007).

Pragmatism worldview has that unique strength to make inquiries into complex phenomena of both social sciences and natural sciences (Morgan, 2007). The application of multiple paradigms (pragmatism) helps to address research questions in the most appropriate way (Shah and Al-Bargi, 2013; Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Creswell, 2014) by using qualitative approach which is effective in theory formulation, understanding the feelings, emotions, motivations, perceptions, behaviours of the people in any environmental setups on one hand and quantitative approach which is practical in theory testing, measuring the behaviours, attitudes, emotions and feelings on the other (Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

Pragmatism enables a researcher to adopt any mixed methods according to the prevailing situation as opposed to positivism, post-positivism and interpretive paradigm which influence either quantitative or qualitative methods respectively (Creswell, Plano Clark, 2007; Halcom and Hickman, 2015). Pragmatism enables a researcher to be situational adopting various methodologies that at that particular time suit the study problem at hand (Cameron, 2011; Denscombe, 2014). Besides, pragmatism is open to a variety of research methodologies especially for interdisciplinary fields such as education which can adopt theories and methodologies from sociology and psychology to inform its studies (Creswell, Garrett and Amanda, 2008). Ihuah and Eaton (2013) point out that in pragmatism worldview the researchers are the ones responsible for choosing methods applicable and practical to align research questions, personal experience, social background and cultural influences (Morgan, 2007). With pragmatism paradigm and specifically the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches, the research designs, research methods, instruments and data are more complemented than single method. For example; qualitative approach describes, interprets the attitudes, behaviours, perceptions and feelings while quantitative approach provides measurement (Denscombe, 2014). There are extant challenges towards employing pragmatism approach in research. The crucial challenge of pragmatism is at the level of integrating qualitative and quantitative approach in a single study (Creswell, Garrett and Amanda, 2008; Harwell, 2011). Also, other concerns have

been raised on how pragmatism addresses cause and effect, subjectivity and relativity (Morgan, 2007).

4.3 Research design

Research design is a structure of a scholarly work that underpins the study on how to integrate various components of the study in a logical and coherent way to address the research problems and research questions (Labaree, 2013). It is a process on how to get the respondents, data collection procedures, findings dissemination and underlying justifications behind the decisions (Thomas, 2010; Battacherjee, 2012; Cooper and Schindler, 2014; Creswell, 2014). Therefore, research design is a plan which entails how the researcher went about identifying research methods, data collection, data analysis and interpretation tandem with research problem and research questions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Creswell, 2014; Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

There are three common types of research design inquiries. These are categorized under qualitative, quantitative and mixed research design or triangulation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009; Harwell, 2011; Creswell, 2014). Qualitative research design is an approach to subjectively collect data from participants' settings, analyze and interpret them to understand the meanings (Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2014). Quantitative research design on the other hand involves testing theories, statistical procedures, measurement to collect data, analyze and interpret to establish the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2014; Verhoeven, 2011). Mixed methods or triangulation is application of mixed methods and integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, Garrett and Amanda, 2008; Halcom and Hickman, 2015). These types of research designs are also explained implicitly in relation to paradigmatic worldviews. Qualitative research design is related to interpretive paradigm and quantitative research design is associated with positivism and post-positivism paradigm (Armitage, 2007; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Mixed method is associated with pragmatism worldview (Creswell, 2014; Denscombe, 2014).

Research design has several roles in research including locating a study that specifically focuses on explaining research questions. Research design articulates selection of research methods,

sampling procedures, data collection instruments and ethical issues (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). Also, research design establishes links among research problem, purpose of the study, research questions, philosophical worldview, research methods and strategies of inquiry (Creswell, 2014). Therefore, research design shows the interrelated parts of the study and connects the methodology part with that of research methods to answer the research questions (Wahyuni, 2012; Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

There is a complexity in choosing research designs and approaches as they vary considerably as per the nature of the study (Cronholm and Hjalmarsson, 2011; Labaree, 2018). However, the research problems and research questions determine the choice of the research design suitable for the study (Labaree, 2013). This study adopted mixed methods research design. Mixed methods research design is adopted when certain scenarios are evident. These scenarios are: when the study allows mixed methods approach to better collect, present, analyse and interpret study findings, when a single approach is not sufficient to generate and add to the extant literature and knowledge and when quantitative design can generate meaningful study results by qualitative design (dos Santos *et al.*, 2017).

There are three distinctive components of mixed method designs. These include: parallel or concurrent method, sequential strategy and transformational technique (Terrell, 2011). Parallel or concurrent method refers to research phases happen either simultaneously or in time lapse to compare the study findings which needs expertise to compare data in tandem. The phases address related or same research questions depending on the study subject matter. Sequential mixed method design is concerned with study procedures done in phases in consecutive order whereby one phase depends and followed by the other consecutively. In transformational strategy, mixed methods is used to capture the values for transforming the study findings. It needs a great deal of expertise to transform and integrate data during data analysis (Cronholm and Hjalmarsson, 2011; Terrell, 2011).

Based on scenarios of adopting mixed methods and the complex nature of attitude and behaviour of human beings and in comparison to parallel or concurrent and transformational strategy, sequential strategy design was adopted in this study. Sequential strategy involves phases

whereby quantitative data are a follow-up of qualitative data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). It has strengths that quantitative and qualitative data are given equal weight in data collection, analysis and interpretation. Data are integrated during interpretation hence easier to describe, implement and report in their distinct phases (Terrell, 2011).

Therefore, this study used mixed methods research design and sequential strategy design in particular because of the complex nature of research problem that investigates human attitudes and behaviours. The design is suitable to understand the complex nature associated with attitudes and behaviours of human beings (Morgan, 2007; Halcom and Hickman, 2015; do Santos, Erdmann, Meirelles, Lanzoni, da Cunha and Ross, 2017). This argument is also buttressed by Wisdom and Creswell (2013) who stressed that the combination of more than one method instil confidence in the researcher to collect comprehensive data and find solutions to the problems. Besides, the integration of many research design options can lead to better and more practical design to appropriately guide the study and provide greater understanding of phenomena (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Bergman, 2008).

According to Morgan (2007) and Creswell and Garrett (2008) studies on perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are appropriately addressed by application of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Similarly, Creswell and Clark (2007), Fielding (2012) and Vosloo (2014) suggested that mixed methods have strengths that give an understanding of research variables from different perspectives and help collect data in a wider scope to enhance significance, validity and reliability. Therefore, mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) was used to gather information to better understand the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. In this study, quantitative phase involved survey questionnaire administered to students and lecturers and qualitative phase involved interview sessions to subject librarians. Data from survey questionnaire were complimented and informed by data from interview phase. The connection happened in the mixing after quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed consecutively. The results from survey questionnaires and interviews were connected to gain a broader understanding of the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement.

4.4 Research methods

Research methods are a set of research procedures in which the study is undertaken and it includes theoretical procedures, tools, techniques to gather, analyse and interpret data (Ellis and Levy, 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi, 2013). Research methods also serve as the frameworks to examine a phenomenon through data collection, analysis and interpretation (Armitage, 2007; Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010; Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi, 2013; Creswell, 2014).

Research methods are chosen to guide the study in accordance with the purpose, context and research questions (Thomas, 2010). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) are of the view that both qualitative and quantitative methods have their strengths and weaknesses. For example, the use of both quantitative and qualitative in a single study reduces possible weaknesses identified in a single method. It also provides a wider scope of understanding of phenomena (Creswell, 2014). Using qualitative method the researcher participates and influences the study in all procedures (Thomas, 2010; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Similarly, qualitative method allows interactions between the researcher and respondents in a natural setting to collect different data in a given situation (Harwell, 2011). In contrast in quantitative method the role of the researcher is to objectively observe and not to participate and influence the study (Thomas, 2010).

This study used both quantitative and qualitative methods in compliance with pragmatism worldview which underpinned this study. Pragmatism advocates for multiple paradigmatic stances. Pragmatism allows the use of both quantitative and qualitative in a single study to address the complex nature of human behaviour (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Vosloo, 2014) such as reading culture, attitudes and behaviours of the students being investigated in this study.

4.4.1 Study population

Study population is the segments where the researcher obtained research data to answer the research questions (Vosloo, 2014). These segments involve people, events, items or records that have information to fulfill the purpose of the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). The target population enables the researcher to decide whether to use the whole population or to select the

samples to represent the characteristics of the population (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). According to Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) (2016) Tanzania has 52 universities and university colleges offering varying academic programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Of the 52 universities, 37 are full-fledged universities with 13 being public, 24 private and 15 are university colleges. Among university colleges, two are public and 13 are private. This study was conducted in four purposively selected universities in Tanzania of which two are public and another two are private. The universities selected for this study were Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) and Mzumbe University (MU) which are public universities on one hand and Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) respectively which are private universities on the other. Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) and Mzumbe University (MU) are located at Morogoro region about 187 kilometers from Dar Es Salaam commercial city. While the other two University of Iringa (UoI) and Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) are located at Southern highlands of Tanzania. University of Iringa (UoI) is located at Iringa region about 501 kilometers from Dar Es Salaam commercial city and the latter is located at Mbeya region about 951 kilometers from Dar Es Salaam commercial city.

The population of this study consisted of final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students and subject librarians at Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) as shown in Table 4.1. The population of the study consisted of 2489 students, 88 lecturers and 132 subject librarians (University human resources and admission offices, 2015).

Table 4.1 below provides population distribution of students, lecturers and subject librarians.

Table 4.1 Study population

S/No	Name of the university	Students	Lecturers	Subject librarians
1.	Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA)	600	20	55
2.	Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU)	1200	11	24
3.	Mzumbe University (MU)	522	20	37
4.	University of Iringa (UoI)	167	37	16
Total		2489	88	132

(Source: University human resources and admissions offices, October, 2015)

4.4.2 Sampling procedures and sample size

Sample refers to the objects, people or items from the population identified by a researcher for data collection for the study (Mujere, 2016). Sample consists of the identified units from the population which the researcher has interest in their characteristics to represent the whole population of the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). Hence, sampling is a process of selecting demonstrative elements to determine parameters of the whole population (Mujere, 2016). In other words, sampling is the process of identifying a small portion of elements to represent population characteristics for generalization purposes (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Latham, 2007). Therefore, the sample should be large and undertaken carefully to represent the whole population and must be proportionate to the size of the population (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

Instead of sampling, census may be used in research to obtain accurate empirical data (Latham, 2007). This is why authors including Latham (2007) and Smith (2013) are of the view that to study the whole population provides the study with accurate research findings. However, to study the whole population needs a lot of time and has financial implications (Latham, 2007; Smith, 2013; Mujere, 2016). Sample size from the population is determined by population size

which denotes the total number of elements in the population; confidence level and standard deviation which is the measure of score (Smith, 2013; Cooper and Schindler, 2014). The sample is also arrived at based on the confidence interval or error which is an assumption that there is no accurate sample hence the researcher should determine human error assumption to deal with errors in the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Smith, 2013). Cooper and Schindler (2006) also stressed that the researcher cannot achieve an accurate sample because of inaccessible respondents hence sampling error remains valid.

There are two sampling methods - probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling or random sampling gives every element in the sample equal chance to be included in the study and hence reduces researcher's biases in the sampling process (Krosnick, Presser, Fealing, Ruggles and Vannette, 2015). Probability sampling has four methods, simple random sampling which demonstrates equal chance to every element in the population, systematic sampling which every element has no equal chance to be included in the study because the sample is obtained by skip pattern calculation. Also, stratified sampling which divides the population into strata and that from the strata elements are sampled to represent the whole population. Cluster sampling is another technique in probability sampling whereby the population is divided into sub-groups with few elements chosen randomly by specific criterion of availability in data collection (Cooper and Schindler, 2006).

Non-probability sampling on the other hand, is a sampling process which does not provide an equal chance to every element in the population to be included in the study sample (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). Non-probability sampling has three methods which include convenience which gives a researcher a chance to choose elements favourable suited to the study purpose. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to select respondents as per the specific criteria to obtain the appropriate sample. Snowball sampling is a process of including samples in the study by which a researcher has to identify the sample to start with and the respondent refers him/her to other elements with the characteristics of interest to the study purposes and research questions (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). The application of either probability sampling or non-probability sampling depends on the purpose, research questions of the study and researcher's beliefs, experiences and values (Latham, 2007).

The population for this study consisted of four universities out of 52 public, private universities and university colleges in Tanzania. Non-probability sampling was used to sample the four universities for this study. Within non-probability sampling, purposive sampling was used to select the four universities. Purposive sampling is a sampling technique which enables a researcher to deliberately identify informants as per the qualities, readiness, availability, ease of access, convenient time and willingness to participate in the study (Mujere, 2016). Therefore, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) maintained that purposive sampling enables a researcher to use his/her judgment to choose elements that best suit and answer his/her questions to meet the objectives of the study. The researcher selects cases that represent similar characteristics of the population in which the researcher has the knowledge (Latham, 2007).

Therefore, these four universities were selected. Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) was selected because it is a public university, the largest and oldest university in Tanzania in terms of establishment, students' enrollment, the number of academics and librarians. Similarly, Mzumbe University (MU) is also the oldest university compared to others that represent public universities in Tanzania. Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) are also among the largest universities and the oldest private universities in terms of establishment, enrollment, the number of academics and librarians.

The population was stratified into three domains (students, lecturers and subject librarians). The population was stratified to control sampling error of the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Latham, 2007). Therefore, each member of the group was assigned to a stratum by simple random sampling (Latham, 2007; Cooper and Schindler, 2014). According to Latham (2007) if the population characteristics are known then the population should be arranged into strata proportionately (using the same fraction for each group) or disproportionately (using different fraction for each group). Hence, to choose either proportionate or disproportionate groups, the researcher should be aware of the number of respondents in each group. The sample size from each stratum was drawn using the table for determining sample size at 5% error margin proposed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:250) shown in table 4.2.

Three other models of selecting sample sizes such as Krejcie and Morgan (1970) by Chuan (2006), Israel (1992) and Kotrlik and Higgins (2001) were also reviewed and found to be similar to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009). However, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) model has an edge over the others because it is the most recent compared to the other three models. The sample size was then proportionately calculated based on the population strength of each group in the population of students, lecturers and subject librarians respectively. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 respectively presented below provide sample sizes of different sizes of populations and summaries of samples from different categories.

Table 4.2 Sample sizes for different populations

<i>Sample sizes for different sizes of population at a 95 per cent level of certainty (assuming data are collected from all cases in the sample)</i>				
<i>Population</i>	<i>Margin of error</i>			
	<i>5%</i>	<i>3%</i>	<i>2%</i>	<i>1%</i>
50	44	48	49	50
100	79	91	96	99
150	108	132	141	148
200	132	168	185	196
250	151	203	226	244
300	168	234	267	291
400	196	291	434	384
500	217	340	414	475
750	254	440	571	696
1000	278	516	706	906
2000	322	696	1091	1655
5000	357	879	1622	3288
10000	370	964	1936	4899
100000	383	1056	2345	8762
1000000	384	1066	2395	9513
10000000	384	1067	2400	9595

Table of selecting sample size (Source: Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009)

The total population of 2709 (comprising 2489 students, 88 lecturers and 132 subject librarians) was studied. Sample size of 340 for students, 62 lecturers and 94 subject librarians was drawn from each stratum using Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2009) table of selecting sample sizes shown in Table 4.2. The relative sample of the respondents per stratum in each University was calculated based on the population strength. For example at SUA with final year undergraduate education students population of 600 the sample was calculated as $600/2489 \times 340 = 82$ students. The respondents in each stratum were reached through snowball technique. Sadler, Lee, Lim and Fullerton (2011) insist that snowball is a suitable technique to reach difficult respondents with specific attributes. In this regard, university environments where students and staff are difficult to identify, snowball is peculiar in this situation.

Table 4.3 Sample sizes distribution

Location of Sample	Population of students (PS)	Sample Size of students (PS/2489x340)	Population of lecturers (PL)	Sample size of lecturers (PL/88 x62)	Population of subject librarians (PSL)	Sample size of subject librarians (PSL/132x94)
SUA	600	82	20	14	55	39
TEKU	1200	164	11	8	24	18
MU	522	71	20	14	37	26
UoI	167	23	37	26	16	11
Total	2489	340	88	62	132	94

(Source: University human resources and admissions offices, 2015)

4.5 Data collection techniques

This study employed two data collection techniques to collect data from the key informants which include: students, lecturers and subject librarians. These techniques were questionnaire and interview for primary data. Also, secondary data were collected from books, journal articles, theses, dissertations and research papers. The questions in the data collection tools covered reading culture, behaviours, motivations, attitudes, opinions, feelings and academic achievements. Given the nature of pragmatism paradigm and mixed method approach,

questionnaire and interview techniques were found appropriate. They complement the strengths and weaknesses of each other and enable the researcher to collect in-depth information from respondents. Furthermore, these techniques are suitable in capturing views, feelings, behaviours, perceptions, opinions and attitudes of respondents (Harris and Brown, 2010).

4.5.1 Survey questionnaire

Questionnaire involves systematic prepared questions to probe information from the responses recorded by respondents for the problem being studied (Battacherjee, 2012). There are two types of questionnaires - structured and unstructured questionnaire (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010). Structured questionnaire guides the respondent to choose responses from already prepared answers. Unstructured questionnaire requires respondents to respond to questions with their own perceptions, experiences, beliefs and values (Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010; Harris and Brown, 2010; Battacherjee, 2012).

Questionnaire has a weakness that it does not provide a chance for the researcher to clarify some questions. Therefore, both structured and unstructured questionnaires should be prepared in the manner that respondents understand the questions context and respond as per the study purposes (Battacherjee, 2012). Questionnaire can be administered through mail and collective administered questionnaire (Kumar, 2011). Mailed questionnaire respondents respond through mails, which from experience demonstrate very low responses. Collective administered questionnaire is done through distributing questionnaires to groups of people such as in classes or at meetings in which the response is very high since the researcher has a chance to explain relevance and purpose of the study.

This study employed both structured and unstructured questionnaire to facilitate data collection. Besides, the researcher integrated open ended questions to also collect qualitative data to gain a deep insight of the study phenomenon (Thomas, 2010; Battacherjee, 2012). Questionnaires (See Appendices 10 and 11: Students and lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students respectively) were used to collect data on issues related to reading culture and academic achievement from students and lecturers. Mathers, Fox and Hunn (2007), Hunt (2009), Harris and Brown (2010), Dahlberg and McCaig (2010), Roopa and Rani (2012) and Wong, Ong, Kuek

(2012) asserted that a questionnaire is preferred in data collection as it is easy to administer and it helps to collect a lot of information from a good number of respondents within a short period of time. Therefore, questionnaires were used to collect data from students as they were many in number. Also, questionnaire allows respondents to respond in a private setting. Thus, lecturers were given questionnaires to complete at their own time and privately as they were always busy attending to their students' academic and social issues.

4.5.2 Interview

Interview is a collection of questions and instruction schedules prepared by the researcher without respondents understanding (Battacherjee, 2012). Unlike questionnaire, interview technique is associated with qualitative data collection (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). Interview is suitable to explore the diversity of attitudes and behaviours of people. Kumar (2011) and Schultze and Avital (2011) stressed that interview is a commonly used technique to collect data from people's views, experiences, perceptions, attitudes, behaviours and values. Besides, interview technique provides the researcher with an opportunity to make some clarifications in case of any problems in the interview questions (Harris and Brown, 2010; Battacherjee, 2012). Interview helps the researcher to integrate with respondents and observe their gestures, postures and body movements to examine the feelings, emotions, experiences and values. Smith and Albaum (2010), Edwards and Holland (2013), Alsheqeti (2014) and Krosnick *et al.* (2015) assert that interview is a social relationship that enables a researcher to obtain information through direct interchange with an individual or a group that is known or expected to possess certain knowledge.

There are three different types of interviews; structured, unstructured and semi structured interview. Structured interview is concerned with a prepared series of questions administered to the respondents. Hence, structured interviews have the strength to provide uniform responses from prepared questions and requires few skills to administer. Unstructured interview is unorganized questions without a guideline of what to ask the respondents (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick, 2008). Unstructured interview gives a researcher the freedom to formulate the questions as they come to mind about the study purposes. Unstructured interview requires some skills in order to clarify the context of the questions

(Kumar, 2011). Unstructured Interview is time consuming though it is employed when there is a need to examine in-depth information and there is no existing literature on the specific topic.

Semi structured interview are organized questions to ask the respondents and they provide the researcher with a chance to examine beyond the pre-scheduled questions to obtain more details (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick, 2008; Thomas, 2010). Generally, interview can be administered through face to face and telephone interview (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). Face to face interview is undertaken in the physical presence of interviewer and interviewee or group interview which involves 6-10 respondents at the same place to respond to the researcher's inquiries (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Bhattacharjee, 2012). Telephone or electronic media interview is when the researcher communicates with respondents to probe their views, perceptions, attitudes and behaviours (Cooper and Schindler, 2006).

Generally, interview has a number of advantages as pointed out by Gill *et al.* (2008) that interview is effective to employ in the study as it enables the researcher to examine in-depth information unlike questionnaire in quantitative design. This is done especially when the topic is complex and people do not want to talk about their inner most feelings, emotions, attitudes and behaviours and little known about the specific topic. Interview was therefore suitable for this study as it explores attitudes and behaviours of the students which are complex in nature. Interview was used to collect data from subject librarians who serve in the faculty of education in the respective universities (See Appendix 12: Interview schedule for subject librarians). They work at service points and know the trends, behaviour and attitude of students in using the library. This study employed semi structured interview administered through face to face encounter with respondents (Gill *et al.*, 2008). Kothari and Garg (2014) state that face to face interviews are credited for collecting in-depth information and overcoming resistance from respondents. Cooper and Schindler (2006) insisted that face to face interview is suitable to investigate attitudes and behaviours and the researcher can record the conversations.

Semi-structured interview helped the researcher to examine more information from the respondents. This view is in line with Gill *et al.* (2008) that semi-structured interview has the capacity to explore in-depth emotions, feelings, experiences and values for the study.

Furthermore, semi structured interview with elements of open ended questions are neutral and understandable to the respondents to reveal the non-observable phenomena (Gill *et al.*, 2008). Interview technique is time consuming and the researcher needs some special skills to make the respondents comfortable and reveal the information for the effective study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Battacherjee, 2012).

4.6 Data analysis and presentation of research findings

Data analysis is a process of summarizing and developing information patterns to examine if the data are consistent with the research questions and theories to confer meaning (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). Mixed methods approaches which is a combination of qualitative and quantitative data analysis was used. Mixed methods data analysis is an integrated data analysis process which uses statistical and content thematic analytic techniques (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Qualitative data were analyzed by content analysis while quantitative data were analyzed by SPSS. Content analysis is a systematic process of drawing meanings from texts, words and observations (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). There are four types of content analysis which include syntactical units, this can be data in a form of words, phrases or sentences. Referential units can be events, objects or people described in words. Propositional is an assertion about person, event or object and thematic unit is about building meanings from texts (Cooper and Schindler, 2014). In order to obtain in-depth information from interview, the data were systematically transcribed, summarized, analysed thematically and presented in narrative form. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS to generate descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. Cross tabulations were used to determine the association among variables. Chi-square test was used to test whether the relationship was statistically significant or not.

4.7 Validity and reliability

Validity is “the extent to which research tools actually do measure the underlying concept that they are supposed to measure” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011:16). Reliability demonstrates “the extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures yield consistent findings” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009:156). The study instruments should demonstrate consistency and accuracy to measure what it is supposed to measure and the intended constructs (Ryan, Coughlan and Cronin, 2007; Ellis and Levy, 2009; Dahlberg and McCaig, 2010;

Bolarinwa, 2015). In addition, validity and reliability are psychometric properties in the sense that they are the measuring scales that benchmark accuracy in scientific research (Battacherjee, 2012).

This study adopted questionnaires and interview schedules from survey tools that have been validated, pre-tested, used in various studies and demonstrated validity and reliability. Dahlberg and McCaig (2010) suggested the researcher should use research instruments from previous studies which have been tested and demonstrate validity and reliability. This criterion is commonly used to choose the survey tool (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Ryan, Coughlan and Cronin (2007) stated that researchers have a choice to either adopt already used instruments or developing new instruments. However, if the researchers adopt the instruments from previous studies they should justify how the instruments measured and demonstrated the validity and reliability of the studies.

Questionnaires and interview schedules were adapted from various related studies such as 'Forms, effects, function: LIS students' attitudes towards portable e-book readers' by Pattuelli and Rabina (2010) used questionnaire and diary interview as a mult method approach to ensure reliability, a study of, 'The attitude, self-efficacy, effort and academic achievement of City University of Hong Kong students towards research methods and statistics' by Li (2012) which used survey questionnaire adopted from Owen and Froman College Academic Self-efficacy Scale (CASES) with Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.86, 'A study of Chinese reading strategies used by Thai undergraduate' by Ping (2013) used questionnaire with Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.907, 'Reading culture and academic achievement in secondary school students - Calabar South-Nigeria' by Egong (2014) employed pre-tested questionnaire with reliability ranging from 07345 to 08255, 'Religiosity, reading and educational achievement among Jewish students in Israel' by Feniger, Shavit and Ayalon (2014) which used questionnaire with reliability of Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.638 to measure reading, 'Factors contributing to academic performance of students in a tertiary institution in Singapore by Jayanthi, Balakrishnan, Ching, Latiff and Nasirudeen (2014) which had questionnaire with Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.71, 'Academic achievement prediction: Role of interest in learning and attitude towards school' by Kpolovie, Joe and Okoto (2014) which had Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.79, 'Reading habits

among students and its effects on academic performance: A study of students of Koforidua Polytechnic – Ghana’ by Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014) used pretested questionnaire to demonstrate reliability, ‘The relationship between self-efficacy and reading proficiency of first-year students: An exploratory study’ by Boakye (2015) adopted Test of Academic Literacy Levels (TALL) questionnaire with Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.93, The study on; ‘Factors influencing academic achievement in South Africa by Sibanda, Iwu and Benedict (2015) in which questionnaires with Coefficient Alpha of 0.927 and Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.955 were used, ‘Relationships between reading ability, vocabulary, reading attitude and academic performance in Swaziland’ by Nxumalo (2016) employed survey questionnaire with Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.81 and the reading test of reliability of 0.701, ‘Relationship between reading dyslexia and academic performance of upper primary pupils in public schools in Changamwe Sub-County, Kenya’ by Kaluyu and Ooko (2016), ‘Influence of study habits on the academic performance of physics students in Federal University of Agriculture Makurdi, Kenya’ by Atsuwe and Nyikwagh (2017) adopted Study Inventory Questionnaire with reliability of Cronbach’s Alpha 0.72, and ‘Self-efficacy, satisfaction and academic achievement: Mediator role of students expectancy-value beliefs’ by Doménech-Betoret, Abellán-Roselló and Gómez-Artiga (2017). The tools from these studies were adapted because they directly related to the research problem and research questions of this study, they had reliability and also focused on correlation between reading culture and academic achievements in academic institutions and had high Cronbach’s Alpha value of >0.7. According to Drost (2011) research instruments with Cronbach’s Alpha value of >0.70 is acceptable for the researcher to draw reliable conclusions.

4.8 Ethical consideration

There are ethical issues that require consideration in any research. Ethical issues are “a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students” (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:289). Permissions to conduct the study were obtained from Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) (See Appendix 5), Mzumbe University (MU) (See Appendix 6), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) (See Appendix 7) and University of Iringa

(UoI) (See Appendix 8) where this study was conducted. Ethical clearance was applied and obtained from the University of KwaZulu -Natal Research Office (See Appendix 13).

Respondents were informed about the purpose of the study before data collection exercise commenced as per the University of KwaZulu - Natal Research Ethics Policy of 2016. The researcher explained clearly the purpose of the study before interview sessions commenced and the respondents were requested to participate in the study on a voluntary basis. The respondents were also assured of confidentiality of the information they provided. Respondents were not required to provide their personal particulars such as their names. However, respondents indicated their sex, name of the university and age profile only. To further protect the anonymity of respondents, they were instructed to place their completed questionnaires in a drop box. Finally, consent forms (See Appendix 9) were signed by all respondents before data collection.

4.9 Summary

This chapter presented research methodology, overview of paradigmatic perspectives and research paradigms usually adopted in social sciences. Also, it discussed pragmatism worldview in particular to legitimize its choice for this study. The research designs, justification for employing mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) were presented. Furthermore, research methods and study population, data collection procedures, data analysis and presentation of research findings, validity and reliability and ethical considerations were covered.

The population for this study included four universities which included Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI). Students, lecturers and subject librarians were studied. Purposive sampling technique was employed to select the universities, students, lecturers and subject librarians from the respective universities. Data for this study were gathered through questionnaire (See Appendix 10: Survey questionnaire for students and Appendix 11: Survey questionnaire for lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students) and interview (See Appendix 12: Interview schedule for subject librarians) techniques. The data collected were analyzed using content analysis for qualitative data and SPSS for quantitative data to generate

descriptive statistics. Finally validity and reliability were presented as was ethics perspectives of research.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Data analysis integrates phenomena into compatible and incompatible fragments to give meaningful picture that explain the research problem (Denscombe, 2007). The process of data analysis in both quantitative and qualitative approaches involves data identification, coding, describing and interpreting coherently with explanations and literature (Creswell and Plano Clarke, 2007, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Data analysis helps the researcher to present empirical findings to answer the research questions of the study (Garaba, 2010).

This study sought to address the following research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

This study was undertaken in four universities; Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI) in Tanzania. The study was underpinned by pragmatic paradigm. Quantitative data were gathered through closed ended questionnaire and qualitative data were collected through interviews and open ended questionnaire. Questionnaires were used to collect data from final year undergraduate education students and lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education

students (See Appendix 10: Survey questionnaire for students and Appendix 11: Survey questionnaire for lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students). Interview (See Appendix 12: Interview schedule for subject librarians) was used to collect data from subject librarians. Data gathered through survey questionnaire were edited, numerically coded, analysed and presented using graphical tools such as tables, graphs and charts. Furthermore, Chi-square was used to test whether the relationship of variables was statistically significant. Data gathered through interviews were transcribed, summarized, analysed thematically and presented in narrative form to reveal the meanings in the data. Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) was used to investigate reading culture and academic achievement.

5.1.1 Response rate

Response rate is referred to as the turn up of respondents during data collection (Fincham, 2008; Fink, 2012; Verhoeven, 2011). Response rate is crucial particularly in assessing the validity, reliability and value of any study findings. Basically, response rate reduces influences from researchers' environments, beliefs and experiences (Thorpe, Ryan, McLean, Burt, Stewart, Brown and Harris, 2008).

The higher response rate makes the study more credible (Baruch and Holtom, 2008; Peytchev, 2013; NSSE, 2016). However, in some circumstances low response rate might yield reliable study results in a meaningful way (Pike, 2012; Massey and Tourangeau, 2013; Fosnacht, Sarraf, Howe and Peck, 2017). Response rate depends on the readiness of respondents to respond to the study and it is rare to obtain 100 percent response rate (Baruch and Holtom, 2008; Cooper and Schindler, 2014). Other factors that may lead to low response rate include respondents' individual attitude over the topic understudy, poor set up of research instruments and uninteresting research topic (Baruch and Holtom, 2008; Thorpe *et al.*, 2008; Verhoeven, 2011). Many studies have demonstrated the acceptable response rate for the authenticity of the study. Fincham (2008) and Nulty (2008) posit that the response rate of 60 percent should be the benchmark for researchers to draw conclusions of their studies. Similarly, Baruch and Holtom (2008) and Cooper and Schindler (2014) asserted that response rate of 35-40 percent is acceptable for the study of top management of the organizations and 50 percent for individual

subordinates. Generally, 50 percent response rate is acceptable and in particular 60 percent for the study on students is acceptable (Nulty, 2008).

The response rate obtained from the data collected through survey questionnaire and interview schedules was 92 percent for the students, 100 percent for lecturers and 53 percent for subject librarians. This gives an overall response rate of (424, 85.5%) for all three categories of respondents. The response rates of similar studies compare well with what was achieved in this study. They include studies such as: the study on 'Reading behaviors of students in Kolej Datin Seri Endon (KDSE) in Malaysia' by Mohamed *et al.* (2012) with response rate of 93.5 percent, 'Reading habits among students and its effect on academic performance' by Owusu-Acheaw and Larson (2014) in which a response rate of 95 percent was obtained and the study on 'Influence of gender difference on reading habits and academic achievement of undergraduate medical students in University of Ibadan in Nigeria' by Sunday and Ajibola (2015) in which response rate of 88.1 percent was achieved. According to Baruch and Haltom (2008), Fincham (2008) and Nulty (2008) response rate of around 85% is deemed adequate. Therefore, the response rate obtained in the survey questionnaire and interview schedules in this current study is deemed adequate.

Table 5.1 presents overall response rate per university. The university names were coded as University A, University B, University C and University D to maintain anonymity to protect the respondents in line with the informed consent form which they signed.

Table 5.1 Response rates

Respondents category	University	Sample population	Actual number (n=312)		Total actual number
			Male	Female	
Students	University A	71	45	14	59
	University B	164	111	37	148
	University C	82	67	15	82
	University D	23	11	12	23
	Total	340	234	78	312
	Total response rate 312				
Respondents category	University	Sample population	Actual number (n=62)		Total actual number
			Male	Female	
Lecturers	University A	14	14	-	14
	University B	8	6	2	8
	University C	14	14	-	14
	University D	26	25	1	26
	Total	62	59	3	62
	Total response rate 62				
Respondents category	University	Sample population	Actual number (n=50)		Total actual number
			Male	Female	
Subject librarians	University A	26	11	9	20
	University B	18	15	3	18
	University C	39	6	1	7
	University D	11	3	2	5
	Total	94	35	15	50
	Total response rate 50				
Overall response rate 424 (85.5%)					424 (85.5%)

(Source: Field data, 2016)

Table 5.1 presents the response rates indicating (312, 92%) response rate for students, (62,100%) response rate for lecturers and (50, 53%) response rate for subject librarians. The response rates

for questionnaires in the four universities were relatively high (312, 92% for students, and 62, 100% for lecturers). This high response rates were attributed to physical follow ups, and reminders by the researcher. High response rates are also attributed to the strength of the questionnaire (Fink, 2012).

Similarly, response rate of (50, 53%) was achieved for subject librarians in the interview. This response rate was lower compared to that achieved for students (312, 92%) and for lecturers (62, 100%). The low response rate for subject librarians was attributed to the limited time that they offered to be interviewed as most of them were at work. However, this low response rate for subject librarians is not unique as response rates vary depending on circumstances under which a study is undertaken as well as the category of respondents (Baruch and Holtom, 2008).

5.2 The findings

The findings are presented based on the sections and sub-sections derived from research questions: characteristics of respondents, the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement, students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy, suitability of library as place for reading, perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects, factors influencing reading culture of students, interventions universities were making to enhance reading culture of the students, recommendations to develop culture of reading and summary of the findings.

5.2.1 Characteristics of respondents

Though characteristics of respondents were not part of the study, it provides understanding of the context in which the study was carried out (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). The characteristics of respondents considered included; the distribution of respondents in the universities, gender distribution, age distribution, education level and work experience (lecturers and subject librarians). It was assumed that students would not have gained much working experience as they were pursuing their first degree qualifications having been admitted directly from high school.

5.2.2 Distribution of respondents

Respondents were required to state the type of universities (whether public or private) they were affiliated to. It was important to understand distribution of respondents to determine sample representativeness in both private and public universities. The findings are summarized in Figure 5.1.

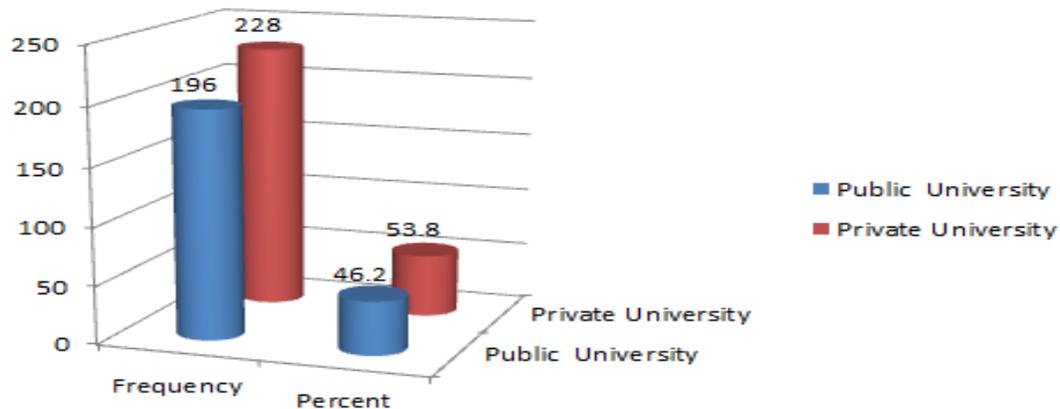


Figure 5.1: Distribution of respondents (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The findings indicated that respondents were distributed in the private and public universities as follows: (228, 53.8%) of respondents were from private and (196, 46.2%) were from public universities respectively.

5.2.3 Gender distribution

This sub-section presents gender distribution of respondents in the four universities. The result is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Gender distribution

Respondents category	University	Frequency		Total
		Male	Female	
Students (n=312)	University A	45	14	59
	University B	111	37	148
	University C	67	15	82
	University D	11	12	23
	Total	234 (75%)	78 (25%)	312 (100%)
Respondents category	University	Frequency		
Lecturers (n=62)		Male	Female	Total
	University A	14	-	14
	University B	6	2	8
	University C	14	-	14
	University D	25	1	26
	Total	59 (95.2%)	3 (4.8%)	62 (100%)
Respondents category	University	Male	Female	Total
Subject librarians (n=50)	University A	11	9	20
	University B	15	3	18
	University C	6	1	7
	University D	3	2	5
	Total	35 (70%)	15 (30%)	50 (100%)

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The result in Table 5.2 reveal that among students (234, 75%) were males and (78, 25%) females. For lecturers (59, 95.16%) were males and (3, 4.84%) were females. Also, out of (50, 100%) subject librarians, (35, 70%) were males and (15, 30%) were females. The findings indicate that males were the majority in all three categories. The small number of female respondents is attributed to domination of males among faculty and students at the universities surveyed.

5.2.4 Age distribution

This sub-section presents age distribution of respondents. The findings are presented in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Age distribution (n=424)

Respondents category	Age (years)	Frequency
Students (n=312)	21-30	232
	31-40	66
	41-50	14
	Total	312
Lecturers (n=62)	30-40	22
	41-50	37
	60+	3
	Total	62
Subject librarians (n=50)	21-30	19
	31-40	16
	41-50	14
	51-60	1
	Total	50

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The result in Table 5.3 indicates that (232, 74%) students were in the age category of 21-30 years, (66, 21%) in age of category 31-40 years and (14, 5%) in age category of 41-50 years. The findings indicate that the majority of students (232, 74%) were in the age category of 21-30 years.

Furthermore, (22, 35.4%) lecturers were in the age category of 30-40, (37, 59.9%) were in the age range of 41-50 years and (3, 4.8%) were aged above 60. The majority of lecturers (37,

59.9%) were aged between 41-50 years followed by (22, 35.4%) who were aged between 30-40 years. Therefore, the results show that most lecturers at the universities surveyed were relatively in middle age. This category of staff have still long time to serve the universities since the compulsory retirement age is about 60 years in Tanzania (Kazimoto and Mhindi, n.d; Tanzania Commission for Universities, 2014).

The result in table 5.3 reveal that (19, 38%) subject librarians were in the age of between 21-30, (16, 32%) were in the age category of 31-40, (14, 28%) were in the age category of 41-50 and (1, 2%) was in the age range of 51-60 respectively. Most of the subject librarians (19, 38%) were in the age range of 21-30 followed by (16, 32%) who were aged 31-40. The findings suggest a significant number of subject librarians (19, 38%) in the age category of 21-30 have limited working experience (Berg, Hoffmann and Dawson, 2009).

5.2.5 Education levels of respondents

This sub-section presents education levels of respondents. The findings are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Education levels distribution (n=424)

Respondents category	Education level	Frequency
Students (n=312)	Undergraduate level	312
	Total	312
Lecturers (n=62)	Assistant lecturers (Master's degree)	38
	Lecturers (Master's degree)	18
	Senior lecturers (PhD holders)	6
	Total	62
Subject librarians	Diploma	24
	Degree	15
	Masters	9
	PhD	2
	Total	50

Source: Field data, 2016)

The result in Table 5.4 indicates that (38, 61%) of lecturers were assistant lecturers with master's degree, (18, 29%) had master's degree with above 3 years' experience and (6, 10%) were senior lecturers with PhDs. The findings revealed that the majority of lecturers (38, 61%) and assistant lecturers (18, 29%) were master's degree holders. According to TCU (2014) the minimum qualification to teach in Tanzanian universities is a master's degree. In contrast only (6, 10%) lecturers were senior lecturers with PhDs. The findings revealed that there is paucity of PhD holders in selected universities in Tanzania. This means that the majority of academics employed in Tanzanian universities are master's degree holders.

Kayomo, Magosho and Mfaume (2016) observe that the increased number of new higher learning institutions has caused a PhD crisis at universities in Tanzania. Furthermore, the study on the quality and the surge in the private universities by Ishengoma (2007) noted that all private universities in Tanzania had only (86, 17.2%) of staff with PhD qualification while (249, 50%) were master's degree holders.

The result presented in table 5.4 shows that subject librarians (24, 48%) were diploma holders, (14, 28%) had a degree, (10, 18%) had master's degree and (2, 4%) had PhD degree. The findings suggest that there is paucity of master's and PhDs degree holders among subject librarians at university libraries in Tanzania. Consequently universities were employing librarian trainees with degrees in a field other than librarianship to fill this void.

5.2.6 Work experience

This section presents work experiences of lecturers and subject librarians who participated in the study. The result is presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Work experience (n=112)

Respondents category	Work experience between years	Frequency
Lecturers (n=62)	1-5 Years	19
	6-10	32
	10-15	6
	15+	5
	Total	62
Subject librarians (n= 50)	1-5 Years	23
	6-10 Years	17
	10- 15 Years	7
	15+ Years	3
	Total	50

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Table 5.5 reveal that lecturers (19, 30.6%) had 1-5 years of working experience, (32, 51.6 %) 6-10 years of work experience, (6, 9.7 %) 10-15 years of work experience and (5, 8.1%) had over 15 years of work experience. The findings revealed that the majority of lecturers (32, 52%) had working experience of 6-10 years.

Working experiences of subject librarians were as follows: (23, 46%) had 1-5 years of work experience, (17, 34%) had 6-10 years of work experience, (7, 14%) had 10-15 years of work experience and (3, 6%) had over 15 years of work experience. The findings showed that the majority of subject librarians (23, 46%) and (17, 34%) had working experiences of between 1-5 and 6-10 years respectively.

5.3 The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement

This section addresses research question 1: What is the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement? The study sought to establish the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. The question was covered in sub-sections that follow:

5.3.1 The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement

The question on; "What is the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement?" was asked to students. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from students, lecturers and subject librarians. The results revealed possible impacts of reading culture on students' academic achievement. The results are shown in Figure 5.2.

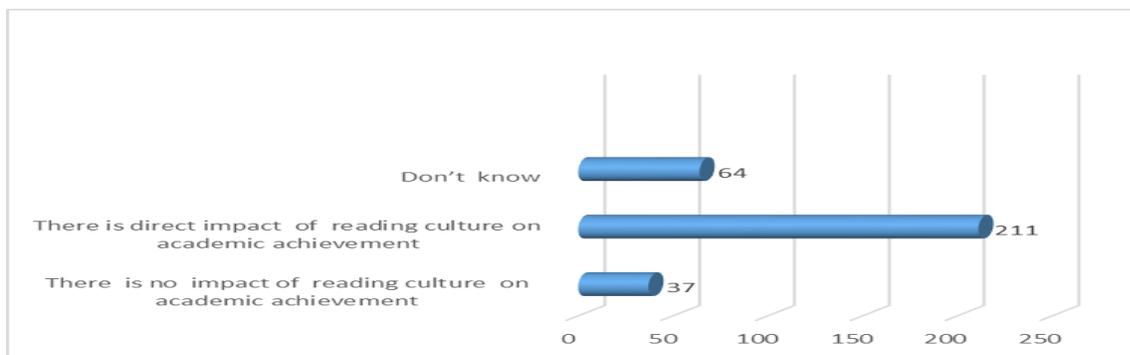


Figure 5.2: The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement (n=312)

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The result revealed that students, (211, 67.6%) were of the view that there was a direct impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. In contrast, (37, 11.8%) did not think there was impact of reading culture on academic achievement and (64, 20.5%) reported they don't know whether reading culture impacts on students' academic achievement. Majority of the students (211, 67.6%) indicated that there was a direct impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement.

Furthermore, lecturers were asked to elucidate on the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. The findings showed that (39, 62%) were of the view that reading culture facilitates academic achievement. The two variables were noted to complement each other to enable students contextualize what is learnt in lecture sessions. In addition (23, 38%) stated that

they did not know whether there was impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement.

The interview with subject librarians confirmed linear impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. One subject librarian noted that:

“Reading culture helps the students to contextualize and understand what is learnt in lecture sessions. Also, students who have strong reading culture have good behaviour in self-reading and obviously perform well in academic work”.

Another subject librarian from University C claimed that:

“There is no impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement since there are students who do not read but still achieve in academic work”.

The findings from the results in general reveal a linear impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. This view is echoed by Al-Mahrooqi and Roscoe (2014), Cimmiyotti (2013), Oji and Habibu (2011), Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah (2012), Lukhele (2013), Mendezabal (2013), Adaora (2016) and Anyaegbu, Aghauche and Nnamani (2016) who noted that students with reading culture perform well in academic work. Likewise, reading culture helps individual students to organize reading activities in behavioural manner (Haliru *et al.*, 2015).

In contrast (37, 11.8%) of the respondents stated that there is no impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement but this depends on Intelligence Quotient (IQ) of individual students (Deary and Batty, 2007). Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu (2014) observed that individual student can be intelligent but might lack attitude and behaviour to use reading resources to synthesize their competences. Social Cognitive Theory articulates that ability of cognitive patterns and teaching and learning environments enable students to create personal attitude and behaviour (Wang and Lin, 2007; Burney, 2008). The incorporation of Social Cognitive Theory forms patterns to impact the students' academic success.

5.3.2 The impact of gender on students' reading culture

Lecturers were asked “How in your opinion does gender affect reading culture of students?” The responses were as follows: (35, 56%) of respondents noted that gender had nothing to do with reading culture, (14, 23%) indicated that gender affects reading culture as women are caregivers responsible for house chores of families and (13, 21%) mentioned that they did not know the impact of gender on reading culture.

Subject librarians were interviewed to respond to the question on; “How gender affects reading culture of students”. One subject librarian remarked that:

“Gender has nothing do with reading culture because attitude and behaviour in reading are inner most feelings developed by individual students despite their gender”.

Another subject librarian from University B revealed that:

“Gender affects reading culture of females rather than males because of social construction. Females are pre-occupied by domestic chores to take care of the family”.

This view is supported by Lone (2011), Reilly (2012), Dilshad, Adnan and Akram (2013), Uusen and Müürsepp (2012), Stoet and Geary (2013), Merga (2014), Karadeniz and Can (2015), Perrin (2016) who found that gender difference in reading exists where males were poor readers and spent less time in reading compared to females. The study on reading habits of social studies and history teachers in Turkey by Tuba (2017) lauded that females had more reading attitude compared to males.

In relation to Social Cognitive Theory learning process requires an environment which favours both male and female students. Uusen and Müürsepp (2012) suggest that reading programmes in all education levels should consider gender as an important aspect in reading culture and academic achievement. The current study confirmed gender imbalance in students' enrollment where (234, 75%) were males and (78, 25%) were females. Of 62 lecturers, (59, 95.2%) were

males and (3, 4.8%) were females, subject librarians, (35, 70%) were male and (15, 30) were female.

5.3.3 Relationship between age of the students and reading culture

Subject librarians were interviewed on “How age affects reading culture of the students?” One subject librarian responded that:

“Age affects reading culture of the students. Older students are more affected compared to younger age as old people experience physiological changes”.

Another subject librarian from University A was of the contrary view that:

“Age has nothing to do with reading culture because reading culture is all about attitude and behaviour developed over time by individual students”.

Chi-square (χ^2) and cross tabulations were done to determine if reading culture of the students depends on age. The cross tabulation combined data of both students and their age profiles. The results are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Relationship between age and reading culture (n=312)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.551 ^a	6	0.603
Likelihood Ratio	6.526	6	0.367
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.144	1	0.285
N of Valid Cases	312		

4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 0.36

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Table 5.6 show $p < 0.603$ which means there is no significant correlation between reading culture and age of the students. The results suggest that reading culture is an independent entity not determined by the age of individual students.

The general findings of the current study confirmed that age has a direct relationship with reading culture. Dilshad, Adnan and Akram (2013), on; ‘Gender difference in reading habits of university students in Pakistan’ and Wojciechowska (2016) in a study on; ‘The readership indicators in Poland and programmes promoting reading’ indicated a decrease of reading ability as people grow older. Deary and Batty (2007) asserted that there are changes experienced in old age including the decrease of mental ability and eyesight which affect reading culture. Chettri and Rout (2013) in their study on ‘Reading habits - an overview’ found that age and attitudes influence reading culture of students. Gaona and Villuendas (2011) and Perrin (2016) revealed that young adults were likely to read more compared to older people. In relation to Social Cognitive Theory, the ability to perform an activity depends on the age of individuals (Anderson-Bill, Winett, Wojcik and Williams, 2011).

5.4 Students’ perceptions on their reading self-efficacy

This section presented research question 2: “To what extent do students perceive their self-efficacy influences reading for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?” This question was addressed in sub-sections that follow:

5.4.1 How do you rate your reading self-efficacy

Students were asked about their “Perceptions on their reading self-efficacy” and the results are shown in Figure 5.3.

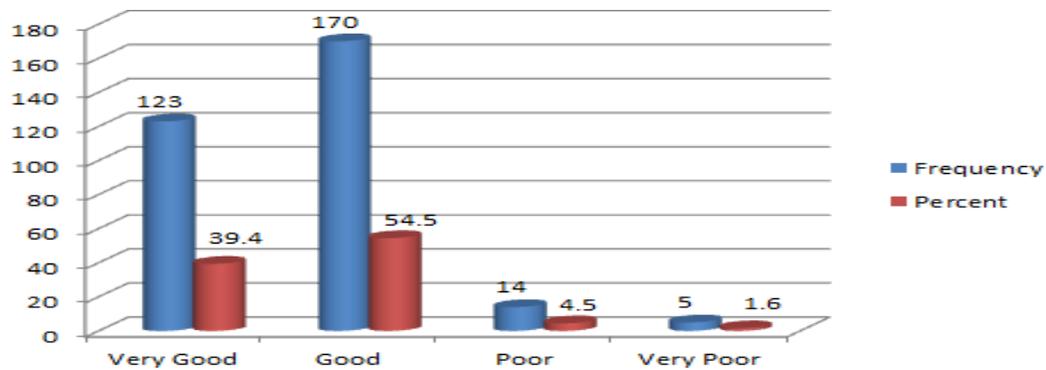


Figure 5.3: Students’ perceptions on their reading self-efficacy (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Figure 5.3 show that (170, 54.5%) of students rated their reading self-efficacy as good, (123, 39.4%) very good, (14, 4.5%) rated themselves poor and (5, 1.6%) stated very poor. In addition, the question; “How do you rate students’ reading self-efficacy” was also asked to the subject librarians. The findings showed that one of subject librarians was of the opinion that:

“Students’ reading self-efficacy is good for them to acquire reading skills and enhance competence. Similarly, reading self-efficacy improves efficiency of the students in their academic work and it builds confidence in one’s self to achieve on his or her own”.

The results for this study agree with the study by O’Donnell, Reeve and Smith (2012) and Ojonugwa, Hamzah, Bakar and Rashid (2015) who found that students had high reading self-efficacy which implied that students understood their abilities to perform in academic work. Li (2009), Daniels and Steres (2011), Mushtag and Khan (2012), Wentzel, Wigfield and Miele (2016), Devi, Khandelwal and Das (2017) and Cherry and Freud (2017) confirmed that efficacious students interact with personal, behavioural and environmental attributes to work hard and perform academic work. According to Social cognitive Theory, reading self-efficacy explains attitude, behaviour, and confidence and drives to perform academic works. The study results confirmed that students’ reading self-efficacies would be able to achieve more in academic work.

5.4.2 Amount of time spent on reading

The question; “What amount of time do you spent on reading per day?” was asked to students to understand time per day students devoted to reading. The results are presented in Figure 5.4.

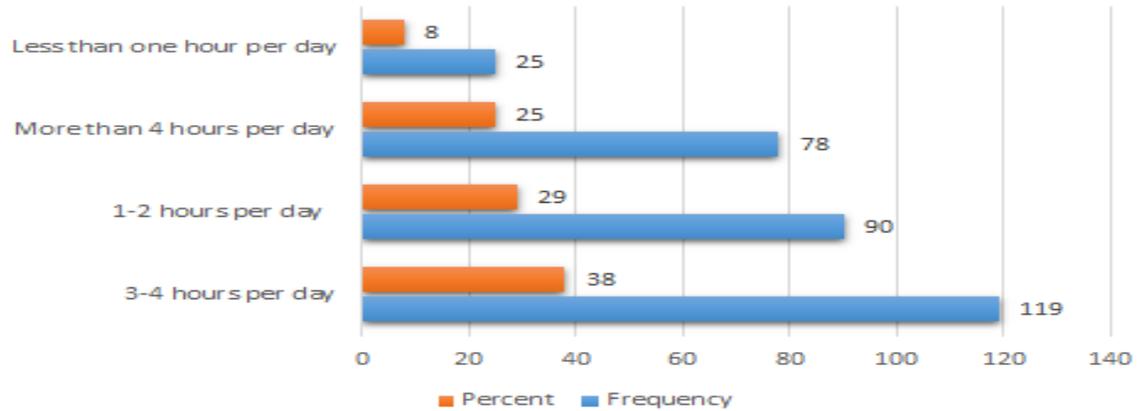


Figure 5.4: Amount of time spent on reading (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

Figure 5.4 summarizes the result on the time spent per day by students on reading: (119, 38%) of respondents spent 3-4 hours reading per day, (90, 29%) spent 1-2 hours to read per day, (78, 25%) spent more than 4 hours per day and (25, 8%) spent less than one hour per day. The findings revealed that majority of students 119 (38%) spend 3-4 hours on reading per day.

Medar and Kenchakkanavar (2015) in the study on reading habits by the students of Karnataka Science College reported that most of the students (96, 39.02%) spent 2-4 hours to read. The study on students’ use of academic libraries by Nwezeh and Shabi (2011) found that most of the students spent an average time of 1-4 hours per day on reading. Haliru *et al.* (2015) in an assessment of reading habits revealed that students spent only 1-2 hours per day on reading. Social Cognitive Theory observes that attitude and behaviour are formed by performing an act repeatedly overtime (Wang and Lin, 2007; Rajaratnam, 2013; Benwari and Nemine, 2014). This is also evident in the study results which show that students spent three to four hours reading a day.

5.4.3 Time spent on reading for leisure, information or entertainment

The subject librarians were asked in an interview on “How much time was spent by the students to read for leisure, information or entertainment?”. The response from one of the subject librarians was:

“Rarely students spend time to read for leisure, information or entertainment due to tight academic timetable. However, some of the students read for leisure, information or entertainment but it is difficult to monitor time they spent to read”.

The study results show that it is rare for the students to read for leisure or entertainment. Similarly, Sweney (2015) reported that time spent on reading for leisure or entertainment declined worldwide on average rate of 25 percent in 4 years 2010/2014. OECD (2011b) observed that in 2009 37 percent of students didn’t read for leisure or entertainment.

Social Cognitive Theory states that time spent on reading influence the learning process and cognitive domains of students (Merga, 2014). The study results suggest that students don’t read for leisure or entertainment. In practice, students access reading materials to suit immediate demands for examinations, tests, assignments, research work, leisure or entertainment.

5.4.4 The impact of time spent on reading on students’ academic achievement

The question; “To what extent do you agree that students who spend a lot of time on reading also achieve in academic work?” was asked to students. The findings are shown in Figure 5.5.

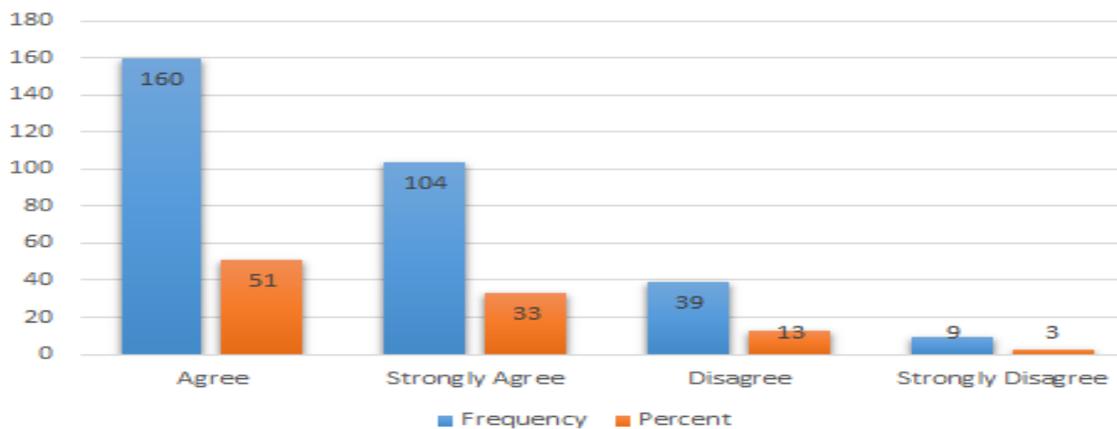


Figure 5.5: The impact of time spent on reading on students’ academic achievement (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

Findings in Figure 5.5 revealed that (160, 51%) agreed with the statement that students who spend a lot of time on reading also achieve in academic work, and (104, 33%) strongly agreed. Surprisingly, (39, 13%) disagreed and (9, 3%) strongly disagreed. The findings indicate majority of students (160, 51%) agreed that time spent on reading determined positive outcomes in academic work.

The same question was asked to the lecturers “To what extent do you agree that students who spend a lot of time on reading also achieve in academic work?” The findings are presented in figure 5.6.

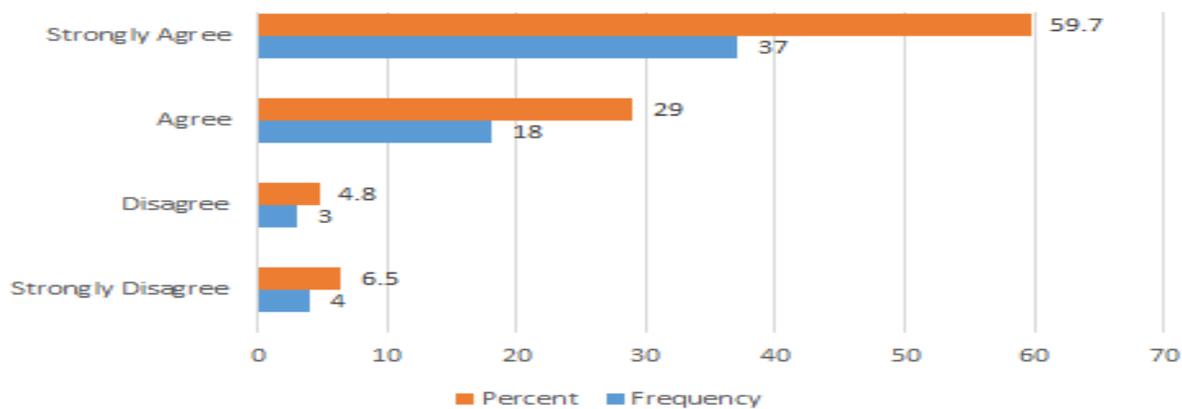


Figure 5.6: The impact of time spent on reading on students’ academic achievement (n=62)
(Source: Field data, 2016)

The result in Figure 5.6 indicates that (37, 59.7%) of respondents strongly agreed that students who spent much time in reading achieved in academic work, (18, 29%) agreed, (3, 4.8%) disagreed and (4, 6.5%) strongly disagreed. Majority of lecturers (37, 59.7%) strongly agreed followed by (18, 29%) who agreed that time spent on reading determine academic achievement of the students.

The argument concurs with the view that time spent on reading determines academic achievement of the students (Hyatt, 2011; Merga, 2014; Ng, Zakaria, Lai and Confessore, 2016). Daniels and Steres (2011) on a study of ‘Effects of a school wide reading found’ that spending a lot of time on reading increases students’ engagement and learning more. Time spent on reading

helps readers to read and motivate students to acquire reading attitude and behaviour (Suk, 2015).

Similarly, Social Cognitive Theory perceives cognitive process and time spent on reading as a means of acquiring attitude and behaviour. It states that spending much time in reading suggests that attitude and behaviour are developed over time and once developed become permanent for individuals lifelong learning (Oji and Habibu, 2011; Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma, 2015). The current study revealed that students spent less time on reading and this may explain the decline in reading and consequently academic achievement.

5.5 Suitability of library as a conducive place for reading

This section covered research question 3: “To what extent do students use university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?” This question was covered in sub-sections as follows:

5.5.1 The university library as a conducive place for reading

The question; “In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive for reading?” was asked to students. The findings are presented in Figure 5.7.

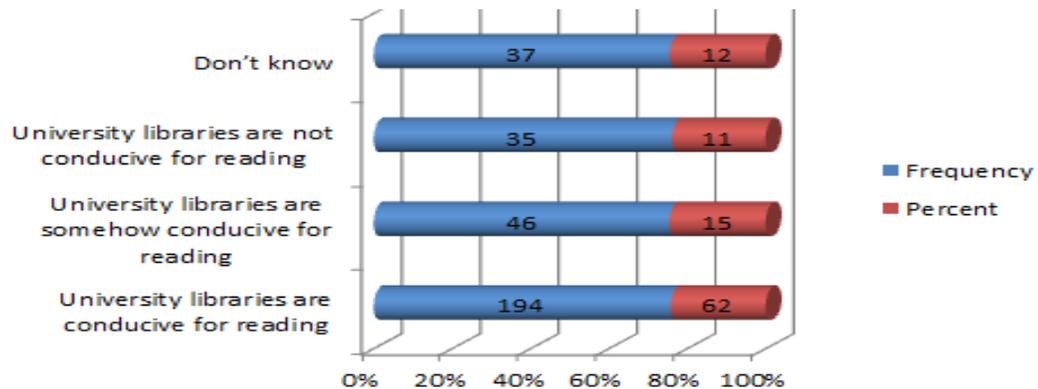


Figure 5.7: The university library as a conducive place for reading (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

Results presented in Figure 5.7 revealed that (194, 62%) of students confirmed that university libraries are conducive for the students to promote their reading culture, (46, 15%) said the

university libraries were somehow conducive though there are limited, outdated reading materials as well as limited space. Furthermore, it was revealed by (35, 11%) that libraries were not conducive for reading. In addition, (37, 12%) of respondents did not know whether university libraries were conducive for reading. The majority of students (194, 62%) were of the view that university libraries were conducive for reading.

This question “In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive for reading?” was also interviewed to subject librarians. One of subject librarians was quoted as saying:

“Our library is well ventilated with enough light and comfortable space. Though students lack reading attitude and behaviour to use the library”.

The question; “In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive place for reading?” was also asked to the lecturers. The findings revealed that (47, 76%) of respondents were of the opinion that university libraries are conducive for students to develop reading culture as there are good reading spaces, have up-to date reading materials, are well-staffed and students with disabilities are accommodated well. However, (15, 24%) indicated that university libraries were fairly well-positioned despite the fact that there are stumbling blocks such as inadequate services and resources.

The results of this study collaborate with the results of Onanuga *et al.* (2017) in the study on library services utilization and satisfaction by undergraduate students and found that students were satisfied with library resources and services apart from minor limitations. The study on pervasiveness and purpose of library usage by LIS students at Islamic University by Bhatti (2013) found that university libraries are well equipped for the students to access library services.

The study findings reflect Social Cognitive Theory on the importance of teaching and learning environments in academic settings. Loh (2017) concurred that physical and psychological environments influence reading culture of students. The study results suggest that university

libraries were positioned to provide resources and services despite some challenges. In practice library resources and services were underutilized by the students.

5.5.2 Frequency of students visit to the library

The study sought to understand “Frequency of students in visiting the university library”. This question was posed to students. The findings are presented in Figure 5.8.

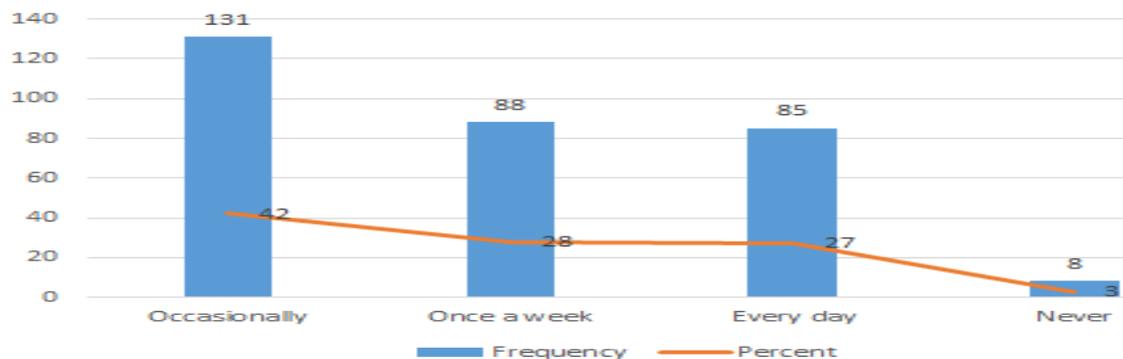


Figure 5.8: Frequency of students visit to the library (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The findings revealed that (131, 42%) visited the library occasionally, (88, 28%) once a week, (85, 27%) every day and (8, 3%) never. A majority of the students visited the library occasionally. The study by Hussain and Lavanya (2014) on the impact of ICTs in library and information services revealed that 34.78 percent of the students visited the library every day and only 5.71 percent visited the library occasionally. The study by Abubakar and Diyoshak (2015) reported that 36.2 percent of the students visit the library once a week and 14 percent visit the library once a month.

Social cognitive theory relates attitude and behaviour to frequency of reading in the library. According to Joubert, Ebersöhn, Ferreira, du Plessis and Moen (2014) relevant resources in the library changed students’ behaviour to frequently visit the library for extensive reading. The results of this study suggested that most of the students visited the library occasionally. In practice students visit the library when reinforced by examinations, tests, assignments and research projects (Bhatti (2013).

5.5.3 The purposes for visiting the library

The question of; “What are the purposes for visiting the library?” was asked to students. The findings are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 The purposes for visiting the library (n=312)

Type of respondents	Purposes for visiting the library	Frequency	Percent
Students	Consultations	57	18
	Borrowing Books	122	39
	Leisure Reading	81	26
	For Socialization	18	6
	Revision	4	1
	Examinations, tests and assignments	27	9
	For knowledge building	2	0.6
	Don't know	1	0.3
	Total		312

(Source: Field Data, 2016)

The findings in Table 5.7 revealed that (122, 39%) of students said that they visited the library to borrow some books, (81, 26%) noted they visited the library for leisure reading, (57, 18%) indicated they visited the library for consultations, (27, 9%) stated they are motivated by examinations, tests and assignments to visit the library, (18, 6%) noted they visited the library for socialization, (4, 1%) visited the library for revising what has been taught in lecture sessions, (2, 0.6%) visited the library for knowledge building and (1, 0.3%) didn't know their purposes for visiting the library. The majority of students (122, 39%) it would seem visited the library for the purposes of borrowing books.

The study by Maynard, Mackay and Smyth (2008) considered borrowing books as one of the primary function of libraries for creating reading culture. The study by Nagata, Toda and

Kytömäki (2007) on students’ patterns of library use found a correlation among library use, academic achievement and motivation in learning. Social Cognitive Theory considers library as an integral part of teaching and learning processes. The study by Carillo (2010) confirmed that Social Cognitive Theory gives an understanding of behaviour of students in accessing resources. The current study showed that students visit the library to borrow books relevant to their needs.

5.6 Perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

This section addressed research question four: “What is the attitude of the students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?” The study sought to investigate the attitudes of students towards reading for leisure or entertainment without any reinforcements of examinations. This section was covered by sub-sections that follow:

5.6.1 Perceptions about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

The students were asked “What is your perception about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?” The findings are shown in Figure 5.9.

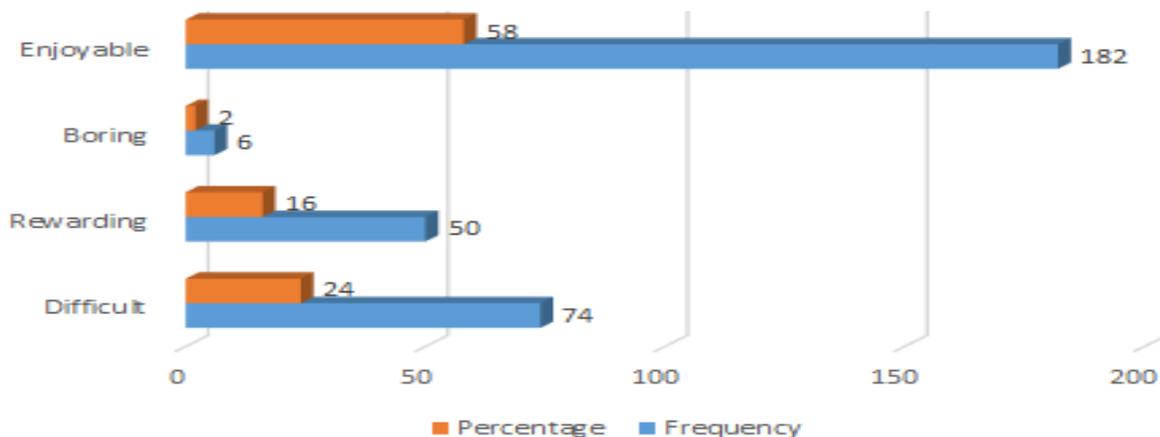


Figure 5.9: Perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results revealed that (182, 58%) of respondents said it was enjoyable, (74, 24%) noted reading is difficult, (50, 16%) stated reading as rewarding and (6, 2%) stated that reading is boring. The findings showed most of the students' perceived reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects as enjoyable.

The same question "What in your opinion is the perception of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects" was also asked to the lecturers. The results revealed that (37, 59.6%) respondents thought students read because of examinations, tests, assignment or research projects, (16, 25.7%) were of the view that students were reading for leisure or entertainment, (3, 4.8%) said students tended to believe they can pass examinations without reading and (6, 9.6%) stated they did not know the behaviour of students with regard to reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.

When asked about "What in your opinion is the perception of students towards reading not associated with examinations" one of subject librarians was of the view that:

"Students perceive reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects as waste of time. Students read only to pass examinations, tests, assignments or research projects".

Another subject librarian from University D concurred that:

"Students understand the importance of reading given that they have been taught about it for their entire education endeavours. Some students can read without reinforcement of examinations, tests, assignment and research projects".

The findings compare well with Lone (2011) who reported that 66.86 percent of the students enjoyed reading. The study by Al Shawwa *et al.* (2015), on; 'Factors influencing academic performance of the university students in King Abdulaziz University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia' revealed that the majority of students (44.75%) considered reading as enjoyable and important. The study by Kayuni (2017), on; 'The effects of poor reading culture on distance education students' academic performance in Zambia' found that 89 percent of students enjoyed

reading. Also, Maynard, Mackay and Smyth (2008), Aina *et al.* (2011) and Kitabu (2011) observed that reading is a source of enjoyment and success. Reading for academic purpose, leisure or entertainment involves behaviour, cognition, psychological and environmental factors (Carillo, 2010). The study results suggest that reading without reinforcement of examinations, tests, assignments and research projects is enjoyable.

5.6.2 The importance of reading in the academic life of students

The question; “What is the importance of reading in the academic life of students?” was asked to students. The findings are presented in Figure 5.10.

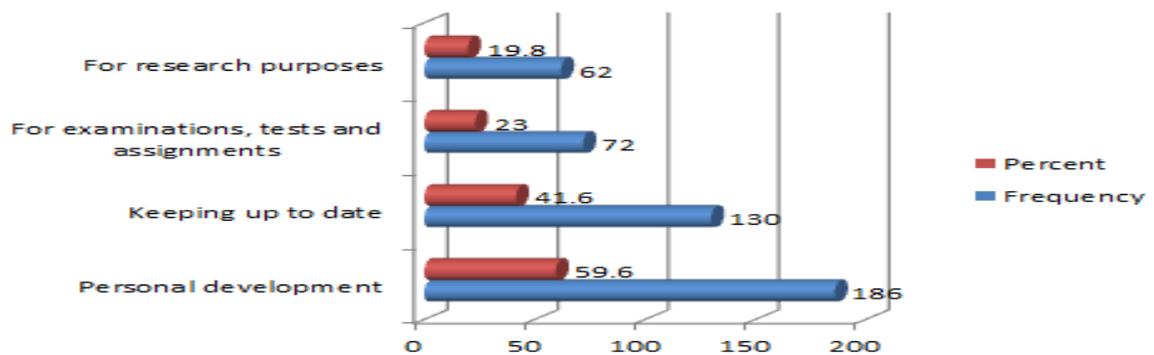


Figure 5.10: The importance of reading in the academic life of students (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The findings showed that (185, 59.9%) were of the view that reading was for personal development, (130, 41.6%) read in order to keep themselves up to date, (72, 23%) read for passing examinations, tests and assignments and (62, 19.8%) read for research purposes. The majority of respondents viewed reading as important for personal development.

The question; “What is the importance of reading in the academic life of students” was also asked to lecturers. The findings revealed that (41, 66%) of respondents confirmed that reading helps the student to pass examinations, gain knowledge, broaden understanding and increase their ability to self-expression. Another (21, 34%) of the respondents indicated did not know the importance of reading in academic life of the students. The majority of respondents viewed reading as a means for personal development, passing examinations, gaining knowledge, broadening understanding and ability to self-expression. Shafi (2010), Oji and Habibu (2011),

Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah (2012), Anyaegbu, Aghauche and Nnamani (2016) and Daniel et al. (2017) are of the view that the importance of reading is that it helps in the academic and personal development of the student.

Social Cognitive Theory integrates academic success and personal development in cognitive domains. The studies by Uusen and Mürsepp (2012), Kirmizi *et al.* (2013) and Hodges (2016) found that reading as a cognitive process plays a great role in enhancing thinking, improving lives and building beliefs. The study results associate the importance of reading to academic success and lifelong learning. According to Rajaratnam (2013) reading attitude and behaviour should be cultivated not only for academic success but also for lifelong learning.

5.7 Factors influencing reading culture of students

This section presents research question 5: “What factors influence a reading culture among students? The study sought; “Factors influencing reading culture among students”. The results are covered in the section that follows:

5.7.1 Factors motivating students to read

The question; “What factors motivate students to read” was asked to students based on multiple results. The results are presented in Figure 5.11.

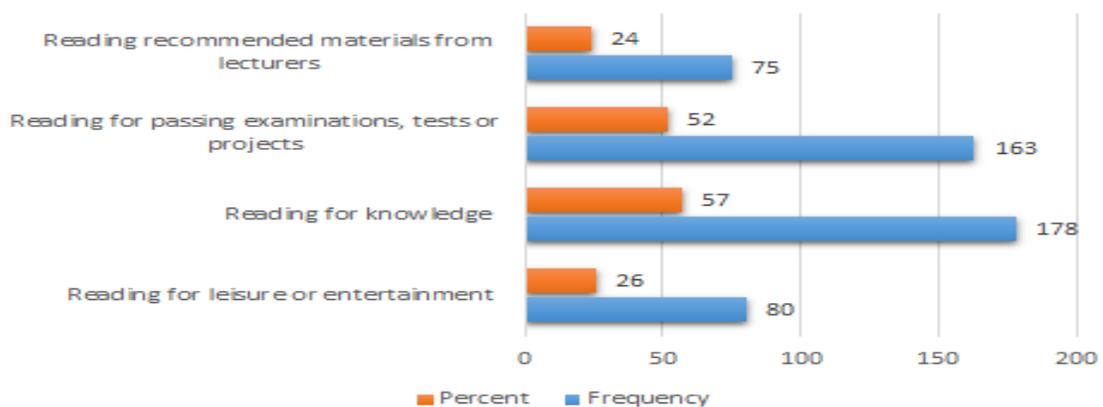


Figure 5.11: Factors motivating students to read (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Figure 5.11 indicate that (178, 57%) of respondents read to gain knowledge, (80, 26%) read for leisure or entertainment, (163, 52%) read to pass examinations, tests or projects and (75, 24%) read materials recommended by lecturers.

The same question “What factors motivate students to read” was asked to lecturers. The findings are presented in Figure 5.12.

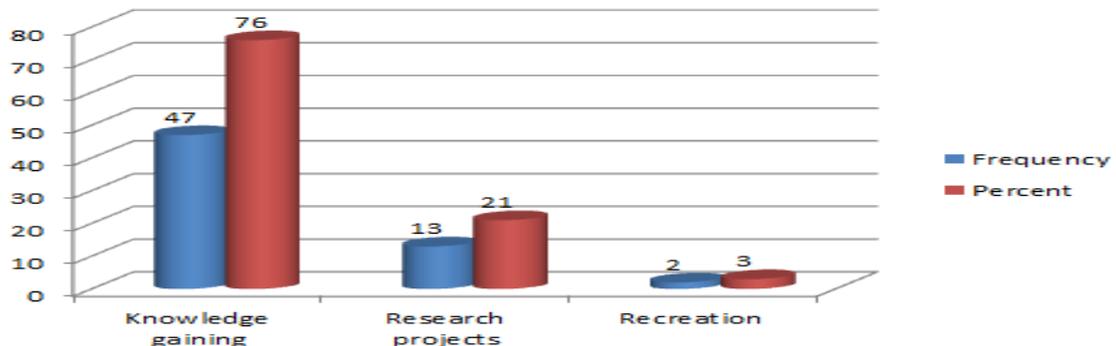


Figure 5.12: Factors motivating students to read (n=62) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Figure 5.12 indicate that (47, 76%) of lecturers were of the opinion that students read to gain knowledge, (13, 21%) said students were motivated to read research projects and (2, 3%) stated recreation as motivation for students to read.

This question; “What factors motivate students to read” was also asked to subject librarians through interview. The findings revealed that:

“Reading culture is influenced by limited time, poor attitude and behaviour towards reading, inadequacy of ICT devices, poor customer care, language barriers and laziness of the students”.

Most of the respondents viewed reading as being influenced by knowledge gaining, leisure or entertainment followed by examinations, tests and assignments. The study by Oladele (2015) on the state of reading in faculty library found that reading in academic settings is attributed to gaining knowledge, leisure and academic success. Sunday and Ajibola (2015) reported that students read to pass examinations, research projects, tests and assignments and not for gaining knowledge.

Social Cognitive Theory views self-regulation as a self-control over cognition, behaviour, emotions and motivation in which students regulate to achieve goals as per the academic environments (Panadero and Alonso-Tapia, 2014). Academic settings influence students to regulate to read for the purposes of passing examinations, tests and assignments. According to Carillo (2010) environments which include classrooms, library resources and services influence cognitive development of learners. The study findings suggest that knowledge and academic success motivate students to engage in reading activities.

5.7.2 Language and reading culture

This question; “How does language used in the information materials hinder reading culture?” was asked to students. The findings revealed that (210, 67.3%) of respondents felt that the English language used in most of the materials hindered reading culture, (89, 28.5%) noted that language has nothing to do with reading culture rather the attitude and behaviour of the students and (13, 4.2%) did not know if language used in reading materials hindered reading culture.

The question; “How in your opinion does language used in the information materials hinder reading culture of the students” was asked to subject librarians through interview. The responses from the interview were unanimous that:

“English language used in most of reading materials hinder reading culture of the students. Reading materials are written in complex language that impedes reading culture of the students”.

One respondent from University D stated that:

“Language has nothing to do with reading culture because reading culture is an individual attitude and behaviour. Experiences show that even reading materials written in local contents and vernaculars are not read in libraries”.

The same question was asked to the lecturers. The findings revealed that (49, 79%) said language used in the reading materials hinder reading culture. However, (4, 6.5%) stated that the English language used in information materials is simple but the students have a poor background of the

English language, (9, 14.5%) indicated that language used in the information materials does not hinder reading culture.

The findings were supported by the study on ‘Reading habit and attitude of the students in a Malaysian Polytechnic’ by Annamalay and Munandy (2013) that students (99, 83.2%) preferred reading materials in their local language to the English language. The studies on; ‘Focusing on EFL reading: Theory and practice at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman’ by Al-Mahrooqi and Roscoe (2014), ‘Declining quality of education: Suggestions for arresting and reversing the trend in Tanzania’ by Sumra and Katabaro (2014), ‘English reading culture of Hong Kong University of Science and Technology’ by DelVecchio *et al.* (2012) and ‘Promoting reading skills through intermediary programme at the Vaal University of Technology in South Africa’ by Scott and Saaiman (2016) revealed that major reading difficulties students face was reading in the English language. Sunday and Ajibola (2015) reiterated that there is a correlation between reading culture and language used in reading materials.

Social Cognitive Theory correlate the understanding of language to cognitive and reading abilities. This means if the language used in materials is not familiar to the readers it impacts negatively on the reading culture. Studies by De Coster, Baidak, Motiejunaite and Noorani (2011) and Lukhele (2013) posited that reading is an enabler for the students to acquire vocabularies and reading abilities. The study results showed that language used in reading materials does not provide opportunity for the students to understand vocabularies to develop their reading culture.

5.8 Strategies to promote reading culture among students

This section presented research question 6: ‘What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?’ The study sought to identify some interventions universities use to promote reading culture. The question investigated whether the universities employed advancing interventions in teaching and learning processes, policies to guide reading culture programmes, library budget for improving library services, parents’ involvement to enhance students reading culture and any necessary skills required for the students to acquire reading culture. The scope of the theme and findings are covered in sub-sections that follow:

5.8.1 Interventions to enhance reading culture

This question; “What in your opinion are interventions being made in your university to enhance reading culture?” was asked to students. The findings indicated that (69, 22%) of respondents were of the view that interventions were in teaching and learning interventions, (84, 27%) said to ensure availability of necessary resources including ICT’s, qualified staff and library resources, (121, 39%) noted reading culture interventions in curricular, (9, 3%) indicated establishment of faculty/departmental libraries and (29, 9%) did not know of any interventions made by the university to enhance reading culture.

The question; “What in your opinion are interventions being made in your university to enhance reading culture among students?” was asked to lecturers. The question sought to find out learning activities given to students to become independent readers. The findings revealed that (44, 71%) of the respondents noted students were given group and individual assignments, term papers, class presentation, tests and book review, (15, 24%) mentioned reading culture guideline and (3, 5%) said that they did not know if any learning activities were given to students to make them independent readers.

This question “What in your opinion are interventions being made in your university to enhance reading culture among students?” was posed to subject librarians through interview. The findings from one of the respondent was:

“University provides reading materials in hard copies and soft copies, newspapers, magazines, internet services information literacy training, conducive reading environments, marketing library services through social media networks and employing professional librarians”.

Another respondent had this to say:

“Students should be introduced to reading activities such as reading competitions to instil positive attitude and behaviour towards reading culture. Also, libraries should promote their services through user education and book shows”.

Most of respondents viewed that universities promote reading culture through teaching and learning interventions. The study on an assessment of reading culture among students in Nigerian tertiary institutions by Ifedili (2009) supported reading culture interventions through training lecturers on embedded reading culture curricular, pedagogies and reading assignments. The studies on ‘Teaching effectiveness and attitude to reading of secondary school teachers in Nigeria’ by Popoola, Ajibade, Etim, Oloyede and Adeleke (2010) ‘Reading habits of social studies and history teachers in Turkey’ by Tuba (2017) confirmed that teachers with reading culture were found effective in their teaching profession compared to teachers without reading culture.

Social Cognitive Theory includes pedagogical skills for the lecturers to apply in teaching and learning environments. The results indicated that the universities make interventions in teaching and learning processes. Further, lecturers provide students with learning activities to promote reading culture. Applegate, Applegate, Mercantini, McGeehan, Cobb, DeBoy and Lewinski (2014) point out that learning activities make students engage in reading regularly because they are motivated to satisfy academic and social needs.

5.8.2 Policy available to promote reading culture

The question; “What policy if any is available to promote reading culture among the students?” was asked to lecturers to address research question 6 on; “What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?” The researcher wanted to know whether the universities had mechanisms, policies or guidelines to monitor and assess the trend of reading culture. It was found that (49, 79%) said no specific policy was available and (13, 21%) did not know of the availability of reading culture policy in their respective universities.

This question; “What policy if any is available to promote reading culture among the students?” was similarly asked to the subject librarians. The responses were unanimous that:

“Our universities have no reading culture policy and if the policy is there we are not aware of it. However, education policy talks about reading culture of the students in academic institutions in Tanzania”.

Together with other interventions to enhance reading culture among the students, reading culture policy would provide a road map for the students to acquire positive reading culture attitude and behaviour. From the responses, majority of lecturers (49, 79%) and subject librarians were not aware of any existing reading culture policy. A similar study on reading attitude among rural and urban learners by Memon (2014) reported that education policy in Pakistan does not consider reading culture as an important variable. The study on reading habits of university students in Uganda by Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma (2015) revealed the need to introduce reading culture policy with ICT interventions to enhance the culture of reading.

5.8.3 Library budget devoted to reading for leisure, information or entertainment

This question; “How much library budget is devoted for reading to leisure?” was asked to subject librarians to address research question 6 on; “What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?” The researcher wanted to know whether the university libraries were allocated specific funds to improve reading culture programmes. The findings revealed common thread in statements such as:

“...I am not aware of the exact library budget devoted to reading for leisure, information or entertainment though newspapers are purchased daily”.

Surprisingly, one respondent from University C pointed out that:

“The budget for the library is enough even to purchase leisure, information or entertainment reading materials though such materials are not purchased”.

The findings are compared to the argument by Nicholson (2012) that in the past reading materials for leisure or entertainment were regarded important but currently librarians underestimate their importance and the focus has moved to academic resources. This is attributed to insufficient funds to purchase leisure or entertainment reading materials, decline of reading culture, internet sources, lack of spaces in the libraries and time limitation of the readers (Elliott, 2007; Nicholson, 2012; Tait, Martzoukou and Reid, 2016). The study on leisure reading collections in academic health science libraries by Watson (2014) lauded the necessity of leisure reading materials such as newspapers and magazines in academic libraries. Reading for leisure

collection in the library encourages students to read in the libraries and support academic achievement (Dier and Simpson, 2012; Mol and Jolles, 2014).

5.8.4 The role of parents in developing reading culture of students

The question; “How can parents help in developing good reading culture among students?” was asked to lecturers to address research question 6 on; “What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?” The question sought to understand the levels of parents’ involvement to enhance students reading culture. The findings are presented in Figure 5.13.

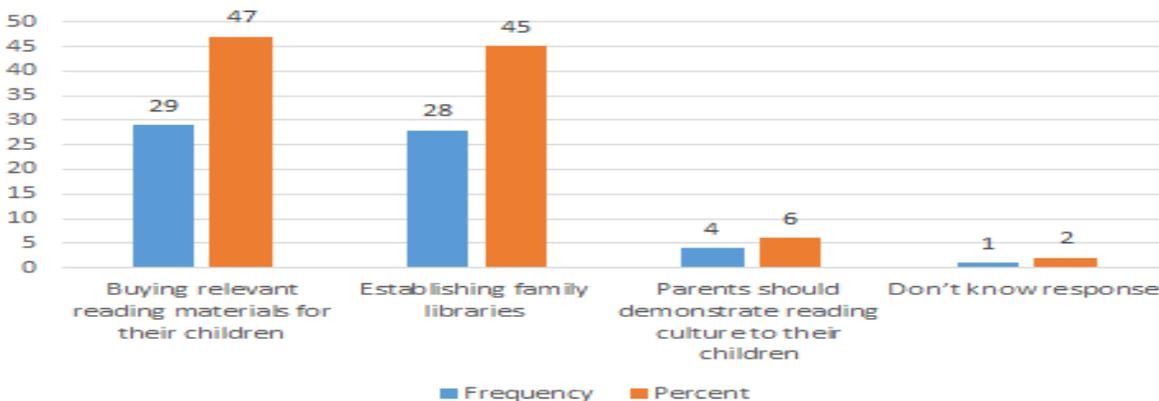


Figure 5.13: The role of parents in developing reading culture (n=62) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Figure 5.13 indicate that (29, 47%) of the respondents mentioned that provision of relevant reading materials for their children, (28, 45%) stated that establishing family libraries, (3, 5%) claimed parents should inculcate reading culture for the children to adopt and (2, 3%) did not know if there are any roles parents can play to promote reading culture of their children.

Most of the lecturers (29, 47%) were of the opinions that parents had the role to provide their children with reading materials based on their needs. The result collaborates with the studies on “Teachers and parents’ roles in improving reading culture in Kenya” by Benard and Ondari (2014), on “For the love of reading in USA” by Willingham (2015), “Omani students’ attitude towards EFL reading between school and universities” by AlSeyabi and Al Amri (2016) and on;

“Promoting reading habit among secondary school students in Nigeria” by Edeole and Adejoke (2016) who underscored the roles of parents and teachers in instilling reading culture to the students. Furthermore, Tuba (2017), on “Reading habits of social studies and history teachers in Turkey” suggested parents should buy reading materials to motivate their students in reading. Applegate *et al.* (2014) confirmed that 43 to 62 percent of the students who were supported by their parents in reading had acquired reading attitude and skills.

According to Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory, students learn attitude and behaviour through observing and imitating attitudes, behaviours, experiences and cognitive skills from parents, lecturers, family members and community at large (Aliakbari, Parvin, Heidari and Haghani, 2015; Devi, Khandelwal and Das, 2017; Cherry and Freud, 2017). The study results suggest that home and academic environments are important in instilling reading culture to the students.

5.8.5 Skills needed to develop good reading culture

The question; “What are skills needed to develop good reading culture?” was asked to students to address research question 6 on; “What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?” The researcher wanted to know specific skills necessary for enabling students to acquire reading attitude and behaviour. The findings are presented in Figure 5.14.

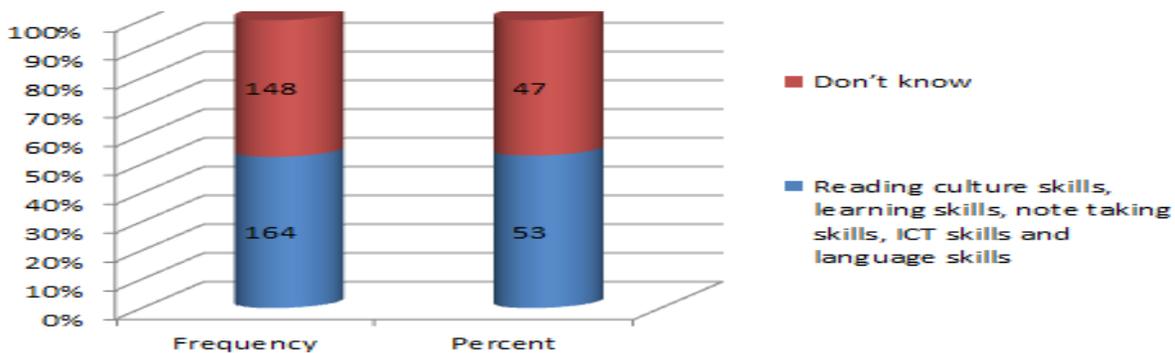


Figure 5.14: Skills needed to develop good reading culture (n=312) (Source: Field data, 2016)

The results in Figure 5.14 indicate that the majority of students (164, 53%) noted that necessary skills for developing good reading culture include reading culture skills, learning skills, note

taking skills, ICT skills and language skills. However, (148, 47%) did not know skills needed to promote reading culture.

The same question was tweaked and asked to lecturers; “What are skills needed on the part of students to develop good reading culture?” The findings revealed that (57, 92%) of respondents mentioned reading skills, note taking skills, ICT skills, time management skills and writing skills. (5, 8%) responded that they did not know skills needed by students to promote reading culture.

Furthermore, the question; “What are skills needed by students to develop good reading culture?” was asked subject librarians. The findings as quoted verbatim stated:

“...for the students to create and nurture reading culture, skills needed are searching skills of information materials, reading, writing and listening skills”.

The responses from all three categories of respondents seem to concur with Uusen and Määrsepp (2012), Kirmizi *et al.* (2013) and Erdem (2015) who asserted that students need skills such as reading and ICT skills to acquire knowledge, experiences and develop good reading culture. Furthermore, Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman (2010) observed that there is a strong relationship between reading culture and reading skills. The studies by Mendezabal (2013), Al-Zoubi (2015), and Anyaegbu, Aghauche and Nnamani (2016) attributed poor academic performance to lack of planning, skills and motivation and parents involvements in students learning to acquire reading culture.

According to Social Cognitive Theory teaching and learning processes involve cognitive, psychomotor and affection domains in which skills to perform a behaviour are imparted (Memon, 2014). The study results confirm that reading skills are vital for students to acquire reading culture.

5.9 Recommendations to develop culture of reading

Recommendations were sought on how to encourage students to develop culture of reading. In particular, the question; “What recommendations can you make to encourage students to develop culture of reading?” was posed to students. The findings are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Recommendations to promote reading culture (n=312)

Respondent type	Recommendations to promote reading culture	Frequency	Percent
Students	Interventions on reading culture skills, learning skills, cognitive skills, language skills and ICT skills	96	31
	Change of attitudes and behaviours on reading for life endeavour	58	19
	Ensure availability of reading resources	24	8
	Review of curricular and language used in reading materials	19	6
	Introduction of reading culture policy	12	4
	Don't know	103	33

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The results presented in Table 5.8 show that (96, 31%) of respondents recommended intervention on reading culture skills, learning skills, cognitive skills, language skills and ICT skills, (58, 19%) cited change of attitudes and behaviours towards reading for life, (24, 8%) mentioned availability of reading materials, (19, 6%) indicated review of curricular and language used in reading materials, (12, 4%) proposed introduction of reading culture policy in universities to guide reading culture and (103, 33%) did not provide any recommendations for promoting reading culture at the universities.

Similarly, the subject librarians were asked; “What recommendations can you make to encourage students to develop culture of reading?” A librarian from university D stated as follows:

“.....students have to make individual initiatives to change their attitude and behaviour to acquire reading culture skills and devoting time to use library services. Also, the universities, parents and lecturers collectively should enhance reading culture of the students”.

The question; “What recommendations can you make to encourage students to develop culture of reading?” was also asked to the lecturers. The findings are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Recommendations to promote reading culture (n=62)

Respondent type	Recommendations to promote reading culture	Frequency	Percent
Lecturers	Reading for acquiring knowledge not only for examinations, tests, assignments or research projects	13	21
	Establishment of policy to guide reading culture	15	24
	Establishment of reading competitions and events	2	3
	Initiatives for the students to acquire reading culture attitude and behaviours	3	5
	Interventions in curricular, teaching and learning processes, assessment and evaluation	21	34
	Ensure availability of reading materials in libraries	5	8
	Don't know	3	5

(Source: Field data, 2016)

The findings presented in Table 5.9 revealed that (21, 34%) of respondents recommended interventions in curricular, teaching and learning processes, assessment and evaluation, (15, 24%) proposed that universities should establish policy to guide reading culture, (13, 21%) suggested reading for acquiring knowledge and not only for passing examinations, tests, assignments or research projects, (5, 8%) said libraries should be equipped with necessary reading resources, (2, 3%) recommended establishment of reading competitions and events and (3, 5%) did not state any interventions to inculcate reading culture among students.

Related studies have recommended ways of enhancing reading culture among students to include creating enabling environments to engage students in reading independently (Heng, 2014; Akpan and Salome, 2015), employing qualified and skilled librarians and academics to impart reading culture to the students (Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah, 2012); reading programmes that

extend to parents which enables them to demonstrate reading culture to their children (Coster *et al.*, 2011).

5.10 Summary of the findings

This chapter analysed and presented the findings addressing the research questions that were investigated. The findings from quantitative and qualitative data were collated and presented in tandem. The constructs of Social Cognitive Theory and research questions were used to guide the presentation of the results. The findings indicated that students were of the opinion that the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievements exists. Thus, students who had developed reading culture were inclined to perform well in academic work. Also, the study revealed that gender and age influence reading culture of students.

The study showed that students had good reading self-efficacy despite the less time spent on reading for leisure or entertainment. The impact exists between time spent on reading and performing in academic work. In other words students who spent much time on reading perform well in academic work. The university libraries are conducive for reading despite some minor challenges students encountered. Students visit the libraries occasionally for the purposes of borrowing books. The findings revealed university libraries were underutilized by the students. The results showed that students perceived reading as important and enjoyable for personal development. The positive attitude and belief in reading was expected to provide students with motivation to read for leisure or entertainment not reinforced by examinations, tests or assignments. The results revealed that reading for leisure or entertainment doesn't seem to happen in universities surveyed. This study also examined factors which influence reading culture. The results showed that students read to gain knowledge. However, in practice students read to perform well in academics. The results revealed absence of reading culture policy in all universities surveyed. None of the four universities had a curriculum, guideline or programmes for reading culture. Besides, there were some interventions in teaching and learning being made by universities to develop reading culture among students.

The next chapter interprets and discusses the study findings.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter interprets and discusses the study findings analysed and presented in chapter five. Interpretation and discussion of results draws conceptual meanings in comparison to the research questions, extant literature, key variables and research problem (Annesley, 2010; Creswell, 2014; Wertheimer and Ding, 2016). The chapter provides answers to the research questions and insights major study contributions to new knowledge, policy, practice and existing theories (Creswell, 2012).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. The study addressed the following research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment than for academic pursuits?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

The respondents were in three categories namely: final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students and subject librarians. Respondents were drawn from four universities: Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University and University of Iringa (UoI). The pragmatism paradigm underpinned the study. Social Cognitive Theory informed this study and is

integrated into the interpretation and discussion of the result. The study's overall response rate of 224 (85.5%) was realized as shown in Table 5.1 in chapter 5. The response rate of 224 (85.5%) is acceptable to draw conclusions from this study.

This chapter is organised basing according to the research questions, objectives and themes as follows: characteristics of respondents, the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement, students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy, suitability of library as place for reading, perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects, factors influencing reading culture of students and interventions universities were making to enhance reading culture of students.

6.2 Characteristics of respondents

The characteristics of the respondents in part determined the distribution of the respondents in the four universities surveyed. The information sought included: distribution of respondents from public and private universities, gender distribution, age distribution, education level and work experience (lecturers and subject librarians) as depicted in Table 5.5 in Chapter five.

The results revealed that more than half of the respondents (228, 53.8%) were from private universities as compared to (196, 46.2%) from public universities (as indicated in Figure 5.1 in Chapter five). The study by Mazumder and Ahmed (2014), on; 'A comparative study of learning strategies between public and private university students in Bangladesh' revealed that 143 respondents from private universities participated in the study compared to 21 respondents from public universities. However, the study by Mazumder and Ahmed involved eight private and two public universities whereas; the current study involved two private and two public universities.

Further, the results showed that most of the respondents in all three categories were males. Of 312 students, (234, 75%) were males and (78, 25%) females. Similarly, out of 62 lecturers, 59 or 95.16% were males and (3, 4.84%) were females, and among 50 subject librarians, 35 or 70% were males and (15, 30%) were females (Refer to Table 5.2 in Chapter five). The result shows great gender disparity between males and females in surveyed universities in Tanzania. Studies by Forsthuber, Horvath and Motiejunaite (2010), on; 'Gender differences in educational

outcomes in Europe’, Jonson (2011), on; ‘Women’s access to higher learning education in Tanzania’, Lestrade (2012), on; ‘Gender disparity in higher education in Ethiopia’, Mlyakado (2012), on; ‘Gender and education opportunities in Tanzania’, Mhlanga (2013), on; ‘Gender equality in South African higher education institutions’, Egne (2014), on; ‘Gender equality in public higher education in Ethiopia’, Jayachandran (2014), on; ‘The roots of gender inequality in developing countries’, Mukoro (2014), on; ‘Gender participation in university in Nigeria’, Forum for African Women educationalists (2015), on; ‘Tackling gender inequality in higher learning education institutions in Africa’, Yeba and Meno (2015), on; ‘Socio-cultural factors affecting gender inequality in higher education in Cameroon’, Boateng, Egwuasi, Laguador, Apea and Oleforo (2017), on; ‘School environment in Nigeria, Ghana and the Philippines’ and Klasen and Minasyan (2017), on; ‘Gender inequality and growth in Europe’ confirmed that there still exist gender disparity between males and females in higher education institutions in terms of enrollment and employment.

Pertaining to the age of the respondents, the results revealed that most of the students (232, 74%) were in the age group of 21-30. The results seem to reflect the system of education of 7-4-2-3 in Tanzania in which students qualify to join university level in the age group of 21-30 (URT, 2014a; URT, 2014b). Of the 62 lecturers, more than half, 37 or 59.9% were in the age group of 41-50 years. A majority of subject librarians 19 or 38% were in the age group of 21-30 years (Refer to Table 5.3 in Chapter five). The age profile of lecturers and subject librarians suggests that universities employ staff who would serve the universities for a long time before retirement. The study by Subbaye and Dhunpath (2016) on ‘Early-career academic support at the University of KwaZulu - Natal in South Africa’ noted that present university staff is aging.

The results also revealed that the majority of lecturers (38, 61%) were assistant lecturers with a master’s degree; 18 or 29% of lecturers had a master’s degree and more than three years’ experience and 6 or 10% were senior lecturers with PhDs (As shown in Table 5.4 in Chapter five). The results suggest a scarcity of highly qualified staff at universities. Similarly, the study by Ishengoma (2007) on; ‘The debate on quality and the private surge: A status review of private universities and college in Tanzania’ reported that most of the academics in universities were assistant lecturers and lecturers with a master’s degree. The study by Ishengoma was conducted

at private universities in Tanzania and inferred comparable results with the current study that involved private universities. In addition, the results revealed that the majority of subject librarians 24 or 48% had diplomas followed by 14 or 28% who had a degree, then 10 or 18% who had a master's degree and only 2 or 4% had PhDs (As shown in Table 5.4). The results show that the majority of subject librarians were diploma holders. According to the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), assistant library trainees and assistant librarians should have minimum qualifications of a first degree and master's degree respectively (TCU, 2014). The study results indicated that the majority of subject librarians (23, 46%) had working experiences of 1-5 years and the majority of lecturers (32, 52%) had working experience of 6-10 years (As indicated in Table 5.5). The results suggest a lack of experience for the majority of librarians and lecturers.

6.3 The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement

The first research question for this study sought to establish the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement in the universities surveyed. The question was further subdivided into three sub-sections. The first sub-section intended to establish the level of the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement (See Appendix 10, section 2 question 1 students' questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 2, question 1 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 2, question 1 subject librarians' interview schedule). The second sub-section intended to determine the impact of gender on reading culture of the respondents (See Appendix 11, section 1, question 2 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 1, question 2 subject librarians' interview schedule). The third sub-section aimed to understand the relationship between reading culture and age of the respondents (See Appendix 11, section 1, question 3 students' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 1, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule).

6.3.1 The impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement

This sub-section discusses how reading culture affects students' academic achievement. (See Appendix 10, section 2 question 1 students' questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 2, question 1 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 2, question 1 subject librarians' interview schedule). The study by Devi, Khandelwal and Das (2017) contends that reading culture is

fundamental for students to acquire knowledge, skills and experiences through continuous interactions with cognitions and environments. Benwari and Nemine (2014) also noted that together with other factors, academic achievement requires an enabling environment and a positive attitude and behaviour. Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) considers attitude and behaviour as enablers for the students to achieve in academic and life endeavours (Palis and Quiros, 2014; Aliakbari, Parvin, Heidari and Haghani, 2015).

The results of the present study show that there are slight variations in responses in terms of the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement (Refer to Figure 5.2). The majority of respondents indicated the existence of a linear impact between reading culture and academic achievement. A majority of students 211 or 67.6% confirmed a positive impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement. In addition, one of the subject librarians commented that students with a reading culture perform well in academic work. The results revealed the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement existed.

The study results are similar to the findings in studies by Kpolovie, Joe and Okoto (2014), on; 'Academic achievement prediction in Nigeria' which revealed predictor variable of 21.60% which was considered significant to determine variance in independent variables in the relationship between reading attitude and students' academic achievement; Conklin and Moreton (2015) on 'Blurred lines: tying recreational reading in USA' found out the need for librarians to undertake studies on reading to influence reading attitude, behaviour and meet library users needs, Krishna and Sachan (2015) on; 'Study habits of undergraduate students in Fiji National University'. The study revealed that 61 percent of the students spent one to four hours on reading during examinations. Also, the study found the need for the students to plan for their reading schedules in order to achieve in academic work.

The study by Cerna and Pavliushchenko (2015), on; 'Influence of study habits on academic performance of international college students in Shanghai in China' and Al-Mahrooqi and Denman (2016), on; 'Establishing a reading culture in Arabic and English in Arab Gulf nation of Oman' revealed that reading was associated to academic achievement. However, there was a decline of reading culture both in English and Arabic languages in Arab nations. Also, Whitten,

Labby and Sullivan (2016), on; ‘The impact of pleasure reading on academic success in USA’ confirmed the correlation between reading culture of the students and their academic achievement. Furthermore, reading culture of the students was influenced by examinations and curricular of academic institutions. Seitz (2010), on; ‘Students attitude towards reading in USA’ the results showed that students’ engagement in reading activities enhanced their academic achievement. But the study encountered the complex nature to evaluate and measure reading attitude of the students. The study by De Coster, et al. (2011), on ‘Teaching reading in Europe’ revealed that independent reading makes students perform well in academic work. Also, the study by Fatiloro, Adesola, Hemeed and Adewumi (2017), on; ‘A survey on reading habits of college of education students in the information age in Nigeria’ argued that reading culture determines students’ academic achievement. Palani (2012), on ‘Promoting reading habits and creating literate society in India’ adds that reading culture creates curiosity, confidence and inner reinforcement that enable students’ performance in academic work and life endeavours.

Theorists determine reading culture from a set of behavioural patterns transposed with attitude and belief to acquire academic pursuits (Glanz, Rimer and Viswanath (2008). For instance, in SCT reading involves cognitive domains to build up conceptual meaning for knowledge and information (Shafi and Loan, 2010; Chettri and Rout, 2013; Pinkerton, Dull and Audiffred, 2016). Besides, reading integrates cognitive aspects that address issues of competence differences among students (Devi, Khandelwal and Das, 2017). Therefore, reading attitude and behaviour should be learnt in tandem with SCT which requires students to regulate and control their cognition, motivation, attitude and behaviour in relation to the environments (Balapumi, 2015).

Of the 312 students who participated in the study, 37 or 11.8% indicated that for them there was no any impacts of reading culture on students’ academic achievement. This, according to the students was because Intelligent Quotient (IQ) determines students’ ability to perform in academic work. IQ is an independent variable in predicting academic achievement. Students’ success in academic pursuit depends on many variables including the cognitive abilities of individual students (Mendezabal, 2013). However, Krishna and Sachan (2015) asserted that students with high IQ might not perform well in academic work. Further, IQ of the students

which is integral to the cognitive domains in SCT does not exclusively determine academic achievement independently. There are other factors such as motivation, attitude, behaviour and environments in which teaching and learning occur. Therefore, academic achievement variable is partly determined by the competence accrued from IQ in respect of set environments in which learning occurs (Sunday and Ajibola, 2015).

The study results suggest an interconnection between personal attitude and behavioural actions. The findings seem to suggest a general consensus that a relationship exists between reading culture and academic achievement. Similar results have been found in studies by Li and Armstrong (2009), on; 'Is there a correlation between academic achievement and behaviour in Mainland Chinese students' demonstrated that there was a relationship between some behaviour of the students and academic achievement but not all behaviours. Aina *et al.* (2011), on; 'Poor reading habits in Nigeria' revealed that the decline of reading culture affects students' academic achievement and beyond. Akabuike and Asika (2012), on; 'Reading habits of undergraduate and their academic performance' Ihejirika (2014), on; 'Poor attitude to reading for pleasure and its implications on acquisition of language skills and academic achievements: The case of students of secondary schools revealed that there was a correlation between reading attitude and students' academic achievement.

On the other hand, studies reported the decline of reading culture at schools, college and universities. The students are reinforced to read for passing examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. Forexample; the study by Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi and Lean (2011), on; 'The reading habits of Malaysian Chinese university students' revealed that the majority of students (66%) read to pass examinations. Daniel *et al.* (2017) found that reading attitude and academic achievement influence each other in reciprocal. But university students read only for passing examinations and not for lifelong learning. Annamalay and Muniandy (2013), on; 'Reading habit and attitude in Malaysia' reported the decline of reading culture among polytechnic as students spent a lot of time on social media and internet. Krishna and Sachan (2015), on; 'Study habits of undergraduate students at CAFF in Fiji National University' showed that students spent one to four hours reading during examinations and they were not aware of how to plan for learning activities.

However, Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman (2010), on; 'Reading interest in Saud Arabia', revealed that the decline of reading culture was caused by students underutilization of library services, lack of information materials and language used in the information materials. The study by Arshad, Ullah, Mehmood, Arshad and Khan (2016), on; 'Agricultural students and their academic performance in Pakistan' revealed that reading culture of the young generation in particular was on decline due to social media and luxurious materials. The similarities of the current study and the studies such as Aina *et al.* (2011), Akabuike and Asika (2012) and Krishna and Sachan (2015) are attributed to the environments of the studies being those of developing countries.

6.3.2 The impact of gender on reading culture of the students

The study sought to establish whether gender has any impact on reading culture (See Appendix 11, section 1, question 2 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 1, question 2 subject librarians' interview schedule). According to SCT, gender difference in reading culture occurs and is related to emotional abilities, cognitions, self- regulation, attitude and behaviour in the teaching and learning processes (Weis, Heikamp and Trommsdorff, 2013).

The findings obtained through a survey questionnaire showed that the majority of lecturers (35, 56%) indicated that gender had nothing to do with reading culture. These results could suggest an equal level of reading abilities between female students and male students. Sunday and Ajibola (2015) postulate there was no gender disparity in reading culture but rather in academic achievement. The studies by Sokal, Thiem, Crampton and Katz (2009), on; 'Differential effects of male and female reading tutors based on boys' gendered views of reading in Canada', Ghezlou, Kordi and Nasrabady (2014), on; 'Gender differences in reading strategy use, reading self-efficacy and perceptual learning at universities in Iran', Asgarabadi, Rouhi and Jafarigohar (2015), on; 'Learners' gender, reading comprehension and reading strategies in Iran' and Rosyanawati and Kaswan (2017), on; 'The influence of gender and language learning strategy preferences towards students' reading comprehension in Indonesia' found that there was no significant difference between female students and male students in reading.

However, (14, 23%) lecturers indicated that gender affected reading culture while (13, 21%) mentioned that they did not know what impact gender has on reading culture. One subject librarian interviewed noted that female students spent more time in taking care of their families than male students which affected their reading culture. The responses of lecturers (14, 23%) and subject librarian concur with Summers (2013)'s study on; 'Adult reading habits and preferences in relation to gender differences in USA' and Al Khamisi, Al Barwani, Al Mekhlafi and Osman (2016), on; 'EFL reading achievement: Impact of gender and self-efficacy beliefs of the students in Oman' found out that gender affects reading culture as women outperform men in reading and time spent on reading. Moreover, the study by Summers revealed that 43% of females read frequently compared to 32.6% of men. Stoet and Geary (2013) reported that Programme for International Student Assessment conducted a survey in 2000, 2003 and 2009 showed that girls outperformed boys in reading in all PISA countries and the reading performance between girls and boys varied from 32.0 points in 2000 to 38.8 in 2009. The study by OECD (2011b) reported that girls enjoyed reading more than boys in all OECD countries except Korea. OECD established that in 2009, 54 percent of boys in Korea read for leisure or entertainment compared to 74% of girls, though the study did not indicate the reasons behind the results. In the same vein, the studies by Mol and Jolles (2014) and Rideout (2014) conducted in Netherlands and USA respectively reported an existing gender gap between boys and girls in the USA, where boys read less than girls.

The fact that studies have shown that females outperformed males in reading has created controversies when it comes to academic achievement. Studies by Forsthuber, Horvath and Motiejunaite (2010), De Coster *et al.* (2011) and OECD (2011b) reported gender disparity in academic achievement where males outperformed females. But the situation was different in the UK where females outperformed males in academic achievement at all levels of education (Fan, Umaru and Nseendi, 2016). In contrast, the study on; 'Academic performance of male in comparison with female undergraduate medical students' by Faisal, Shinwari and Hussain (2017) revealed that there was no significant influence of gender on academic achievement of the students in Pakistan because female students and male students have equal cognitive abilities. However, these studies were undertaken in different environments, locations and socio-cultural contexts.

Similarities between the results of the present study and those of Forsthuber, Horvath and Motiejunaite (2010), OECD (2011b), Reilly (2012), Chettri and Rout (2013) and Faisal, Shinwari and Hussain (2017) are probably due to the fact that all focused on effect of gender on reading culture and academic achievement. The study results show that there is no clear cut conclusion that gender differences impact reading culture. The studies by Forum for African Women Educationalists (2015) in Africa and Boateng *et al.* (2017) in Nigeria, Ghana and the Philippines recommended that issues pertaining to gender in academic achievement should be addressed through policy, programmes, and guidelines or curricular.

6.3.3 Relationship between age of the students and reading culture

This question sought to find out the relationship between age of the students and their reading culture (See Appendix 10, section 1, question 3 students' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 1, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule). The Social Cognitive Theory infers that age and cognitive domains are pertinent factors in reading culture development.

The results of the present study revealed that age impacts reading culture of the students. As students grow older, mental ability decreases, thereby affecting their reading culture. One subject librarian also corroborated the findings of the students by indicating that age of students predicts capability in academic performance behaviours. However, a Chi-square test carried out to determine the relationship between age and reading culture showed $p < 0.603$. Based on the Chi-square results, the age of the students had an insignificant relationship with reading culture.

Overall, the results reveal that age has a direct relationship with reading culture. This view is bolstered by the works of Deary and Batty (2007), on; 'Cognitive epidemiology in the UK' and Weis, Heikamp and Trommsdorff (2013), on; 'Gender difference in school achievement in German' who posit that changes are experienced in older age including the decrease of cognitive ability and eyesight which in turn affect reading culture. Lauristin and Vihalemm (2014), on the study; 'Reading in changing society in Sweden', Ngugi and Mberia (2014), on; 'The influence of internet surfing in reading culture in Kenya' and Omosebi and Akhaku (2017), on; 'Psychological factor and use of library e-resources in Nigeria' found that in this present digital era in which most of the reading materials are in digital form, younger people prefer reading

from the screens to the print format. The results of this study suggest age has impact on reading culture because of the result of the decrease of cognitive abilities, time spent on reading and acquisition of language.

The SCT asserts that ability to perform a task depends on the age of the students (Anderson-Bill, Winett, Wojcik and Williams, 2011). This means age determines cognitive ability of the students and academic achievement. Razmjoo and Movahed (2009) in a study; ‘On the relationship between socio-cultural factors and reading culture in Iran’ found that young people had good cognitive ability to acquire language proficiency compared to older people. Also, the study conducted by Strategic Marketing and Research (2013), on; ‘Factors affecting reading abilities of African American and Hispanic students’ revealed that age of the students influences their reading abilities, motivation and confidence to success.

6.4 Students’ perceptions on their reading self-efficacy

The second research question intended to establish students’ reading self-efficacy. Specifically, the question sought to identify students’ self-abilities to read and levels of reading self-efficacy for leisure, information or entertainment. The research question is addressed through the following themes: students’ reading self-efficacy (See Appendix 10, section 3, question 1 students’ questionnaire, Appendix 12, section 3, question 1 subject librarians’ interview schedule), amount of time spent on reading in general (See Appendix 10, section 3, question 2 students’ questionnaire), time spent on reading for leisure, information or entertainment (See Appendix 12, section 3, question 2 subject librarians’ interview schedule) and the impact of time spent on reading on academic achievement (See Appendix 10, section 3, question 3 students’ questionnaire and Appendix 11, section 2, question 4 lecturers’ questionnaire).

6.4.1 Students’ reading self-efficacy

Self-efficacy relates to beliefs to organize the causes of action required to manage challenges to perform behaviours. Reading self-efficacy plays a central role for students to achieve goals at different levels of life. It reinforces students’ understanding of their own abilities to self-concept, self-regulate, self-control, identify behavioural intention and shape attitude and behaviour to perform academic activities. Furthermore, reading self-efficacy in academic settings

is used to assess, evaluate and set plans for teaching and learning environments (Erllich and Russ-Eft, 2011). In SCT, reading self-efficacy is about personal abilities, level of competence and a need to possess and determine cognitive domains which help students work hard to perform academic works (Daniels and Steres, 2011; Li, 2012; Mushtag and Khan, 2012; O'Donnell, Reeve and Smith, 2012; Boakye, 2015; Shikalepoh, 2016).

The present study findings reveal that the majority of respondents (170, 54%) viewed reading self-efficacy as 'good' in enabling them to perform well in academic works. A further (123, 39.4%) students rated their self-efficacy 'very good', (14, 4.5%) indicated 'poor' and (5, 1.6%) stated 'very poor' as detailed in Figure 5.3. Also, a subject librarian interviewed rated reading self-efficacy of the students as good in academic achievements. The studies on; 'The literacy environment in support of voluntary reading in South Africa' by Tiemensma (2009) and 'Attitude, self-efficacy, efforts and academic achievement' by Li (2012) in the City University in Hong Kong, found that that good self-efficacy is a predictor for the students to perform well in academic works. Also, the studies by Schunk, Pintrich and Meece (2008), Usher and Pajares (2008) and Doménech-Betoret, Abellán-Roselló and Gómez-Artiga (2017) found considerable evidences on the impact of self-efficacy on students' academic achievement. In academic context, self-efficacy entails students' beliefs on their abilities to achieve in academic endeavours. It enables students to evaluate the value of the academic task and their abilities to perform it. The impacts of self-efficacy on academic achievement is connected into three variables namely; social world, cognitive processes and motivational beliefs that effect on students' reading attitude and behaviour (Doménech-Betoret, Abellán-Roselló and Gómez-Artiga, 2017).

Self-efficacy explains the context of attitude and behaviour which influence teaching and learning processes (Mazumder and Ahmed, 2014; Cherry and Freud, 2017). Strong self-efficacy is characterized by mastery of experiences which develops a sense of self-efficacy if students perform well, competence from previous experiences, observations, social persuasion from other people such as parents and teachers, motivating environments and psychological responses identified in individual feelings, perceptions and emotions (Boakye, 2015; Shikalepoh, 2016; Cherry and Fraud, 2017). In teaching and learning the instructions provided by the educators

help the students to identify their self-efficacies and identify behaviours to develop confidence to achieve in academic work (Erlich and Russ-Eft, 2011; Shooter, 2013; Ojonugwa, Hamzah, Bakar and Rashid, 2015). This means that if a student believes in his/her ability to perform in general, then they believe in their ability to perform well in academic work. Therefore, self-efficacy is a means to perform a behaviour and can predict students' academic achievement.

However, variations in variables, socio-cultural values and economic development of the specific countries studies will affect the results that are obtained from studies about self-efficacy and academic achievements. The results of the current study suggest that students generally had good reading self-efficacy necessary to effect reading and academic achievement. Cognitive domains and, environments, reading self-efficacy interconnect to affect individual attitude and behaviour towards reading culture.

In teaching and learning contexts, self-efficacy helps teachers and students to set academic goals and plan how to achieve them (Erlich and Russ-Eft, 2011; Devi, Khandelwal and Das, 2017). Therefore, interventions to develop reading culture of students should integrate understanding of students' attitude and self-efficacy about reading (Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman, 2010). Self-efficacy enables students to acquire knowledge, information, experiences and academic gains (O'Donnel, Reeve and Smith, 2012; Tsang, Hui and Law, 2012; Shooter, 2013).

6.4.2 Amount of time spent on reading

The study also sought to establish the amount of time spent by students on reading (See Appendix 1, section 3, question 2 students' questionnaire). Time spent on reading is a predictor of reading attitude and behaviour of students (Gaona and Villuendas, 2011; Ro and Cheng-ling, 2014). Based on SCT, time spent on reading is fundamental to determine students reading self-efficacy (Turner, Chandler and Heffers, 2009). Also, time spent on reading influences cognitive domains and learning processes of students (Merga, 2014). This means, relationship exists between time spent on reading and self-efficacy. Further, OECD (2011a), Heng (2014), Ronard, Benard and Ondari (2014) reported that time spent by students on reading had a positive impact on learning and academic achievement.

The findings of this current study revealed that a majority of students (119, 38%) spent three to four (3-4) hours on reading per day, 90 or 29% spent one to two (1-2) hours on reading per day, 78 or 25% spent more than four hours per day on reading and 25 or 8% spent less than one hour per day as indicated in Figure 5.4. The context for this study's findings is slightly different to studies on; 'Assessment of reading habit in Kaduna-Nigeria' by Haliru, Abdulkarim, Mohamed and Dangani (2015) and those of Lone (2011) on; 'Reading habits of rural and urban college students in Kashmir-India' in which students spend only one to two (1-2) hours per day reading. The study results by Akpan and Salome (2015) on; 'Effect of study habit on academic achievement in Nigeria' found that the majority of students (35.8%) read a maximum of 40 minutes per day. Merga (2014) in the study on; 'Western Australian adolescent book readers' found that 66 percent of students read less than two hours a day.

The results seem to suggest that time spent on reading is on the decline in academic institutions. Toivonen (2013) in his study found that the trends over time about reading show a steady decline. People would rather spend most of their time gossiping and watching television programmes than reading (Du and Martin, 2008; Aina, Ogungbeni, Adigun and Ogundipe, 2011; Wojciechowska (2016). Other factors associated with the decrease in time spent on reading include; poor reading skills, reading facilities such as e-resources, power supply, poor internet connections, age and social media. But studies conducted in some developed countries found different results unlike those in developing countries such as India, Nigeria and Tanzania. For instance, studies conducted in some developed countries such as the United Kingdom and Norway, found that time spent on reading was on the increase compared to Netherlands and the USA (Toivonen, 2013). Karim (2006) in a study on; 'Public universities in Malaysia' reported that students spent much more time reading for leisure or entertainment. Moreover, reading had become a major activity during their leisure time. Therefore, time spent on reading in Europe, America, Asia and Africa showed disparities though there was also time spent on reading differences in developing countries such as the UK and USA.

However, the study by Rideout (2014) on; 'Children, teens and reading' conducted in San Francisco in USA' claimed that time spent on reading is challenging since there is no consensus on how long students should spend reading per day. Studies by OECD (2010) and Saxena and

Sell (2016) that measured time spent on reading in relation to academic achievement found contradictory results. The university environments are designed around students being occupied with series of lectures, assignments, tests, examinations and research projects making it difficult to determine time spent on reading and its impact on academic achievement (Kearns and Gardiner, 2007). Merga (2014) observed discrepancies in measuring tools used by the OECD, IEA, PISA and TIMSS. The measuring tools did not reflect students' realistic attitude and behaviour in reading frequency.

Studies on time spent on reading in the UK and USA compared to Africa and Asia have great differences (Annamalay and Muniandy, 2013). In terms of geographical locations the study by Lone (2011) showed variations of one to two (1-2) hours and two to three (2-3) hour time spent on reading between rural and urban students in Kashmir in India respectively. The studies by Merga (2014), on; 'Western Australian adolescent book readers' was conducted in Australia and Shin, Slater and Ortiz (2017), on; 'Leader perceptions and student achievement: An examination of reading and mathematics international test results in Korea and the USA' with different geographical and socio-economic variations compared to Tanzania where the current study was carried out. The study found that teachers' attitude towards reading had a significant influence to students reading culture. On the other hand, the study suggested that parents should motivate their children to develop reading culture. Moreover, the study by Haliru, Abdulkarim, Mohamed and Dangani (2015) on; 'Assessment of reading habit in Nigeria' which was conducted in Africa with slightly similar geographical locations and social economic development also found different results in which students spend only one to two (1-2) hours compared to three to four (3-4) hours spent on reading in Tanzania. This shows that geographical locations and socio-economic variations influence students' time spent on reading.

Further, the variation in research problem might cause dissimilarities of the results. For example: the study by Ajay, Shorunke and Aboyade (2014), on; 'The influence of e-resources use at Nigerian universities' studied only time spent on reading from technological devices unlike the current study. The study revealed that students read less than two hours per day and they had no necessary skills to utilize e-resources in the library.

6.4.3 Time spent on reading for leisure, information or entertainment

The researcher also sought to understand the amount of time spent by students to read for leisure, information or entertainment (See Appendix 3, section 3, question 2 subject librarians' interview schedule). There is a correlation between reading attitude, reading for leisure, information or enjoyment and academic achievements (Stoffelsma, 2014; Scorcu, Vici and Zanola, 2016; Hurst, Marsh, Brown and Forbes, 2017). According to SCT reading for leisure is only possible if students have acquired a positive attitude and behaviour in reading to lifelong learning.

The findings for the current study revealed that students rarely spent time to read for leisure, information or entertainment. Nalusiba (2010), on; 'Strategies for development of reading culture in Uganda' and Baharuddin, Azlan and Shaharuddin (2014), on; 'Factors influencing reading habit in Malaysia' found that students read less for leisure, information or entertainment than reading to pass examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. Also, the study by Kavi, Tackie and Bugyei (2015), on; 'Reading for pleasure in Ghana' found that most of respondents (58, 66.7%) spent time reading in order to pass examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. But the study by Basu and Das (2012), writing on; 'Library use by undergraduate medical students of a tertiary institution in Bengar-India' revealed that the majority of the students (80.7%) spent time reading newspapers for leisure, information or entertainment.

Despite the importance of reading for leisure to develop critical thinking and support academic outcomes of the students, the results seemed to suggest that students prefer reading for academic success rather than for leisure, information or entertainment. Studies on; "Reading habits among college students of Kashmir across genders in India" by Shafi (2010) revealed that students had positive reading culture. However, female students had higher level of reading attitude than male students. Furthermore, the study on; 'The role of school and public libraries in Nigeria' by Oji and Habibu (2011) found that students lack reading attitude and they spent their time on social media rather than on reading, Rimensberger (2014), on; 'Reading is very important but...: taking of South African student teachers' reading habits' by Rimensberger (2014) reported contradicting results whereby majority of the students had high reading attitude but they did not read frequently. The study by Daniel, Esoname and Chima (2017), on; "Effect of reading habits

on the academic performance of students: A case study of the students of Afe Babaola University in Nigeria” found that reading culture influences academic achievement. But students read only to pass examinations. The study by Kepe, Foncha and Maruma (2017), on; Towards overcoming poor readership and building reading culture of in schools” a special project in De Vos Malan in King William’s town district in South Africa found the decline of reading culture among secondary school students. Also, Stoffelsma and Spooren (2017), on; ‘Improving the academic reading in Ghana’ reported a decrease in time spent on reading for leisure among students worldwide.

The study by Wojciechowska (2016) undertaken in Poland, revealed that 44 percent of students read newspapers once a week and 46 percent of young people read for leisure or entertainment one hour a day. Sweney (2015) posited that in America leisure, information or entertainment reading is not happening particularly for those between the ages of 18-24 years. Also, the time spent on reading for leisure or entertainment declined worldwide at an average rate of 25 percent in the four years between 2010 and 2014. Sweney adds that the average time spent on reading newspapers was expected to decline from 35 percent in 2010 to 14.1 percent in 2017.

According to Jonsson and Olsson (2007), Al-Mahrooqi and Denman (2016) and Scorcu, Vici and Zanola (2016), the connection between reading culture and passing examinations hinders an attitude of reading for leisure or entertainment as students read only for academic purposes. Toivonen (2013) and Tuba (2017) noted that spending a lot of time watching television programmes and surfing the internet were considered causes for the decline in time spent on leisure reading. It was noted that before the invention of television, in our societies, people had good reading attitude and behaviour (Owusu-Acheaw and Larson, 2014). Though there was no significant correlation between time spent watching television, internet surfing and reading for leisure (Toivonen, 2013). On the contrary, technologies have enabled Americans to read for leisure and the internet has impacted positively reading culture (Abubakar and Diyoshak, 2015). Studies show that television watching does not impact negatively on reading culture but the time used to watch television might impact on reading culture (National Endowment for the Arts, 2007). Moreover, there was no relationship between television watching, internet surfing and time spent on reading unless one or the other is over used (Toivonen, 2013).

6.4.4 The impacts of time spent on reading on students' academic achievement

The importance of reading for academic work and beyond is evaluated through the amount of time spent on reading (See Appendix 10, section 3, question 3 students' questionnaire and Appendix 11, section 2 question 4 lecturers' questionnaire). The amount of time spent on reading enables students to read a lot of materials and acquire good reading attitudes and behaviours towards reading independently and for lifelong learning. Reading helps readers improve their reading skills, vocabulary, reading ability and comprehension skills which are fundamental to academic achievement (Suk, 2015). In relation to Social Cognitive Theory, behaviour is determined by the amount of time a behaviour is repeated in order for it to become permanent in one's life.

The present study results indicate that the majority of students (160, 51%) agree that time spent on reading determines outcomes in academic achievement followed by 104 or 33% who strongly agreed, 39 or 13% who disagreed and 9 or 3% who strongly disagreed (Refer to Figure 5.5). Also, most of the lecturers (37, 59.7%) strongly agreed that students who spent much time on reading achieve good performance in academic work followed by (18, 29%) who agreed, (3, 4.8%) who disagreed and (4, 6.5%) who strongly disagreed. Study results of students and lecturers concurred that time spent on reading predicts level of academic achievement. The findings are compared to studies by Nonis and Hudson (2006), Hyatt (2011), Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo (2014) and Scorcu, Vici and Zanola (2016) who all noted that there exists a predictable impacts of time spent on reading on academic achievement. In addition, spending a lot of time on reading provides students with broader vocabulary for contextual meanings in learning (DeVecchio *et al.*, 2012, Ronard, Benard and Ondari, 2014; Suk, 2015; Willingham, 2015).

The results of the current study suggest that that there is a direct impacts of time spent on reading on academic achievement. A study by Ng, Zakaria, Lai and Confessore (2014) found that the impacts of time spent on reading on academic achievement posed contradictions. It was observed that time spent on reading in relation to the amount of reading materials is still difficult to determine. The evidence on reading seems biased towards individual readers and fails to consider other domains such as environment and motivation (Suk, 2015).

The study on the ‘Relationships between students’ engagement and the academic achievement of 1st year university students in Cambodia’ by Heng (2014) showed that a lot of time spent on reading has a negative impact on academic achievement. Gudaganavar and Halayannavar (2014) in a study of the influence of study habits, revealed that academic success or failure depends on attitude and behaviour. Gudaganavar and Halayannavar argued that some students spend a lot of time studying but end up failing while others spend less time and perform well. However, students of today spend little time on reading and engage more in non-academic activities (Ng *et al.*, 2014). Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo (2014) proposed that an allocation of library study hours in the university time table would reinforce reading time for students.

6.5 Suitability of library as place for reading

The third research question enquired about the use of the library as a place for reading. This question was answered by investigating three themes: the university library as a conducive place for reading (See Appendix 10, section 4, question 1 students’ questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 4, question 1 subject librarians’ interview schedule), frequency of students visits to the library (See Appendix 10, section 4, question 2 students’ questionnaire) and the purposes for visiting the library (See Appendix 10, section 4, question 3 students’ questionnaire).

6.5.1 The university library as a conducive place for reading

Libraries play a vital role in all human development including developing a reading culture and supporting academic achievement (Bhatti, 2013; Fabunmi and Folorunso, 2010; Loh, 2017). In relation to Social Cognitive Theory libraries are part of teaching and learning environments consisting of physical and psychological setups favourable for the students to learn. SCT asserts that learning is the interaction of students with environments, cognitive domains and available materials in the library (De Llave *et al.*, n.d). Teacher instruction in the classroom environment triggers cognitive domains that influence students’ behavioural patterns (Schunk, 2012). In this context, behavioural patterns involve academic confidence, individual efforts to perform a behaviour, autonomy, self-directed in learning process and difficulties encountered in learning process anticipated to bolster students’ curiosity to seeking for more information (Khan, Graf, Weippl and Tjoa (2009).

The results on whether university libraries are conducive for reading or not show that the majority of students (194, 62%) opined that university libraries were conducive for reading followed by (46, 15%) who viewed the university library somehow conducive. One of the subject librarians believed that the university library was well equipped but students do not have necessary positive reading attitudes and behaviours to effectively utilize it. Cull (2011), on the study of; 'Reading revolutions: Online digital text and implications for reading of university students in Canada and USA', Khan, Bhatti, Khan and Ismail (2014), on; 'The role of the academic libraries in facilitating undergraduate and postgraduate students at University of Peshawar in Pakistan' and Gunasekera (2010) in a study on; 'Student usage of an academic library at University of Peradeniya library in Srilanka' revealed that library services and resources were conducive for the students to satisfy their information needs. Also, the study by (Kumar, Hussain, Fatima and Tyagi, 2010) and Gudi and Paradkar (2016) revealed that students perceive library environments as excellent. However, Ambatchew (2011), on; 'International communities building places for youth reading in Ethiopia' reported that libraries in developing countries have the challenge of lack of enough information materials. Furthermore, Gudaganavar and Halayannavar (2014) in a study on; 'Influence of study habits on academic performance of higher primary school students in India' revealed that the use of resources for academic success depends on students' attitude and behavior towards library use.

Library environments facilitate concentration and maximum utilization of resources (Kumar *et al.*, 2010; Abbasi, Tucker, Fisher and Gerrity, 2014). According to Aina *et al.* (2011), Loh (2017), libraries as part of student environments, play vital roles in supporting teaching and learning processes. However, studies by Qorro (2013), on; 'How being an avid reader promotes a reading culture' and Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu (2014), on; 'Attitude as a determining factor in electronic information resources use in university libraries in Nigeria,' revealed that reading resources in libraries are underutilized because of a lack of reading culture. The results of the present study suggest that university libraries are conducive to satisfy students' information needs. This result further indicates that students lack a positive reading attitude and behaviour for using libraries as sources of information. Therefore, there should be strategies in place including a help desk in the library to assist students develop a reading culture (Onanuga *et al.*, 2017). Hussain and Lavanya (2014) recommended that university libraries should be

equipped with up to date reading materials and create awareness of the resources available for the students to nurture their reading attitudes and behaviours.

6.5.2 Frequency of students' visits to the library

The library in any academic institution is an integral part of providing quality services to fulfill the important mission of academic achievement (Basu and Das, 2012; Hussain and Abalkhail, 2013; Khan *et al.*, 2014). The frequency of students visiting the library shows the extent of students' utilization of library resources. According to Kumar *et al.* (2010) frequency of visits to the library gives a picture of how users fulfill the core mission of libraries in academic institutions. It helps in assessing and evaluating attitudes and behaviours of students to reading. Similarly, SCT determines attitude and behaviour through frequencies of student's engagement with reading to enhance their cognitive, behavioural and emotional domains (Wigfield, Tonks and Klauda, 2009).

The findings revealed that the majority of students (131, 42%) visited the library occasionally, (88, 28%) visited the library once a week, (85, 27%) visited the library every day and (8, 3%) never visited the library. The current study results are similar to the study by Onanuga *et al.* (2017) in which (69, 31.1%) of students visited the library occasionally. Kumar *et al.* (2010) in their study reported that most of the students (30%) visit the library daily and a few students (8%) reported visiting the library occasionally.

The study by Basu and Das (2012), on; 'Library use by undergraduate medical students of a tertiary institution in Bengar-India' however, found that 40.9 percent of respondents visited the library daily. Gunasekera (2010), on; 'Students usage of an academic library in Sri Lanka' found most of the students (59.5%) visited the library daily, Hussain and Abalkhail (2013), on; 'Determinants of library use, collections and services among the students in Saudi Arabia' reported that 51.67% visited the library daily and Gudi and Paradkar (2016) on; 'The study of user satisfaction with library facilities in India' found that 29.5% of library users visited the library on a daily basis.

The present study shows that library resources in the universities surveyed were underutilized as the majority of students visit the library occasionally. According to Hussain and Abalkhail (2013) library users who visit the library occasionally seem to use the library resources ineffectively compared to users who visit the library frequently. The decline of library visits lead to the underutilization of library resources which is also reported in many studies. Nwezeh and Shabi (2011), on the study; ‘Students use of academic libraries in Nigeria’ found the decline of library use the world over. This situation contradicts the importance of library as the hub of any academic institution (Onanuga *et al.*, 2017).

The decline of library visits by students is attributed to a lack of reading attitude, behavior and necessary skills in accessing library resources. Extant literature such as work by Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010) and Omosebi and Okhakhu, (2017) claimed that the introduction of new technologies in libraries hindered most students without ICT skills from accessing reading materials. Such students did not have the right attitudes and necessary skills for searching library resources. According to Abbasi *et al.* (2014), Ashrafi-rizi *et al.* (2014) and Abubakar and Diyoshak (2015) factors which make students use the library resources are associated with relevance of library resources, organization of materials, attitude of library staff towards the library users and how conducive the library environments are. Therefore, university libraries should be manned with qualified librarians, relevant and updated reading materials and create awareness to encourage students to use available resources in libraries (Bhatti, 2010). Jonsson and Olsson (2007) pointed out that lecturers also create the impression that there are limited resources in the libraries by locking necessary reading materials in their offices for security purposes. Nagata, Toda and Kytömäki (2007) claimed that there is no relationship between library resources, library services and visiting the library because library use depends on attitude and behaviour of the students towards reading.

Further, there are other factors which influence students to visit the library. The study on; ‘Students’ use of academic libraries in Nigeria’ by Nwezeh and Shabi (2011) found that the perceptions, attitudes and behaviours determine use of library resources. Furthermore, the use of library is influenced by the year of study of students as final year students spent more time in the library compared to other years of study. Also, it was reported that gender influences visits and

use of library resources as female students use the library more than male students (Bhati, 2013). In contrast, a study by Ashrafi-rizi *et al.* (2014) found that no significant relationship exists between age, gender and visiting the university library.

6.5.3 The purposes for visiting the library

The purpose of the students' visits to the library was investigated (See Appendix 1, section 4, question 3 students' questionnaire). SCT considers learning environments such as the library as integral to any academic setting as they provide students with reading resources for their academic endeavours (Abubakar and Diyoshak, 2015). The importance of libraries extends to supporting teaching and learning processes and the abilities of universities to produce graduates for national development (Nagata, Toda and Kytömäki, 2007; Nwezeh and Shabi, 2011; Ashrafi-rizi *et al.*, 2014).

The results of the current study revealed that the majority of students (122, 39%) visited the library for purposes of borrowing books, (81, 26%) visited the library for leisure reading, (57, 18%) visited the library for consultations, (27, 9%) visited the library because of examinations, tests and assignments, (18, 6%) visited the library for socialization, (4, 1%) visited the library for revising what has been taught in lecture sessions, (2, 0.6%) visited the library for knowledge building and (1, 0.3%) didn't know their purpose for visiting the library (See results in Table 5.7). The study by Hussain and Abalkhail (2013) indicated that most of the library users (93.65%) visit the library to borrow and return borrowed books. The study by Gunasekera (2010), on; 'Students usage of an academic library' revealed that students visited the library for three different purposes but most of the students (179, 22%) visited the library for borrowing books, references and reading lecture notes. Furthermore, Gudi and Paradkar (2016), in the study of; 'User satisfaction with library facilities' found that 68.3 percent of library users visited the library for borrowing books.

By and large, many studies show that students visit the library to read for academic purposes especially reading for examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. This argument is supported by Yusuf and Iwu-James (2010), Kitabu (2011), Inderjit (2014) and Ngugi and Mberia (2014) who stressed that students are encouraged to visit the library to prepare for examinations,

tests, assignments and research projects. Moreover, studies show that students visit the library for reading for leisure or entertainment (Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo, 2014; Hawwau, 2015; Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu, 2014; Abubakar and Diyoshak, 2015; Kayuni, 2017; Omosebi and Okhakhu, 2017).

The results of the current study show that students visit the library for specific purposes irrespective of their attitude and behaviour towards use the library for reading. The study by Ukachi, Onuoha and Nwachukwu (2014) revealed that there was significant relationship between students' attitudes and the use of resources in the library. Therefore, academic institutions should equip libraries with all necessary resources and services to attract students to visit the libraries (Onanuga, Ilori, Pelemo and Ogunwande, 2017). However, students' motivations and interests to visit libraries are complex and consequently more studies are needed to demonstrate reasons for the students visit to the library (Ashrafi-rizi *et al.*, 2014).

6.6 Perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

The fourth research question for this study asked about reading which is not reinforced by examinations. The study sought to investigate the attitudes of students towards reading for leisure or entertainment not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. This question was covered with two themes: perceptions about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects (See Appendix 10, section 5, question 1 students' survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 4, question 1 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 5, question 1 subject librarians' interview schedule) and the importance of reading in the academic life of students (See Appendix 11, section 5, question 2 lecturers' survey questionnaire).

6.6.1 Perceptions about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

Attitude and behaviour towards reading enables students to read independently for leisure, information or entertainment without any academic motivations. According to Hughes-Hassell (2008), Early (2011), Kavi, Tackie and Bugyei (2015) and Pinkerton, Dull and Audiffred (2016)

reading for leisure, information or entertainment is dependent on innermost feelings, beliefs and values towards reading devoid of influence from examinations, tests, assignments or research work. The Social Cognitive Theory, asserts that reading for enjoyment without academic pursuits involves cognitive processes and attitudes observed from students' behaviours and once developed becomes permanent for lifelong learning (Mendezabal, 2013; Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo, 2014).

The results showed that the majority of students (182, 58%) were of the opinion that reading was enjoyable, (74, 24%) found reading difficult, (50, 16%) found that reading is rewarding and (6, 2%) thought that reading is boring. Also a majority of lecturers (37, 59.6%) revealed that students read only because of examinations, tests, assignment or research projects, (16, 25.7%) of students read for leisure or entertainment, (3, 4.8%) of students believed in passing examinations without reading and (6, 9.6%) stated they don't know behaviour of students about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. Also, one of subject librarians was of the view that students read only to pass examinations.

The findings showed a variation of responses from students who perceive reading as enjoyable to those who read because of examinations, tests, assignments and research work. The study by Howard (2011), on the; 'Importance of pleasure reading in their lives in East Canadian Region' revealed that 85 percent of respondents perceived reading as enjoyable. Onovughe (2012), on; Internet use and reading habits of higher institution students in Nigeria' found that the majority of 1st year students from different disciplines (210, 78.3%) enjoyed reading. Stoffelsma and Spoooren (2017) noted that students who perceived reading as enjoyable increased time spent on reading and gained more knowledge. Reading for enjoyment helps students to acquire reading skills and engage in academic activities for personal development (Howard, 2011; Ihejirika (2014).

However, the majority of lecturers (50, 16%) and one of the subject librarians indicated that students are reinforced to read by examinations, tests, assignments and research work. Kavi, Tackie and Bugyei (2015), on; 'Reading for pleasure in Ghana' revealed that most of the students (58, 66.7%) read during examinations than for leisure, information, entertainment or

personal development. Also, the studies on; ‘Reading habit and attitude of students in a Malaysian Polytechnic’ by Annamalay and Muniandy (2013) and the; ‘Influence of electronic resources use on students’ reading culture in Nigeria’ by Ajayi, Shorunke and Aboyade (2014) found that students rather enjoy doing other things related to social media and internet than reading for leisure. In particular, Conklin and Moreton (2015) reported that reading for enjoyment has declined among the university students. For example, the National Endowment for the Arts (2007) reported that Americans especially young adults read less. Annamalay and Muniandy (2013) reported that Malaysian students have poor reading culture and most of their time devoted to watching television and videos.

Many studies reported that the culture of reading in general has declined the world over (Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere, 2015; Solangi, 2015; Kamalova and Koletvinova, 2016; Al-Mahrooqi and Denman, 2016; Whitten, Labby, and Sullivan, 2016). Wojciechowska (2016) reported that Polish reading culture was on decrease. Okebukola, Owolabi and Onafowokan (2013), on; ‘An assessment of the reading motivation skills in Nigeria’ and Juma (2017), in a study; ‘A look at readers in the UAE and the factors that influence them’ reported the decline of reading culture. Applegate *et al.*, (2014) in another study on; ‘The Peter effect revisited: reading habits and attitudes of college students in USA’ and revealed that even graduates who are expected to nurture reading don’t necessarily have a good reading attitude and behaviour. This study was however limited to students who were yet to be exposed to reading culture training.

From the perspectives of Rwanda, just like other countries in the world and Africa reading culture has declined (Ruterana, 2012; Ruterana, 2014). The study by Mulumba (2016), on; ‘Enhancing reading culture among language education graduate students through emerging technologies’ reported the decline of the reading culture of graduate students at Makerere University. Furthermore, the study by Tunde-Awe (2014) on the; ‘Relationship between reading attitude and reading comprehension in Nigeria’ revealed that 65.75 percent of students had a negative reading culture.

The study by Gallagher (2009) and Al-Mahrooqi and Roscoe (2014) attribute the decline of reading culture to poverty, educational background of parents, lack of reading skills, poor

teaching and learning environments and language used in reading materials. According to Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo (2014), Kamalova and Koletvinova (2016) and Whitten, Labby, and Sullivan (2016) students use most of their time chatting non-academic matters on social media rather than engaging in reading. The study by Rimensberger (2014) found that the decline of reading culture was attributed to lecturers' lack of reading culture and irrelevant and boring reading materials. The study by Cerna and Pavliuschenko (2015), on; 'Influence of study habits on academic performance of international college students in Shanghai in China' claimed that despite realization of the importance of reading culture in academic achievement, universities devote little attention on it. In addition, universities are blamed for equipping students with knowledge and skills only for undertaking examinations, tests or research projects purposes (Abubakar and Diyoshak, 2015). Gallagher (2009) claims that the failure of academic institutions to integrate reading programmes into curricular perpetuates the decline of the reading culture of the students.

The decline of a reading culture in Africa is attributed to dependency on oral traditions. Oral traditions are regarded as being responsible for poor reading culture despite its functional roles for Africans in acquiring knowledge, information, skills and life experiences (Jonson and Olsson, 2007; Ruterana, 2012; Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo, 2014; Ruterana, 2014). Furthermore, a reading culture is perceived as a limiting factor for Africans in socializing in socio-cultural activities (Jonson and Olsson, 2007). The study by Ruterana (2014) stated that modern reading culture is associated with silent reading where readers interact with reading materials silently as opposed to oral traditions in which people interact verbally.

The results showed variations of responses between reading for leisure and reading only to pass examinations, tests and assignments among students. Nevertheless reading culture programmes and book reading events can be used as enablers for the students to acquire a positive reading attitude and behaviour for lifelong learning (Ruterana, 2014; Al-Mahrooqi and Denman, 2016; Wojciechowska, 2016). Early (2011) and Conklin and Moreton, (2015) suggested that students should be involved in selecting materials of their interest to promote reading. Furthermore, the oral tradition should be mainstreamed to suit life dynamics as well as technological changes to enhance reading culture (Ruterana, 2014). Besides, students should be

encouraged and given more time to read in the library (Baharuddin, Azlan and Shaharuddin, 2014).

6.6.2 The importance of reading in the academic life of students

The study sought to understand the importance of reading in academic life of students (See Appendix 2, section 5, question 2 lecturers' survey questionnaire). People read for different purposes be it leisure or entertainment, experiences, information and knowledge acquisition (Owusu-Acheaw and Larson, 2014). According to SCT, reading involves cognitive domains to build the meaning in acquiring of skills and knowledge in learning (Obichere and Ossai-Onah, 2012; Fernandez-Blanco, Prieto-Rodriguez and Suarez-Pandiello, 2015). In addition, cognition, environment and behaviour are important to influence observational patterns in teaching and learning environments (Wang and Lin, 2007; Koch, 2013; Palis and Quiros, 2014).

The results showed that the majority of the respondents (185, 59.9%) opined that reading was important for personal development followed by (130, 41.6%) who were reading to keep themselves up to date and (72, 23%) read for passing examinations, tests and assignments. Also, (62, 19.8%) read for research purposes. In contrast, most of the lecturers (41, 66%) indicated that reading helps the student to pass examinations, gain knowledge, and broaden understanding and ability for self-expression. (21, 34%) did not know about the importance of reading in the academic life of students.

The results concur with the results of the studies by Shafi and Loan (2010), Kitabu (2011), Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah (2012), Akanda, Hoq and Hasan (2013), Chettri and Rout (2013), Egong (2014), Ngugi and Mberia (2014), Ruterana (2014), Fernandez-Blanco, Prieto-Rodriguez and Suarez-Pandiello (2015), Medar and Kenchakkanavar (2015), Kamalova and Koletvinova (2016), Mulumba (2016) and Tuba (2017) who all agree that reading is important for academic, personal development and lifelong learning.

Ilogho (2011) asserted that knowledge, skills, experiences and information are acquired through reading. Reading enables people to acquire knowledge, experiences, information, vocabulary, pleasure and languages skills as instruments to communicate in any society (Chettri and Rout,

2013; Ruterana, 2014). Reading culture is also important for individuals and countries to keep pace with science and technology. It improves lives and brings people together in a globalized world (Morni and Sahari, 2013; Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere, 2015; Onjoro, 2016).

Reading influences attitudes and behaviours of people to positively engage in socio-economic activities (Chettri and Rout, 2013). Consequently, reading determines many aspects of students' individual academic achievement but also national development. Therefore, reading culture should be regarded as crucial in higher education institutions to produce graduates who can sustain reading as a lifelong career (Owusu-Acheaw and Larson, 2014). Furthermore, reading raises students' motivation, awareness and knowledge acquisition (Guthrie, 2013). Therefore, lecturers are obliged to understand reading culture of their students so as to map out appropriate interventions to instil lifelong skills to the graduates (Owusu-Acheaw and Larson, 2014).

6.7 Factors influencing reading culture of the students

The fifth research question for this study was to investigate factors influencing the reading culture of the students. The question was addressed using two themes: factors motivating students to read (See Appendix 10, section 6, question 1 students' survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 5, question 1 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 5, question 5 subject librarians' interview schedule) and language and reading culture (See Appendix 10, section 6, question 2 students' survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 6, question 2 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 2 librarians' interview schedule).

6.7.1 Factors motivating students to read

Reading is conceptualized as acquisition of knowledge, information, experiences and perceptions for academic purposes, leisure or entertainment for permanent change in attitude and behaviour. The context of reading identifies two important concepts which are attitude and behaviour for independent lifelong learning. SCT posits that self-efficacy, mastery experience, attitude and behaviour are key in enabling students to confidently engage in reading activities (Gambrell and Marinak, 2009).

The results indicated that the majority of students (178, 57%) read to gain knowledge, (80, 26%) read for leisure or entertainment, (163, 52%) read to pass examinations, tests or research projects and (75, 24%) read materials recommended by lecturers. The majority of lecturers (47, 76%) were of the opinion that students read to gain knowledge, (13, 21%) said students were motivated to read research projects and (2, 3%) stated recreation as a motivation for students to read. One of the subject librarians in the interview was of the opinion that poor reading culture, language used in materials, inadequate ICT devices, laziness and poor customer care influence the reading culture of the students.

The results showed that the responses of students and lecturers concurred that reading culture was influenced by the need to read for knowledge gaining, leisure or entertainment followed by reading to pass examinations, tests or research projects (Refer to Figure 5.11 and 5.12). Akanda, Hoq and Hasan (2012), on; 'Reading habit of students in social science and arts in Bangladesh' reported that majority of students (114, 43.85%) were influenced to read by the need to gain knowledge for self-development. Kerr (2017), in the study on; 'Understanding why students do not complete required readings in USA' reported that reading is important for the students to acquire knowledge for their academic development.

Guthrie (2013), in a study of; 'Best practices for motivating students to read' identifies three factors that motivate students to read. These factors include: interest which makes students read for leisure, dedication to a belief that reading is important and confidence because a student has self-efficacy to read. The studies by Langmia, Mbarika and Kituyi (2014), on 'Towards an improved reading habit of university students in Uganda', Kari (2015), on; 'The dearth of reading culture among Nigerian university students' and Mlay, Sabi, Tsuma (2015), on; 'Uncovering reading habits of university students' posited that students are motivated to read by examinations and assignments. Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010) and Onyango, Indoshi and Ayere (2015) posited that students are motivated to read by library services, social media and computers. Also, attitude of students to read, confidence to read, reading resources and attitude of parents motivate students to read (Malloy, Marinak, Gambrell and Mazzoni, 2013; Briggs and Walter, 2016). Kanda (2009) in a study on; 'Pleasures and pains on extensive reading in Japan' asserted that language vocabularies, background knowledge and reading level motivate students

to read. JoahnaMante-Estacio (2012) in a study on; ‘Dimensions of reading motivation among Filipino bilinguals’ observed six domains which motivate students to read. These are motivation, mastery experience, outcome belief, pressures, familiarity to the content and formats of the texts.

The result suggests that students were motivated to read in order to gain knowledge. However, in practice, university students are motivated to read by examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. According to Nalusiba (2010), Baharuddin, Azlan and Shaharuddin (2014), Granado (2014) and Kavi, Tackie and Bugyei (2015) students read only for the purpose of passing examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. The study offers some insights for educators to consider dynamic and personal needs in providing interventions to help students to read. Therefore, reading interventions in curricular, reading programmes, involving parents and educators in the teaching and learning processes should be considered in motivating students to read (JoahnaMante-Estacio, 2012). Kanda (2009) and Guthrie (2013) suggested that the university should provide students with reading resources of their choice to motivate them to read.

6.7.2 Language and reading culture

The research sought to determine the impact of language used in the reading materials on reading culture of the students (See Appendix 10, section 6, question 2 students’ survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 6, question 2 lecturers’ survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 2 librarians’ interview schedule). Language in its broader sense propagates the continuity of the society from one generation to another.

Nel and Müller (2010), on; ‘The impact of teachers’ limited English proficiency on English second language in South Africa’, Dickinson, Griffith, Golinkoff and Hirsh-Pasek (2012), on their study; ‘How reading books fosters language development in USA’ and Beacco, Fleming, Goullier, Thürmann, Vollmer and Sheils (2016), on; ‘The language dimension in all subjects in Europe’ found that language enables students to understand the concepts communicated in reading materials. Also, language plays an integral part in reading culture and human development in all spheres of life. Furthermore, language used in reading materials predicts the extent of reading attitude and behaviour of the students. Therefore, it is imperative for the writers

to use the language that they are comfortable and familiar with. According to SCT the concept of language is linked to the cognitive development of students. This means reading activities are possible only if the reader associates meanings with previous experiences to map semantics and syntax for understanding.

The results of the study showed that the majority of students (210, 67.3%) were of the opinion that the English language used in most of the materials hindered reading culture followed by (89, 28.5%) who responded that language has nothing to do with reading culture. Furthermore, the results show that the majority of lecturers (49, 79%) concurred that language used in the reading materials hinder reading culture followed by (9, 14.5%) who responded that language used in the information materials has no effects on students' reading culture. Also, (4, 6.5%) mentioned that a poor background in exposure to English language affects reading culture. The interview response from a subject librarian indicated that English language plays a great role in the reading culture of the students.

Studies by Oji and Habibu (2011), on; 'The role of schools and public libraries in Nigeria', Nengomasha, Uuton and Yule (2012), on; 'School libraries and their role in promoting reading culture in Namibia', Joubert *et al.*, (2014), on; 'Establishing a reading culture in a rural secondary school in South Africa' and Al-Nakhalah (2016), on; 'Problems and difficulties of speaking the English language that encounter university students in Palestine, Gaza' all reported that many students have difficulty with reading materials presented in the English language. Similarly, in many countries in Europe in which the English language is not the first language, students struggle with reading (De Coster *et al.* (2011). In African countries, reading language is introduced later when students start schooling and this causes difficulties with reading (Aina *et al.*, 2011; Ruterana, 2014). DelVecchio *et al.* (2012) observed that English at Hong Kong University in China was not familiar to the students because it was for academic purposes only. This situation made students prefer reading in Chinese to reading in the English language.

Therefore, language is among the barriers to acquire reading culture in academic environments. In the same vein, Ambatchew (2011), on a study of; 'International communities building places for youth reading in Ethiopia' and Kayuni (2017) in his study on the; 'Effects of poor reading

culture in Kwame Nkrumah University in Zambia' assert that the language acts as a barrier to students learning in developing countries. Al-Nafisah and A-Shorman (2010), study on; 'Saudi EFL students' reading interests' revealed that students rarely visit the library because of difficulties with reading in English. Furthermore, it was found that even parents and teachers who are expected to demonstrate a reading culture experienced difficulties with reading in English (Ruterana, 2014).

However, (89, 28.5%) of the students and (9, 14.5%) responded that language has nothing to do with reading culture. This view concurs with the study on; 'Reading habits by the students of Karnataka Science College in India' by Medar and Kenchakkanavar (2015) which reported that 85.36 percent of the respondents preferred reading materials in the English language to their mother language though, the study did not demonstrate reasons for the students' preference. Surprisingly, the studies by Al-Mahrooqi and Denman (2016), on; "Establishing a reading culture in Arabic and English in Oman" revealed reading culture to be declining even with materials written in Arabic. The study on; 'The relationship between students engagement and the academic achievement of the 1st year university students in Cambodia' by Heng (2014), observed that the reading culture of Cambodian university students had declined to the extent that they do not read even read materials written in languages familiar to them. However, the study was undertaken on 1st year students with less experience in interacting with the university reading environments.

The results of the current study revealed that the English language used at the universities surveyed hinder the development of the reading culture of the students. In particular, it hinders acquisition of reading attitude and behaviour for lifelong learning. A study by Omosibi and Okhakhu (2017) attributed the problems of language in reading to new technologies. Also, it was noted that with the advent of television people were able to read in both the English and vernaculars (Palan, 2012; Owusu-Acheaw and Larson 2014).

The difficulties students face with reading in English as a foreign language in many countries is not addressed in curricular, policy and programmes. However, individual teachers creatively use remedial interventions to help the students (De Coster *et al.*, 2011). Methodist University in USA

introduced the Nelson-Denny Reading Test to assess reading and vocabulary acquisition in the students (Hendricks and Lassiter, 2009). Therefore, it is necessary to instil attitude and behaviour towards reading to improve English vocabularies of the students (Pinkerton, Dull and Audiffred, 2016). Moreover, local languages should be given priority in teaching and learning processes as children rather grasp and conceptualise the meanings in their mother tongue that they are familiar with (Ruterana, 2014).

6.8 Strategies to promote reading culture among students

The sixth and last research question of this study sought to establish measures taken by universities to revamp reading culture in universities. This question was addressed using the following themes: interventions being made in universities to enhance the reading culture of students (See Appendix 10, section 7, question 1 students' survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 7, question 1 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 1 subject librarians' interview schedule), policy available to promote reading culture (See Appendix 11, section 6, question 2 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 2 subject librarians' interview schedule), library budget devoted to reading for leisure, information or entertainment (See Appendix 12, section 6, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule), the role of parents in developing reading culture of students (See Appendix 11, section 6, question 4 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule) and skills needed to develop good reading culture (See Appendix 10, section 7, question 2 students' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 7, question 4 subject librarians' interview schedule).

6.8.1 Interventions to enhance reading culture

The importance of reading culture is aimed at enabling the students to achieve in academic work. Studies show that there is a relationship between students' engagement in reading activities and satisfaction of academic and social needs (Applegate *et al.*, 2014).

The results indicated that universities promote a reading culture through interventions in curricular and teaching and learning strategies, ensuring necessary resources including ICT's, qualified staff, library resources and provision of reading assignments to the students. The

responses from the interview with subject librarians revealed that universities improve reading culture by ensuring conducive reading environments, reading materials, training and qualified librarians. The study by Mlay, Sabi and Tsuma (2015) reported that universities in Uganda that include Kyambogo University, Busoga University, Makerere University and Mbarara University improved the reading culture through conducive reading environments and availability of e-resources. Also, the study by Oguguna, Emerole, Egwim, Anyanwu and Haco-Obasi (2015), on the study of; 'Developing a reading culture in Nigerian society' revealed that training teachers, establishing libraries in classrooms and introducing children to reading culture in their early stages of growth improve reading culture.

The reports by Epstein and Chamberland (2014), on; 'Identifying barriers to reading in Pakistan' and Oxford School Improvement (n.d), on; 'Building an outstanding reading school' reported six strategic interventions for academic institutions to focus in developing students reading culture. These include: training teachers, interventions in policy and teaching curricular, parents involvement, improving reading environments, information materials and conscientising people on the importance of reading culture. The University of Technology in Malaysia introduced reading centres around main campus as a programme to promote reading culture among the students (Mohamed, Rahman, Tin, 2012). In Netherlands, library at school programme was initiated for stimulating reading culture and motivation to the students. The programme worked in partnership with public and school libraries as well as training teachers and users on the use of library resources. Also, the Ministry of Education in Liberia introduced a plan for reading intervention to enable educators acquire skills for promoting reading culture (Ministry of Education, 2010).

The study by Kamalova and Koletvinova (2016) in Russia assessed reading culture strategies and the results revealed that the effective method for improving the reading skills, competence and stimulating students was to read many books. In the Netherlands the 'Library at School programme' was initiated for stimulating a reading culture and motivating the students. The programme worked in partnership with public and school libraries and trained teachers and users on the use of library resources. The programme improved reading skills and academic achievement of the students (Huysmans, Kleijnen, Kroekhof and Dalen, 2013). The UK's

National Year of Reading (NYR) in 2008 and Reading for Life campaign in 2009 are among the government sponsored reading programmes which focused on promoting reading for leisure, academic gains and building lifelong readers. Libraries, schools, organisations and the community at large were partners in encouraging a wider scope of readers to participate in the programme (Rankin, 2013). Also, Vaal University of Technology in South Africa initiated intermediary programme for promoting reading skills at the Vaal University of Technology in South Africa (Scott and Saaiman, 2016). The programme yielded positive results to the attitude and behaviour of the students towards reading.

Palani (2012) in the study on ‘Promoting a reading habits in India’ reported interventions to promote reading culture such as the Accelerated Reader Programme which required students to read a certain number of books with incentives in turn. The programme is probably difficult to implement in universities considering the number of students and busy timetables. Most of the studies on engaging students on reading were undertaken in developed countries such as studies by De Coster *et al.* (2011) and Tuba (2017) undertaken in the European context to including Turkey.

The study results show that reading culture is not given much attention by education systems in many countries. The study by Otike (2011) revealed that reading culture aspect is not addressed in the education system in Kenya. Hence, universities should build enabling environments for the students to engage in reading activities, interventions in language of instruction and availability of reading materials as per the needs of students (Heng, 2014; Pinkerton, Dull and Audiffred, 2016). Joubert *et al.*, (2014) in their study undertaken in South Africa asserted that teachers should be skilled in reading culture interventions in the teaching and learning processes to creatively demonstrate and engage students in a reading culture. Applegate *et al.* (2014) and Groothengel (2016) posited that teachers with positive reading attitude and behaviour influence reading culture of the students in the teaching and learning processes.

6.8.2 Policy available to promote reading culture

The study sought to investigate whether the universities had specific mechanisms, policies or guidelines to monitor and assess the trend of a reading culture (See Appendix 11, section 6,

question 2 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 2 subject librarians' interview schedule). Reading culture policy is a written set of values of the course of action to monitor, assess and evaluate reading culture of the students (University of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education, 2005). In particular reading culture policy is a framework important in academic institutions to inculcate attitude and behaviour of students to read for leisure and academic work (Banou, Kostagiolas, and Olenoglou, 2008). The study assumed reading culture policy would change the trend of reading culture in academic institutions.

The results showed that no specific policy was available to promote reading culture in their universities. The study by Diers and Simpson (2012) on; 'At your leisure: Establishing a popular reading at University of British Columbia in Canada' observed that one of the challenges to leisure reading was that most of the libraries surveyed had no policy for reading. Also, the study by Otike (2011), on; 'Reading culture, cultivation and its promotion in Kenya' reported that there is no reading culture policy in the education system in Kenya.

UNESCO introduced National Book Policies (NBPs) and called on member countries to adopt reading culture policies, ensure the availability of reading materials for lifelong learning. The policies were linked to reading attitude and behaviour through ICT interventions to enhance reading in the countries. The Kenya National Library Board, Africa Story Project in South Africa and The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) have made print and e-resources available in different languages and reading activities enjoyable. University of KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (UKZNDE) prepared a reading culture policy that articulates reading programmes and reading committees for building capacities of teachers to monitor reading resources in the libraries in relation to curricular in their respective academic institutions.

According to the UKZNDE reading policy of 2005, among the factors that hinder reading culture are teachers whose professional education and training did not involve reading culture for lifelong learning to nurture their students. However, stakeholders including governments, educators and parents in many countries in Africa still lack awareness on the value of reading and reading culture policy (Nyariki, 2016). Similarly, Du and Martin (2008) suggested the

necessity for further studies in policy interventions to revamp reading for leisure or entertainment of citizens. The reading culture policy needs to be embedded in the general policy, library policy or curricular in programmes offered in academic institutions.

6.8.3 Library budget devoted to reading for leisure, information or entertainment

The research wanted to know whether the universities allocated a specific budget for leisure reading materials to enhance the culture of reading of the students (See Appendix 3, section 6, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule). Leisure reading materials such as newspapers and magazines in academic libraries impart readers with reading culture, communication skills, competences and understanding of wider interdisciplinary issues (Watson, 2013).

The study findings indicated that universities surveyed had no specific budget for reading for leisure, information or entertainment. However, subject librarians were aware of the existence of a budget for leisure reading materials but it seemed the funds were misallocated. The study on leisure reading collections in academic health science libraries by Watson (2014) affirmed that the libraries studied had a specific budget to acquire leisure reading materials.

Many studies show that libraries have inadequate resources to cater for users' needs due to lack of funds. Smith (2008) in his study on; 'Percentage based allocation of an academic library materials budget', Chaputula and Boadi (2010) in the study on; 'Funding for collection development activities at Chancellor College Library in Malawi' and Hoskins and Stilwell (2011), on; 'Library funding and journal cancellations in South Africa university libraries' reported that inadequacy of funds affects library collection development and many libraries depend on donors to enrich library resources. According to Akhtar (2007) university libraries in Pakistan have inadequate funding except Karachi University library in which less than five percent of the university budget is allocated for library resources. The problems of library funding are attributed to the world economic crisis which resulted in governments in developing countries cutting funds allocated to libraries, technologies which increased expenses for digital devices and the dynamic nature of users' demands and high cost of reading materials (Mahmood, Hameed and Haider, 2006).

Lobbying for funds for library facilities from governments and donors, inter-library loans, endowments, fines and fees are among the alternative funding options for the libraries (Mahmood, Hameed and Haider, 2006; Chaputula and Boadi, 2010). Smith (2008) suggested that a collection development policy should be a benchmark to allocate funds to purchase library resources and other library services. Moreover, budgeting systems that favour library resources should be considered vital for the library to operate and provide services to users. Budgeting helps to plan, monitor, assess and evaluate the implementation of set goals of the library. There are a number of library budget systems such as incremental line-item budget, formula budget, mathematical decisions models budget, zero-based budget, programme budget, performance based budget, responsibility centre budget, block incremental budget and initiative-based budget (Linn, 2007). However, there is no agreed formula to allocate a library budget from the main university budget. Librarians should identify budgeting system advantageous to the library goals and users' needs. For example; the budgeting formula mostly used by universities in Pakistan is fixed percent/formula budget. This is calculated as per the size, age, number of students, teachers and researchers of the specific university (Akhtar, 2007).

6.8.4 The role of parents in developing the reading culture of students

The study also sought to know how parents contributed to the reading culture of their children (See Appendix 11, section 6, question 4 lecturers' questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 6, question 3 subject librarians' interview schedule). According to Bandura's SCT, students learn attitude and behaviour through cognitive processes, observing and imitating attitudes, behaviours, experiences and cognitive skills from parents, lecturers, family members and the community at large (Wenger, 2009; Aliakbari *et al.*, 2015; Devi, Khandelwal and Das, 2017; Cherry and Freud, 2017). Bandura notes that observational learning is governed by attention to extracting information, retaining the information, reproducing experiences from others and motivation to imitate the information (Braungart and Braungart, 2007). In addition, learning cannot be effective only by imitation of attitude and behaviour but also an intentional drive to enact a behaviour, self-regulation and self-efficacy embedded in personal, proxy and collectivity (iSAT, 2014).

The results indicated that respondents were of the opinion that parents had a role to play in promoting the reading culture of their children (Refer Figure 5.13). The result supports findings of studies by Turner, Chandler and Heffers (2009), on; ‘The influence of parenting styles, achievement and self-efficacy’, Watabe (2011), on; ‘Study on the influence of parenting on children’s academic achievement’ and Nehal (2017), on; ‘Parental involvement in the development of reading in South Africa’ which found that parents had a great influence on the reading culture of the students.

Parenting style has a relationship with self-efficacy and academic achievement. Studies have shown that students are socialized to a reading culture from parents (Toivonen, 2013). Thus, parenting styles, parents’ behaviours, values, beliefs, motivation and expectations reinforce students’ self-regulation and self-efficacy (Usher and Kober, 2012). SCT asserts that students regulate their attitude and behaviour based on personal factors, perceptions, behaviour and environments and in reciprocal cognitive domains and environments (Mazumder and Ahmed, 2014; Balapumi, 2015; Devi, Khandelwal and Das, 2017). Furthermore, university environments provide students with the freedom to manage their time (Balapumi, 2015). Turner, Chandler and Heffers (2009) claimed that parenting experiences that nurtured students at home played roles in enhancing academic self-efficacy at universities. In this regard, parenting enhances reading attitude, behaviour and students’ engagement in academic activities (Extensive Reading Foundation, 2011). The fact that students feel supported at home helps them acquire motivation and confidence to perform better at school (Usher and Kober, 2012).

Studies have reported that there are different parenting styles across cultures and ethnic groups that influence academic achievement (Watabe, 2011). Turner, Chandler and Heffers (2009) reported that children in the USA showed higher academic achievement than children in Japan due to different parenting styles. It was noted that the relationship between parenting and academic achievement among Hispanic Americans and African Americans has been established (Watabe, 2011). Moreover, attitude and behaviour of parents, motivation and self-efficacy predict academic achievement (Tuba, 2017).

6.8.6 Skills needed to develop good reading culture

The researcher interrogated necessary skills for developing reading culture attitude and behaviour in academic endeavours (See Appendix 10, section 7, question 2 students' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 7, question 4 subject librarians' interview schedule). According to SCT reading culture is acquired when reading skills are integrated in cognitive domains. Ajayi, Shorunke and Aboyade (2014) opined that reading skills enhance the reading culture of the students. The study results showed that a majority of the respondents noted that skills needed to develop reading culture include reading culture skills, reading skills, learning skills, note taking skills, ICT skills and language skills (Refer to Figure 5.14). Fabunmi and Folorunso (2010), in the study of; 'Poor reading culture in Nigeria' found that the process of acquiring knowledge, skills, information and experience requires specific skills such as reading skills to be integrated in the teaching and learning processes. The studies by Hendricks and Lassiter (2009) and Ngugi and Mberia (2014) observed that students in universities lack reading skills which is important in academic work. The similarities of the result of the current study and similar studies might be attributed to the study topics and methods used in the studies. While the present study used questionnaires and interviews to obtain empirical data, the study by Ngugi and Mberia on; 'The influence of the internet surfing on the reading culture in Kenya', used a questionnaire only to collect data from teachers. The study by Hendricks and Lassiter on; 'Improving students reading skills by developing culture of reading in USA' employed an attitudinal questionnaire to collect data from students.

The results show that skills are important in inculcating a reading culture in students to perform well in academic work. Similarly, reading skills, learning skills, note taking skills, ICT skills and language skills are interlinked with reading culture. Heng (2014) observed that there is a strong positive impact of reading culture on reading skills and academic achievement. According to Aina *et al.* (2011), Jato, Ogunniyi and Olubiyo (2014) and Medar and Kenchakkanavar (2015) reading skills are essential for the students to interact with the teaching and learning processes. The Methodist University in USA adopted a Quality Enhancement Plan intervention to enhance reading skills and provide students with opportunities to gain knowledge and critical thinking (Hendricks and Lassiter, 2009). Students should be exposed to necessary skills during their 1st

year of study to enhance their academic self-efficacy and motivation in academic work (Turner, Chandler and Heffer, 2009).

6.9 Recommendations to develop culture of reading

The section solicited general recommendations from respondents on strategies to develop a reading culture in universities (See Appendix 10, section 7, question 3 students' survey questionnaire, Appendix 11, section 6, question 4 lecturers' survey questionnaire and Appendix 12, section 7, question 5 subject librarians' interview schedule). Gambrell and Marinak (2009) and Pinkerton, Dull and Audiffred (2016) observed that motivation, value of reading, specific needs of readers and incentives play an important role in developing reading attitude. According to SCT attitude and behaviours enable the students to engage in reading.

The study findings showed that most of the respondents recommended interventions in curricular, teaching and learning, assessment, evaluation, skills, attitude and behavioural change in reading. These recommendations concur with Aina, Ogungbeni, Adigun and Ogundipe (2011) who pointed out that universities should ensure the availability of suitable reading materials, conducive reading environments and necessary reading interventions. Al-Mahroogi and Roscoe (2014), Mendezabal (2013), Akpan and Salome (2015) and Tuba (2017) noted that appropriate interventions in reading attitude and motivation, teaching and learning environments and embedded reading culture curricular are fundamental tools for engaging students in reading culture.

6.10 Summary of discussion of findings

The chapter discussed the results of findings. Generally, the results revealed that there is a paucity of gender representation among students, lecturers and librarians in universities. The majority of students, lecturers and subject librarians in the universities surveyed were males compared to their female counterparts. Also, there is an uneven distribution of academic and library staff at universities in terms of education level, age and experiences as per the university requirements, Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) and international standards. The overall results revealed that there is a strong and positive impact of reading culture on academic achievement of the students. The results did not show succinctly the interconnection between

gender of the students and their reading culture. However, in practice and the overall results prompted a belief that there was impact of gender on reading culture of the students. On the other hand, the study results revealed that there was a predictable relationship between age of the students and their reading culture levels. This was because mental and physical abilities of individual students exacerbate in accordance to their age.

Pertaining to the importance of reading culture, the study results established that students were aware of the importance of reading culture in enhancing academic achievement. The results showed that students had a belief in their reading self-efficacies as enablers to promote reading culture. Also, the results showed that students spent three to four hours on reading a day. In practice, students spent little time to read compared to time spent doing other things such as watching television, chatting and playing video games. The results indicated that students rarely spent time for reading for leisure, information or entertainment. Although, students agreed that there was impact of time spent on reading on academic achievement.

The results revealed that university libraries were conducive for the students to develop reading culture. The universities had significantly improved library services in order for the students to acquire the requisite positive attitude and behaviour towards a reading culture. Library environments were considered basically sufficient though library resources were underutilized by the students. Evidence of poor library utilization was established by the number of respondents who said they rarely visited the library. The results showed that students visited the library to borrow books which was different in practice due to the fact that students visit the library to read only for examinations, tests, assignments, research projects, information and entertainments. Also, students perceived that reading was enjoyable behaviour. The results revealed that factors motivated students to read included gaining knowledge, entertainment, examinations, tests and assignments.

Furthermore, the study results showed that libraries had no specific budget for reading for leisure, information or entertainment. Also, the study results revealed that parents had a great role to ensure promotion of reading culture of the students at school, college and university level. The study results revealed that the English language as a medium of instruction at universities in

Tanzania hindered students from developing reading culture. The study found that in order to promote reading culture to the students, skills such as reading culture skills, reading skills, learning skills, note taking skills, ICT skills and language skills are of paramount importance. Finally, the results indicated that there were interventions universities were taking to instil reading culture in the students including curricular reviews, reading programmes, teaching and learning processes, using students centred approach, improving library resources and ICT's, provision of reading assignments, conducive reading environments and employing qualified staff. Moreover, the results revealed that there were no reading culture policies, guidelines or programmes in the universities studied which could facilitate a reading culture among students. Also, the results showed that there was no specific budget allocated for reading for leisure or entertainment resources. The universities were not able adequately support needed library budgets to acquire academic and leisure or entertainment reading materials because of financial constraints. ICT's have alleviated this problem albeit at least in terms of easy access to reading materials in the libraries and teaching and learning environments. More efforts are needed to inculcate a reading culture among students.

The next and final Chapter of the thesis presents a summary of the study results, conclusions and recommendations, implications of the study and suggestions for further studies.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. The study sought to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What is the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students?
- 2) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students perceive their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit?
- 3) To what extent do final year undergraduate education students use University libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 4) What is the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?
- 5) What factors influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students?
- 6) What strategies are used by universities to promote reading culture among students?

The study was underpinned by pragmatism paradigm using mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) approach to gain a better understanding of the complex nature of attitudes and behaviours of human beings (Morgan, 2007; Creswell, Garrett and Amanda, 2008). This study was underpinned by Social Cognitive Theory. The SCT was complemented by Self-determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which provided a broader understanding of the reading culture landscape.

The study sampled four universities namely; Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA), Mzumbe University (MU), Teofilo Kisanji University (TEKU) and University of Iringa (UoI). The respondents for the study were students, lecturers and subject librarians. Data were collected through questionnaire and interviews. Questionnaire (See Appendix 10: Survey questionnaire for students and Appendix 11: Survey questionnaire for lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students) was used to collect data from students and lecturers and interview (See Appendix 12: Interview schedule for subject librarians) was used to collect data from subject librarians. Quantitative data were analysed using IBM SPSS version 20.0 statistical analysis software to generate tables, graphs and charts while qualitative data were analysed thematically using content analysis.

The students (232, 74%), lecturers (22, 35.4%) and subject librarians (19, 38%) This chapter presents a summary of the major results and conclusions based on research questions. This chapter also presents originality of the study, contributions of the study to practice, theory and policy interventions to enhance reading culture in universities.

7.2. Summary of findings and conclusions

This section summarises the key research findings and major conclusions. The summary of key research findings cover characteristics of respondents, the impact of reading culture on academic achievement, students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy, suitability of library as a place for reading, perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects, factors influencing reading culture of students and interventions universities were making to enhance reading culture of the students.

7.2.1. Characteristics of respondents

The study found that the majority of respondents in all three categories (students, lecturers and subject librarians) were males (328, 77%) while (96, 23%) were females as follows: students (234, 75%) were males and (78, 25%) were females, (59, 95.16%) lecturers were males and (3, 4.84%) were females, subject librarians (35, 70%) were males and (15, 30%) were females. The study revealed that a majority of were between the age groups of 21-30, 41-50 and 21-30 years respectively. A majority of the lecturers (38, 61%) were assistant lecturers with master's degree

and (18, 29%) were lecturers with master's degree above three years working experiences. The results also revealed that majority of lecturers (32, 52%) and subject librarians (23, 46%) had working experience of 6-10 and 1-5 years respectively.

7.2.2. The impact of reading culture on academic achievement

The first research question for this study sought to establish the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement in four universities. The results revealed that reading culture was inextricably linked to academic achievement. The results were consistent with the Social Cognitive Theory which posits that cognitive domains and environments are key determinants for the creation of reading culture (attitude and behaviour) for academic achievements. Furthermore, other factors that affect academic achievements are motivation, self-efficacy, beliefs, self-control, self-concept and self-regulation learning. The review of literature revealed that reading culture in universities has declined and students are geared towards reading primarily for examinations, tests, assignments and research projects.

The study results did not reveal succinctly whether gender impacted reading culture of the students in universities or not. However, the overall study results showed that there was a strong impact of gender of the students on their academic achievement. The study results revealed that there was a strong relationship between age of the students and their reading culture. The overall results concurred with SCT that mental and physical abilities decreased in accordance with the age of the students. However, a Chi-square test to determine the relationship between reading culture and age of the students showed that age of the students had insignificant relationship with students' reading culture.

From these findings it is evident that there was a significant impact of reading culture of the students on their academic achievement in all four universities surveyed. The findings revealed that the students were aware of the importance of reading culture for them to succeed in their respective walks of life including academic achievement.

7.2.3 Students' perceptions on their reading self-efficacy

The second research question investigated the level of students' reading self-efficacies. The results revealed that students had good reading self-efficacies which enabled them to understand their reading abilities and promote their reading culture. The findings are in agreement with Social Cognitive Theory which posits that self-efficacy is an integral part of achieving in academic work. Moreover, students perform better in academic work through observing and learning from experiences of other people, gaining confidence to perform better than others, verbal persuasion from other people such as colleagues, family members and lecturers and emotional arousal that deals with personal and psychological factors to perform the behaviours. These self-efficacy factors trigger students' confidence and competence to observe and imitate from other people.

The results showed that a belief of the students in their abilities to reading enabled them to perform better in academic work. In addition, the study results revealed that students in universities surveyed spent three to four hours on reading compared to the time spent watching television, chatting and video games (Anyanwu, Obichere and Ossai-Onah, 2012 Jegbfume, Yaji and Dala, 2017). This indicates that students spent little time on reading revealing perhaps that reading culture was on a decline in universities. The results also revealed students rarely spend their time reading for leisure, information or entertainment.

Moreover, results showed that the majority of students agreed that there was a strong impact of time spent on reading on academic achievement. They argued that students who spend a lot of time reading are able to read a lot of materials and acquire skills, knowledge, information and experiences. SCT posits that attitude and behaviour are developed based on the time spent on reading activities. SCT states that students who devote much time to reading achieve better results in academic work. Therefore, time spent on reading is a predictor for the students to acquire knowledge, skills and experiences as well as perform better in academic work. In addition the study results showed that students rarely spent time reading for leisure, information or entertainment but instead read for the sake of passing examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. Therefore, there is a need for the interventions on curricular and teaching and

learning processes to provide students with many reading assignments to influence their reading culture.

7.2.4 Suitability of library as place for reading

The results revealed that university libraries surveyed are conducive for the students to read since the libraries were equipped with all necessary resources for the students to develop positive attitude and behaviour towards reading. The library environments were well ventilated with adequate lighting and comfortable reading space. The libraries also had up-to date reading materials, well-staffed and special facilities for people with disabilities. The SCT asserts that a conducive environment is important for teaching and learning. Library facilities enable students to acquire knowledge, skills, information and experiences.

Despite the fact that library environment was good for reading, the findings showed that library resources were underutilized because the students did not visit the library frequently. SCT asserts that visiting the library predicts the attitude and behaviour of the students to use the library resources. The underutilization of library resources was attributed to a lack of reading culture, irrelevant, outdated reading materials and new technologies whereby many students lacked the necessary ICT skills. The results revealed that reading culture is declining despite new technological invention which was expected to revamp reading attitude and behaviour of the students, and enhance academic achievement. The study therefore suggests that education stakeholders including lecturers, librarians, students, parents and governments should put into place underlying interventions to revive reading culture. This is because reading culture plays a great role for the civilization and development of the countries (Kitabu, 2011; Akanda, Hoq and Hasan, 2013).

The results revealed that the students visited the library for the purposes of borrowing books to facilitate passing examinations, tests, assignments, research projects, access to information for leisure or entertainment. The study findings seemed to suggest that students lack reading culture to utilize library resources. The researcher concluded that there was a need to involve the librarians, lecturers and parents in developing interventions to promote reading culture among students.

7.2.5 Perceptions of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

The fourth question enquired students' perceptions about reading culture without reinforcement of examinations, tests, assignments or research projects. The results showed that students perceived reading as enjoyable behaviour. Students who perceived reading as enjoyable spend much time on reading more materials to gain knowledge, information, skills and experiences. However, results also showed that students were reinforced to read only to pass examinations, tests and assignments. This result suggests that students lacked independent reading attitude and behaviour resulting in a decline in reading culture and academic achievement. The Social Cognitive Theory asserts that reading starts with a positive attitude to perform reading behaviour (William and Aldred, 2011). Therefore, there should be specific programmes to inculcate reading culture to the students to enable them to develop positive reading attitude and behaviour.

7.2.6 Factors influencing reading culture of the students

The fifth research question explored factors influencing reading culture of the students. The results revealed that students' reading was influenced by the need to gain knowledge, entertainment and for examinations, tests and assignments. The results furthermore revealed that the English language as a medium of instructions at universities surveyed hindered students' reading culture. The SCT states that language used in reading materials is of paramount importance for the students to learn. Therefore, there is a need to initiate a transforming medium of instructions in universities to enable students to acquire positive attitude and behaviour towards reading.

7.2.7 Strategies to promote reading culture among students

The sixth research question investigated interventions universities take to impart reading attitude and behaviour to the students. The study findings revealed that there were interventions universities were making to enhance reading culture of the students such as curricular reviews, reading programmes, interventions in teaching and learning processes, using students' centred learning approach, ensuring library resources including ICT's, provision of reading assignments to the students, conducive reading environments and employing qualified staff. However, there were no policies, guidelines or programmes to achieve these initiatives.

The results indicated that there was no specific budget for reading resources for leisure, or entertainment in the universities surveyed. Therefore, the universities should make provisions in the library budget to cater for reading for leisure or entertainment. The results also revealed that parents had a great role to play in nurturing reading culture of their children. Tungaraza (2016), in a study on 'Book show cultivating reading culture in Tanzania' found that parents were solely responsible for the cultivation of children's reading culture. SCT posits that children learn effectively through observing and imitating attitude, behaviour and experiences from people around them such as parents, family members, lecturers and colleagues. Therefore, parents should establish family libraries, buy books and demonstrate reading culture attitude and behaviour for their children to adopt.

The study results showed that acquisition of reading culture skills were needed by the students to develop reading culture. Such skills include reading culture skills, reading skills, learning skills, note taking skills and ICT skills. According to SCT, skills are embedded in cognitive domain as important variables for the students to acquire reading attitude and behaviour. Therefore, universities should develop interventions to equip students with necessary skills to form a culture of reading.

7.3 Contribution of the study

This study makes discernible contribution to the body of knowledge from a developing country context such as Tanzania. There are limited empirical studies dealing with the subject of reading culture in Tanzania. The study forms a foundation upon which relevant policies and guidelines can be developed by universities to promote a culture of reading in order to promote academic achievements.

Moreover, from information science field, there are few studies on how reading culture influences academic achievement in university context (Banou, Kostagiolas, and Olenoglou, 2008). Many studies cover reading culture and academic achievement in primary and secondary schools (Credé and Kuncel, 2008; Fabunmi and Folorunso, 2010). Forex ample; the study by Ezema and Ekere (2008), on; 'The teacher librarian and promotion of reading culture among Nigerian children' reported that reading culture is fundamental to prepare primary and secondary

school learners for higher learning education. But there is no serious efforts done by the government of Nigeria to inculcate reading culture among the youths. The primary and secondary school libraries which are the bedrock of education are neglected resulting to the poor academic achievement among the students. The study by Nengomasha, Uutoni and Yule (2012), on; ‘School libraries and their role in promoting a reading culture in Namibia’ posited that all schools have libraries but there are no reading culture programmes and more than 80 percent of school libraries lack adequate reading resources, equipment and library staff. Otike (2011) and Ogbonna (2015) support that most primary and secondary schools in Kenya and Nigeria have specific programmes to inculcate positive reading attitude and behaviour to the learners. These programmes include: book talks, reader theatre, storytelling, display and exhibitions. However, there are no firm government reading culture policy, enough reading materials and organised libraries in schools (Otike, 2011). This study therefore contributes towards literature on attitude and behaviour of students toward reading for lifelong learning in university context. The study contributed towards empirical evidence on the impacts of reading culture on academic achievement in a university environment in Tanzania.

This study was underpinned by Social Cognitive Theory. The theory provides theoretical perspectives on the influence of reading culture on students’ academic achievement. SCT acknowledges that students acquire reading attitude and behaviour through different domains including self-regulation, self-efficacy, personal factors, cognition, environment, observation and imitation of experiences in the society (Schunk and DiBenedetto, 2014; Bembenuddy, White and DiBenedetto, 2016). The application of SCT to underpin this study brought to the fore the importance of attitude and behaviour in nurturing a culture of reading. The theory is robust in explaining the complex nature of human beings with regard to attitude and behaviour. In addition SCT provides an insight into environmental and cognitive domains with regards to individual students to decide to perform or not to perform behaviours. Cognitive domains imply effective and affective behaviour enshrined in mental abilities and competences while environments built upon physical and social environments at home and school settings that impact the teaching and learning of the students.

The study results contribute to the policy through providing evidence to policy makers on interventions that are needed to promote reading culture in academic institutions. This evidence is important because universities in Tanzania have no policies, guideline or specific programme for reading culture. Furthermore, the existing education policy in Tanzania fails to adequately provide underlying interventions to instil reading attitude and behaviour in teaching and learning processes. The Education and Training Policy of Tanzania does however make provision for gender equality in accessing education and improving the teaching and learning environments it does not make provision for addressing reading attitude and behaviour of the students. The study therefore provides framework for the formulation of reading culture policy, guideline and programmes at universities in Tanzania. The study also provides basis for establishing guidelines to assist lecturers, parents and librarians to develop interventions on nurturing reading culture.

In practice, the study provides a deeper understanding of various phenomena in reading culture serving as a benchmark for assessing and evaluating students' academic achievement. This work provides empirical understanding of reading attitude and behaviour of the students in their academic work and lifelong learning. The study has contributed to the understanding of reading culture at universities in Tanzania with regards to their academic achievement. The study findings provide best practices to consider in planning teaching and learning processes.

7.4 Recommendations

The study results presented the influence of reading culture on students' academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. Based on the major results presented in each of the research question, literature review and Social Cognitive Theory, the researcher recommends that:

- 1) Lecturers, parents and universities in general to consider students attitudes, behaviours, gender and age in curricular development, programmes, training, teaching and learning processes, in selecting library resources including ICT adoption and infrastructure to support reading culture of the students.
- 2) Vicarious experience, mastery experience, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal be integrated in the teaching and learning processes to enable students interact with cognitive domains and environment in developing a reading culture.

- 3) Universities collectively with other education stakeholders such as lecturers, parents, teachers and students should develop programmes that instil reading attitude and behaviour to the students both at school and home. In addition, university libraries should conduct regular surveys to understand dynamics of students reading culture and information needs. The user survey information needs would help in establishing interventions in promoting reading culture to the students.
- 4) University libraries should conduct training, orientations, workshops, exhibitions and events to nurture reading skills among the students.
- 5) Language interventions to upskill the students are needed to promote reading culture.
- 6) There should be strategies to promote reading attitude and behaviour in universities to include compulsory courses for all students on reading attitude and behaviour in universities, curricular reviews, reading culture policy, reading culture programmes and improvement of teaching and learning environments.

7.5 Proposed strategic framework for the promotion of reading culture to enhance academic achievement

As part of the originality and contribution to the field of literature and knowledge, strategic framework has been developed and presented in this study. This strategic framework is built on SCT with some expansions that reflect variables in the context of the promotion of reading culture to enhance academic achievement in universities. This proposed strategic framework is also based on study objectives, literature review in information science, empirical findings, interpretation and discussions.

To understand reading culture to enhance academic achievement, this strategic framework matches with the ideas that reading culture is a process that starts from development of attitude towards a behaviour and interrelated variables in the teaching and learning processes. Seven components emerge as important for the students to acquire positive reading culture to enhance academic achievement. These involve reading attitude, reading behaviour, reading behavioural development, goal directed behaviour, curricular interventions and assessment and permanent

behavioural change. Also, SCT's variables such as self-efficacy, self-concept, self-control and self-regulation with intervening constructs such as curricular interventions, assessment, evaluation, teaching and learning environments. These are integral to the pedagogies, social and physical environments built on internal and external variables in teaching and learning processes. Other determining variables include behavioural intention, motivation and reinforcements. In this context, the output process impacts on academic achievement and permanent change of behaviour of the students.

The framework explains the engagement of the students in using library resources and services. This is determined by the attitude and behaviour of students towards reading. These variables are embedded in reading behavioural development in five levels to include behavioural intention, self-efficacy, self-regulation influenced by curricular interventions, assessment, evaluation, teaching and learning environments (pedagogies, social and physical environments), self-control, motivation and reinforcements. They work as integral agents that focus on acquiring knowledge, skills, information for leisure or entertainment and experiences. This follows the fact that reading culture starts with positive attitude towards reading in which the habits are imparted to individual students. Therefore, this strategic framework contributes to permanent behavioural change towards positive reading culture which in reciprocal enhances academic achievement.

Figure 7.1 presents graphical representation of the strategic framework:

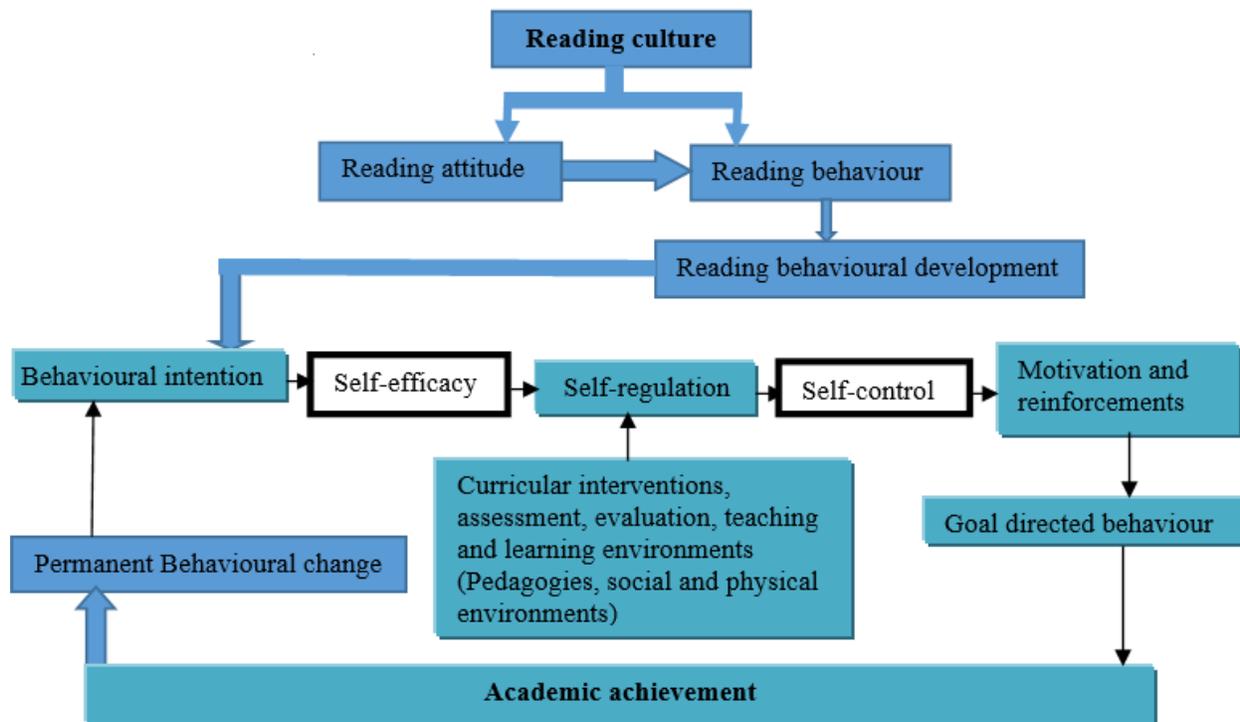


Figure 7.15: Proposed strategic framework for the promotion of reading culture to enhance academic achievement

7.6 Suggested further areas for research

The study investigated perceptions of final year undergraduate education students about the influence of a reading culture on their academic achievement at selected universities in Tanzania. The researcher outlines the following suggestions as a base for further studies. Firstly, studies should be undertaken to find out perceptions dynamics of the students towards reading culture as attitude and behaviour. The study results revealed that students rarely read as part of their reading attitude and behaviour, rather students read for the purpose of performing in examinations, tests, assignments and research projects. The finding revealed that decline of reading culture was caused more by attitude and behaviour issues. There are paradoxes to the study of the impacts of reading attitude and behaviour in relation to academic achievement as there are other factors that influence academic achievement (Li, 2012). Saxena and Sell (2016) noted that academic achievement was influenced by a number of factors that include education policy, curricular and teaching and learning processes. Therefore, further studies are required using larger samples at regular intervals to determine changing reading attitude and behaviour of

students at universities in relation to other factors that influence academic achievement. This argument is buttressed by Buchan, Ollis, Thomas and Baker (2012) and Watabe (2012) who suggest that because of the complex nature of attitude and behaviour, future research should focus on diversity of attitudes and behaviours, socio-cultural, ethnicity variations and nationalities.

Thirdly, the current study was limited to final year undergraduate education students, lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students and subject librarians at four universities in Tanzania. Further studies could be carried out to include students, lecturers and librarians in different years of study, programmes, faculties and departments to compare the study results.

Moreover, the present study was underpinned by pragmatism paradigm with mixed methods approach. The study used questionnaire and interview methods to collect data from students, lecturers and subject librarians. Future studies could be carried out using other paradigms and research approaches to compare the results. In addition, the study was underpinned by Social Cognitive Theory. Theories such as Self-determination Theory (SDT), Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (BEST), Expectancy Value Theory (EVT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) could be used singly or in combination as the main theory to provide a comparative picture of the results. The future studies could use hypothesis to determine the impacts of reading culture students' academic achievement for the results to be generalized widely.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letter seeking research permit from Sokoine University of Agriculture



15th November, 2015

Vice Chancellor

Sokoine University of Agriculture

P.O. Box 3000

Morogoro-Tanzania

Att: Dean, Faculty of Education

Director of Library and Information Services

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION

Reference is made to the above subject.

Mr. Rhodes Mwageni is a PhD student in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in South Africa. As part of the requirements for the degree, he is required to collect data at four Tanzanian universities and we would like to include your university in the project. He is researching on “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”.

Therefore, I am writing to kindly request written permission to collect data from final year undergraduate education students, education lecturers and librarians from your university. Possible dates, if permission is granted by you are from 01st September to 30th October, 2016 but these are negotiable. The questionnaire and interview schedules are attached.

I hope you will be able to comply with my request. Please feel free to request any further information you might require.

Yours sincerely,



Professor Stephen Mutula

Supervisor

Candidate: Mr. Rhodes Elias Mwageni Cell: +27 613479595 (SA), +255 754 350218 (TZ)

Appendix 2: Letter seeking research permit from Mzumbe University



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Social Sciences
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville 3209, South Africa
Tel: +27 (0) 33 2605007
Fax: +27 (0) 33 2605092
mutulas@ukzn.ac.za

15th November, 2015

Vice Chancellor

Mzumbe University

P.O. Box 63

Morogoro-Tanzania

Att: Dean, Faculty of Education

Director of Library and Information Services

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION

Reference is made to the above subject.

Mr. Rhodes Mwageni is a PhD student in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in South Africa. As part of the requirements for the degree, he is required to collect data at four Tanzanian universities and we would like to include your university in the project. He is researching on “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of their Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement in Selected Universities in Tanzania”.

Therefore, I am writing to kindly request written permission to collect data from final year undergraduate education students, education lecturers and librarians from your university. Possible dates, if permission is granted by you are from 01st September to 30th October, 2016 but these are negotiable. The questionnaire and interview schedules are attached.

I hope you will be able to comply with my request. Please feel free to request any further information you might require.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Stephen Mutula', is written over a horizontal line.

Professor Stephen Mutula

Supervisor

Candidate: Mr. Rhodes Mwageni Cell: +27 613479595 (SA), +255 754 350218 (TZ)

Appendix 3: Letter seeking research permit from Teofilo Kisanji University

15th November, 2015

Vice Chancellor

Teofilo Kisanji University

P.O. Box 1104

Mbeya -Tanzania

Att: Dean, Faculty of Education

Director of Library and Information Services (DLIS)

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION

Reference is made to the above subject.

Mr. Rhodes Mwageni is a PhD student in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in South Africa. As part of the requirements for the degree, he is required to collect data at four Tanzanian universities and we would like to include your university in the project. He is researching on “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”.

Therefore, I am writing to kindly request written permission to collect data from final year undergraduate education students, education lecturers and librarians from your university. Possible dates, if permission is granted by you are from 01st September to 30th October, 2016 but these are negotiable. The questionnaire and interview schedules are attached.

I hope you will be able to comply with my request. Please feel free to request any further information you might require.

Yours sincerely,



Professor Stephen Mutula

Supervisor Candidate: Mr. Rhodes Mwageni Cell: +27 613479595 (SA), +255 754 350218 (TZ)



Appendix 4: Letter seeking research permit from University of Iringa

15th November, 2015

Vice Chancellor

University of Iringa

P.O. Box 200

Iringa -Tanzania

Att: Dean, Faculty of Education

Director of Library Services

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: APPLICATION FOR RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION

Reference is made to the above subject.

Mr. Rhodes Mwageni is a PhD student in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, in South Africa. As part of the requirements for the degree, he is required to collect data at four Tanzanian universities and we would like to include your university in the project. He is researching on “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”.

Therefore, I am writing to kindly request written permission to collect data from final year undergraduate education students, education lecturers and librarians from your university. Possible dates, if permission is granted by you are from 01st September to 30th October, 2016 but these are negotiable. The questionnaire and interview schedules are attached.

I hope you will be able to comply with my request. Please feel free to request any further information you might require.

Yours sincerely,



Professor Stephen Mutula

Supervisor Candidate: Mr. Rhodes Mwageni Cell: +27 613479595 (SA), +255 754 350218 (TZ)



Information Studies

School of Social Sciences
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville 3209, South Africa
Tel: +27 (0) 33 2605007
Fax: +27 (0) 33 2605092
mutulas@ukzn.ac.za

Appendix 5: Research permit from Sokoine University of Agriculture

SOKOINE UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE



**OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR
(ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE)**

P.O. BOX 3000, CHUO KIKUU, MOROGORO, TANZANIA
TELEPHONE: +255 023 260 3511-4, Direct +255 023 260 4653,
FAX: +255 023 260 4573.
E-mail: dvcadminfin@suanet.ac.tz

Ref. No. SUA/ADM/R.1/8 Vol

Date: 28.01.2016

Information Studies,
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu – Natal,
Private Bag X01,
Scottsville 3209, South Africa,
Tel: +27 (0) 33 2605007,
Fax: +27 (0) 332605092
mutulas@ukzn.ac.za

RE: DATA COLLECTION PERMISSION FOR MR. RHODES MWAGENI

Kindly please refer to your letter dated 10th January, 2016 regarding the heading above.

Be informed that the University Management has granted permission to Mr. Rhodes Mwageni your bonafide student to conduct data collection at SUA.

The approved dates are from 01st September, 2016 to 30th October, 2016.

However please note that as from September, 2016 to October, 2016 students are expected to be on vacation.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'H.W. Kyando-Gellejah'.

H.W. Kyando-Gellejah

**For: DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR
(ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE)**

c.c: Vice Chancellor
" Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic) } to note on file
" Deputy Vice Chancellor (A & F)
" Rhodes Mwageni – for your information

Appendix 6: Research permit from Mzumbe University



MZUMBE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE VICE CHANCELLOR

Tel: +255 (0) 23 2604380/1/3/4
Fax: +255 (0) 23 2604382
Cell: +255 (0) 754 694029
E-mail: drps@mzumbe.ac.tz
Website: www.mzumbe.ac.tz

P.O.BOX 63
MZUMBE
MOROGORO, TANZANIA

Ref.No. MU/R.2/1/VOL.II/54

Date: 16th February, 2016

Information Studies
School of Social Sciences
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Private Bag X01
Scottsville 3209, Pietermaritzburg,
South Africa.

Re: RESEARCH DATA COLLECTION FOR MR. RHODES MWAGENI AT OUR UNIVERSITY

The caption above refers.

This letter is in response to yours dated 10th January, 2016 in which you were introducing the PhD candidate mentioned in the caption above.

We hereby acknowledge receiving your letter (mentioned above) and am glad to inform you that we have accepted to grant Mr. Rhodes Mwageni permission to carry out his research at our university. However, when he arrives at our university for his research he should report to the office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Administration and Finance) for proper directives and guidance pertaining to his research.

We trust that he will find conducting his research at our university an enjoyable endeavor and we look forward to seeing him at our University soon.

Sincerely yours,

Dr. Fred Alfred (PhD)
For: VICE CHANCELLOR

Appendix 7: Research permit from Teofilo Kisanji University

CHUO KIKUU TEOFILO KISANJI



P. O. Box 1104
MBEYA
TANZANIA
Phone: +255 (0)25 2502682
FAX: +255 25 2503721
E-mail: info@teku.ac.tz Website:
www.teku.ac.tz



"Training for Better Life"

17th June, 2016

Information Studies,
School of Social Sciences,
University of KwaZulu- Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville 3209, South Africa
Tel: +27 (0) 33 2605007
Fax: +27 (0) 332605092
mutuias@ukzn.ac.za

RE: Data Collection Permission for Mr. Rhodes Mwangeni

Response is kindly made to your letter dated 15th November, 2015 in regard to the heading above. On behalf of the University Management, it is my pleasure to grant you permission for your PhD student Mr. Rhodes Mwangeni to conduct research data collection at Teofilokisanji University.

I appreciate for choosing our University.

Your Sincerely,

C. Tweve
For ViceChancellor



Appendix 8: Research permit from University of Iringa



UNIVERSITY OF IRINGA (UoI) CHUO KIKUU CHA IRINGA

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR – ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
(Formerly, Tumaini University, Iringa University College)

P. O. Box 200 Iringa, Tanzania, East Africa Tel: (0) 26 272-0900 Fax: (0) 26 272-0904 E-mail: iucco@tumaini.ac.tz
Website: www.tumaini.ac.tz

Ref.No.UoI/R.2/1/136

2nd February 2016

Professor Stephen Mutula
Information Studies
School of Social Science
University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville 3209
SOUTH AFRICA.

Dear Professor Mutula,

**Re: APPLICATION FOR DATA COLLECTION IN FAVOUR OF
MR. RHODES MWAGENI**

In response to your letter dated 10th January 2016 on the above indicated subject, I am pleased to inform you that your request has been granted Mr. Mwageni is welcome to collect data at our University for his PhD research.

Best regards,
UNIVERSITY OF IRINGA

Dr. iur Gracieux Mbuzukongira
DEPUTY VICE CHANCELLOR FOR ACADEMIC AFFAIRS



P.O. Box 200
Iringa, Tanzania
East Africa

Tel:
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Fax:
(0) 26 272-0904

E-mail:
iucco@
tumaini.ac.tz

Website:
www.tumaini.ac.tz

University Council:

Rt. Rev. Dr. Owdenburg M. Mdegella, Chairperson
Prof. Joseph Parsalaw
Dr. Rebecca Sima
Dr. Basil Saprapasen
Prof. Gwakisa Mwakagali
Ms. Sara Masengo
Ms. Penina Manvanki

Bishop Isaya Mengele
Prof. David Ngassapa
Prof. Joshua S. Madumulla, VC
President, UIISO - UoI
Mr. Neyman Chavala
Adv. Mugendi Kohi, Secretary to Council

Prof. Joseph Kuzilwa
Prof. Wilbord S. Abel
Mr. Martin Mkuye
Dr. iur Gracieux Mbuzukongira - DVCAA
Dr. Given M. Msomba, DVCRM
Ms. Joyce Msolla

Appendix 9: Letter of introduction from the researcher requesting respondents' consent



University of KwaZulu-Natal
School of Social Sciences
Private Bag X01 Scottsville,
Pietermaritzburg
South Africa

Dear Respondent

Informed Consent Letter

Researcher: Rhodes Mwageni

Institution; University of KwaZulu-Natal

Telephone number: +27 613479595 (SA), +255 754 350218 (TZ)

Email address: rhodesmwageni@gmail.com

Supervisor: Prof. Stephen M. Mutula

Institution: University of KwaZulu-Natal

Telephone number: 033-260 5093

Email address: mutulas@ukzn.ac.za

You may also contact the Research Office through:

P. Mohun

HSSREC Research Office,

Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

My name is Rhodes Mwageni I am Information studies PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus, South Africa. I am interested in learning the “Perceptions of

Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”. I am studying cases from Sokoine University of Agriculture, Mzumbe University, Teofilo Kisanji University and University of Iringa. Your university is one of my case studies. This research project is undertaken as part of the requirements of the PhD, which is undertaken through the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Information Studies Department.

The aim of this study is to investigate the “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”. Participation in this research project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the research project at any stage and for any reason without any form of disadvantage. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research project. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the Department of Information Studies, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

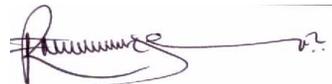
If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please feel free to contact myself or my supervisor at the numbers indicated above.

It should take you about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Thank you for participating in this research project.

Signature

Date



November, 2016

I..... (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent/ do not consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Use of my Photographs for research purpose		
Video equipment		

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

.....

Appendix 10: Survey questionnaire for final year undergraduate education students

This is a study of the “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”. This study is part of the requirements for fulfillment of award of a PhD Degree in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The term “Reading culture” implies a learned practice of seeking for knowledge, information or entertainment through the written words, a practice which can be acquired by reading books, journals, magazines, newspapers and internet sources. The objectives of this study are:

- 1) To investigate the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students.
- 2) To examine final year undergraduate education students’ perceptions on their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit.
- 3) To determine the extent of final year undergraduate education students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.
- 4) To find out the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects
- 5) To identify the factors that influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students.
- 6) To establish strategies used by universities to promote reading culture among students.

I am kindly requesting you to participate in this survey. Your participation and contributions would be greatly appreciated. Please kindly fill in the blank spaces or tick in the appropriate box for each question.

Section 1: Demographic Information

1. (a) Please indicate the name of your University.....
(b) Please tick to indicate whether it is a Public or Private .
2. Gender:
Male:
Female:

3. Age range between years old:
- | | |
|-------|-----|
| 21-30 | [] |
| 31-40 | [] |
| 41-50 | [] |
| 51 + | [] |

Section 2: The impact of reading culture on academic achievement

1. What is the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement?.....

2. What is the relationship between age of the students and reading culture?.....

Section 3: Final year undergraduate education students' perceptions on their self-efficacy to reading for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit

1. In your opinion, how do you rate your self-efficacy in reading?
- | | |
|-----------|-----|
| Very good | [] |
| Good | [] |
| Poor | [] |
| Very poor | [] |
2. What amount of time do you spent on reading per day?
- | | |
|---------------------------|-----|
| Less than 1 hour per day | [] |
| 1-2 hours per day | [] |
| 3-4 hours per day | [] |
| More than 4 hours per day | [] |
3. To what extent do you agree that students who spend a lot of time in reading also achieve in academic work?
- | | |
|-------------------|-----|
| Strongly disagree | [] |
| Disagree | [] |
| Agree | [] |
| Strongly agree | [] |

Section 4: Final year undergraduate education students' use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive place for reading?.....

2. How frequent do you visit the library?

Every day	[]
Once a week	[]
Occasionally	[]
Never	[]

3. What are the purposes for visiting the library?

Consultations	[]
Borrowing books	[]
Leisure reading	[]
For socialization	[]
Others (Please specify).....	[]

Section 5: The attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. What is your perception about reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?

Difficult	[]
Enjoyable	[]
Boring	[]
Rewarding	[]

2. What is the importance of reading in the academic life? (You can tick more than one response where applicable)

For research purposes	[]
For examinations, tests and assignments	[]
Keeping up to date	[]
Personal development	[]

Section: 6. Factors influencing reading culture among final year undergraduate education students

1. What factors motivate you to read? (You can tick more than one response)
Reading for leisure or entertainment []
Reading for knowledge []
For passing examinations, tests and projects []
Recommendations from lecturers []

2. In your opinion, how does language used in the materials hinder reading culture?.....
.....
.....

Section: 7. Strategies adopted by universities to promote reading culture among students

1. What in your opinion are interventions being made in your university to enhance reading culture?.....
.....
.....

2. What are skills needed to develop good reading culture?.....
.....
.....

3. What recommendations can you make to encourage students to develop culture of reading?.....
.....
.....

Thank you so much for your participation and contributions

Appendix 11: Survey questionnaire for lecturers teaching final year undergraduate education students

Introduction: This is a study of the “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”. This study is part of the requirements for fulfillment of award of a PhD Degree in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The term “Reading culture” implies a learned practice seeking for knowledge, information or entertainment through the written words, a practice which can be acquired by reading books, journals, magazines, newspapers and internet sources. The objectives of the study are:

- 1) To investigate the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students.
- 2) To examine final year undergraduate education students’ perceptions on their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit.
- 3) To determine the extent of final year undergraduate education students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.
- 4) To find out the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects
- 5) To identify the factors that influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students.
- 6) To establish strategies used by universities to promote reading culture among students.

I am kindly requesting you to participate in this survey. Your participation and contributions would be greatly appreciated.

Section 1: Biographical Information

1. (a) Please indicate the name of your University.....

(b)Please tick to indicate whether it is a public or private University: Public or Private

2. Gender: Male or Female .

3. Age range between years old:

30-40

41-50

51 -60

61+

4. Please indicate your highest academic qualification.....

5. Academic rank at your University:

Assistant Lecturer

Lecturer

Senior Lecturer

Associate Professor

Professor

6. How long have you been working with this university:

1-5 Years

6-10 Years

10- 15 Years

15+

Section 2: The impact of reading culture on academic achievement

1. What in your opinion is the impact of students' reading culture on their academic achievement?.....

.....

.....

.....

2. What is the impact of gender on students' reading culture?.....

.....
.....
3. What is the relationship between age of the students and reading culture?.....
.....
.....

4. What is the impact of time spent on reading on academic achievement?.....
.....
.....
.....

Section 3: Final year undergraduate education students' use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive place for reading?.....
.....
.....
.....

Section: 4. The attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. What is the attitude of the students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects?.....
.....
.....
.....

2. What is the importance of reading in the academic life?.....
.....
.....
.....

Section: 5. Factors influencing reading culture among final year undergraduate education students

1. What factors motivate students to read?.....
.....
.....
.....
2. In your opinion, how does language used in the materials hinder or promote reading culture of the students?.....
.....
.....
.....
3. How in your opinion does gender affect reading culture of students?.....
.....
.....
.....

Section: 6. Strategies adopted by universities to promote reading culture among students

1. What in your opinion are interventions being made in your university to enhance reading culture?.....
.....
.....
.....
2. What policy if any is available to promote reading culture among the students?.....
.....
.....
.....
3. How can parents help in developing good reading culture among students?.....
.....
.....
.....

4. What recommendations can you make to encourage students to develop culture of reading?.....
.....
.....

Thank you so much for your participation and contributions

Appendix 12: Interview schedule for subject librarians

This is a study of the “Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education Students about the Influence of a Reading Culture on their Academic Achievement at Selected Universities in Tanzania”. This study is part of the requirements for fulfillment of award of a PhD Degree in the Information Studies Programme at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The term “Reading culture” implies a learned practice of seeking for knowledge, information or entertainment through the written words, a practice which can be acquired by reading books, journals, magazines, newspapers and internet sources. The objectives of the study are:

- 1) To investigate the impact of reading culture on academic achievement of final year undergraduate education students.
- 2) To examine final year undergraduate education students’ perceptions on their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit.
- 3) To determine the extent of final year undergraduate education students use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.
- 4) To find out the attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects
- 5) To identify the factors that influence a reading culture among final year undergraduate education students.
- 6) To establish strategies used by universities to promote reading culture among students.

I am kindly requesting you to participate in this interview. Your participation and contributions in this interview would be greatly appreciated. Your views in this study will not be divulged to any third party.

Section 1: Biographical information

1. Name of the university.....Private [] or
Public []
2. Gender: Male [] or Female []

3. Position/Rank.....

4. Please state your highest academic qualification

Diploma []

Degree []

Masters []

PhD []

Others (Please specify).....

5. Age range between years old:

21-30 []

31-40 []

41-50 []

51 -60 []

6. How long have you been working with this university:

1-5 Years []

6-10 Years []

10- 15 Years []

15+ []

Section 2: The impact of between reading culture on academic achievement

1. In your opinion, explain what you consider to be the impact of reading culture on students' academic achievement?.....

.....
.....
.....

2. What is the impact of gender on students' reading culture?.....

.....
.....

3. What is the relationship between age of the students and their reading culture.....
.....

Section: 3. Final year undergraduate education students’ perceptions on their self-efficacy to read for leisure, information or entertainment other than for academic pursuit

1. How do you rate students’ reading self-efficacy
.....
.....
.....
.....
2. How much time spent by the students to read for leisure, information or entertainment?.....
.....
.....

Section 4: Final year undergraduate education students’ use of university libraries to read for other purposes than examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. In your opinion, do you find the university library conducive place for reading?.....
.....

Section 5: The attitude of final year undergraduate education students towards reading that is not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects

1. What in your opinion is the perception of students towards reading not associated with examinations, tests, assignments or research projects.....
.....

Appendix 13: Ethical clearance certificate



5 September 2016

Mr Rhodes Mwageni 215080593
School of Social Sciences
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Mwageni

Protocol reference number: HSS/1336/016D

Project Title: Perceptions of Final Year Undergraduate Education students about the influence of reading culture on their Academic Achievement in selected Universities in Tanzania

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received 23 August 2016, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

.....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: Prof S Mutula
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Maheshvari Naidu
Cc School Administrator: Ms Nancy Mudau & Stella Shulika

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4657 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za / snymam@ukzn.ac.za / mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

1910 - 2010
100 YEARS OF ACADEMIC EXCELLENCE

Faculty of Commerce ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville