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Editorial

In his preface to a Palgrave Macmillan published book on Funding Higher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (Damtew, 2013), Professor Philip Altbach characterises massification as the “iron law” of contemporary higher education. This is especially true in Africa, where higher education systems and institutions came under overwhelming, and generally unavoidable, pressure to phenomenally expand enrolments albeit at a time they were relatively underdeveloped and underfunded. In this part of the world, massification has presented both opportunities and challenges and over the last four decades, these opportunities and challenges have been the subject of notable discussion among scholars and policy persons. The East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development is proud to be providing *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* as one of the mediums through which contributions to this important discussion are made.

In this issue of the Journal, Mande and Nakayita delve into the effect of student-fees policies on the quality of university education in Uganda. Introduced for the first time in the country as part of the neoliberal reforms of the mid-1980s, university education student-fees are a subject of significant controversy and have been the cause of widespread student action. However, in this empirical investigation, Mande and Nakayita interrogate the way student-fees and the ways in which universities approach them relate to quality assurance. These authors confirm direct relationships between student-fees and attributes of quality assurance. However, they also report an ironic finding: students expect their universities to offer them quality education yet they protest against the fees increments that the universities adopt to be able to offer this education.

Namutebi reports on the findings of a study that investigated diversity management in universities in Central Uganda. Even though an inherent attribute of universities throughout the history of higher education, diversity in university student and staff populations in Uganda increased multi-fold following the liberalisation of higher education in the country. Yet, Namutebi notes, universities are not managing diversity well. Her paper discusses the reasons underlying this problem and, subsequently, makes recommendations for improvement.

Foluke et al. report the findings of a study that examined University of Ilorin academic staffs' perception of harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa. They report that there is a significant difference in the staffs' perceptions by gender and duration of university teaching experience. However, no significant difference in perception of harmonisation was found on the basis of the respondents' departments and ranks.

Kiggundu reports on the emotional competence and leadership styles of managers in private universities in Uganda. The paper reports a direct relationship between the emotional competence and leadership styles of the managers. However, the paper also observes, capacity building for the university managers has not paid attention to the need to enhance the managers' emotional competence. Accordingly, the paper recommends that efforts to enhance the managers' effectiveness should endeavour to enhance their emotional competence.

Sofoluwe delves into attributes of vocational and technical education (VTE) and sustainable development. Giving specific attention to the provision and attainment of basic skills, this study scrutinises the impact of VTE on job creation, self-employment, utilization of locally available resources, provision of technology and capital formation. This is with the conclusion that VTE has potential for boosting sustainable development so recommendations towards its improvement are propounded.

Ogunbiyi and Oludeyi discuss citizenship education for liberation, with specific reference to Nigeria. Noting that countries face problems of low levels of civic consciousness and prevalence of harmful stereotypes that are responsible for a multitude of social ills, these authors contend that citizenship education—an important part of extramural higher education and lifelong learning—has potential for helping countries to deal with the aforementioned challenges. Subsequently, they discuss ways of exploiting this potential.

Finally, Namuleme reports a significant relationship between the status and performance of librarians in universities in Uganda. Yet, unfortunately, her paper also reports that the librarians' status is only "fairly satisfactory", the inference being that they may not post satisfactory performance. Accordingly, she urges university administrators in the country to re-examine the status accorded to their librarians.

Editor



Effect of Fees Policies on the Quality of University Education in Uganda

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Abstract. This paper reports on the findings of a study that was undertaken to analyse the effect of fees policy on the quality of university education in Uganda. It reports that every university in Uganda has a fees policy and that these fees policies differ in content and implementation. The paper confirms a significant relationship between fees policies and the reputation of universities. It also reports that fees policies had a significant effect on the quality of education provided by the universities. Subsequently, the paper discusses the main higher education funding models in the country with specific reference to these findings. This is with the conclusion that the country should adopt an egalitarian cost sharing model that resolves the limitations of the current funding models.

Keywords: Funding; Student fees; Reform.

1 Introduction

This study was conducted to investigate the effect of fees policy on the quality of university education in Uganda. It can be contended that the term fees refers to the expenses a student incurs in order to access education. In higher education, the expenses a student incurs include: tuition, functional fees, accommodation, charges for special projects like research, ICT facilities, medical, National Council of Higher Education fees and graduation fees. University fees policies concern themselves with these fees and the ways in which they are paid or waived (cf. Makerere 2007, UCU 2008, Malta University, 2009, Kyambogo 2013, Griffith 2014, Nkumba, 2013).

University policies can be said to have emerged during the medieval period in Europe. Some of the universities like the University of Paris collected two *sous* weekly in tuition under Pierre le Mangeur (Wikipedia, 2013). It is right to contend therefore that fees policy at university level started in a humble

manner. However, the situation has metamorphosed over the years. The world's top universities charge equally top fees as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Undergraduate Tuition Fees at selected Top Universities (USD)

University	Annual tuition
Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT)	36,000
Harvard University	38,891
University of Cambridge	14,000
University College London (UCL)	14,000
Imperial College London	14,000
University of Oxford	14,000
Stanford University	42,690
Yale University	43,100
University of Chicago	45,324
California Institute of Technology (Caltech)	39,990
Princeton University	40,170

Source: <http://www.topuniversities.com>

It is important to remember that the figures in the above table do not include costs of rent, food, textbooks, and computers. The UK based universities charge slightly less because public universities are allowed to charge up to £9000 which is about US\$14000 (Byrne, 2013). These top universities have excellent reputation among employers globally. The fact that the top universities charge top fees, it goes without saying that quality university education comes at a high cost.

In Uganda, the state bore the entire cost of university education until the mid-1980s. There were no private universities. It was during the mid-1980s that private universities emerged in the country (Kavuma, 2011). These became the fee-charging universities. Public universities also formulated policies under which they began to charge fees.

There is a widely held view that the higher the cost the better the quality of university education (Mendenhall, 2012). However, there are dissenting opinions on this matter. For instance there are those who are strongly opposed to “the harvardisation” of university education because it is ruinous (Taylor, 2012). In Uganda, government barred public universities from increasing student fees (Namutebi, 2013).

At the private universities, tuition fees have been increased for new entrants (Kwesiga & Anguyo, 2013). Students in both public and private universities have intermittently opposed fees policies that increased the cost of university education (Table 2).

Table 2: Incidence of Student Strikes Protesting Fees Increments (2008-2014)

University	Ownership	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Makerere University	Public		X		X	X	X	X
Gulu University	Public					X		
Mbarara University of Science	Public						X	X
Kyambogo University	Public				X	X		
Makerere University Business School	Public						X	
Ndejje University	Private	X				X		
Nkumba University	Private			X	X	X		
Kampala International University	Private				X			
Kumi University	Private					X		
Uganda Christian University	Private		X					
Mutesa I Royal University	Private		X				X	

Sources: Kayiira (2008), Habati (2011), Businge (2012), Nakayita (2013), Odeng (2013), Nteza (2014) and Ahimbisibwe and Namagembe (2014).

Ironically, the same students who are opposed to increases in university fees are interested in better quality university education. Against this background, it is apposite to analyse the relationship between cost and quality of university education. This study undertook to conduct this analysis, specifically looking at: 1) the effect of fees policy on reputation of a university; 2) the relationship between reputation and quality of university education; and 3) the effect of fees policy on quality of education in Ugandan universities. In conducting the study, it was hypothesised that: 1) fees policy has a significant effect on the reputation of a university; 2) there is a significant relationship between the reputation and quality of universities; and 3) fees policy has a significant effect on the quality of university education. The conceptual relationships hypothesised between the variables involved in the study are delineated in Figure 1.

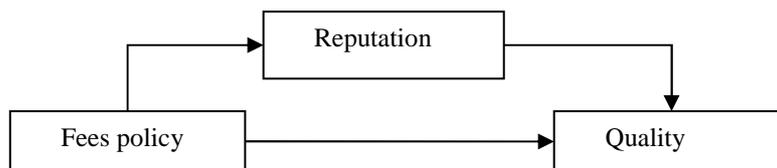


Figure 1: Conceptual Model for the Study of Fees Policy and Quality of University Education

2 Methodology

The students who participated in the study hailed from 11 universities. Five of these were public and the remaining six were private. The total number of respondents was 311. The sample of 311 was considered sufficient following the rule of thumb, which states that in social science research, any sample between 30 and 500 can produce credible results (Roscoe, 1975). Data were collected using a structured questionnaire. Apart from the items on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the rest of the items were on the Likert type scale (i.e. “Strongly Disagree” = “1”; “Disagree” = “2”; “Neither disagree nor agree” = “3”; “Agree” = “4”; and “Strongly agree” = “5”). This scale served as a measurement for the effect of fees policy on reputation, the effect of reputation on quality and the effect of fees policy on the quality of university education. An expert rated the validity of the items in the questionnaire, indicating a Content Validity Index of 0.873. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the reliability of the instrument was established at .911, meaning that the instrument was internally consistent. The data were analysed at the level of confidence $p = .01$ using Pearson’s Correlation test and regression analysis.

3 Findings, Discussion and Recommendation

The first hypothesis focused on the effect of fees policy on reputation. To obtain results for this hypothesis, two tests were carried out: First a Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation was performed and it emerged that there was a positive significant relationship between fees policy and reputation [$r(311) = .671, p < 0.01$]. This meant that good fees policies give reputation to universities. The hypothesis was further subjected to regression analysis. The results were that there is a linear relationship between fees policy and reputation [$F(1,309) = 253.549, p < 0.01$]. This suggests that changes in fees policies lead to change in a university’s reputation. The Adj. R^2 from the simple linear regression matrix model was 0.449, meaning that fees policy explains 45% of the reputation of a university. Accordingly, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between fees policy and reputation of a university was rejected.

In order to identify the factors that make up reputation for the University a factor analysis was carried out. The results are given in Table 7 below. The principal factors were extracted using the rotation method of Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 3: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings			
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
Identifiers of reputation	1	5.263	43.860	43.860	5.263	43.860	43.860	2.890	24.084	24.084
	2	1.453	12.107	55.968	1.453	12.107	55.968	2.477	20.638	44.722
	3	1.062	8.851	64.819	1.062	8.851	64.819	2.412	20.096	64.819
	4	.955	7.960	72.779						
	5	.869	7.243	80.022						
	6	.619	5.156	85.177						
	7	.471	3.924	89.101						
	8	.367	3.059	92.160						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 3 shows that many items were chosen to represent reputation. Out of the 8 items or cases only three emerged significant. These were the ones that carried an eigenvalue exceeding one. Applying the rotated matrix with Kaiser Normalization, the principal components were extracted as discussed below.

1. Parents and alumni perception of the reputation of a university. This factor was explained by several main variables: “my parents wanted me to study here” with a coefficient of .781 measured the factor quite highly. The factor was also measured by “friends extolling the reputation of a university”. This had a coefficient of .730. The fact that students get their academic papers on graduation day was another variable that contributed to the good reputation, yielding a coefficient of .616. Another variable which heightened the reputation of the universities was the knowledge that graduates get jobs soon after their graduation. This carried a coefficient of .608. The other variables which did not yield coefficient of .500 and above were considered weak explicators of the University reputation.
2. Good name of the university abroad. This factor was explained by the following items: “The university in which I am studying has a good name back home” with a coefficient of .854; current university has very good lecturers with a coefficient of .780; and the university having a very good name generally with a coefficient of .641. The implication of all this is that what is said about the University partly influences students’ attitudes towards the university.
3. Quality of academic programmes. Students believed academic programmes in the Ugandan Universities to be very good. This factor was explained by three items: preferred to study in Uganda (.814); preferred a private university to a public one (.768); and the academic programmes in this university are good (.642). With the above analysis, it is true to assert that quality of academic programmes heighten the reputation of the University.

Some academic registrars and admissions officers explained that building institution reputation costs a lot of money. Universities that have built reputation have had to spend a lot of money on facilities, staffing and publicity.

The second hypothesis stated that “there is no significant relationship between reputation and quality”. This hypothesis was tested using both Pearson’s correlation and a simple linear regression. The Pearson’s correlation revealed that there was a moderate positive significant relationship between reputation and quality [$r = .340, p < 0.01$]. This meant that reputation and quality go hand in hand: a university cannot have good reputation unless it offers quality education.

Simple linear regression yielded an Adj. R^2 of .330, which meant that students and other stakeholders know the quality of a university by analysing its reputation in academic work. Furthermore, the test revealed that there was

linearity between the independent variable and the dependent one [F (1, 309) =1676.137, $p < 0.01$]. The results of the regression matrix also confirmed the positive relationship between reputation and quality (Beta = .340, $p < 0.01$). This meant that reputation leads to quality in situations where philanthropists and organisations usually prefer to fund reputable universities so that they continue offering quality education. In Uganda, reputable universities like Makerere attract more funding from multilateral and bilateral donors. This enables them to offer quality education.

Pearson’s correlation test was conducted to test the hypothesis that “fees policy has a significant effect on the quality of university education”. The test revealed a strong positive significant relationship between the reputation and cost of a university [$r = .361$, $p < 0.01$]. These results indicate that generally where the fees policy is good, there should be quality education. A university has to spend money to make quality possible. Money comes from fees levied according to a specified policy. The regression coefficients results of Beta = .361, $p < 0.01$ indicated that fees policy had effect on quality of university education in Ugandan universities.

A hypothetical model was used to determine the overall effect of fees policy on quality of university education. The hypothetical model therefore provides a reliable explanation that quality is a function of fees policy, that is, $Q = f(FP)$. In the explanation the following are taken into account:

1. Determining variables – in the model there is an independent variable (fees policy), and intervening variable (reputation), and a dependent variable (quality).
2. Establishing causal paths – the causal paths relevant to variable (3) which is quality of university education are paths from (1) to (2) to (3); and from (1) to (3).
3. Stating assumptions – e.g. all relations are linear,
4. Variables are measured linearly left to right.

The paths for the hypothesised empirical model are shown in Figure 2.

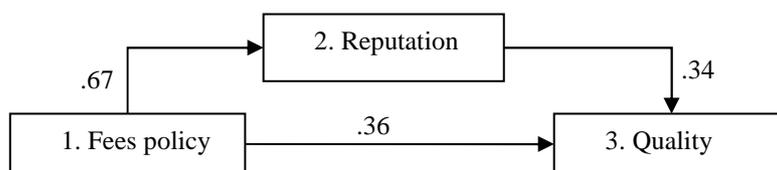


Figure 2: Hypothesised Empirical Model

The paths shown in Figure 2 establish three relationships: a positive significant relationship between fees policy and reputation; a positive significant relationship between reputation and quality; and a positive significant

relationship between fees policy and quality. Variable 1 (fees policy) is the only exogenous variable because it has no arrows pointing to it. This leaves two endogenous variables in the model, that is variable 2 (reputation) and variable 3 (quality). Each of these variables is explained by one or two variables.

The paths coefficients were used to decompose correlations in the model into direct and indirect effects corresponding to direct and indirect paths reflected in the arrows of the model. This is based on rule that in a linear system the total causal effect of variable A on variable B is the sum of the values of all the paths from A to B. Quality is the dependent variable while fees policy is the independent variable, the indirect effects and calculated by multiplying the paths coefficients for each path from fees policy to quality. Accordingly, .23 is the total indirect effect of fees policy on choice of private university, plus the direct effect of .36. The total causal effect of fees policy on quality is $(.23+.36)$.58. In view of the above model, it is appropriate to infer that fees policy is a major determinant of the quality education. The other factors which account for the remaining .42 should be only peripheral in the matters of quality university education.

Although the total causal effect of 58% is moderate, there is some discontent about the fees paid in Ugandan universities. For instance it is argued that the fees paid by university students do not reflect the true cost of university education in the country (Kasozi, 2009). Regarding fees in most universities there a proclivity to use the method of benchmarking. There is also an element of *incrementalism* in fees policies of universities. This is where a university fees policy requires adding a percentage rise on fees every financial year. The *incrementalism* method does not necessarily reflect the true cost of the university education.

There have been several funding models for university education. The first model was complete free university education. This was in place until the early 1990s. However, this model appears to have proved unsustainable. In the wake of liberalisation policy, government shifted the burden of financing university education to parents. Even though the government sponsors some 4000 students annually, it does not cover the full cost of tuition and boarding (Mamdani, 2007). This situation gave birth to the second model which is fully-self-sponsored students regardless of whether they are at public or private universities. Students or parents meet all the expenses at the university. Consequently, about 70 percent of the students who qualify to join university miss out. They just cannot raise the fees. This is model has not been successful either. It cannot take Uganda to great levels of development if only 30 percent of the qualifying citizens manage to acquire university education.

In view of the limitations of models 1 and 2, government introduced a third model, which is a student loan scheme. Although it is a popular way forward, it has already shown some limitations. It is limited to those offering science

programmes at public and chartered private universities. Moreover, with a high rate of graduate unemployment, it is likely that those who will get the loans may find it hard to repay as expected.

Given these limitations, we propose an egalitarian model of cost sharing. This is a model where all students in the public and chartered universities have all their tuition underwritten by the state while the other expenses are paid by parents and students. This should cut across all universities that are recognised and across all academic disciplines without discriminating against those that are not science based.

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Implementation of Staff Recruitment Policies and Diversity Management in Universities in Central Uganda

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Abstract. Universities in Central Uganda exhibit shortfalls in the area of staff diversity management. This is threatening the development of the universities. However, hitherto, the reasons for the said shortfall were not clear. This paper reports on the findings of a study that delved into these reasons, with specific reference to staff recruitment policies and their implementation. It reports that the fairness of the universities' employee recruitment guidelines and the way these are implemented are significantly and positively with the universities' diversity management. The failure to manage staff diversity in a fair manner is attributed to unfairness of some of the universities' recruitment policy guidelines albeit partially; adherence to the guidelines was found to be more significantly related to effectiveness in diversity management. Subsequently, the paper recommends elimination of recruitment guidelines that discriminate against some would be qualifying applicants and strict adherence to the policy guidelines that promote staff diversity.

Keywords: Diversity management; Human Resource Management; Governance.

1 Introduction

Failure to manage diversity in a fair manner is one of the main challenges facing universities in Uganda (Izama, 2013; Tettey, 2010). This is particularly depicted in the demographic characteristics of these institutions' academic workforce (Ntayi, Beijuka, Mawanga & Muliira, 2009). As specified in Section 6(3) of the Employment Act of Uganda, 2006, these characteristics include sex, ethnic background and religion. The same Act indicates that all employing organisations in Uganda should build their workforce in a manner that is fair to all qualifying people, irrespective of these demographic attributes. However, realisation of such fairness has eluded most of the universities as is evident in the asymmetrical composition of their workforce. In terms of sex, for instance,

Hassan (2012) indicates that women are still critically underrepresented in the academic workforce in Central Uganda. This is supported by the National Council for Higher Education (2013), which indicates that the academic workforce of Central Ugandan universities is 87% male. In terms of ethnicity, the analysis of Makerere University, Kyambogo University, and Mbarara University of Science and Technology staff lists (2010, 2011, 2012 and 2013) reveals that most of these universities' departments are dominated by employees belonging to the same tribe as that of the heads of the departments. The analysis of the religious composition of these universities' academic workforce reveals that on average, it is 94% Christian and only 6% Muslim. Religious imbalances are also evident in the academic workforce of most private universities in the region. It is not uncommon to find Catholic, Protestant or Muslim academic employees dominating a university whose foundation body is Catholic, Protestant, or Muslim oriented, respectively, especially at a management level (Namutebi, 2012). This does not mean that there are no women or people of different ethnicities and faiths that are more suitably qualified to be employees in these universities (cf. Mwesigwa, 2014; Lule, 2013; Nabulya, 2013; Ntambaazi, 2013; ActionAid International Central Uganda et al., 2012; World Bank, 2008).

Harvey (2011) suggests that such diversity mismanagement may make the universities lose out on becoming more competitive and successful. It could deny them access to the widest possible pool of skills, abilities, and ideas. It may also limit their chances of building a public image by which they can win full community acceptance and support (Guest & Shacklock, 2011). When an organisation is sensitive to attributes of diversity that are critical to the community it is serving, it makes people feel fairly treated and this motivates them to respond by supporting it as their own organisation (Kochan et al., 2003). They associate with it as loyal clients, considerate suppliers, supportive lenders, or willing providers of information the organisation requires to understand and respond to the needs of the market in a satisfactory manner (Kochan et al., 2003). This improves the success of the organisation (Karsten, 2006). In contrast, any organisation whose diversity management does not pay attention to the diversity features that the people it serves consider important finds it difficult to succeed. It makes people feel alienated to the extent that they become indifferent to the organisation (Layne, 2002; Wheeler, 2001).

Accordingly, the diversity *mismanagement* in universities in Central Uganda reported above presents as a significant problem that threatens the universities' development and sustainability. There is need to understand why it exists—to determine what needs to be done to overcome it. However, a gap in knowledge on the subject relates to the fact that most of the writing on the subject is descriptive, presenting information about its prevalence albeit without accounting for the same and what may need to be done to overcome it. This

study was conducted to fill this gap. Specific attention was paid to staff recruitment policies as an instrument of diversity management in the universities because recruitment policies and the way they are implemented are one of the main means through which organisations manage diversity (Mayhew, 2014; Jeffrey, 2011; Katusiime-Muhwezi, 2010). Four specific research questions were addressed: How do staff of universities in Central Uganda perceive their universities' management of gender, ethnic and religious diversity? How do staff of universities in Central Uganda perceive the fairness of the guidelines prescribed by the universities' recruitment policies? To what extent do universities in Central Uganda implement the guidelines prescribed by their recruitment policies? What is the relationship between the content and implementation of recruitment policies and diversity management in universities in Central Uganda?

2 Related Literature and Knowledge Gap

Literature indicates that diversity management is differently defined and approached. However, the definition adopted in this paper is one given by Thomas (2005). Describing diversity as a concept that subsumes all “individual differences that are socially and historically significant and which have resulted in differences in power and privilege inside as well as outside of organizations,” Thomas (2005) defined diversity management as “a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all people” (p.9). This definition is adopted because of its emphasis on managing diversity according to differences that are socially and historically significant. This emphasis underpins Central Uganda's situation, since the differences stressed in the employment sector of this country are those that are historically and socially significant.

According to the diversity theory of inclusion, an organization needs to balance its workforce in terms of these demographic differences not only because they are historically and socially significant in the labour market; but also because they help to create a workforce that enables the organisation to acquire diverse competences, a better understanding of its market, a public image or reputation that improves its acceptability to the community it serves, and subsequently, improved success in business (Harvey, 2011; Melanie, 2007; Siddall, King, Coleman & Cotton, 2004). Literature indicates that diversity management can be accomplished through affirmative action, involving application of international and national legislation that promote diversity through non-discrimination (Marlene, 2006). It can also be encouraged through administrative actions intended to promote social justice by focusing on equitable balancing of the workforce according to critical diversity attributes

(Harvey, 2011; Scott, 2007). Diversity management can also be promoted through the market-driven diversity management approach (Guest & Shacklock, 2011; Tatli & Ozbilgin, 2009). This is a business-oriented approach that involves being responsive to the market and therefore focusing on workforce inclusion and acceptance based on sensitivity not to merit alone but also to non-merit demographics that make the workforce a true reflection of the market, especially in terms of socially and historically critical attributes such as sex, ethnicity, sexuality, marital status, race, colour, religion, disability, nationality, and a host of other attributes of employees and potential employees (Flood et al., 2008; Vaughn, 2006). Research has shown that one of the ways by which organisations can promote diversity management involves using recruitment policies (Mayhew, 2014; Jeffrey, 2011).

A recruitment policy refers to the action plan that guides an organisation as to what should be done whenever there is need for recruitment (Tatli & Ozbilgin, 2009). This policy is made up of guidelines (rules, standards, procedures and practices) stipulated to be followed whenever an organisation such as a university is soliciting, contacting, and raising the interest of suitable candidates to apply for vacant posts (Noeleen, Shaun & Viney, 2003). It is these guidelines that determine how an organization should identify and attract suitable candidates internally or externally. They therefore have to relate to how diversity is managed in an organisation like a university. Research has shown that the guidelines do not relate directly to diversity management; they do so through their observance by those implementing them (Katusiime-Muhwezi, 2010; Knouse et al., 2008; Tatli & Ozbilgin, 2009; Taylor, 2009; Thomas, 2005; Eitelberg & Mehay, 2004; Heather & Limberger, 2004; Hays-Thomas, 2004; Siddall et al., 2004; Jackson, Joshi & Erhardt, 2003; Von Bergen, Soper & Foster, 2002). These studies have, nonetheless, been conducted outside Central Uganda and about organizations that are typically different from universities in general and those in Central Uganda in particular. Consequently, the relationship between recruitment policy guidelines, their observance and diversity management remains to be established as far as Central Ugandan universities are concerned. This study was needed to address the relationship.

In particular, Eitelberg and Mehay (2004) observed that good recruitment policy guidelines should not encourage discrimination against job applicants. They should not encourage advertisement of person specifications that discriminate against men or women applicants, black or white applicants, or against applicants of different religious affiliations. Recruitment policy guidelines should generally not be used to promote any form of non-merit discrimination against potential applicants. These observations suggest that good recruitment policy guidelines are tools for promoting diversity management through minimization of discrimination in an organization. They therefore translate into attracting all job applicants who possess the necessary

job requirements, irrespective of their gender, tribal, religious and other differences.

Knouse et al. (2008) stressed that recruitment policy guidelines that should be observed for effective diversity management are those that enable organisations to strategically harness the various advantages of diversity, including increased innovativeness, productivity, effectiveness, acceptability and therefore marketability to a wider base of clientele. Tatli and Ozbilgin (2009) concurred with Knouse et al. (2008) when they observed that today, recruitment policy guidelines that promote diversity management are the guidelines that strategic organizations use to tap the benefits of inclusion through recruiting employees irrespective of their gender, being in minority groups, or their geographical location. Heather and Limberger (2004) had earlier on observed that such recruitment has been made possible by the advent of Internet technology. Employees can now be recruited from any part of the globe by just advertising vacant posts via an organization's website.

Zairi (2008) noted that recruitment policy guidelines that promote diversity enable organizations to build a quality workforce through attracting a pool of employees who are innovatively, skilfully, and demographically diverse, and who, therefore are more productive and acceptable to the market. Zairi (2008) observed further that through the use of diversity recruitment policy guidelines, the level of disgruntlement hitherto felt by minority groups as a result of being left out when recruiting employees has considerably declined.

According to Kochan et al. (2003), recruiting a diverse workforce carries with it a tendency establishing good relationships and partnerships as well as a good reputation with communities from which the workforce is drawn. Such advantages help to build a favourable public and global image, which puts an organization in a better position to keep on attracting and retaining more and more of the best talent all over the world, irrespective of the sex, ethnic and religious differences (Kochan et al., 2003). Research has however, shown that using recruitment policy guidelines as tools of diversity management has tended to be challenged by a number of issues. In the first place, it has been observed that for recruitment policy guidelines to succeed in promoting diversity management, they have to be clearly articulate about it (Shackleton, 2007; Scott, 2007). The policy guidelines should clearly state that they are intended to create a diverse workforce based on the rationale of the diversity theory of inclusion (Saunders et al., 2008). They should also encourage market research for purposes of scanning and following up the demographic changes in the market so that the changes can be reflected in the recruited workforce (Sajjad-ur-Rehman & Marouf, 2008). It has been argued that human resource professionals should make use of the latest market research to diagnose diversity and to reflect it in their organizations' recruitment policy guidelines (Jackson et al., 2003; Von Bergen et al., 2002).

Unfortunately, not many recruitment policy guidelines are as flexible and responsive to diversity changes in the market as they should (Joshi & Erhardt, 2003). As a result, the guidelines compromise instead of promoting the changing nature of diversity attributes of the market, which minimizes the chances of an organization to realize a diverse workforce and its associated benefits. Specifically, the method the guidelines prescribe to advertise available vacancies can affect diversity management in a significantly adverse manner (Knouse et al., 2008). Vacancy advertising methods determine whether the information reaches or does not reach all eligible job applicants. These include referrals; contacting and establishing relationships with companies that look for suitable candidates through offering incentives, recognition, and rewards; and connecting with external diverse professional organizations and communities (Siddall et al., 2004). In some organizations, however, the methods prescribed to recruit employees tend to eliminate some potential candidates by leaving them uninformed about the job (see, for example, Vaughn, 2006; Nannono, 2009).

According to Ursell (2009), it is very common to advertise a vacant post and only people of the same tribe, religion or gender apply and emerge as the most suitable for the post. It is also common to find a situation in which the policy guidelines in place to guide recruitment through internal transfers and promotions favour people from the same tribe, religion or gender (Kerslake & Goulding, 2006). This has been witnessed in the military arm of Central Uganda government as a result of the institution's history. Although administrative diversity management is recommended in such a situation, it has not yielded expected outcomes. Could this also apply to the country's universities as well? The answer requires an empirical investigation; hence the need for this study. After all, the fact that recruitment policy guidelines may fail to guarantee fair diversity management has been supported by Zairi's (2008) research, which shows that more emphasis could be put on recruiting a particular person rather than on the purpose, requirements and demands of the job itself. This tends to occur in organizations where competence and merit recommended by policy are compromised by organisational culture, patronage, nepotism, bribery, corruption, favouritism, or preferential treatment (Saunders et al., 2008). These practices tend to ignore the purpose of the recruitment policy and instead promote the interests of influential persons in the organisation (Palmberg & Garvare, 2006). In such situations, even when a vacant post is advertised as required by policy, all job applications received in response are simply disposed of in dustbins without even paying attention to whether the applicants are more suitable than the person preferred by influence wielders or not (Ursell, 2009). These observations imply that when a particular candidate is preferred to take up a job, managing diversity based on the prescribed recruitment policy guidelines becomes difficult. It is however not

clear whether this also happens in universities in Central Uganda; hence the need for this study. Another barrier to the success of a recruitment policy in promoting diversity management is that the educational levels of some groups may be historically so low that the groups cannot favourably compete with other groups (Palmborg & Garvare, 2006). In fact, research has shown that a policy intent to promote diversity in an organization may be challenged by the fact that not enough qualified people may be obtained from some demographic groups to fill certain positions (Palmer, 2003). Another challenge has been identified as personal preferences and interests. Some people may not be interested in certain jobs even when they qualify for them (Palmer, 2003). This limits recruiting diverse candidates.

In general, literature indicates that through the guidelines they prescribe and how the guidelines are observed, recruitment policies play a role in ensuring that organisations like universities manage diversity in a fair manner as far as sex, ethnic and religious differences of job applicants are concerned. Literature also indicates that the ability of the policies can be compromised when the prescribed guidelines are not observed as a result of interferences such as organisational culture, personal influences of those controlling the recruitment process, and other influences. Notwithstanding, recruitment policy guidelines may be limited in their ability to promote a diverse workforce. A key conclusion from the foregoing literature that relates to the problem of diversity mismanagement in universities in Central Uganda is that part of the problem may be with the policies themselves while part of the problem may be due to the way these policies are implemented. Review of the literature also indicates that, unfortunately, in the case of these universities, information on attributes of both these variables is generally non-existent—apparently because hitherto, research had not been conducted on recruitment policies and diversity management. It is against this background that this study scrutinised these attributes, including the perceptions staff of the universities hold about the same.

3 Methodology

The study was conducted following a descriptive cross-sectional survey design through which primary data were collected from administrators and academic staff of the selected universities (Table 1).

Table 1: Population and Sample

Respondents	Population	Sample*	Respondents
University administrators	96	76	50
Academic staff members	136,002	384	210
Total	136, 098	460	260

*Cited from Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Multistage sampling was used to select the sample. This probability sampling technique was used to facilitate selection of a statistically representative sample in a highly cost effective and time-saving manner (Agresti & Finlay, 2008). The universities in Central Uganda were first clustered into two categories: public and private. The private universities were further categorised into those that are denominational and those that are sponsored by trusts. Subsequently, the lottery method of the simple random sampling technique was used to select universities from each category. Eleven (11) universities, representing 39 percent of the universities in the region were selected. This proportion was greater than the minimum of 30 percent recommended by Saunders et al. (2003) as the sample size required to attain statistical representativeness. In each of the selected universities, convenience sampling was used to select the respondents because it facilitates selection according to the accessibility of respondents (Amin, 2005).

Data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire elicited responses using a Likert scale of responses stretching from “Strongly Disagree” (1), through “Disagree” (2), “Not Sure” (3), “Agree” (4), to “Strongly Agree” (5). The content validity index and Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the questionnaire were established at .92 and .9 respectively. The data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics, ANOVA, correlation and linear regression analysis.

4 Findings

The findings are presented according to the objectives of the paper. The first objective was to establish the perceived level of managing sex, ethnic and religious diversity in universities in Central Uganda. Chi Square and ANOVA findings are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Perception of Diversity Management (Mean Scores, N = 260)

Attributes of Diversity Management	D	P	T	F	Sig.
The university has rules for ensuring that its academic workforce is balanced	1.05	2.01	1.61	8.11	.000
Staffing of the university follows relevant laws on affirmative action	1.06	3.51	1.55	9.91	.000
The university endeavours to balance attributes of diversity in its workforce	1.19	3.55	1.63	19.01	.000
University respects international diversity management conventions	1.13	2.19	1.56	11.88	.000
The university’s academic workforce is as diverse as its the society	1.13	2.43	1.60	15.913	.000

KEY: D = Denominational; P = Public; T = Trust

The levels of significance (Sig.) in Table 2 reveal that all the F-values were significant at the .01 level of significance. This implies that the perception of gender, religious and ethnic diversity management differed significantly across the universities. In particular, the mean distribution reveals that the respondents from private universities “strongly disagreed” on all the indicators of diversity management. This suggests that these universities were not managing diversity appropriately. This distribution indicates further that diversity management was not given attention even in public universities, except in terms of applying laws on affirmative action (mean = 3.51) and making efforts to balance the academic workforce in terms of such diversity attributes considered critical in the region (mean = 3.55). However, these mean values were close to ‘4’, implying that even in these cases, the level of managing this diversity was low. A careful scrutiny of the mean values corresponding to the foundation bodies of the universities points to a similar pattern of interpretation.

Table 3: Fairness of Recruitment Policy Guidelines (N = 260)

Recruitment Policy Guidelines	Mean	Std.
The policy requires that no vacant post should be filled before it is advertised in public media	4.75	.102
The university’s recruitment policy allows recalling a retired employee to fill a vacant position	4.75	.102
In case the university is recruiting internally, the policy requires putting up an internal advert informing all employees about vacancies	4.56	.132

The mean distribution in Table 3 indicates how employees described the fairness of the guidelines stipulated by their universities’ recruitment policies to potential job applicants. Based on the response scale, respondents who “strongly agreed” (mean close to ‘5’) implied that the guidelines were very fair to potential job applicants. Based on this interpretation, the mean values in Table 3 indicate that respondents “strongly agreed” with all the guidelines. This implies that the universities’ recruitment policy guidelines were fair to potential job applicants. However, review of the universities’ recruitment policies revealed that their guidelines specified only academic qualifications or competency requirements that an individual needed to occupy a post. The situation was different in one of the denominational universities. In addition to the stipulated merit requirements, the recruitment policy stated that, “All applicants for the post of vice chancellor and deputy vice chancellor should be born again and preferably Anglican.” Another policy also belonging to a denominationally founded university required all applicants for the posts of university chancellor and vice chancellor “to be Catholic by faith.” These

findings suggest that some of the universities' recruitment policy guidelines, which administrators and lecturers described as very fair, prescribed guidelines based on non-merit diversity characteristics.

Table 4: Adherence to Recruitment Policy Guidelines (N = 260)

Recruitment policy guidelines	Mean	Std.
Vacant posts are advertised as prescribed in the policy guidelines	1.16	.048
Applicants for posts are considered on the merit of their qualifications	1.16	.048
Not only relatives of influential university officials are recruited in the university	1.51	.058
The university's recruiting officers work with integrity	1.99	.002
Candidates for positions don't have to be favoured to be recruited	1.09	.064
Transfers are done in a legitimate and fair manner	1.09	.064
Promotions follow prescribed guidelines	1.16	.048
Majority of the positions are filled in accordance with relevant guidelines	1.99	.002

A careful analysis of the distribution of the means reveals that the respondents generally disagreed (the means were close to '1' or to '2') with all the items in Table 4. For instance, respondents strongly disagreed that a vacant post was advertised as prescribed by policy not after a person to fill it had already been identified through the personal influence of the top officials in the unit (mean = 1.35, Std. = .057). This implies that vacancies were advertised after being filled. In the same way, the findings in Table 4 indicate that the recruitment policy guidelines prescribed by the selected universities were perceivably not observed whenever recruitment took place. This was further substantiated when respondents were asked to comment on whether their universities' recruitment policies served their intended purpose as expected. One of the respondents said that:

To some employees the policy is followed and it indeed serves its purpose. To others, it is completely violated and the purpose is compromised. You see, some of my colleagues here smuggled their way in. It is not clear how they came in. So, serving its purpose or not depends on who is assessing it and how he or she was recruited. It also depends on how an employee views what goes on in their departments as far as recruiting employees is concerned. In general, it can serve its purpose if those recruiting do not have anyone in mind to fill the vacancy.

One administrator responded thus:

I highly doubt whether the intention of our recruitment policy is realized as expected. In fact, it is abused by the top administration to the extent that I cannot believe what is going on. It appears the recruitment policy was abandoned a long time ago. Employees here are recruited according to desires of one big boss. It is all a one man's exercise. We just see new employees being recruited.

Another administrator made the following comment:

Don't even talk about serving the intended purpose. When you read what the policy states and compare it with what goes on here, you conclude straight away that the policy is not followed. Employees are recruited according to bosses' wishes...

Yet another one said:

No comment. I am just sick of what is going on here. How can you talk about a (recruitment) policy serving its purpose when we have people from one tribe here? Which policy stipulates such a purpose? I need to be educated on this.

The findings above suggest that the observance of guidelines stipulated by the recruitment policies of the selected universities left a lot to be desired.

Table 5 shows that the correlation coefficient for the relationship between the fairness of recruitment policy guidelines and diversity management was positive ($r = .198$) and significant.

Table 5: Relationship between Recruitment Policy and Diversity Management

Variables	Statistics	Fairness of recruitment policy guidelines	Implementation of recruitment policy guidelines	Diversity management
Fairness of recruitment policy guidelines	Pearson (r) Sig. N	1 . 260		
Implementation of recruitment policy guidelines	Pearson (r) Sig. N	.481** .000 260	1 . 260	
Diversity management	Pearson (r) Sig. N	.198* .001 260	.439** .000 260	1 . 260

** Significant at the 0.01 level, *Significant at the 0.05 level

The correlation ($r = .439$) between observance of the recruitment policy guidelines and the level of managing this diversity was also positive and

significant. After establishing that positive relationships existed between these variables, linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether the relationship was predictive (Table 6).

Table 6: Diversity management by fairness and implementation of recruitment policy guidelines

Predictors	Diversity Management						Std. error of the estimate	
	Std. Error B	t	Sig.	R ²	Adjusted R ²	F		
Constant	.105	8.817	.000	.609	.607	59.755	.000	.006
Fairness of recruitment policy guidelines	.045	.077	0.705	.570				
Implementation of recruitment policy guidelines	.089	.708	21.115	.000				

The level of significance in Table 6 indicates the corresponding F-value (F = 59.755) was significant at the .01 level of significance (Sig. = .000 < .01). Therefore, the corresponding Adjusted R-Square value of .607 indicates that both the fairness and observance of the guidelines stipulated by the recruitment policies of the universities that participated in the study predicted the level of sex, ethnic and religious diversity by a significant 60.7%. This implies that the fairness and observance of these guidelines determined the level of diversity management in Central Uganda’s universities in a significant manner. In terms of individual predictors however, the fairness of the guidelines was not a significant predictor (Beta = .077, t = 0.705, Sig. = .570 > .05). Only the observance of these guidelines predicted the level by a significant 70.8% (Beta = .708, t = 21.115, Sig. = .000 < .01). These findings indicate that the level of diversity management realised in Central Ugandan universities depended much more on the observance than on the fairness of the guidelines stipulated by the universities’ recruitment policies.

5 Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

Findings indicate that the fairness and observance of the guidelines stipulated by recruitment policies of universities in Central Uganda related with the

universities' level of managing sex, ethnic and religious diversity in a significant, positive and predictive manner (Table 5 and Table 6). The findings, therefore, concur with the observations made by Knouse et al. (2009), Tatli and Ozbilgin (2009) and Taylor (2009). Each of these scholars came to a conclusion that the extent to which a diverse workforce is promoted or minimized in an organization is significantly determined by the nature of the guidelines stipulated by recruitment policies and how these guidelines are observed. The established relationship indicates that this was largely the case in the universities that participated in the study. The positive nature of the relationship reveals that the level at which sex, ethnic and religious diversity was managed varied in the same direction with the level of fairness and observance of the guidelines stipulated by the universities' recruitment policies. In other words, if the guidelines were highly fair to potential job applicants and if they were observed as stipulated, they translated into high levels of managing sex, ethnic and religious diversity, and vice versa. Therefore, the low to negligible levels of managing this diversity (Table 2) imply that there was something not right with the fairness and observance of the guidelines.

The findings in Table 3 indicate that the guidelines were generally very fair to potential job applicants. This would suggest that the fairness of the recruitment guidelines did not explain the low level of sex, ethnic and religious diversity in the universities. However, document analysis revealed that some of the universities' recruitment policies entailed guidelines that were unfair to all potential job applicants. The unfairness was in terms of fixing religious affiliations of applicants to particular jobs, especially those at the senior or top management level. Obviously, this unfairness was discriminatory as it could make some of the would-be competently right persons not to be considered for the jobs. It is therefore the kind that led the fairness of the guidelines to relate positively and significantly with the low levels of managing sex, ethnic and religious diversity in the universities (Table 5). It is worth noting that the fact that the relationship was weak and not significantly predictive (Table 6) suggests that the unfairness of the guidelines was not a strong contributor to the negligible management of sex, ethnic and religious diversity in the universities.

Accordingly, the strong predictive and positive relationship that the observance of the guidelines had with the level of managing sex, ethnic and religious diversity (Table 5 and Table 6) effectively implies that it is this observance that accounted for the low to negligible levels of this managing management. This is substantiated by the findings in Table 2 and Table 4. The findings in Table 2 indicate that the management of this diversity varied between low and negligible levels. The findings in Table 4 indicate that whenever recruitment took place, the universities' recruitment guidelines were not observed as stipulated. Clearly, not observing the guidelines that were perceivably very fair to potential job applicants (Table 3) translated into

negligible diversity management (Table 2). Further substantiation of this argument is derived from the qualitative findings. These findings also revealed that instead of following the guidelines, recruitment of employees was largely according to the wishes, desires and personal contacts of the top administrators or those in charge of the recruitment exercise. Not much attention was paid to following the guidelines.

The findings indicate that the failure to manage sex, ethnic and religious diversity in Central Ugandan universities is partly explained by the unfairness of some of the recruitment policy guidelines that discriminate against job applicants based on religious affiliation. This failure is also significantly explained by the fact that instead of following the non-discriminatory guidelines as stipulated in the universities' recruitment policies, recruitment of employees follows wishes, desires, influences and personal contacts and relationships that senior university administrators and those in charge of the recruitment process have with job applicants.

Therefore, it is recommended that the management of the universities in Central Uganda improves the management of diversity by: 1) eliminating recruitment guidelines that discriminate against potential job applicants on account of their religious affiliations; and 2) ensuring that the universities' non-discriminatory recruitment policy guidelines are implemented.

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University of Ilorin Academic Staffs' Perception of the Harmonisation of Academic Programmes and Qualifications

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Abstract. This study examined University of Ilorin academic staffs' perception of harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa. The findings were that there is a significant difference in the academic staffs' perceptions by gender and duration of university teaching experience. However, no significant difference in perception of harmonisation was found on the basis of the respondents' departments and academic ranks. On the basis of these findings, the researchers recommended that ECOWAS provides funds to encourage academic activities that foster harmonization among cooperating member states. It is argued that the organisation can also organize trainings and workshops for stakeholders on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications. This will help to update the academic staffs' knowledge of harmonisation of programmes and qualifications.

Keywords: Harmonisation; Mobility; Internationalisation.

1 Introduction

Education is seen as bedrock of development in any nation. The term "education" can be defined as a process of transmitting the cultural heritage, stabilizing the present thereby positively shaping the future. This process involves the development of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects of the learners (Ibrahim, 2006). Education is the act of acquiring general knowledge, developing power of reasoning and judgment which prepares one intellectually for a mature life. Right education has a way of transmitting accumulated knowledge, skills, customs and values from one generation to another. An educated person is one that has access to optimal state of mind regardless of situation. Such a person is able to perceive accurately, think

clearly and act effectively to achieve selected goals. Education also refers to the process of learning and acquiring information. The formal system of education is done through institutions such as the school. Basic and advanced skills are taught in school, which makes the students employable in the world of work (Alexis, 2011). In short, education is future-oriented and it is all about development and growth. The education system in Nigeria is guided by the broad *National Policy on Education* and it involves the development of individuals in order to equip them to make some contribution to human development according to the best of their capability (Wilson, 2003).

In Africa, there are different systems of education and they are normally based on the ideology of each country. The major goal of harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications includes fostering comparability among qualifications, enhancing the global competitiveness of African universities, promoting the mobility of students and academic staff across the continent, bridging the gap between disparate educational systems that exist as a result of colonial legacies, providing an integrating platform for dialogue, facilitating effective quality assurance mechanism, and ensuring that African higher education becomes a dynamic force (Hoosen, Butcher & Khamati, 2009). The lack of recognition of different forms of certification has limited African integration and mobility of students across African countries. Africa Union (2008) stated that the Commission has therefore embarked on the process of developing a framework for the harmonization of higher education programmes on the continent. With the introduction of harmonization programmes, countries can share technologies and at the same time facilitate good educational policies (Associations of African Universities, 2004).

Harmonization of academic programmes refers to the recognition of certificates from any West African countries as valid by the competent authorities (International Conference on Accreditation, 2006). Sabaya (2004) revealed that African countries are moving towards regional integration through the efforts of Africa Union Commission. The major purpose of Africa Union is based on building a united and strong Africa that focuses on promoting peace, security and stability as prerequisites for implementing the development and integration agenda of the African Nations (African Union Commission, 2004). Therefore the mission policy of Africa Union involves the exchange of experience and harmonization of policies and programmes within Africa.

In 1998, the education ministers of France, Italy, Great Britain and Germany gathered in Paris to sign the Sorbonne Declaration which was aimed at harmonizing the architecture of the European Higher Education systems (Sorbonne Declaration, 1998). The Bologna Declaration which was signed by 29 European education ministers led to the Bologna Process. The major aim of the Bologna Process was the creation of harmonized programmes within the European Higher Education which will help academic staff and students to

move with ease for employment (Bologna Declaration, 1999). The Arusha Convention (2008) is Africa's primary strategy and framework for the recognition of qualifications obtained from different African countries (African Union, 2008). According to Ogbe (2007), ECOWAS signed a protocol on education and training which resulted in the adoption of a general convention on the recognition and equivalence of degrees, diplomas, certificates and other qualifications in ECOWAS member states. The Arusha Regional Convention was based on the Recognition of Higher Education Studies and Degrees in Africa. This was adopted in the year 1981, with a view to promoting continental cooperation through the academic mobility of lecturers and students. Arusha convention was aimed at complementing United Nations Economic Commission for Africa's (UNECA's) efforts towards the promotion of international academic mobility. It is also aimed at facilitating training of human resources in order to promote the creation and application of knowledge, so as to improve the quality of higher education. UNECA will identify, support and create synergy between West African countries and relevant agencies at continental and regional levels (Shabani, 2004).

Sawyerr (2002) noted that harmonization of academic programmes promotes international and regional cooperation by creating awareness and encouraging African integration. This will equally facilitate the quality of education and comparability of qualifications awarded across African countries. Harmonization process can also help to develop good quality assurance mechanism and at the same time enhance the quality of academic programmes. Also, when African countries have the same benchmark for academic programmes, good networking among all stakeholders can be promoted. Naido (2004) affirmed that promoting human resource development, mismatch between skills and acquired academic qualification and brain drains are the major challenges among African countries.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications has become an issue of concern to different countries because there are different systems of education based on different national values and legacies across Africa. Despite the availability of the benchmark provided by the National University Commission (NUC) in Nigeria, there are still differences in the delivery of courses from one university to another. The task of harmonizing all these courses can be very challenging. The lack of recognition of different forms of certification has discouraged research and collaborative efforts within Africa (Magagula, 2005). Comparing higher educational programmes in a meaningful way is one of the biggest challenges in regional harmonization processes (Jokivirta, 2006). Such a task would be capital intensive and as such most

countries have refused to be signatories to the harmonization process in West Africa (African Union Commission, 2004). The development of benchmark standards for related programmes within the West African region is a major challenge. Knight (2006) carried out a research on higher education across borders, Jokivirta (2006) looked at foreign higher education activity in Francophone Africa, while Magagula (2005) worked on the benefits and challenges of cross-border higher education in developing countries. None of these researchers has worked on the perception of stakeholders in Nigeria. Hence, taking the case of University of Ilorin, we investigated the way academic staffs in Nigeria perceive the harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to look at the perception of university academic staff in Nigeria on harmonization academic programmes and qualification in West Africa. This study intends to find out the influence of variables such as the staff's gender, faculty, academic status and university teaching experience on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa. This study will be of benefit to tertiary institutions, especially those in West Africa. It will also be useful to the Africa initiatives on higher education, UNESCO and other education policy makers.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant difference in the perception of university academic staff in Nigeria on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of gender.
2. There is no significant difference in the perception of university academic staff in Nigeria on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of faculty.
3. There is no significant difference in the perception of university academic staff in Nigeria on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of academic rank.
4. There is no significant difference in the perception of university academic staff in Nigeria on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of university teaching experience.

2 Methodology

The study adopted the descriptive survey method because it allowed the researchers to collect data and describe it in a systematic manner (Adana, 1996). The target population consisted of all academic staff in the University of Ilorin. For the purpose of this study, University of Ilorin was purposively selected because the University is unique with uninterrupted academic calendar, it is located in the transition zone between the North and South, and it is in a confluence city of the country. This position allows for collaboration among various universities within the country. The researchers purposively selected 5 departments in the faculties of Science, Arts, Social Sciences and Education. Simple random sampling was used in selecting 10 participants from each of the departments. Thus, a total of 200 respondents participated in the study.

The questionnaire was given to four experts in the related field. These experts affirmed that the instrument covered the intended contents and was, therefore, valid. The reliability of the instrument used for the study was established using test-retest method within an interval of four weeks. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to compute the correlation coefficient of the instrument. A reliability co-efficient of 0.74 was obtained. Hence the instrument was adjudged to be reliable.

The “Harmonization of Academic Programmes and Qualifications in West Africa Questionnaire (HAPQWAQ) was used. Items on the questionnaire were derived from information obtained from review of related literature. The instrument had two sections: A and B. Section A contained demographic data while section B consisted of items on perception of university academic staff on harmonization of programmes and qualifications in West Africa. A four-point Likert type rating scale response format was adopted for use in Section B thus: Strongly Agree - 4 points, Agree - 3 points, Disagree - 2 points, and Strongly Disagree -1point. The questionnaire contained 20 items. Frequency counts and simple percentages were used to analyse the descriptive data while mean scores and ranking were used to answer the research question. The hypotheses were tested using both the *t-test* and analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical methods at the .05 level of significance.

3 Findings

Table 1 shows the distribution of respondents.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents

Variable	Categories	Count	Percentage
Gender	Male	131	66
	Female	69	35
	Total	200	100
Faculty	Science	50	25
	Arts	50	25
	Social Science	50	25
	Education	50	25
Academic status	Ass Lecturer -Lecturer 1	200	100
	Senior Lecturer to Professor	120	60
	Total	80	40
Teaching Experience	Below 1-5 years	86	43
	6-12 years	50	25
	13 years and above	64	32
	Total	200	100

Table1 shows that 131 (80.5%) were males, while 39 (19.5%) of the respondents were females, 50 (25%) respondents were selected from each of the faculties, i.e. Science, Arts, Social Science and Education respectively. The table also shows that 120 (60%) of the respondents were between the statuses of Asst. Lecturer and Lecturer I, while 80 (40%) of the respondents were between the statuses of Senior Lecturer and Professor. 86 (43%) of the respondents have a university teaching experience of between 1 and 5 years, 50 (25%) of the respondents have a university teaching experience of between 6 and 11years, while 64 (32%) of the respondents have a university teaching experience of 12 years and above. Table 2 ranks the perceived contributions of harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa.

Table 2: Perceived Contributions of Harmonization of Academic Programmes and Qualifications in West Africa

Contribution	Mean	Rank
Promotes collaborative research.	3.66	1 st
Standardizes curriculum among African nations.	3.43	2 nd
Fosters information exchange among students and staff of African universities.	3.41	3 rd
Enhances the quality of education in Africa.	3.39	4 th
Helps facilitate the comparability of qualifications awarded across Africa.	3.34	5 th
Helps foster academic integration.	3.34	6 th
Fosters professional mobility for employment.	3.28	7 th
Helps education system to inter-operate to benefit Africa.	3.26	8 th
Improves the quality of African universities.	3.20	9 th
Helps to develop good quality assurance mechanism.	3.18	10 th
Enhances improved global rating of African universities.	3.10	11 th
Helps in the acquisition and development of high technological skills.	3.06	12 th
Promotes unity among African nations.	3.03	13 th
Helps to bridge digital divide.	2.87	14 th
Helps in the management of academic resources.	2.84	15 th
Leads to improved global rating of African universities.	2.70	16 th
Encourages youth empowerment.	2.68	17 th
Reduces corruption tendencies among African nations.	2.54	18 th
Makes education available and affordable.	2.46	19 th
Alleviates social and economic poverty.	2.32	20 th

Table 2 shows that perceived contribution of harmonization of academic programmes and Qualification promote collaborative research. This has the highest mean score of 3.66 and was therefore ranked 1st. The item that was ranked 2nd shows that Harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa has helped to standardize curriculum among Africa nations with a mean a score of 3.43.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of gender, the findings were subjected to a t-test. The results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Perception of harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications by gender

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Df	Cal. t-value	Crit. t-value
Male	161	61.81	8.17	198	2.44*	1.96
Female	39	58.30	7.50			

*Significant, $p < 0.05$

Table 3 shows a calculated t -value of 2.44 and a critical t -value is 1.96. The calculated t -value is greater than the critical t -value. The hypothesis is rejected; t (df = 198) = 2.44, $p = 0.05$. Thus, there is a significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of gender.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of faculty, the findings were subjected to ANOVA. The results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Analysis of Variance in Perceptions on the Basis of Faculty

Source	df	SS	Mean Square	Cal. F-value	Crit. F-value
Between Groups	3	17.735	5.91	0.08	2.60
Within Groups	196	13205.620	67.37		
Total	199	13223.355			

Table 4 shows the F-value calculated of 0.08 and a critical value of 2.60. The calculated F-value is less than the critical F-value. The hypothesis is accepted. Hence, there is no significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of faculty.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of academic rank, the findings were subjected to T-test. The results are shown below in table 5.

Table 5: Perceptions of harmonization by Academic Rank

Academic Status	N	Mean	SD	df	Cal. t-value	Crit. t-value
AL - L1	120	61.02	8.05	198	0.23	1.96
SL - Prof.	80	61.30	8.33			

Table 5 shows a calculated t -value of 0.23 and a critical t -value is 1.96. The calculated t -value is less than the critical t -value. The hypothesis is accepted. Thus, there is a significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of academic status.

To test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of teaching experience, the findings were subjected to ANOVA on Table 6.

Table 6: Analysis of Variance in Perceptions by Teaching Experience

Source	df	SS	Mean Square	Cal. value	F- value	Crit. value	F-
Between Groups	2	1173.897	586.94	9.59*		3.00	
Within Groups	197	12049.458	61.164				
Total	199	13223.355					

*Significant, $p < 0.05$.

Table 6 shows the F-value calculated of 9.59 and a critical value of 3.00. The calculated F-value is greater than the critical F-value. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected; $F (df = 2,197) = 9.59, p = 0.05$. Hence, there is a significant difference in the perception of academic staff on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications in West Africa on the basis of university teaching experience. The Duncan Multiple Range Test (DMRT) was used as a post-hoc test. The results of the DMRT procedure are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7: Duncan's Multiple Range Test on the Means of University Teaching Experience

Duncan Groupings	N	Means	Group	University Teaching Experience
A	64	62.31	3	12 years and above
B	50	61.01	2	6 - 11 years
C	86	59.84	1	Below 1 - 5 years

Table 7 shows the Duncan Multiple Range Test results indicating the source of the significant difference noted in the ANOVA results of Table 6. It can be seen that the means of the three groups differed from one another as depicted by the different Duncan letters A, B, and C. Hence, each of the groups contributed to the significant difference noted in the ANOVA results of Table 6.

4 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Most of the academic staff members agreed that harmonization of academic programmes and qualification can help to promote collaborative research among Economic Community of West Africa Society (ECOWAS) member states. This is in line with Hoosen, Butcher, Beatrice and Khamati (2009) who affirmed that harmonization of academic programmes in Africa can allow information exchange and encourage excellent collaborative research. There was disparity in the perceptions of male and female academic staff members. Diversity in perception can stem from differences in sources of belief, tradition,

culture and value system (Clark, 1983). In the harmonization policy, it is important to consider the culture of the collaborating countries and the prevailing situations in each country (Amartya, 2000). For harmonization to become effective among member states, gender issues must become a prime consideration in the construction of its philosophy, vision and mission.

Across the various faculties considered in this study there was a general agreement on the need to harmonize academic programmes and qualification in Africa. One of the fundamental aims of this programme is to promote continental research and innovation capacity in science and technology (Woldetensae, 2013). The thematic areas include basic sciences, earth and life sciences, humanities and social sciences. If this is achieved, it will positively boost access to quality education in the West Africa sub-region. The African Union Commission has developed several higher education programmes to foster continental academic integration in order to promote academic development.

Irrespective of the respondent's academic status, there were divergent views on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications across the sub-region. An overview of the programmes showed that this policy will develop comparable standards in line with national and international minimum benchmarks of academic standards. This will result in the development of a set of benchmark standards in all the fields of study, which is in line with the National Qualifications Framework (Hoosen, Butcher & Khamati, 2009). Through this agenda professional mobility for employment across borders will be made possible and this in turn can promote regional integration.

The results of this study also revealed that the perception of academic staff differs as it relates to university teaching experience of the respondents. Ravaioli (2009) explained that technical standards accommodating specified structures are required in order to allow effective harmonization process and this can be managed through the experience of long standing stakeholders in the university. It is expected that such harmonization would be subjected to the opinions of various stakeholders in the universities, professional bodies and employers of labour, because of their relevant experiences. This might call for a further look at the differences in the perceptions of academic staff in the university on harmonization programme.

This study sheds more light on the initiatives needed to be considered while developing the regional harmonization programme in West Africa. The understanding of these dynamics is essential for counsellors. This will assist counsellors to equip themselves with appropriate information on harmonization policies in West Africa. The knowledge acquired in the process would enable them to give appropriate and effective counselling about the programme to stakeholders. Also policy makers on harmonization can employ the services of

counsellors in carrying out their programmes in the institution of higher learning.

Therefore, it is recommended that ECOWAS states extend regional integration to further include harmonization of academic programmes within the sub-region. This is expected to foster good relationships among member states. It is also recommended that ECOWAS provides funds to encourage academic activities that foster harmonization among cooperating member states. They can also organize training and workshop for stakeholders on harmonization of academic programmes and qualifications. This will increase and update the knowledge of academic staff in this area. Functioning counselling centres, equipped with professional counsellors, should be established in schools. Counsellors can help in organizing enlightenment programmes in this area on how the ARUSHA programme can positively influence Africa's educational systems.

The researchers are of the opinion that if ECOWAS has become a reality with its glaring notable socio-economic/political opportunities across the sub-region, it is also possible to harmonize academic programmes and qualifications in all higher education institutions such that uniformity and mobility can be enhanced among staff and students. The West Africa Examination Council Examination (WASCE) is a typical example of this noble idea. Comparability of the outcomes of educational efforts will be made easier too.

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Emotional Competence and Leadership Styles of Managers in Private Universities in Uganda

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Abstract. This short paper, a part of a wider study on the effectiveness of university managers in Uganda, reports on the emotional competence and leadership styles of managers in private universities in the country. Using data elicited from 240 respondents drawn from eight (8) private universities in the country, the paper reports a direct relationship between the emotional competence and leadership styles of the managers. However, the paper also observes, capacity building for the university managers has not paid due attention to the need to enhance the managers' emotional competence. Accordingly, the paper recommends that efforts to enhance the managers' effectiveness should endeavour to enhance their emotional competence.

Keywords: Emotional competence; Governance; Human resources development.

1 Introduction

Over the last three decades, private investors, religious bodies, groups of professionals and regional/ cultural organizations have set up higher education institutions. Indeed, the number of these institutions in the country has expanded phenomenally (cf. Figure 1). In the university sub-sector of the country's higher education industry, the mushrooming of privately owned universities has been met with optimism and pessimism alike. Although some authors have hailed the launching of the new private universities as contributing to the expansion of access to higher education as well as fuelling innovation in higher education delivery, critics have expressed concerns for the quality of the universities (see, for example, Kasozi, 2003). Flagship among the concerns that are being expressed about the quality of the private universities is their ability to adhere to the principles and practices of good governance.

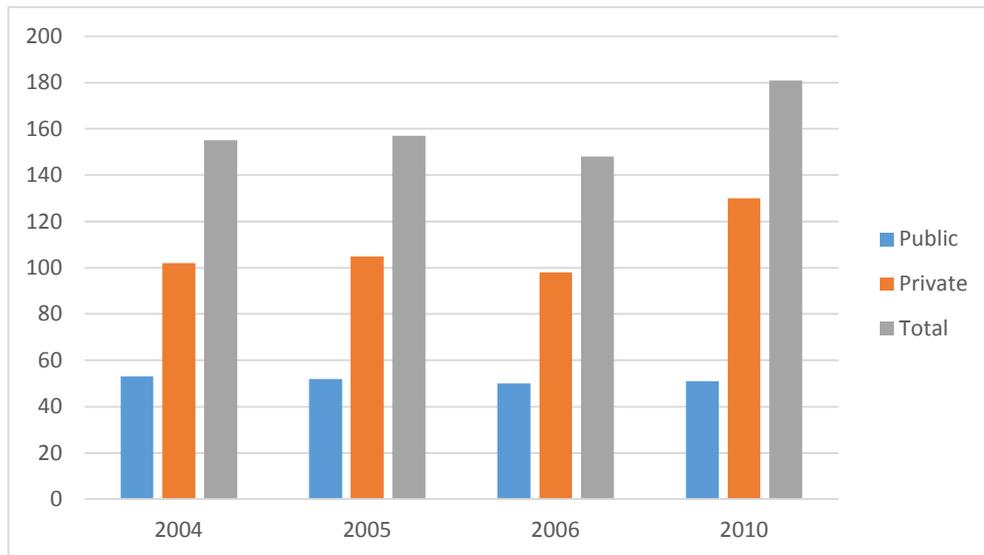


Figure 1: Ownership and Number of Higher Education Institutions in Uganda (2004-2010)

Source: National Council for Higher Education (2010)

According to the National Council for Higher Education (2006, p.39), “good governance in the higher education context refers to the good management of institutions of higher learning to enable them deliver quality education and to fulfil the missions and visions of all stakeholders. Universities are well governed if they fulfil the purposes for which they were established”. The report adds that for universities to perform their functions, “they need to have good governance. In order to enhance good governance, university leaders must be democratic, transparent and strictly accountable to university workers, Council and to the wider general public because universities are public institutions, irrespective of the orientation, ownership, belief and ideology of their founding bodies. All decisions in universities should be made by the majority of stakeholders in relevant fora to promote the greatest happiness to the greatest number without violating the rights of the minority”.

On the contrary, this ideal is not being realized in the case of many universities in Uganda. Writing on the governance of higher education in the country, for example, National Council for Higher Education (2006, p.40) reports that:

“...there were disruptions of work in some universities in 2006. For example: there were strikes by staff of Makerere University over the question of pay packages. The students joined the staff strike in sympathy;

there was a strike in Gulu University also over the question of money matters; there were also strikes in Kyambogo University over management matters; there was a strike by students at Uganda Christian University over the issue of accommodation; an unsettled situation of conflict exists between Makerere University and its affiliate, Makerere University business School”.

Clearly, these and other problems in the universities have been the result of many causes. Accordingly, resolving them requires a multifaceted approach. Regardless, a well-recognised view in efforts to deal with the problems is that resolving them effectively will depend very significantly on the leadership of the universities. The problem is that many of the leaders of the universities are ineffective, ostensibly because, as the National Council for Higher Education (2006, p.40) puts it, “Ugandan higher education managers are lifted from lecture rooms to administrative offices without training them in management”. It may be noted that these gaps in university managers’ competencies, as well as the resultant shortfalls in the management and operations of the universities, are particularly widespread in the private universities—congruent with the observations of authors like Altbach (2005).

In recognition of this gap in the competence of university managers, organizations like Uganda Management Institute, Inter-University Council for East Africa and Association of African Universities have designed and are offering leadership and management courses for university managers, especially those who are in the earlier part of their leadership careers. In its state of higher education in Uganda, the National Council for Higher Education also affirms its commitment to the provision of leadership and management training to leaders at various levels in the universities in the country.

However, besides the training of the university managers in management and administration, is the issue of the managers’ emotional competence and its influence on the managers’ leadership styles. Authors on leadership note that emotional competence is particularly central to leadership. Personal ineptitude in leaders lowers everyone’s performance, wastes time, creates acrimony, corrodes motivation and commitment, and builds hostility and apathy. A leader’s strengths or weakness in emotional competence can be measured in the gain or loss to the organization of the fullest talents of those they manage (Goleman, 1998). Handling emotional situations demands troubleshooting skills, being able to establish trust and rapport quickly, listening skills, and to persuade and sell a recommendation (Goleman, 1998). Accordingly, leaders require emotional competence, perspective talking, and a sense of presence, since they are responsible for the direction and control of their organization’s operations. On the other hand, leadership styles are key resources for building and maintaining teams of professionals as well as for achieving change and

reform in an effective and efficient way. Hitherto, however, a gap in knowledge that has implications for the effectiveness of the private universities in Uganda related to the fact that the link between the emotional competence and leadership styles of managers in these universities had not attracted scholarly attention. This study was undertaken to fill this gap.

2 Related Literature

Emotional competence, also termed as emotional self-awareness, refers to knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions. It also involves recognizing one's emotions and their effects (Goleman, 1998). Goleman explains that although different leaders have different ways of handling situations to balance their duties, intuition may play its biggest role in work life when it comes to managing people. However, this ability lies at the heart of self-awareness. Awareness of how emotions affect what we are doing is fundamental. Thus, a leader who excels in this competence is aware of his/her emotions at any given moment, often recognizing how those emotions feel.

Self-awareness is a cornerstone in leadership styles because it serves as an inner barometer—gauging whether what we are doing is worthwhile (Goleman, 1995). Administrators who never make a connection between how they behave under stress and their ability to retain loyalty and talent or meet the bottom-line may get an inkling that something has been missing from their leadership. This can lead to using a wrong style of management under particular circumstances due to the inner turmoil within the leader.

Accurate self-assessment accounts for knowing one's strengths and limitations. Goleman (1998) asserts that it explains why different personalities perceive and do things differently, adding that accurate self-assessment is pivotal in administration because it helps administrators to know their strengths, weaknesses, be reflective, learn from experience and open to candour, feedback and new perspectives. Salovey and Mayer et al (1995) observe that if cases of conflict at different levels of the organization are to be curbed, the administrators need to initiate or promote accurate self-assessment. These authors add that if the administrator has got poor working relationships with his or her subordinates, the imitation of accurate self-assessment among subordinates may tend to be difficult since it is hard to measure one's self-assessment which may be among the factors affecting leadership styles.

Today, we can no longer let go emotional intelligence in the management of universities. Emotional intelligence is increasingly relevant to leadership and management because it provides a new paradigm of understanding and assessing a leader's behaviour, management style, attitudes, interpersonal skills

and potential (Khokhar & Kush, 2009). Although universities have the right to hire the right people to fit in the right jobs, self-confidence as an element of emotional competence has to be considered vital and a sine qua non of superior performance. Without self-confidence, the administrator may lack the conviction that is essential for taking on the challenges that his/ her job presents. Self-confidence thus gives the requisite of self-assurance for moving ahead as a leader. The absence of self-confidence introduces feelings of powerlessness and crippling self-doubt. Extreme self-confidence on the other hand may look like arrogance, especially if the person lacks social skills.

Against this background, reports of management gaps in Uganda's private universities presents the universities' managers' emotional competence a candidate for investigation. The goal of such investigation is to shed light on the impact of this competence on the managers' leadership styles and, ultimately, highlight gaps and opportunities for positive intervention if any exist. It is for these reasons that this study was undertaken. And grounded on the foregoing review of related literature, the study hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between the emotional competence and leadership styles of managers in private universities in Uganda.

3 Method

The study was conducted following a cross-sectional survey design. Data was collected through administering two sets of questionnaires to a sample of 240 managers drawn from eight of the private universities in the country. The validity of the questionnaires was ascertained through expert judgment while their reliability was ascertained through pretesting. Analysis of variance was used to examine the variations in the levels of emotional competence and leadership styles among the categories in the sample of respondents. The relationship between attributes of the independent and dependent variables was tested using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation test at the .05 level of confidence.

4 Findings and Discussions

Female respondents posted a mean of 3.15 on emotional competence while their male counterparts posted a mean of 3.11. However, statistical analysis revealed that the difference is not statistically significant, a finding that corroborates Stough (2002). When considered from the view point of Goleman (1995), these findings suggest that, compared to men, women may be high in

recognizing their feelings. This finding is corroborated by Brackett and Mayer (2003) whose study found that female participants scored higher than males on emotional intelligence when measured by a performance scale.

Regarding self-confidence, it was found that there is no significant difference in self-confidence and the leadership styles by gender. The study further indicated that there is a significant relationship between self-confidence and leadership styles ($r = .409$, sig. = 0.000). This implies that, if a leader has self-confidence then the style of leadership to be used will be appropriate depending on the situation. These findings are in line with a statement that, self-confidence may provide individual administrators with greater perceived control over interpersonal events (Goleman, 1998) and that these administrators possess high levels of self-efficacy and provide orientation for followers.

A key inference here is that efforts to enhance the university managers' effectiveness should, among other things, make efforts to improve the managers' self-confidence. Conversely, review of documents like the National Council for Higher Education's state of higher education reports (2006, 2010) shows that attention has not been paid to this area. Although the reports highlight gaps in the management of the universities, two panaceas are primarily considered: 1) training of the managers in the areas of management; and 2) promulgation and enforcement of more stringent policies and laws that might ensure adherence to known best practices in higher education institution administration. Attention is not paid to the emotional competence of the people deployed in the management of the universities, apparently because, hitherto, evidence of a linkage between this competence and the leaders' effectiveness had not been established. However, given the findings of this study, it is recommended that in addition to the other efforts being made to enhance the capacity of university managers, efforts should be made to enhance their emotional competence. Accordingly, it is recommended that future researchers investigate into ways through which universities (and other relevant organizations like the National Council for Higher Education) may enhance the emotional competence of university managers in the country.

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Re-Engineering Vocational and Technical Education for Sustainable Development in North Central Nigeria

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Abstract. Using the case of North Central Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria, this study interrogates the nexus between vocational and technical education (VTE) and sustainable development. Specific attention is put on provision and attainment of basic skills on one hand and job creation, self-employment, utilization of locally available resources, provision of technology and capital formation on the other hand. Data were collected from a stratified random sample of 36 out of the 98 schools in the region. The data were collected using a VET Sustainable Development Questionnaire (VTESDQ). Four hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of confidence using Pearson Product Moment Correlation. The findings were that VTE significantly affects sustainable development. It is recommended that: 1) the content of VTE be related to the requirements of the labour market; 2) VTE institutions be established close to the rural populace; and 3) the study programmes VTE institutions offer reflect the community's culture.

Keywords: Vocational and Technical Education; Sustainable Development

1 Introduction

UNESCO (2000) defined VTE as the aspects of educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupation in various sectors of economic and social life. FGN (2004) conceptualized VTE as education given in institution as providing both scientific knowledge and practical skills required for a specific trade, employment or profession as craftsman, technicians/-technologists and scientist of similar levels in business field of engineering and applied science. It refers to the aspect of education, which leads to the acquisition of practical and applied skills as well as basic scientific knowledge. Denga (1983) in Ameh (2002) defined Vocational and Technical Education as “any form of education which

sufficiently prepares an individual to perform in his chosen occupation. He further expatiated by saying it teaches skill, develop attitudes and competencies that are requisite to success in any given occupation. Similarly Olaitan (1985) in Ukula (2002) conceived Vocational and Technical Education as a highly useful education as its occupation content is such that the trainee acquires skills, attitudes, interest and knowledge to perform socially and economically work that is beneficial both himself and the society. Again, Nwosu and Igwe (1995) in Elaigwu (2002) view Vocational and Technical Education as the study of technology and related science and acquisition of practical skills, attitudes and knowledge relating to occupations in the various sectors of the economic and social life. In a nutshell, Vocational and Technical Education is the acquisition of certain relevant skills, attitudes and aptitudes under tutors of gainful employment and proper integration into the society.

In Nigeria, VTE constitute two sub-sectors which are characterized by their purposes, levels of institutions, course offerings, organisation and control. The three types of institutions distinguishable in the technical education sub-sector include: Polytechnic or Colleges of Technology, Monotechnics (Mono-disciplinary, tertiary colleges and colleges of education. The hierarchical status and roles of the institutions in the national education system is as indicated below:

Level	Institution Type	Primary Manpower Production Level
Tertiary	University	Professional (i.e. high level manpower)
	Polytechnic/ Monotechnic Colleges of Education (Technical)	Technologists and Technician (i.e. Middle Level Manpower).
Secondary	Technical College	Technical (middle) level technical teachers Craftsmen and Master Craftsmen (i.e. Low level Manpower).
Post- Primary	Business and Engineering Skills Training	Operatives and Artisans (i.e. Low Level Manpower).
Primary	Primary-School	Basic Education

1.1 Mission of VTE

The 2nd International Conference on VTE held in Korea 1999 set the mission for all nations under UNESCO to use VTE to address the employment and other socio-economic challenges of the 21st century. These challenges include globalization, political integration, trade liberalization, an ever changing technological scenario, ICT revolution and the consequent rapid pace of social change. UNESCO (2000) concluded that VTE shall therefore produce, through

the institution of entrepreneurial education, more job creators than job seekers. The Mission of the VTE as stated are as follows:

- To eliminate unemployment by equipping the generality of out of school youths and adults with saleable skills.
- To infuse into all adequate vocational efficiency for effective living.
- To enhance and sustain national economic and technological development.
- To engender national economic prosperity.

In fulfilment of the mission, the Federal Government of Nigeria (2004) set up to:

- Expand the productive base of the economy through increased agricultural and industrial production.
- Develop new infrastructural facilities and rehabilitate existing ones to provide conducive environments for private investment.
- Lay a solid foundation for self-reliant economy through technological development; and reduce the level of unemployment through the creation of ample opportunities for gainful employment.

For the purpose of National Development, the policy prescribes the following four objectives for all types and levels of education.

- The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity.
- The inculcation of the right type of values and attitudes for the survival of the individual and the Nigerian Society.
- The training of the mind in the understanding of the world around; and
- The acquisition of appropriate skills abilities and competencies both mental and physical as equipment for the individual to live in and contribute to the development of the society.
- Nigeria is fast evolving through the operation of its 6-3-3-4 educational system a three stream system of curricula offerings. It is now easy to stream curricula as liberal arts based, science based and technology based from the senior secondary level. This streaming, indeed, facilitates educational management particularly in regard to the provision of facilities, curricula development, career education, teacher training and institutional management.

1.2 Development of VTE in Nigeria

The origin of vocational and technical education in Nigeria could be traced to the pre-colonial era when traditional education was in practice. During the period, the child was trained in the family trade by direct apprenticeship to either the parents or relations. According to Ogunmila (2006), in traditional

education of the various ethnic nationalities, arts and crafts of various types have existed as their own expression of vocational training; while traditional agricultural practices have been developed to suit the cultivation of the agricultural species predominantly produce in the different eco-geography areas of the country.

In the early part of the colonial period, vocational training was not encouraged. Schools were built primarily for the purpose of evangelism by the early missionaries. The early missionary was characterized by literacy type of education which was geared towards winning converts and producing clerks and interpreters (Ajayi and Ayodele, 2002). It was not until 1908 that government department started to organize some form of vocational training school in 1908, the marine training school in 1928 and the public works, the post and telegraph and railway training school in 1931 (Adegbile, 2000). Government active participation in the provision of technical education became obvious between 1930 and 1960. Yaba Higher College was officially opened on January 19, 1934. Technical colleges were established by various regional governments in Enugu 1950, Ilorin 1951, Kano 1953, Bukuru 1953, Sapele 1955, Ijebu-ode 1959, Osogbo, Oyo 1961, Owo 1963, Aba 1964 and Abakaliki 1966. These colleges were not fee paying and they were adequately funded by the government.

In 1959, Federal Ministry of Education (Nigeria) appointed a commission to conduct an investigation into Nigeria's needs in the field of Post-Secondary Education in Nigeria. The reports (Ashby) recommended that adequate attention should be given attention to technical and vocational education, encourage students to study technical drawing and craft subjects and upgrade the technical schools courses to the award of City and Guilds of London.

The Comparative Technical Education (1963) recommended three levels of vocational and technical education as:

- Pre-vocational and pre-technical training usually offered in secondary schools.
- Craftsmen training usually offered in technical colleges, trade centres and vocational schools.
- Technical training usually offered in polytechnics and colleges of technology.

The Fourth Commonwealth Education Conference (1986) recommended that industry should be closely associated with technical education and through policy-making, manpower planning, and curriculum development, provision of opportunities for industrial experience, accreditation, consultancy services, part-time courses and vocational guidance.

In 1987, the National Council on Education (NCE) approved National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) for broad classification of vocational and technical institutions into:

- Vocational Schools – These are made up of vocational/artisan training centres to produce artisans. They are post-primary level institutions that pursue courses leading to the award of the Federal Ministry of Labour and Productivity Trade Test Certificates Grade III, II & I.
- Technical Colleges – Institution that produces craftsmen at the craft level and master craftsmen at the advanced craft level. They are post-junior secondary school institutions taking courses that lead to the award of the National Technical Certificate/National Business Certificate (NTC/NBC) and Advanced National Technical Certificate/Advanced National Business Certificate (ANTC/ANBC) for technical and business studies respectively.
- Polytechnics/Monotechnics/Colleges of Technology: These are post-senior secondary school institutions, which produce technicians and higher technicians/technologists.

The courses offered by these institutions are of two years duration, each leading to the award of National Diploma (ND) and Higher National Diploma (HND) respectively. FGN (2004) identified range of courses to be offered at VTE as mechanical trades, computer craft practice, electrical engineering trades, building trades, wood trades, hospitality, textile trades printing trades, beauty culture trades, business traders and leather goods manufacture.

FGN (2004) has good intentions for VTE programme, still, fraught with problems, including administrators' misconception of the nature of VTE, inadequate political will by the government, deficit educational monitoring and evaluation procedures, poor funding, poor incentives for teachers and problem of curriculum implementation nature of programmes being terminal rather than development. In realization of these problems, the FGN (1997) set up National Board for Technical Education through Decree No.9; The Board is empowered to coordinate technical education by setting standard for schools in terms of facilities, teaching manpower and accreditation of courses.

Consequently, there has been a phenomenal expansion in technical education. From one technical college in 1948, the country has 71 polytechnics with various programmes for pre-national diploma, national diploma and higher national diploma. Furthermore, available related literature reviewed that:

- Between the year 2000 and 2008, 9 polytechnics were established bringing the total number of polytechnics to 71.
- The number of Monotechnics increased from 30 in year 2000 to 39 in the year 2005.

- Total students enrolment in Monotechnics increased from 11,227 in 2000 to 20,853 in 2005.
- In Monotechnics in 2005, the number of students that enrolled into Pre-National Diploma (programme stood at 2,691 (12.9%). Similarly, 13,425 (64.38%) enrolled into National Diploma while the remaining 4,737 (22.72%) enrolled into Higher National Diploma.
- In Polytechnics, total students enrolment rose from 118,216 in 2000 to 311,581 in 2005.
- In Polytechnics, students' turnout in Polytechnics rose from 51,372 in 2002 to 74,570 in 2004.
- In Technical schools, the number of technical schools increased from 159 in 2006 to 162 in 2008.

Table 1: Distribution of Educational Institutions and Enrolment (2009)

Institution Type	No. of Schools	Total Enrolment
Primary School	54,434	21,294,517
Secondary School	18,238	6,625,943
• Junior School		3,720,789
• Senior School		2,905,154
Monotechnics	39	20,853
Colleges of Education	83	343,387
Polytechnics	71	311,844
• Pre National Diploma		39,488
• National Diploma		212,225
• Higher National Diploma		59,870

Source: FGN (2009) and National Universities Commission

Therefore, technical education is a concept reserved for the education of technologists and technician cadre of manpower in all occupational fields are offered by the Polytechnic, Monotechnics and College of Education.

The Federal Government of Nigeria has good intentions for TVE Programmes. However, the programmes are still fraught with problems. In the past, Nigerian society looked down on VTE as unprofitable. There is negative perception from the society that VTE is for the “drop out”, “drop in” in schools. There is general attitude, found “quick wealth or the get-rich-quick syndrome”. There is still a story tendering towards white-collar job as a result of low statue associated with most kind of VTE. A lot of capital expenditure is required for the procurement of equipment. There is under estimation or over estimation of money allocated to VTE in Nigeria. VTE programmes are ill-equipped and workshops and laboratories are not adequately provided. VTE is also affected by poor planning and administration. Obayan (2002) noted that technical managers in developing countries are essentially managers who have grown

without any technical background or training. Insufficient and poorly qualified staff. Healthy and skilled teachers are migrated lucrative ventures, which pay good salaries. This marks for most schools employing mediocre, artisans and technicians to man most sensitive subjects.

1.3 Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs (Wikipedia 2011) It contains within it two key concepts: the concept of needs, in particular, the useful needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization in the environment's ability to meet present and future needs. (Brundland Report).

The definition entails that world is seemed a system, a system that connects space, and a system that connects time. Wikipedia (2011) opines that sustainable development is a pattern of resource use that aims to meet human needs while pressuring the environment so that these needs can be met not only in the present but also for generations to come. United Nations (1987) used the term sustainable development as to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs, social development, environmental protection and cultural development.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Sahel Studies (1989) sees sustainable development as involving the maximization of the net benefit of economic development, subject to maintaining or enhancing the service and quality of natural resources over time. Akorede and Onuka (2008) sees sustainable development as a way by which the society is managed in an effective and efficient manner such that it benefits all and sundry, with enough resources still available for the continuation of the human race. This is achievable through the judicious and careful use of global resources. The sustainable development seeks to promote prosperity (economic objective) through growth, equity and efficiency in all sectors of development. It seeks to support people (social objectives) through empowerment, participation of all stakeholders, social mobility, cultural identity and various institutional development. Finally in the tripod, it seeks to maintain the planet (ecological objectives) through improving the state of the ecosystem, biodiversity conservation, and ensuring adequate carrying capacity and responding in sustainable manners to other global issues.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

The 2nd international conference of VTE held in Korea in 1999 set the mission for all nations under UNESCO to use Vocational and Technical Education to address the unemployment and other socio-economic challenges of the 21st century. These challenges include globalization, political integration, trade liberalization, ICT revolution, bring dream, social economic problems, dysfunctional aspects of the educational system and unemployment which is a global problem but it is quite alarming in Nigeria.

For the nation to be accorded as one of the leading countries in the world there is an urgent need to re-focus VTE for sustainability in Nigeria. Reasons for the re-engineering of VTE include employment and income generation, contribution to the GDP, linkage effects, fostering innovation, industrialization and technological development. Thus, the paper begins with the concept, mission, historical background, and trends in the growth of VTE. Consequently, problems, strategies for re-engineering and recommendation are finally suggested towards united, strong and self-reliant nation. It is in the light of this that this paper seek to look into re-engineering Vocational and Technical Education for sustainable development in north – Central Geo-Political units of Nigeria.

1.5 Objectives and Hypotheses

The general objective of the study was to examine VTE for sustainable development in North – Central Geo-Political zone of Nigeria. The specific objectives were to:

- examine whether significant relationship exist between basic skills and job creation
- investigate whether significant relationship exist between basic skills and self-employment
- examine whether significant relationship exist between basic skills and utilization of local resources
- find out whether significant relationship exist between basic skills and provision of technology
- investigate whether significant relationship exist between basic skills and capital formation

The following hypotheses were stated in line with these objectives:

- There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and Job Creation
- There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and self-employment.

- There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and utilization of Local Resources.

2 Methods

The study was conducted following a cross-sectional survey design. This involved description of parameters for statistics obtained from unbiased samples involves the use of questionnaire to obtain information from a sample of respondents for testing hypotheses relevant to educational problems and enable generalization of results on the sample of the population from which it is drawn. The population of the study was made up of 98 public Secondary Schools in the North Central Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria. Thirty-six (36) out of the 98 schools were selected using stratified random sampling techniques. The total population of the study was 3,680 and a sample of 920 students was randomly selected. Data were collected using a self-constructed questionnaire that was tagged “Re-Engineering Vocational and Technical Education for Sustainable Development in North Central Geo-Political Zone in Nigeria”. The sample schools were visited with the help of a research assistant who administered the questionnaire. The data were analysed using means and Pearson Product Moment tests at the .05 level of confidence.

3 Results and Discussion

Main hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between Vocation and Technical Education and Sustainable Development in North Central Geo political zone of Nigeria.

Table 2: VTE and Sustainable Development

	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
VTE	920	41.2	14.7	918	.193	.042	Reject Ho
Sustainable Development	920	98.59	41.48				

Table 2 above revealed that the calculated r-value of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of .193 is greater than the critical r-value of .042 at 0.05 level of significance and for 91 degree of freedom. Hence, the hypothesis is rejected. This reveals that there is significant relationship between Business Vocational Education and Entrepreneurial development in North Central Geo-

Political unit of Nigeria. From the above it is clear that VTE can actually promote Sustainable development.

The study revealed that employment creation utilization of local resources, promotion of technology, diversification of business, capital formation and promotion of an entrepreneurial culture are variable that are capable of ensuring the use of VTE for sustainable development in Nigeria.

Ho₁: There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and Job Creation

Table 3: Relationship between Basic Skills and Job Creation

	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
Basic skills services	920	9.1	2.61	918	.287	.42	Reject Ho
Job Creation	920	98.5	41.48				

Table 3 revealed that the calculated r-value of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient of .287 is greater than the critical r-value of 0.42 at 0.05 level of significance and for 918 degree of freedom. The null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is significant relationship between job creation and sustainable development in North Central Geo Political zone, Nigeria. This is in conformity with Aliyu (2011) who sees VTE as a means of generating employment opportunities.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and self-employment

Table 4: Relationship between Basic Skills and Self-Employment

	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
Basic skills services	920	11.25	2.86	918	.265	.42	Reject Ho
Self-employment	920	98.5	41.48				

Table 4 revealed that the calculated r-value of .265 is greater than the critical r-value of 0.42 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and self-employment is rejected. This implies that there is significant relationship between basic skills and self-employment. When there is adequate basic skill in Business Vocational Education this will have a direct bearing on Entrepreneurial development thereby making people to be self-employed. This

is collaborated with the statement of Obike (2013) who maintained that the acquisition VTE and sustainable skills led to self-employment and poverty reduction.

Ho3: There is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and utilization of resources.

Table 5: Relationship between Basic Skills and Utilisation of Resources

	N	Mean	SD	Df	Calculated r-value	Critical r-value	Decision
Basic skills services	920	7.27	1.42	918	.235	.42	Reject Ho
Utilisation of local resources	920	98.5	41.48				

Table 5 the calculated r-value of .235 which is greater than the critical r-value of 0.42 at 0.05 level of significance and at 918 degrees of freedom. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between Basic Skills and utilization of Local resources is rejected. There is a positive significant relationship between Basic Skill and the utilization of Local resources. Aliyu (2011) reveals that skills associated with the manufacturing of traditional artefacts and crafts using local resources will contribute to sustainable economic development.

4 Conclusions and Recommendations

The central theme of this paper was the reengineering VTE for sustainable development in Nigeria. The nation has come up with plans for vocational and technical education, which, if implemented will transform the great nation to economically viable nation. Reengineering of VTE entails balanced curriculum development, NGOs community participation, improved funding, recruitment of qualified and skilled personnel, VTE schools management board, provision of adequate facilities and instructional materials and effective industrial training. The recommendations made can move the nation to a level of adequate manpower, disciplined citizenry, national integration and modern development nation.

There should be less emphasis on certificates/examinations in implementing the curricula content of various programmes. Acquisition of practical skills should be stressed on the final outcome. Orientation programmes should be carried out towards enlightening the general public on the need for their

children to be vocationally and technically oriented in light of the pervading economic meltdown. The content of VTE must be related to the requirements of the labour market; this could be corrected by setting up an advisory council for technical colleges, polytechnics, colleges of education and university in which employers will be reoriented. Good teaching – learning environment must be provided by the educational stakeholders. These include facilities, machine, and other instructional materials.

VTE institutions should be sited close to the rural populace and their programmes should reflect the community's culture. The management of VTE Institutions should be left strictly for experts in relevant areas. The present situation where the generalists are managing the supposed technical institutions should be discouraged. In order to encourage students enrolment in VTE programmes, government should as a matter of policy, remove the dichotomy between technical institution graduates and university graduates. The compulsory introduction of entrepreneurial courses as general studies programme in Nigerian universities is a welcome idea. Private/public partnerships in the funding and management of VTE should be encouraged. These include the parents, corporate bodies and companies, international development agencies, community organization and philanthropists.

More qualified and skilled teachers should be recruited to handle vocational and technical subjects and courses in schools. Those on the job who lack the required qualification and skills should be retrained. Moreover, vocational and technical education teachers should be motivated through attractive conditions-of service in order to increase their level of productivity.

There should be a central body at the National level to manage, supervise, finance and monitor VTE in Nigeria. Similar body should be put in place at the state and local government level. The structure could be adapted as NVTEC/SVTEB/LGVTEA i.e. National Vocational Technical Education Commission, State Vocational Technical Educational Board and Local Government Vocational Technical Authority. The constitutional roles of the Federal, State and Local Government on matters relating to VTE should be respected.

To enhance the effective teaching and learning of vocational and technical education subjects and courses in schools, adequate workshops, laboratories, classrooms, essential basic tools, equipment, machines and instructional materials should be provided. There is the need to make the teaching of vocational and technical education subjects and courses more practical and this can be facilitated through adequate provision of facilities and instructional materials.

Members of the public should give more recognition to the graduates of technical colleges and polytechnics in order to stimulate the interest of students in vocational and technical education. Furthermore, parents should encourage

their children to offer subjects and courses in vocational and technical education as viable alternative to subjects and courses that only prepare graduates for white-collar jobs that are grossly inadequate in the labour market.

Vocational and technical education programmes should be restructured to allow the students to continue their studies up to post graduate level by removing apparent discontinuities in the structure. This can be done through the articulation of vocational programmes in the technical colleges with the ones in the polytechnics and the articulation of the technician or technologist (HND) programmes with the corresponding degree programmes of the universities.

There is the need to make students' industrial training more effective through the inculcation of entrepreneurship skills to complement the vocational and technical skills acquired by them. This will make them more relevant, functional and self-employed in their areas of specialization after graduation.

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Citizenship Education for Liberation in Nigeria

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Abstract. Across the globe, nations face a problem of low levels of civic consciousness and prevalence of harmful stereotypes like ethno-religious intolerance, prejudice and crises. In many parts of the world, these have degenerated into political crises, youth hooliganisms, prostitution, examinations malpractices, rape victimisation, terrorism and national insecurity. In the Nigerian context, these vices truncate the practical and transparent democratic governance while threatening the country's federalism and cohesion. Since the purpose of any functional education is to enlighten and liberate the beneficiaries, ensuring that they live a sustainable life while contributing meaningfully to the upkeep of their immediate community, this paper takes a look at citizenship liberation using qualitative civic education. It examines, inter alia, the aims and objectives of qualitative citizenship education and how the principles of civic education can be instilled in the citizens for liberation and peaceful co-existence. The paper further discusses how the spirit of patriotism, unity, love and oneness can be installed in the minds of Nigerians and how they can serve as a lubricant to the wheel of socio-political and economic progress of the nation through adequate citizenship education.

Keywords: Higher education for development; Sustainability; Lifelong learning.

1 Introduction

Liberation is a word that connotes freedom from all forms of restriction, independence and self-determination. This is in line with the etymological meaning of liberation as given by Ayeni (2012) that the word liberal is a derivative from the Latin word '*liber*' which means 'free' and the plural '*liberi*' which means 'free men'. The verb '*liberate*' means 'to free' and the abstract noun '*liberatas*' means 'freedom'. This means that there is no possible interpretation of the word 'liberal' which is more or less than 'freedom'. The overall goal of African educational system, though traditional, was to groom a

holistic man, well-mannered and cultured as described in Yoruba concept of *Omoluwabi*-a complete gentleman (Sarumi, 2011). Such person is expected to be free thinker and live according to the dictate of rationality and reasoning alone rather than dictates of brainwashing and or dogma. This is because reasoning and rationality free the mind from the shackles of ignorance. A liberated mind is free of cultural superstition, ethnocentric inclination and religious dogma. The liberated man has the mind of his own and free from being gullible to anti-social cajoles courtesy of rapacious and nefarious political leaders who use people as tools for disrupting the nation's political and democratic stability, especially during elections. In the words of Ayeni (2012) individual intellectual freedom enables people to follow argument wherever it leads, and reach logical conclusions in the light of reasoning. This implies that if a man knows the difference between right and wrong, he will automatically do what is right, because to do wrong in this situation would be irrational. This is what human liberation conjures.

However, it is regrettable to state that the minds of the early peoples in Nigeria were fettered by superstition, which caused timidity in the individual who was not free to develop as his western counterpart (Ayeni, 2012). In some part of Nigeria, religious dogma were and are still constraints on individual thinking and freedom of thought, and because the constraints dominate thinking, they also determine behaviour. The individual acted out in blind obedience, not because he is guided by reason but because his sense of reasoning is clouded by excessive religious fanaticism and dogma, superstitious balderdash and ethnocentric arrogance. This is evident in the belief in and worship of terror, incessant bombing and mass killings caused by indoctrinated religious fanatics in some parts of the country.

These events of recent past have indicated that Nigeria is on the brink of losing her much cherished sense of nationhood, cultural identity and, indeed, hospitable spirit (Ogunbiyi and Soluade, 2011). The recent crises in Nigeria defied boundaries ranging from political and social to religious and sometimes appearing to have economic connotations. The recurring problems and explanations for this growing state of low sense of patriotism and nationalism emanates from the fact that Nigerian citizens are ignorant, or perhaps confused, of their duties and obligation towards the nation and sense of responsibility towards fellow citizens. The principle of living a high moral life, based on civic duties and responsibilities, in other to have a good name is always appreciated and cherished in all human societies. This is because it is a common adage that a good name is better than 'gold or silver', hence the drive for civic values and orientations (Danladi, 2011). The Nigerian National Policy on Education (2004) stresses that the philosophy of education should be geared towards equipping the learner to cultivate values of effective citizenship and civil responsibility. The Policy endorses that the philosophy behind all forms of

instructions in schools is to be measured in terms of their roles in producing citizens with skills, competencies, moral values and reasoned judgments to effectively live, interact, interrelate and contribute positively to economic, social, political and cultural development of the Nigerian society (Okobiah, cited in Okam and Ibrahim, 2011). The philosophy begs for adequate and qualitative citizenship education.

2 Concept and Goal of Citizenship Education

Like most concepts in social sciences, citizenship education defies a universally acceptable definition yet many scholars have attempted conceptualising it. While others refer to it as civic education, character training, political education, behavioural modification, others construe it as human right education. Alutu and Ifedili (2012) explained the reasons why the meaning attached to the concept varies. In their words: ‘since virtually all human beings possess hedonistic character, the desire to train for good citizenship is universal concept which varies from society to society depending on their specific needs and problems’ [pp. 573]. Hence the nature and objectives of citizenship education in any given society is dependent on the presenting indicators in the social environment. This frantically corroborates Iyamu’s (1999) definition of citizenship education as a conscious effort to inculcate in the youth, a set of values and attitude contingent on the need and problems of the society. Omare (1999) also concludes that the manifestation of citizenship education can be seen in the behavioural trait such as critical thinking, political activism, inquiry, goals and value of good citizenship. Yusuf (2006) contends that education for citizenship requires a citizen to be well informed and possess ability to gather facts, reject ethnocentrism, religious jingoism and develop positive national consciousness. This means that citizenship education will develop in individual skills, attitudes and values that will enable them to show concern for the wellbeing and dignity of others, respecting the worth of others and approaching civil decision in a rational manner. In fact, at the mention of citizenship, the individual and the state come to mind. The education of an individual concerning himself and his state that will not only socialize but emancipate and transform him for functional roles in a dynamic society is citizenship education (Anumba, 2013: 37).

However, the concept may be better described than defined. The UNESCO Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (1974), provide a better description of the principle of civic education for Member States as: promoting, at every stage of education, an

active civic training which will enable every person to gain a knowledge of the method of operation and the work of public institutions, whether local, national or international; and to participate in the cultural life of the community and in public affairs. The documents state further that wherever possible, this participation should increasingly link education and action to solve problems at the local, national and international levels. Students' participation in the organisation of studies and of the educational establishment they are attending should itself be considered a factor in civic education and an important element in international education. In her description of citizenship education, Anumba (2013: 38), posit that it is the type of education that enables members of a society acquire full knowledge, not only of the state, but also of their duties and obligations to the state, their rights and expectations from the state, the necessity of total conformity with accepted ways and standards of life of the people, the need for full compliance with rules and regulations and total allegiance to the state. The summary of it all is the need for relevant education that will transform the citizens to live legally in the society and contribute meaningfully to its progress. It is this kind of socialization orientation and training that can properly be referred to as education for citizenship

The aims and objectives of citizenship education are many and varied. They include socializing children against juvenile delinquency, disrespect for elders and all sharp practices that often metamorphose into full-blown crimes such as youth hooliganisms, prostitution, examinations malpractices and gross campus misconduct. In fact there has been public outcry over unemployment against the government, while those who have gained one employment or the other demonstrate unprecedented truancy and ingratitude towards their employers. The magnitude of dishonesty, embezzlement of public funds, looting government treasuries, diverting public funds and materials to private use, bribery and corruption they practise is inexplicable (Anumba, 2013). As earlier echoed in Falade (2008), the lack of the required citizenship traits in the life of the Nigerian citizens is directly or indirectly responsible for some citizens to think of disintegration, disunity and conflicts in the country. To create a list of the purpose of citizenship education to the state, the people and the world, may be an endless pursuit.

3 Need for Human Liberation in Nigeria and the World

The world is relentlessly becoming a mad place to live. Since the First World War, the world ceased to be constructive because men began to refuse applying their intelligence to create international and national co-operation for peaceful and harmonious co-existence. People are now confused of what humanity really

should stand for. Superstitions beliefs and religious dogma now obfuscate men perception of the spirit of nationhood and brotherliness. Men continue to be inhuman to men and persist in retaining the divisions of mankind into hostile groups. Russel (1977, cited in Okam & Ibrahim, 2011) revealed the prevalence of a general collective failure in many parts of the world, on the part of men, to use the intelligence they possess for the purpose of self-preservation and advancement of humanity. According to him, many factors which have been allowed to operate vulgarly in many societal frameworks are all dragging society towards a state of social disorder. Some of these factors include, but not limited to:

1. forces of religion, sex, education, nationalism, class feeling and competition which have been allowed to operate irrationally in many parts of the world to the extent of producing in the young insanity, stupidity, readiness for homicide, economic injustice and ruthlessness;
2. forces of intolerance, hatred, pain and misfortune which have engulfed and consumed many minds such that they have lost the power of balanced judgment which is needed for an emergence from the slough in which mankind is staggering;
3. a characterization of many societies by displays of disharmonies in their political and social frameworks;
4. a menace from problems of uncertainties which not only wedge many developing countries from each other but which also militate against socio-economic advancement; and problems of imbalance, inequality and the like which handicap many developing countries their emancipation from their colonial and apartheid history into a life which is based on equal footing with others in the world of mankind (Russel, 1977: 21-22; Okam & Ibrahim, 2011).

What is left in the cosmos is now mad world where there is the systematic and pervasive mistreatment of individuals on the basis of their membership in various groups, which are disadvantaged by the institutionalised imbalances in social power in a particular society. A world filled with bunches of oppressors and oppressed. According to Ricky (2014), oppression includes both institutionalised or "normalised" mistreatment as well as instances of violence. It is the invalidation, denial, or the non-recognition of the complete humanness (the goodness, uniqueness, smartness and powerfulness) of those who are members of the mistreated group. This is the only way to describe the world today judging from the ubiquitous of warfare across the globe.

The Nigerian episode is a terrifying one. Since the Lugardian amalgamation of 1914, there has been an inbuilt tendency for man's intolerance and inhumanity to man. The Nigerian society is now shackled with series of enigma that posit the ending of its national cohesion and federalism. The season of

discontent has special ramifications for a nation with unemployed millions, and the net effect has been a tragic precipitation of violent crimes: assault, burglary, extortion and kidnapping (Oludeyi, 2013). These are not unconnected to the low level of civic consciousness among the populace. Other resultant harmful stereotypes prevalent in Nigeria includes ethno-religious intolerance, prejudice and crises, political crises, youth hooliganisms, prostitution, examinations malpractices, rape, terrorist insurgencies and national insecurity. There is therefore a disturbing atmosphere of apprehensiveness among the populace (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2006; Oludeyi, 2013) and steady rise in youth crime, nurtured in a climate of increasing national income. In the words of Oludeyi (2013), a significant number of Nigerian youths are illiterate and resultantly gullible to anti-social cajoles courtesy of rapacious and nefarious political leaders who use them as tools for disrupting the nation's political and democratic stability. Couple with the proliferation of Islamic terrorist offshoots, it is done through rigging, thuggery, and religious violence which are detrimental to national peace and security (Oludeyi, 2010). Decades of social and political turmoil have turned this strategically located African nation into an established junction for international drug smugglers. "Other highlights of Nigeria's prolific crime syndicates are economic fraud – usually in the form of innovative internet schemes; money laundering and racketeering (Osolor, 2010). The dreadful part is the mayhem of terrorist insurgency championed by Boko Haram.

The fundamental question is thus: where can the Nigerian nation and other countries of the world find succour, peace and ease of cohabiting? There is a dire and urgent need for human Liberation. Since liberation is a function of education, liberation which is both the undoing of the effects and the elimination of the causes of social anomalies can best be sought in a type of education that trains, socialises, and crystallises the learners' mind both for character building, civics rights and responsibility and the spirit of inter-vivos patriotism. A kind of education tantamount to knowledge, skills and values given to a child or groups of learners with a view to making them functional and responsible individuals capable of contributing to the socio-economic, political and religious development of the state (Osugwu & Ogbonnaya, 1997; Okam & Ibrahim, 2011). This is Citizenship or Civic Education. According to Ayeni (2012) the conviction is that citizenship education aims ultimately to enable the individual to make free choices on, for example, moral issues, rather than habituate him to make correct responses without really understanding the reason for his choices. In this respect, civic education is a liberating agent for individual. The mind has to be freed from error of thinking that knowledge is based on superstition and religious dogma which is still a predominant phenomenon in Nigeria society today. It means that raising good, civic-minded

and patriotic citizens requires an educational system that lays emphasis on civic training (Ogundare, 2002)

4 Citizenship Education and Human Liberation

It seems palpable that with many ills in the world today, education has long been touted as a panacea for tackling crime and criminality, socio-political and economic vices (Witte & Tauchen, 1994; Olumade, 2009; Costelloe, 2014). According to Costelloe (2014), recent developments in mainstream education suggest that concepts such as citizenship, inclusion and democracy have become inextricably linked to changes in educational policy and practice across globe. A major discursive shift in world education debate has placed a new emphasis on the democratic and civic outcomes of the education process while introducing the concept of 'social and civic competence' (Hoskins, 2008). This has led to a prioritisation of education for citizenship and the teaching of democracy as mechanisms for the promotion and support of active citizenship (Costelloe, 2014).

According to Ricky (2014), biological/cultural/ethnic/sexual/religious/age differences between human beings are never the cause of oppression or chaos in the world today. The use of these differences to explain either why certain groups of people are oppressed (or) why certain groups of people behave oppressively or why the world is in a state of disorder, functions as a justification of oppression and violence in itself. The renowned Behavioural Psychologist, B. F. Skinner has since 1972, contends that human behaviour is the cause of most of the World's problems: crime, poverty, pollution, war, overpopulation, even health-related problems such as cancer, sexually transmitted diseases, polio, malaria, etc. For instance, the application of the physical and biological science would not solve these problems because the solution lies in another field... Better contraceptives will control population only if people use them. New methods of agriculture and medicine will not help if they are not practiced, and housing is a matter not only of buildings and cities but also of how people live. We need to make vast changes in human behaviour and it is not enough to 'use technology without a deeper understanding or liberation on human issues' or dedicate technology to man's spiritual needs or to encourage technologists to look at human problems, what we need is a technology of behaviour (quoted in Oludeyi, 2013: 15).

Contemporary events and problems in Nigeria and other parts of the world call for human liberation and character education capable of creating a civil society of unity. This can be accomplished by preparing the younger generation (both in and out of schools) with effective citizenship education and training.

Human liberation is possible. It is possible to recover the buried memories of humans' socialization, to share stories and heal the hurts imposed by the conditioning, to act in the present in a humane and caring manner, to rebuild human connections and to change the world (Ricky, 2014). The process is essentially integrated into the curriculum imperatives of civics education; these issues and problems suggest that citizenship education has to be explored and employed to cope and embrace the pedagogical demands and dimensions entailed in seeking to liberate the citizens for civic competence and patriotism.

5 The Liberating Values in Qualitative Citizenship Education

It is expedient to mention that not much emphasis is placed on the teaching of civic values in the Nigeria schools. Instead of producing thinking and objective human beings, the educational system produces many fearful and uncritical citizenry that are also selfish and indifferent to public affairs (Obadan, 2004, cited in Falade, 2008).

Principles of civic education can be instilled in the citizens for liberation and peaceful co-existence. The spirit of patriotism, unity, love and oneness can be installed in the minds of Nigerians and how they can serve as lubricant to the wheel of socio-political and economic progress of the nation through adequate citizenship education. The basic liberating principles that are necessary for embedment in the core value of a qualitative citizenship education are enshrined in the Nigerian constitution. These are stated as follow:

1. Freedom of expression
2. Freedom of press and access to alternative source of information.
3. Freedom of association
4. Equality before the law and due process under the rule of law.
5. Freedom to own, buy and sell properties

Sequel to the above, there are certain values which are considered desirable and which a good citizen must possess. These traits include the development of comradeship and cooperation, as well as togetherness in the learners from their primary schools to tertiary institutions. The school curriculum should incorporate some national core values and tangible learning experience on honesty, sincerity, integrity, personality, accountability and fairness, into the lessons topic for learners. It should also include in the classroom activities, experiences on concern for others, tolerance, respect for authority, rules of law, law and order, and the right of others, respect for life and property, trustworthiness, reliability and dependability, and the benefit of hard work of citizens in the society.

6 Conclusion and Recommendation

Citizenship education means more than the mere teaching of the fact about the society. It is about learning to understand and believe in democratic functions as a living and changing process in the environment. It aims to teach the citizenry some basic functional skills to be able to live a liberated and sustainable life for them to know their civic right and responsibilities and to contribute their quota to build a just, liberal and democratic society. This of course is necessary for peaceful co-existence among the citizens regardless of their religious, ethnic or biological differences. A citizen who is not trained in citizenship education is deficient in role performance, in fact ignorant of himself, of his immediate environment, the government, the state, and of course, of events beyond his state. According to Anumba (2013) retaliatory attitudes of followers, especially the youth, are the contemporary social problems plaguing Nigeria. Prolonged bad leadership by those at the helm of affairs has degenerated into insecurity in the country. The patience of the led appear to have vanished, hence the youths cash on the slightest opportunity to steal, kill, kidnap, bomb, stir up violence, and rob – just to retaliate the wrongs of the leaders. The belligerents, in the form of militants, boko haram or the like, appear to have been provoked to actions and the feeling that it is now their turn to turn the country upside down. Only concrete and effective citizenship education can purge our nation of these social vices. It is therefore safe to conclude that a country that fails to raise its citizens with qualitative citizenship education well instilled in them may be digging its grave and then raise a crop of soldiers who will crush it and bury it.

If the spirit of patriotism, unity, love and oneness can be installed in the minds of Nigerians and if they must serve as lubricant to the wheel of socio-political and economic progress of the nation through adequate citizenship education, the following are put forward as necessary steps that must be taken:

1. Serious emphasis need to be given to citizenship education from primary to post-secondary level of education in the country. The instructors should teach Nigerians how to manifest democratic values that promote team building for effective citizenship. This interpersonal, social interaction through the values of members will lead to shared vision, interdependency, mutual trust, strong commitment to the team, cooperation which increases the level of effort and satisfaction of members in the process of nation building.
2. Parents also should begin to rise up to their traditional duties; a situation where parents have gradually handed over the responsibility of child training to the formal system in schools is uncalled for. Charity begins at home and if parents take up their duties on their wards, it will go a long

way in reducing youth restiveness and resultantly strengthening national peace and security (Oludeyi, 2013). In fact it should be incorporated in our laws that parents of perpetrators of evils, when caught, should also share in the punishment. According to Anumba (2013), perpetrators of these evils should be apprehended along with their parents, their names, and home addresses published in newspapers, and announced over the television and radio for consecutively six months preceding the offence. Parents should partake in the punishment arising from their children or wards' prohibited acts. It will make parents leave up to their responsibilities.

3. Citizens need to discover how to develop themselves by affirmation, visualisation, attitudes talk, positive greetings, enthusiasm and other core value in the civic education.
4. Civic education should be adopted nationally as a corrective measure to the societal disorder in the country. It should be made a compulsory lesson to all ages and all people in the country. This is because the social ills prevalent in Nigeria today cut across all ages both the leaders and the led.
5. To the foregoing more possible, media houses should be made to see citizenship education as compulsory corporate social responsibilities. In the words of Anumba (2013) broadcasting houses should make songs, jingles and slogans in condemnation of the contemporary social ills - suicide bombing, kidnapping, vandalisation, and on the other hand compose same - in praise of our values, aspirations, cultures, beliefs, national symbols and national ethics.
6. Teaching and learning of civic education should cover both formal and informal system of education in Nigeria.

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Status and Performance of University Librarians in Uganda

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Abstract. The thesis of this study is that the status of the university librarian is of significant value to his/ her performance. This study set out to ascertain this significance by investigating the status and performance of librarians in selected universities in Uganda. The findings were that the status of the university librarians in the country is only fairly satisfactory. It was also found that the status of university librarians is a significant predictor of their performance. Therefore, the paper urges university administrators in the country to re-examine the status accorded to their librarians because it is an important ingredient in their performance.

Keywords: Library management; Performance management; Human resources development.

1 Introduction

According to Robbins (1991) status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by a group. Buchanan and Huczynki (1985) define formal status as a collection of rights and obligations associated with a position, as distinct from the person who may occupy it. Robbins (1991) points out that status may be formal or informal. Informal status is one imposed by a group. Formal status goes with high organizational status for example large offices with impressive views, high pay and similar things. Status may also be informally acquired by such characteristics as education, age, gender, skill and experience.

The formal status hierarchy reflects the potential of the holder of a position to contribute to the overall goals of the organization (Buchanan 1985: 312-321). The outward symbols associated with formal status inform other members in the organization where exactly that person stands on 'the ladder'.

In the context of a university, librarians are partners with academic staff in contributing to the scholarly and intellectual functions of universities. They are skilled professionals who play an integral role in the pursuit, dissemination and structuring of knowledge in the university environment. As such the status of the Librarian should be a matter of concern. However, hitherto, the status of university librarians in Uganda and its effect on the performance of their universities has not attracted scholarly attention. To close this gap, this study was conducted to examine the status of librarians in universities in Uganda and to establish the effect of this status on the librarians' performance. It was hypothesized that the status of the librarian significantly affects his/her performance.

2 Related Literature

Although literature on the status of university librarians in Uganda is scanty, there are some other studies that have been made on this subject, especially in foreign contexts. Status is an important factor in understanding human behaviour, because it is a significant motivator and has major consequences when individuals perceive a disparity between what they believe their status to be and what other perceive. While Status congruence refers to a situation where the responsibility of a job that a person had is congruent with his superiority Robbins (1991) emphasized the importance of status equity. He pointed out that when inequity is perceived, disequilibrium is created. He pointed out that, it is important to pay attention to trappings that go with formal positions in order to maintain equity. He stressed that when there is an inequity between the perceived ranking of an individual and the status accoutrements that person is given by an organization, status incongruence is said to exist. Examples of this kind of incongruence are; a more desirable office for a lower ranking individual, a vehicle or fuel refund for a lower ranking individual and not for an officer in a higher office.

The equity theory is concerned with perceptions people have about how they are being treated as compared with others. To be dealt with equitably is to be treated fairly in comparison with another group of people (a reference group) or a relevant other person (Armstrong 1996: 308).

Equity theory states that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and demotivated if they are treated inequitably. A study conducted by Adams (1953) on the US Army Bomber crews revealed that status congruence affected efficiency. The study revealed that low status congruence was found to reduce efficiency of Bomber crews. On the other hand where a moderate degree of congruency existed, the Bomber crews performed better as measured by the number of targets hit during bombing practice. The point there is that

employees expect the rights and obligations individuals have to be congruent with their status.

It has been asserted that participating in management (D'Elia 1979: 283-302,) having the decision making power (Rockman 1985: 45-63) independence on the job D'Elia 1979: 283-302) have a positive impact on the workers status and hence performance. D'Elia (1979: 283-302) pointed that factors related to the job itself such as using talents, creativity, responsibility, recognition have influence on the workers' status.

Armstrong (1996) points out that motivation and commitment are likely to be enhanced if employers feel that they are valued. This means investing in their success, trusting and empowering them, giving them the opportunity to be involved in matters with which they are concerned, keeping them fully in the picture, treating them fully like human beings rather than resources to be exploited in the interest of management and providing them rewards (financial and no-financial) which demonstrate the extent to which they are valued. This suggests the need to trust people and treat them like adults, enthuse them by lively and imaginative leadership, develop and demonstrate an obsession for equity; make them feel they own the business. Together these will help the workforce to respond with total commitment. These studies addressing work – life issues combined with those focused exclusively on organizational outcomes suggest the theoretical and practical value of research on the effect of status on performance.

3 Methodology

Data was collected from a purposive sample of Vice Chancellors, Deputy Vice Chancellors, Academic Registrars, University Secretaries, Deans, Deans of Students, Librarians and University Librarians. A total of 23 university administrators and academics and one respondent from the National Library of Uganda participated in the study. Thirteen (13) of the respondents were male. Data was collected using a 54-item questionnaire augmented by unstructured observation and key informant interviews. The major status indicators on which the respondents' opinions were elicited included level of control, participation in governance and policy making, level participation in decision making; level of participation in human resource planning, development and management; rating of the librarian in relation to other university officers and the importance attached to library staff development. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics and Pearson's correlation-coefficient.

4 Findings and Discussion

The findings on the status and performance of university librarians are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Status and Participation of University Librarian in University Affairs

Variable	Attributes	Mean	SD
Human Resource	The status of the Librarian is satisfactory	3.46	1.103
Management	The Librarian is responsible for interviewing, hiring and dismissing library staff	3.04	1.331
	The Librarian communicates optimum staffing level requirements to the administration	4.08	.929
	The Librarian supervises the work of all library staff	4.46	.884
	The Librarian works for improvements in working conditions, salary scale and benefits	3.88	1.191
	The Librarian supports staff members in professional development	4.17	1.029
	The Librarian is highly regarded by staff	4.25	1.073
	The Librarian is highly regarded by the administration	4.22	.998
Financial Management	The Librarian is a signatory to the library account	4.21	1.215
	The Librarian seeks to improve library service and collections in a fiscal way	4.25	.989
	The Librarian prepares preliminary budget in consultation with staff members	4.04	1.083
	The Librarian purses additional support for the library at local and international level	4.04	1.147
	The role of the Librarian in financial matters is adequate	3.83	.868
Governance and Policy Making	The Librarian recommends, plans and implements library services	4.29	.999
	The Librarian recommends necessary changes in services to keep current with user needs	4.46	.932
	The Librarian provides assists university administration in long and short term planning	4.13	.947
	The Librarian evaluates effectiveness of the library in relation to the user community	4.17	1.049
	The Librarian recommends and administers procurement policies of the library	4.21	1.141
	The librarian prepares regular reports on current progress and future needs	4.21	.977
	The Librarian co-operates with other libraries to make effective use of funds	4.00	.885
	Takes responsibility for collection development and acquisitions including weeding	6.22	10.68
	The Librarian keeps informed of relevant academic and technological developments	4.17	1.007
The Librarian attends meetings that are relevant to the effective functioning of the library	4.37	.970	

	The Librarian is a key policy maker in a university library	4.39	.941
	The Librarian knows national, regional and international laws that affect libraries	3.67	1.204
	The Librarian initiates and supports beneficial library registration	3.79	1.062
	The Librarian negotiates contracts for library services, materials and equipment	3.54	1.179
	Provide input into architectural planning of library facilities	3.96	.908
	The Librarian responds to customer complaints, taking action as necessary	3.96	1.083
rating the library and Librarian	The library is rated higher than faculty	3.17	1.239
	The library is rated lower than the Catering Department	2.17	1.497
	The library is rated lower than the Estates Department	2.04	1.430
	The library is rated lower than the Academic Registrar's Department	3.18	1.296
	The library is rated lower than the Bursar's Department	2.92	1.349
	The library is rated lower than the Research Unit	2.04	1.430
	The rating of the library is satisfactory	3.29	1.398
	The Librarian is rated lower than Dean of Students	2.57	1.409
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Head of Department	1.92	1.316
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Academic Dean	2.75	1.225
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Catering Officer	1.50	.885
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Estates Officer	1.35	.647
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Academic Registrar	3.00	1.279
	The Librarian is rated lower than the Bursar	2.58	1.283
	The Librarian is rated lower than the lecturer	1.87	1.290
	The rating of the library is satisfactory	3.46	1.285
Librarian's Participation and Status	The Librarian is an officer of the university	4.52	.994
	The Librarian is a member of Senate	4.62	.875
	The Librarian is a member of Council	3.63	1.345
	The Librarian is the secretary to the Library Committee	3.54	1.587
	The Librarian is entitled to a vehicle	4.04	1.398
	The Librarian is entitled to a driver	3.87	1.454

In Table 1, the responses indicate the perception of satisfaction with financial management issues involving the library (mean > 4). However, observation gave a contrary view. For example, there are indications that although librarians are signatories to the library accounts, they are constrained in that their budget requests are not given priority. Often the funds released to them do not measure to the magnitude of the needs. In case of any financial crisis, library funds are easily diverted.

The opinion on the thirteen items indicates the perception that the Librarian was/is a policy maker in the university library. The opinion on only three of the items indicated. The observations and personal interview reveal that Librarians are playing a central role in the planning, development, control and management of libraries in their respective institutions, with limited interference from the top administrators.

The findings show that the respondents did not perceive the library to be rated lower than the rest of the departments in the universities. Responses are evenly distributed among those whose opinions were between neutral and disagree and those whose opinions were between neutral and agree.

The responses show that the perception that the Librarian is lower in ranking than the Bursar, Academic Registrar (but higher than the Catering Officer). This position is misleading: the University and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001) designates the university librarian as an officer of the university at the same level as the Academic Registrar, University Secretary and Dean of Students and that he/she is responsible to the Vice Chancellor. Since the mean scores in Table 1 were computed on a five point Likert scale, the results suggest that the Librarian's status is well recognized. However, most respondents were rather uncertain (Mean score = 3.46). This implies that more needs to be done as far as the status of the Librarian is concerned.

Observations and interviews reveal adherence to this regulation among public university but not so for some private universities. The implication here is that the Librarian may not have direct access to the Vice Chancellor. In institutions where the Librarian tries to access the Vice Chancellor directly, this attempt is misunderstood and, at times, it causes conflict.

University Librarians should adopt an academic form of governance that is similar in manner and structure to other faculties. Salaries and fringe benefits should be comparable to those paid to faculty of equivalent rank. The university should recognize the importance of Librarian's continuing development within the academic community and acknowledge that such activities bring benefits to and enhance the reputation of the university, the profession and the individual Librarian. The findings on the librarians' performance are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Performance of University Librarians

Attributes of Performance	Mean	SD
Hiring and dismissing library staff in line with your human resource policy	3.04	1.33
Communicating optimum staffing level requirements to the Administration	4.08	.92
Supervising all library staff	4.46	.88
Initiating improvements in working conditions of the lib staff	3.88	1.19
Identifying and supporting staff in their professional development	4.17	1.02
Librarian handles library financial matters	4.21	1.21
Mobilizes support for the library at local and international level	4.04	1.14
Carries out strategic planning for the library and implements them	4.29	.99
Updates and upgrades library services	4.46	.93
Evaluates effectiveness of the library in relation to the user community	4.17	1.04
Carries out procurement function of the library	4.21	1.14
Prepares regular reports on current progress and future needs	4.21	.97
Cooperates with other libraries to make effective use of funds and develop services	4	.88
Directs the collection development and acquisitions including weeding	6.22	10.68
Monitors academic and technological developments related to library work	4.17	1
Attends meetings and workshops, local and international	4.37	.97
The Librarian is a key policy maker in a university library	4.39	.94
Keeps abreast of national, regional and international laws that affect libraries	3.67	1.2
Initiates and supports beneficial library registration	3.79	1.06
Provide input into architectural planning of library facilities	3.96	.9
The Librarian responds to customer complaints, taking action as necessary	3.96	1.08

The performance of the Librarian was examined using the above listed items. Several issues were revealed. First it can be noted from Table 2 that a Librarian has a great amount of responsibility. Second, most of the activities in the library rotates around the Librarian. Thirdly, the work of the Librarian take different forms like planning, public relations, problem solving, networking, and carrying out the technical work. It is only in the area of human resource management that respondents were not firm on a Librarian’s role. This is so because in most universities, human resource issues are handled directly by a University Secretary or any other officer in charge of administration.

The contribution of status to the performance of a Librarian to her performance in the institution was considered by first of all carrying out Pearson’s Bivariate Correlation. This test yielded the results as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Pearson Correlation Coefficient for Relationship between the Status and Performance of Librarian

Status of Librarian		Performance
	Pearson Correlation	.673
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
	N	21

Table 3 shows that there was a significant positive relationship between the status and performance of the Librarian [$r = .673, P < 0.01$]. The inference here is that the higher the status the Librarian is accorded the better the librarian’s performance. Simple regression analysis of these findings showed that the status of a librarian was a good contributor to the performance of the Librarian [$Beta = .673, t=3.966, P < 0.01$]. The Adj. R^2 was .424 which meant that status contributed 42% to the Librarian’s performance in the institution. Therefore university administrators should ensure that policies which are supportive of the university librarian’s status are backed up by supportive frameworks in which librarians can carry out their duties.

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