Makerere Journal of Higher Education

Aims and Scope

Description: Biannually, the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development, Makerere University College of Education, produces *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* (MAJOHE) (ISSN: 1816-6822). The goal of the Journal is to provide a visible outlet for definitive articles that discuss the theory, practice and policies relating to the role, development, management and improvement of higher education from an international viewpoint. Therefore, the editor invites contributions that link relevant theory and research evidence to the policy and practice of higher education. Though a highly diverse range of contributions will be considered, the Journal gives special preference to conceptual and empirical writing that is relevant to the understanding, promotion and constructive criticism of the reform agenda in African higher education institutions and national systems and integrates pertinent international developments, debates and challenges. This is because the Journal's management board acknowledges that the questions, issues, theories and policies pertaining to the development of contemporary higher education institutions and systems require in-depth study and comparison at an international level. Preference is also given to contributions that discuss new initiatives at regional and continental levels (including the work of national and multilateral higher education organisations and associations). The Journal's editorial policy prefers submissions that synthesize the significance of different higher education policy alternatives and geographical experiences in explaining the phenomenon at hand. On top of rigorous examination of the 'local dimension' of the issues that they expound, therefore, contributions mirror conversance with relevant international perspectives and experiences, thereby situating the debate in a broad discourse that facilitates holistic understanding of the issues at hand. Edited from Makerere University, Uganda, the Journal draws on the expertise of a diverse editorial board, as well as a wide range of reviewers in and beyond Africa. The Journal is committed to the publication of both experienced and early career researchers so its editorial policy puts overriding attention on helping contributors to reach the level of quality that is deemed fit for publication through ensuring relevant, fair and penetrating reviews as well as timely relay of feedback to contributors.

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Editorial

All over the world, higher education institutions (HEIs) and systems are in a state of flux. In Africa, as in many other parts of the less developed world, this flux has presented several dilemmas. Undoubtedly, scholars, policy makers and practitioners have made significant efforts to resolve these dilemmas. The effectiveness of their efforts has been the subject of extensive examination. A key conclusion arising out of this examination is that the institutions and systems have to deal with *both* 'traditional' and emerging problems, despite the contribution of the reforms that they have implemented over the last three decades. Experience has affirmed that there is no easy way to quality higher education. To respond to the challenges facing their higher education institutions and systems in a meaningful way, scholars, policy makers and practitioners need to share with each other—to link theory, policy and practice; replicate good practices; and avoid pitfalls. Pursuant to the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development's goal of promoting the development of higher education in Africa, *MAJOHE* aims at promoting this sharing—through providing a visible outlet for definitive scholarship on the theory, practice and policies relating to the role, development, management and improvement of higher education from an international viewpoint.

In this issue, Naikote and Bakkabulindi delve into the relationship between each of work environment and perception of institutional policies and lecturers' productivity in Uganda Christian University. Noting a theoretical relationship between these variables, the authors scrutinised the experience of Uganda Christian University. They report that only the correlation between the lecturers' perception of the University's policies and their productivity was significant, which appears to underscore the *peculiarity* of universities. Thus, the authors argue, the University should pay attention to *other* determinants of productivity some of which are identified. Quite interestingly, taking the case of the University of Port Harcourt and Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Olele and Clara write in concurrence with Naikote and Bakkabulindi's recommendations. Using results of a survey of *fresh* faculty, the former conclude that faculty would like to be mentored in various domains of knowledge and practice. However, the universities are not providing them with sufficient support in this regard, to the detriment of their productivity.

Kiggundu reports the findings of a study that investigated the relationship between students' multiple intelligence (MI) and academic performance.

Starting with examination of views that are traditionally held about intelligence as a predictor of students' performance, her paper attempts to extend the discussion on intelligence and performance by focusing on MI. She reports that there is no significant relationship between MI and students' academic performance. Accordingly, the study lends credence to the traditional conceptualization of intelligence.

Taking the case of Rivers State University, Dimkpa discusses the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption. Academic corruption, according to this study, does not only involve students but also their sponsors, lecturers and administrators. It is noted that involvement in corrupt practices is a maladaptive strategy of gaining admission to higher education and progressing through highly demanding study programmes. In lieu of developing and adhering to productive study habits, students resort to various forms of corruption. Thus, the study links corruption to the decline in the quality of higher education and increasing graduate unemployment. Bada reports the findings of a study that surveyed students' views on plagiarism, one of the forms of academic corruption. Rather than criticize the practice, as is mostly the case in the literature, the author attempted to account for it—to build a framework within whose conceptual orientation practicable panaceas for overcoming the problem may be conceived.

Fayokun situates the incidence of *cultism*, a daunting problem in Nigerian HEIs, in the broader area of higher education student activism. Starting with examination of commonly known forms of student activism, the study contrasts the cults in Nigeria's HEIs with *traditional* student activist organizations. It notes that the cults are not only unlike traditional student activist organizations but present serious threats for the wellbeing of their members, institutions and society. Fayokun's work goes beyond the rhetoric to trace the origins and development of student cults, to explain why and how they attract and maintain their membership. This is with the conclusion that the cultism is due to social, economic, educational and political needs and grievances. Thus, it is argued that, to be effective, efforts to control cultism must focus on resolution of these needs and grievances.

Taking the case of Uganda, Kasenene examines some of the challenges HEIs in Africa are facing in the internationalisation of their outlook and programs. He concludes that while the institutions critically need to internationalise, funding and staffing gaps coupled with pedagogical and administrative rigidity are constraining their efforts to do so. Thus, recommendations towards improving their funding, delivery and offshore collaborations are made.

Duze's paper reports the findings of a study that investigated three aspects of the link between education research and practice, namely, awareness about research findings; availability of these findings to policy makers and implementers; and utilisation of the findings. Implicitly, Duze questions the presumption that once generated, research evidence is accessible and put to good use. She reports that while many researchers were aware of evidence emerging from their fellow researchers and used this evidence in their own research, this evidence was not as readily available to policy makers and implementers, which points to inadequacies in researchers' and institutions' dissemination of their research findings beyond their immediate fraternity.

Rotimi and Sanusi write on the formation and development of the African Council for Distance Education (ACDE), a continental body that seeks to promote quality assurance in open and distance learning (ODL) in Africa. They explain that, at a time ODL is expanding rapidly and presenting a practicable way out of the constraints associated with the conventional modes of higher education delivery, the organisation is necessitated to facilitate the development, harmonisation and adoption of standards of good practice in ODL. Thereafter, they discuss the role the council is playing in fostering establishment of a quality assurance and accreditation agency as well as the challenges being experienced in implementing the project.

Finally, taking the case of Makerere University Business School (MUBS), Musiime examines the relationship between the case method and students' performance. His study concludes that there is a positive relationship between application of the method and students' performance because the method exposes students to 'wrapped-around' and holistic learning that enables them to compare concepts; relate these concepts to other subjects and experiences; and to generate questions that lead to further inquiry. Ironically, albeit unsurprisingly, the study adds, lecturers at MUBS prefer the conventional lecture method. Thus, recommendations towards promotion of the case method are made.

Editor

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Work Environment and Perception of Institutional Policies as Correlates of Lecturers' Productivity in Uganda Christian University

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Abstract. This study sought to establish the relationship between each of work environment and perception of institutional policies and lecturers' productivity in Uganda Christian University. It involved 94 lecturers who responded to a self administered questionnaire. Data analysis was based on percents and means at the descriptive level while Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to correlate the independent variables with productivity. The results revealed that there was no significant relationship between work environment and the productivity of lecturers, hence the recommendation that other than work environment, the University should prioritize factors such as qualification, experience, remuneration and training. The results revealed that there was a significant positive relationship between perception of institutional policies and productivity, hence the recommendation that the University embraces favourable policies that balance institutional and individual needs.

Keywords: Job performance; Job related factors; Uganda Christian University

1 Introduction

Productivity of lecturers is a key factor for the success of any university. Universities with productive lecturers compete favourably in achieving their set goals. Competition demands that universities have to offer best quality services by fully utilizing talents of the available lecturers. A university with productive lecturers is likely to embrace effective teaching, research and community service. Thus studies geared towards isolating factors positively relating with productivity of lecturers are important. According to Systems Theory (von Bertallanffy cited in Mullins, 2002), any product or outcome of interest is a result of several components working together. Basing on Systems Theory, in this study it was proposed that productivity of lecturers is a result of interplay of several factors among which are work environment and perception of institutional policies. The purpose of this study was to establish the validity of the above thesis. The specific objectives of the study were to find out the relationship between each of work environment and perception of institutional policies and productivity of lecturers.

2 Related Literature

2.1 Work Environment and Productivity of Staff

Work environment is defined as the place in which people work including all the physical conditions (Macmillan, 2002). For this study, work environment was looked at in terms of availability of lighting facilities, telephone facilities, lecture rooms and offices. Handy (1997) theorizes that output increases as a result of provision of conducive work environment. Elton Mayo, in his Hawthorn experiment on the effect of working conditions of employees, established the importance of lighting on productivity of workers. According to Mayo, necessary conditions for maintaining quality performance from employees are to provide them with adequate needs including lighting, good working relationship and instilling confidence in workers. This study assumed that if lecturers were provided with a conducive environment such as lighting and communication facilities, space, library facilities and reading materials and good relationship with co workers, productivity of lecturers is likely to be high. Several studies have been carried out in an attempt to relate work environment with staff productivity. For instance, Okumbe (1992)'s study in Kenya established that work environment provides personal comfort and facilitates efficiency at work among graduate teachers in secondary schools in Siaga District and Kisumu Town. Ryan and Hurley (2007) in a research conducted in New Zealand and Ireland revealed that organizational environment leads to quality research performance. Srivastava (2008) in China established that employees who perceived their work environment to be adequate and favourable performed better.

2.2 Perception of Institutional Policies and Productivity of Staff

An institutional policy can be defined as a plan of action to be taken by an institution (Macmillan, 2002). Basing on the above definition, perception of institutional policies refers to the attitude a member of staff holds towards the institutional set policies. For this study, perception of institutional policies included lecturers' perception of compensation, promotion, supervision and opportunity for advancement. Mullins (2002) stresses the importance of clear and flexible rules and regulations which apply to all and suitable for real life situation, friendly terms and conditions of service contribute to increased productivity of workers. They point out that managers would reduce discontentment among their workers if the institutional policies were perceived by workers as being reasonable, fair and applied to all. Ivancevich (1997) observes that if workers are not satisfied with the company's policies, they get involved in behaviours which disrupt team spirit and productivity of other employees. Studies relating perception of institutional policies and productivity of staff exist. For example Tizikara (1998)'s study on job satisfaction and management styles in selected tertiary institutions in Uganda revealed that low emoluments have a negative effect on staff productivity. Basekanakyo (2006)'s study revealed that bureaucratic policy in Busoga University negatively affected productivity of staff. Barasa (2004)'s study revealed that the colonial housing policy de-motivated academic staff to perform at Makerere University.

2.3 Hypotheses

This research sought to test the validity of the following hypotheses:

1. Work environment is positively related to productivity.
2. Perception of institutional policies is positively related to productivity.

3 Methodology

Using a quantitative approach, and correlational design, data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire with constructs on the independent variables, namely work environment and perception of institutional policies. The questionnaire had constructs on the dependent variable, namely teaching, research and community service. Table 1 gives the numbers of items per construct, and the corresponding measure of reliability.

Table 1: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the Instrument

Variable	Construct	Number of items	Alpha
Independent Variables	Work environment	5	0.662
	Perception of institutional policies	4	0.762
Dependent Variable	Teaching	5	0.843
	Research	5	0.770
	Community service	4	0.730

According to Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1971) the instrument was reliable since all coefficients were above 0.5. Using the questionnaire, data were collected from a sample of 94 randomly selected academic staff from all schools/ faculties/ institutes as illustrated in Table 2:

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Unit

Unit	Number	Number in sample	Sample as % of population
Education & Arts	48	18	37.5
Social Sciences	43	23	53.5
Business & Administration	62	32	51.6
Law	39	15	38.5
Science & Technology	40	02	05.0
Divinity & Theology	22	02	09.1
Honours College	00*	00*	00.0*
Global South Institute	09	02	22.2
Total	263	94	60.65

** Honours College relies on lecturers from other schools/ faculties/ institutes*

Data analysis was based on percents and means at descriptive level, while Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to correlate the respective concepts of job satisfaction with productivity.

4 Findings

4.1 Background of Respondents

According to faculty, Faculty of Business and Administration dominated the sample by contributing 34% of the respondents which suggested that this Faculty has a bigger number of lecturers in the University. It was followed by the Faculty of Social Science with 24.5%, Faculty of Education and Arts with 19.1%, Faculty of Law with 16.1%. Faculty of Science and Technology (2.1%), Bishop Tucker School of Divinity and Theology (2.1%) and Global South Institute (2.1%). Honours College was not represented at all, as it does not have own staff. In terms of gender, males were the majority (63%) in the sample while the female contributed only 37%, suggesting that majority of lecturers in Uganda Christian University, Mukono are males. Respondents had a mean age of 31.89 with a confidence interval of 30.6 to 33.19 at 95% level and a median age of 29, suggesting that these respondents were mature enough to lecture. Regarding tenure, the category of respondents who had taught for "less than five years" dominated the sample contributing to almost 68.5%, which suggested that majority of lecturers have just joined the University, followed by the category that had taught "between five years but below 10 years" contributing 28.3% and only 3.3% had taught for "over 10 years".

With regard to highest academic qualification, Masters holders dominated the sample contributing to over 51.1% of the respondents, followed by those with Bachelor's degrees (43.5%), postgraduate diploma (4.3%) and only 1.1% had a doctorate degree. The sizeable number of Bachelors degree holders (43.5%) suggested that the University still has a challenge of upgrading its staff, since the minimum requirement for teaching in a university, according to the National Council for Higher Education is a Masters. In terms of academic rank, lecturers dominated the sample contributing 47.9%, followed by assistant lecturers (42.6%). Senior lecturers and "associate professor and above" were least represented contributing only 6.4% and 3.2% respectively. This suggested that the academic staffs of the University are "bottom-heavy", meaning that bottom ranks are full while top ones are empty. On the question of administrative responsibility, as expected, majority (73.4 %) of the respondents had no administrative responsibility, followed by the responsibility of research coordinator (14.9%), head of department (9.6%) and very few deans (2.1%).

4.2 Productivity of Lecturers

The dependent variable, productivity of lecturers was conceptualized as teaching, research and community service.

4.2.1 Teaching

Teaching in the study was conceptualized using five quantitative items, responses to each of which was Likert scaled ranging from one which represented very rarely, two represented rarely, three represented neither rarely nor regularly, four represented regularly and five represented very regularly. Resulting frequency counts and means are as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics on Teaching

Indicator	Very rarely	Rarely	Neither rarely nor regularly	Regularly	Very regularly	Mean	Remark
Lesson preparation	1 (1.1%)	1 (1.1%)	0 (0%)	45 (47%)	47 (50%)	4.45	Good
Content delivery	1 (1.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)	31 (33%)	61 (64.9%)	4.61	Very Good
Course coverage	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)	6 (6.4%)	24 (25%)	63 (67%)	4.59	Very Good
Evaluation	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)	4 (4.3%)	50 (53%)	38 (40.4%)	4.32	Good
Record keeping	0 (00%)	1 (1.1%)	10 (10.6%)	30 (31%)	53 (56.4%)	4.44	Good

On all items in Table 3, the cumulative percentage of "regularly" and "very regularly" greatly outnumbered the corresponding cumulative percentages of "very rarely" and "rarely". In other words, on all items respondents rated themselves as at least "good" on their execution of their role of teaching. This is supported by means which are all above "4" which on the rating scale used corresponds to "good" or "very good", as indeed the overall index ("Teach" on all items in Table 3), which had a mean of 4.48, and a 95% confidence estimate of 4.37 to 4.59.

4.2.2 Research

Research in the study was conceptualized using five items, responses to each of which were based on a Likert scale ranging from one which represented very rarely, two represented rarely, three represented neither rarely nor regularly, four represented regularly and five represented very regularly. Table 4 gives pertinent frequency counts and means.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics on Research

Indicator	Very rarely	Rarely	Neither rarely nor regularly	Regularly	Very regularly	Mean	Remark
Carry out research	1 (1.1%)	7 (7.5%)	7 (7.5%)	52 (55%)	26 (28%)	4.02	Good
Supervise research	4 (4%)	4 (4.5%)	20 (22.5%)	43 (48%)	18 (20%)	3.72	Good
Write books	21 (24%)	31 (35.6%)	23 (26.4%)	8 (9%)	4 (4.6%)	2.34	Poor
Conference presentation	4 (4%)	21 (22.6%)	24 (25.8%)	35 (37%)	9 (9.7%)	3.26	Fair
Write journal articles	17 (18%)	33 (35.5%)	26 (28%)	10 (10%)	7 (7.5%)	2.54	Fair

Except for the first and second items, where the scores were "good", Table 4 reveals that respondents were not "good" at executing the research function. Means tell the same story, as indeed the overall index ("Res" from all items in Table 4) which had a mean 3.17, with a confidence interval of 3.01 and 3.34 at the 95% confidence level.

4.2.3 Community Service

Community services were conceptualized using four items. Responses to the quantitative items were based on a Likert scale ranging from one which represented very rarely, two represented rarely, three represented neither rarely nor regularly, four represented regularly and five represented very regularly. Resulting frequency counts and means are as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics on Community Service

Indicator	Very rarely	Rarely	Neither rarely nor regularly	Regularly	Very regularly	Mean	Remark
Advocacy	0 (0%)	5 (5.4%)	13 (14.1%)	48 (52%)	26 (28%)	4.03	Good
Leadership	5 (5.4%)	5 (5.4%)	17 (18.3%)	49 (52%)	17 (18%)	3.73	Good
Consultation	3 (3.3%)	9 (9.8%)	29 (31.5%)	34 (37%)	17 (18%)	3.58	Good
Participation in community projects	2 (2.2%)	7 (7.5%)	28 (30.1%)	33 (35%)	23 (24%)	3.73	Good

On all items in Table 5, the cumulative percentage of "regularly" and "very regularly" greatly outnumbered the corresponding cumulative percentages of "very rarely" and "rarely". In other words, on all items respondents rated themselves as "good" on their execution of the community service role. This is supported by means which were all about "4" which on the rating scale used corresponded to "good". Indeed the overall index ("Cserv") on all items in Table 5 had a mean of 3.76, and a 95% confidence estimate of 3.61 to 3.91, which corresponded to "good". An overall average index ("Lproduct" on labour productivity), was computed from the three tables (Tables 3, 4 and 5) had a mean = 3.8 with a confidence interval between 3.70 to 3.90 at the 95% confidence level which suggested a relatively high productivity.

4.3 Testing Hypotheses

4.3.1 Hypothesis One

Hypothesis One postulated that "work environment was positively related to productivity". Work environment was conceptualized using five quantitative items, responses to each of which were based on a Likert scale ranging from one which represented strongly disagree, two represented disagree, three represented neither disagree nor agree, four represent agree and five represented strongly agree. Except for the second item, where the score was only "fair", Table 6 reveals that respondents rated their work environment as "good". Means tell the same story. The overall index ("Env" from all items in Table 6) had a mean 3.6, with a confidence interval of 3.47 and 3.74 at the 95% confidence level, which also suggested a "good" environment. Pearson's linear correlation of the two indices ("Envt" from Table 6 and "Lproduct" from Tables 3, 4 and 5) turned out to be $r = 0.154$, $p = 0.182$ which suggested a positive ($r > 0$) but insignificant ($p > 0.05$) correlation at the five percent level, suggesting that productivity of lecturers was not significantly correlated to work environment.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics on Work Environment

Indicator	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Remark
University provides me with adequate lighting facilities	5 (5.3%)	7 (7.4%)	32 (34%)	22 (23%)	28 (29%)	3.65	Good
University provides me with adequate telephone facilities	14 (15%)	13(14%)	40 (43%)	16 (17%)	10 (10%)	2.95	Fair
University provides me with enough space to meet my students	1 (1%)	3 (3.2%)	12 (12%)	61 (64%)	17 (18%)	3.96	Good
University provides me with enough space to keep my academic resources	3 (3.2%)	5 (5.3%)	9 (9.6%)	64 (68%)	13 (13%)	3.84	Good
University provides me with enough space for my private reading	5 (5.3%)	9 (9.6%)	17 (18%)	48 (51%)	15 (16%)	3.63	Good

Note: *SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neither disagree nor agree; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree*

4.3.2 Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis Two posited that "perception of institutional policies was positively related to productivity of lecturers". Perception of institutional policies was conceptualized using four quantitative items, responses to each of which were based on a Likert scale ranging from one which represented strongly disagree, two represented disagree, three represented neither disagree nor agree, four represented agree and five represented strongly agree. Table 7 gives pertinent counts and means.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics on Perception of Institutional Policies

Indicator	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Remark
Compensation university gives me is adequate.	2 (2.1%)	16 (17%)	34 (36.2%)	38 (40.4%)	4 (4.3%)	3.28	Fair
Accessing promotion in my department is easy	9 (9.7%)	19(20.4%)	43 (46.2%)	16 (17.2%)	6 (6.5%)	2.90	Fair
Supervision in my department is supportive	3 (3.2%)	1 (1.1%)	15 (16.1%)	56 (60.2%)	18 (19%)	3.91	Good
I am given opportunities for development	6 (6.4%)	4 (4.3%)	12 (12.8%)	51 (54.3%)	21 (22%)	3.82	Good

Note: *SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; N = Neither disagree nor agree; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree*

For the first two items in Table 7, the scores were only "fair", while for the latter two items in Table 7, the scores were "good". Means tell the same story. The overall index ("Policies" from all items in Table 7) had a mean 3.48, with a confidence interval of 3.33 and 3.63 at the 95% confidence level, which also suggested that perceptions of policies ranged from "fair" to "good". Pearson's linear correlation of the two indices ("Policies" and "Lproduct" from Tables 3, 4 and 5) turned out to be $r = 0.306$, $p = 0.002$, which suggested a positive ($r > 0$) and significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation between lecturers' perception of institutional policies and productivity at the one percent level.

5 Discussion

5.1 Work Environment and Productivity of Lecturers

Hypothesis One postulated that "work environment was positively related to productivity of lecturers". Pearson's correlation coefficient revealed that the relationship was not significant at the five percent significance level. This finding contrasted those by Okumbe (1992)'s study on the level of job satisfaction among graduate teachers in secondary schools in Siaya and Kisumu towns which established that work environment provides personal comfort and facilitates efficiency at work. It was also in disagreement with Ryan and Hurley (2007)'s study on empirical examination of the relationship between scientists' work environment and research performance in Massey University and Dublin city University Business School who found out that organizational environment leads to quality research performance. The finding also differed from Srivastava (2008)'s study on effects of perceived work environment on employees job behaviour and organizational effectiveness in China that revealed that employees who perceived their work environment to be adequate and favourable performed better. The study finding in the meantime however, led to the conclusion that productivity of lecturers is not positively related to work environment in Uganda Christian University, Mukono.

5.2 Perception of Institutional Policies and Productivity of Lecturers

Hypothesis Two stated that "perception of institutional policies is positively related to productivity of lecturers". Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that the relationship was significant at one percent level. The finding is supported by different researchers such as Tizikara (1998) in a study on job satisfaction and management styles in selected tertiary institutions in Uganda, who established that low emoluments has a negative impact on staff productivity. The study also agrees with Basekanakyo (2006)'s study on relationship between bureaucracy and staff productivity in institutions of high learning in Busoga University that revealed that bureaucratic policies do not bring about productivity of staff. Barasa (2004)'s study on investigation into the academic staff housing policy and its effects on job performance of lecturers at Makerere University that established a significant positive correlation between institutions' conditions of service and academic staff performance. Basing on the study finding, it was concluded that perception of institutional policies was highly positively related to productivity of lecturers in Uganda Christian University, Mukono.

6 Conclusion

The study revealed that there was no significant relationship between work environment and productivity of lecturers, hence the recommendation that other than work environment, the University should prioritize other factors such as qualification, experience remuneration and training that affect productivity of lecturers. The results revealed that there was a high positive significant relationship between perception of institutional policies and productivity of lecturers, hence the recommendation that the University should embrace favourable and flexible institutional policies that balance institutional needs and individual needs to enhance productivity of lecturers.

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Professional Skills Acquisition and Human Capital Development: Implications for Higher Education Institutions

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Abstract. This study delved into University of Port Harcourt (UPH) and Rivers State University of Science and Technology (RSUST) lecturers' approaches to professional development. Lecturers in the faculties of education in the universities constituted the target population from which a random sample of 120 respondents was selected. Data were collected using a questionnaire and analyzed using percentages, means and standard deviations. The findings were that new entrants into the teaching profession were not exposed to comprehensive induction programmes; the strategies used for professional development were limited; and new entrants into teaching were disposed towards mentoring. It was also found that new entrants into the teaching profession would prefer to be mentored in all the domains of knowledge management. Grounded on these findings, the study suggests ways of improving the acquisition of professional skills among lecturers in the universities.

Keywords: Career mentoring; Induction; Professional development

1 Introduction

Training is a learning process of knowledge acquisition, sharpening of attitudes and skills that result from the teaching of practical skills and knowledge which relate to specific useful competencies and rules. There is no doubt that training primarily focuses on helping teachers acquire the knowledge and skills they need to develop as effective performers. Development focuses on building the knowledge and skills and takes the form of learning activities that prepare people to take on new responsibilities and challenges (Jones & George, 2003; Armstrong, 2009). However, before creating training or development programs in a work environment, there should be a thorough needs assessment to determine who needs training or development and what type of skills or knowledge they need to acquire (Lee & Owens, 2004)

Although both classroom instructions and on-the-job training can be used for development processes as well as training, development often includes additional activities such as varied work experiences and formal education. Varied work experiences such as secondment and short sabbaticals are most powerful sources of career development as they tend to broaden teachers' horizons and help them think more about globalization, with which they will develop understanding of human values, global issues/problems, cultures, and ways of teaching in different countries (Pollard, Anderson, Maddock, Swaffield, Warin & Warwick, 2008).

Professional development begins with initial teacher training, followed by induction to introduce new entrants to new jobs and institutions (Robbins & Coulter, 2005). Ornstein & Levine (2006) refer to this as mediated entry, which is the practice of inducting through carefully supervised stages that help the new entrants learn how to successfully apply professional knowledge in work environments.

Dan-Lortie (1975) cited in Ornstein & Levina (2006) reports lack of carefully mediated entry into the teaching profession. According to them, teachers report learning to teach through trial and error and experiences in the classroom after the initial training; and as such, do not have smooth outside-inside transition. Bluen & Nayler (2004) argue that experiences depending solely on trial and error cannot result into competence. Experiences and training are not incompatible as methods of learning; in proper proportion, the two can lead to the highest efficiency and maximum achievement in the shortest time.

Sadker & Sadker (2003) suggest that the best professional development program in education should connect directly to teachers work in relation with students. To Sadker & Sadker (2003) and Obanya (2007), collaborative action research connects daily teaching activities with professional growth. This is done as practicing teachers identify real classroom problems, then research on the problems and use the information generated to improve the quality of teaching/learning.

For teachers in higher education institutions, coaching, mentoring, secondment, peer observation and short sabbaticals, are powerful sources of learning on-the-job. These processes of staff development are based on pragmatic advice, guidance, mutual respect, and follow-up discussions. They provide opportunities for individual teachers to pursue personal areas of interest within the context of the work environment (Pollard, Anderson, Maddock, Swaffield, Warin & Warwick, 2008).

An important conduit for institutional staff development is mentoring and coaching. Mentoring, as defined by Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy (2006) is a personal relationship, in which a more experienced person acts as a guide, role model and sponsor to a protégé. Mentors prepare individuals to perform better in the future and groom them for higher and greater positions. Although mentoring has a strong development component, it is not the same as cognitive apprenticeship or coaching. Dennen & Burner (2009); Armstrong (2009) and Miller (2002) distinguished between coaching and mentoring. Coaching is a personal on-the-job approach to help people develop their levels of competence. It is more directive while mentoring is a non- directive relationship. Mentoring is also more broadly focused on the protégé.

Concepts derived from two theoretical perspectives inspired this present paper. The first is the Social Constructivist Theory of Vygotsky (1968). The second is the Situated Learning theory of Lave & Wenger (1991). Vygotsky stressed the importance of culture and social context in learning. His main contribution to our understanding of learning is his concept of the zone of proximal development which refers to the gap between what individuals can do alone and unaided and what can be achieved with the help of more knowledgeable others. Coaching and mentoring fall within this category, as they depend on others that are more knowledgeable.

Building on the foundation provided by Vygotsky, the proponents of Situated Learning argue that to be useful, knowledge must be situated in an authentic task and setting (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Knowledge, according to Lave & Wenger (1991) is to a great extent the product of the situation, culture and activity. This implies that the mentoring and coaching environment are situated and constructed.

According to Armstrong (2009), a formal mentoring programme occurs when an institution assigns a relatively inexperienced but highly promising employee to one of the top executives in the establishment. Menttium (2004) posits that in many cases, organization implement formal mentoring programmes to accelerate the development of minorities. Miller (2002) also lists some attributes of good mentors which (coincidentally) are the key components of emotional intelligence. Effective mentoring is more than providing work-related support; emotional bonds between a mentor and a protégé can enable the protégé express fears, concerns, and sometimes even reluctance to follow advice.

Clutterbuck (1998) identifies behaviours that mentors should use and those that they should not use. He recommends that mentors should sometimes use coaching; be role models, and be sponsors, but that they should never discipline, condemn, formally appraise, assess for a third party and supervise the mentee. Lave & Wenger (1991) studied learning in five traditional and non-traditional apprenticeship settings in Mexico, Liberia and the United States. The study showed how work setting learning occurred with ‘communities of practice’. Apprentices moved from peripheral observers in the work place as newcomers to the central role over time as they perfected their learning and finally become experts and succeeded the craft people from whom they had learnt.

Billet (2000) studied the learning process of mentees in a formal workplace for over six month period. This prolonged engagement allowed him to identify learning sources and strategies that were influential on the mentees' development. The mentees were trained in a workplace that guided their learning strategies and Billet suggests that the different strategies kept the learners actively engaged.

Young & Perrewe (2000) look at career and social support factors in relationship to mentoring. They found that mentors' expectations generally were not met when protégés were involved in career support behaviour. Conversely, mentees tended to measure the success of their mentoring relationship in terms of the amount of social support they received. It was hypothesized that the difference in perception was due to the mentors' established status, which may have them focused on successes directly related to the mentoring goal, while novice protégés may not yet be able to predict the impact of particular career related behaviour, but will look for encouragement and friendship as indicators that they are performing as expected.

In sum, Dennen and Burner (2009: 427) posit that "current educational systems, particularly universities have been criticized for separating learning from practice, resulting in an education that does not sufficiently prepare students for job performance". This implies that these systems lack situated learning experiences for authentic practice in real context; which creates gaps that coaching and mentoring can fill. Therefore, this study was undertaken to find out whether new adult entrants into teaching at University level in Port Harcourt metropolis were inducted into their jobs; to identify the strategies teachers at this level use for professional development; to assess the disposition of teachers at this level towards mentoring; and establish the preferred domain of knowledge management through which these teachers wish to be mentored.

2 Methodology

The study was carried out in Rivers State, Nigeria, a significant stakeholder State in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria. The population of the study comprised of lecturers in the Faculty of Education in two higher education institutions in Port Harcourt metropolis of Rivers state, Nigeria. One of the institutions is owned by the federal government (UPH), while the other is owned by the State government (RSUST).

In the Faculty of Education of UPH, there are 120 lecturers while there are 60 in RSUST. From UPH 60 respondents were randomly selected from the six departments (10 per department), while the entire 60 lecturers in the three departments and the Institute of Education of RSUST were selected for the study. In all 120 respondents which cut across Assistant Lecturer to Senior Lecturer were involved in the study. They were selected because they formed the bulk of the teaching staff in the Faculties of Education.

A structured questionnaire titled: "Career Entry and Development Profile" (CEDP) developed by the researchers was the instrument used to elicit information from the respondents. The questionnaire was divided into four sections; the first section made up of 10 items measured the extent to which newly qualified lecturers from the rank of Assistant Lecturers to Senior Lecturers were inducted into teaching at the university level; the second section made up of 10 items determined the strategies commonly used by respondents for professional development; the third section made up of 12 items determined respondents' disposition to mentoring as strategy for professional development; and the fourth section made up of four items determined the extent to which respondents preferred to be mentored in the three knowledge management domain.

Respondents rated items using a four-point Likert type rating scale of 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree, 4= strongly agree. A midpoint of 2.50 was established from the four point rating scale. Based on the mid-point decision was taken thus: any mean score < 2.50 suggests disagreement with the item, and any mean score ≥ 2.50 suggests agreement with the item. In addition, the questionnaire included 4 yes and no items, where respondents indicated the domain of knowledge management function they may wish to be mentored most. Experts in measurement and evaluation validated the instrument. Reliability indices of 0.70, 0.72, and 0.75 respectively were established for the three sections using Cronbach Alpha. The instruments were personally administered and retrieved. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean scores, standard deviation, and percentages.

3 Findings

3. 1 Induction of New Entrants into Teaching

New employees could be nervous and anxious about the new job and environment. To put them at ease, basic information about working arrangement, standard of performance and behaviour expected, geographical layout of the institutions, are all to be included in information pack and employees handbook. In addition, institution-wide briefing and site tour should be part of the induction programme to give the induction personal touch beyond variety of document. This will provide opportunities for questions and answers session. Introducing new entrants to senior colleagues will make them feel at home and know who to meet if they need help.

Table 1: Induction of New Employees into their Functions

Aspect of Induction	UPH (n=60)			RSUST (n=60)		
	Mean	Std. Dev	Remark	Mean	Std. dev	Remark
I was employed with others in a cohort	3.60	0.47	Agree	4.00	0.00	Agree
I was anxious about the new job	2.91	0.86	Agree	2.58	0.96	Agree
We toured university campus	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
induction package was suitable for us	1.25	0.43	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
We got information packs	2.16	0.80	Disagree	1.50	0.77	Disagree
We got employees handbook	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
We had institution-wide initial briefing	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
We were taken round the faculty	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
We had formal induction courses	2.58	1.12	Agree	3.33	0.47	Agree
We were introduced to colleagues	1.40	0.40	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Overall mean	1.79		Disagree	1.74		Disagree

The findings in Table 1, reveal that respondents from UPH and RSUST disagree that they were taken on tour within and outside the universities with mean scores of 1.00 respectively. Also, respondents from both institutions disagreed that induction package was very suitable for them (UPH = 1.25; RSUST= 1.00); Respondents disagreed that they were given information packs (UPH = 2.16; RSUST = 1.50). It was found that respondents disagreed that they were given employee handbooks (UPH = 1.00; RSUST = 1.00). They equally disagreed that they had institution-wide initial briefing (UPH = 1.00; RSUST = 1.00). In the same vein, respondents indicated that they were not taken round the faculties when offices were assigned to them (UPH= 1.00; RSUST= 1.00). Respondents disagreed that all the senior colleagues in the faculties were introduced to them (UPH= 1.40; RSUST= 1.00).

The overall mean scores of 1.79 and 1.74 show low level of induction among respondents in the two institutions under study.

3.2 Strategies Used for Professional Development

Professional development of teachers takes different forms. Teachers could develop their career by attending courses, sharing ideas with colleagues, evaluating data to identify weaknesses and they would want to overcome such weaknesses; they could work collaboratively with colleagues as partners; take new responsibilities and learn through experiences. Teachers could observe their peers at work, and attend conferences; they could take advantage of information and communication technologies (ICTs) by using CD-ROM, web-based courses/training and use instructional packages.

Table 2: Strategies used for Professional Development

Strategy	UPH (n=60)			RSUST (n=60)		
	Mean	Std. Dev	Remark	Mean	Std. dev	Remark
Attending courses	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Sharing ideas with colleagues	3.25	0.40	Agree	3.60	0.55	Agree
Action Learning	1.58	0.60	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Working in partnership with others	2.91	0.80	Agree	2.66	0.95	Agree
Taking on new responsibilities	3.16	0.90	Agree	2.66	0.95	Agree
Peer observation	2.25	0.80	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Conferences	4.00	0.00	Agree	4.00	0.00	Agree
CD-ROM	1.00	0.00	Disagree	2.33	1.00	Disagree
Seconded to other institution	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Using institutional package	1.50	0.90	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Internet	3.25	0.40	Agree	4.00	0.00	Agree
Audio-based training	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
Overall mean	2.15		Disagree	2.10		Disagree

The analysis of the responses on Table 2 shows that professional development by attending courses is low among respondents in the two institutions under study (UPH= 1.00; RSUST = 1.00). It was also found that action learning in the form of evaluation data, identifying weakness and taking action was low (UPH= 1.58; RSUST = 1.00). Professional development was low in the use of peer observation in the two institutions (UPH= 2.25; RSUST = 1.00). It was also low in the use of CD-ROM (UPH= 1.00; RSUST = 2.33); low in secondment to other institutions (UPH= 1.00; RSUST = 1.00). Professional development was equally low in the use of instructional package (UPH= 1.50; RSUST = 1.00); low in audio-based training (UPH= 1.00; RSUST = 1.00).

The general low mean scores of 2.15 and 2.10 indicate that most of the strategies for professional development were not being used by the lecturers in the universities under study.

3.3 Teachers' Disposition towards Mentoring

Some teachers are disposed to mentoring as an effective career development options. In some cases, mentors are assigned to new entrants into teaching, while in others, they choose their mentors. Some teachers believe that mentoring is an effective career development option as it provides guidance\ and supports. Some teachers can approach their mentors for other issues, besides academics alone, while others just limit the relationship to academic alone. Others have co-authored papers with their mentors. Some mentors sometimes resort to coaching in an effort to help the protégé. Many protégé later become mentors too.

Table 3: Lecturers' Disposition towards Mentoring for Professional Development

Aspects of Disposition towards Mentoring for Career Development	UPH (n=60)			RSUST (n=60)		
	Mean	SD	Remark	Mean	SD	Remark
We were assigned to mentors upon being employed	1.00	0.00	Disagree	1.00	0.00	Disagree
I have a mentor of my choice	3.30	0.47	Agree	3.08	0.49	Agree
My senior colleagues are approachable	3.08	0.49	Agree	3.00	0.58	Agree
I believe in mentoring as a strategy for career development	3.25	0.43	Agree	4.00	0.00	Agree
Mentors provide useful guidance and support	3.30	0.47	Agree	3.16	0.37	Agree
I can approach my mentor for non-academic matters	3.30	0.47	Agree	2.75	0.93	Agree
I have co-authored with my mentor	2.60	0.95	Agree	2.66	1.00	Agree
Sometimes my mentor coaches me	3.30	0.47	Agree	3.00	0.71	Agree
I mentor junior colleagues when they approach me	3.16	0.37	Agree	3.33	0.47	Agree
My mentor simplified my functions	3.30	0.47	Agree	2.91	0.76	Agree
Overall mean	2.96		Agree	2.88		Agree

Entries from Table 3 reveal generally high mean scores of respondents' disposition towards mentoring for professional development. It was found that respondents in both institutions have mentors of their choice (UPH = 3.30; RSUST = 3.08). They can approach any of their senior colleagues for assistance related to academic endeavours (UPH= 3.08; RSUST = 3.00).

Respondent agreed that they believe in mentoring as a strategy for effective career development (UPH= 3.25; RSUST = 4.00). They also agreed that mentors can always provide useful guidance and supportive assistance (UPH= 3.30; RSUST = 3.16). They equally agreed that they can approach their mentor for other issues other than academic matters (UPH= 3.30; RSUST = 2.75).

Results indicate that respondents agreed that they have co-authored with their mentors and they work cooperatively (UPH= 2.60; RSUST = 2.66). Respondents also agreed that their mentors sometimes resort to coaching them (UPH= 3.30; RSUST = 3.00). Respondents agreed that they can be mentors too if junior colleagues approach them (UPH= 3.16; RSUST = 3.33). Respondents agreed that their mentors made their functions easier for them (UPH= 3.30; RSUST = 2.91).

3.4 Teachers' Preferred Domain of Knowledge Management

The triple mandate of higher education over the ages has revolved around knowledge and its management-research on knowledge creation; teaching/education or knowledge transmission; and society service or knowledge dissemination. The emergences of knowledge economy and digital revolution have transformed the demands of the world of works and as such teachers have to learn new approaches to their job in response.

Table 4: Distribution of Lecturers by Agreement that they wish to be mentored (%)

	UPH				RSUST (n=60)			
	M. Ed/M. A Ed (n=20)		PhD (n=40)		M. Ed/M. A Ed (n=20)		PhD (n=40)	
	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree	Agree	Disagree
Research	100	-	88	12	100	-	100	-
Education/Teaching	75	25	8	62	60	40	95	5
Society service	100	-	95	5	100	-	100	-
All domains if needed	100	-	100	-	100	-	100	-

Table 4 shows that among respondents in UPH, 100% of the respondents with Masters degree wished to be mentored in the area of research, while 87.5% of those with PhD indicated likewise. On the other hand, among respondents in RSUST, all the respondents with Masters degree and PhD degrees agreed that they wished to be mentored in research endeavour.

Respondents in UPH with Masters degree (75%) indicated that they desired mentoring in education/teaching endeavour, while only 37.5% of PhD holders indicated so. Among respondents in RSUST however, 60% of Masters Holders and 95% of PhD holders indicated that they desired mentoring in education/teaching endeavour.

It was found that among respondents in UPH 100% and 95% of masters and PhD holders respectively desired mentoring in society service. Among respondents in RSUST, all (100%) of the respondents with Masters and PhD degrees respectively indicate desires to be mentored in society service.

The findings of the study revealed that all respondents (100%) in UPH and RSUST with masters and PhD degrees respectively desires to be mentored in all the domains of learning as the need arose.

4 Discussion

The first training that any employee should receive is induction. This is the institutions' systematic process of helping new employees make sense of and adapt to the work context. The study revealed some shortcomings in the process of inducting new staff into the teaching profession (Table 1).

New entrants into teaching in two faculties of Education were not taken on site tour within and outside the institutions, induction packages were not suitable for adults, the new entrants were not given information packs and employees handbooks. Respondents never had institution-wide initial briefing, and they were not taken round the faculties as offices were assigned, neither were they introduced to senior colleagues that might be of help to them later. These shortcomings defeat the aims of induction to the workplace. Inductions are meant to put the new employees at ease; to provide them with basic information about work arrangement, standards of performance and behaviour expected from the new entrants. This revelation affirms the reports of Dan-Lortie (1995) as in Ornstein & Levina (2006) which claim that teachers learn to teach through trial and error and that new entrants do not have smooth outside-inside transition. The findings also negate the practice of carefully supervised stages that help new entrant learn and adjust to the new job (Robbins & Coutler, 2005). Those lapses may be attributed to lack of funds. Preparing adequate induction materials are expensive.

Furthermore the study identifies the five common strategies new entrants use for professional development. New entrants share ideas with colleagues; work in partnership with others; take on new responsibilities; attend conferences; and use the internet. To an extent, these findings are in line with the views of Polland, Anderson, Maddock, Swaffield, Warin & Warwick (2008) on developing within the context of the job, and agree with Vygotsky's social context in learning. However, new entrants do not evaluate data to identify weaknesses; do not attend courses; use peer observation; use CD-ROM; use instructional packages; and audio-based training. These findings might be attributed to lack of funds, lack of awareness, or to the fact that they cannot use other technology-based resources as indicated in Table 2.

The study indicated that new entrants into teaching are disposed towards mentoring. They have mentors of their choices; they can approach any senior colleague for assistance, they believe that mentoring provide good guidance which can sometimes be replaced by coaching. They also accepted the fact that they can be mentors later on. These findings tally with the findings of Lave & Wenge (1991) that mentees later become mentors. The study confirms the study of Billet (2000) which supports different strategies to keep mentees actively engaged over a period of time. It also supports the works of Young & Parrewe (2000) which posit that mentors provide social support besides mentoring on work related issues. However, mentors were not assigned to new entrants, for accelerated development (Armstrong, 2009; Menttium, 2004).

On the issue of the domain of knowledge management that new entrants wish to be mentored; the study revealed that all the respondents wished to be mentored virtually in all domains of knowledge management. The triple mandate of Higher Education over the ages has revolved around knowledge and its management- research for knowledge creation; teaching/ education for knowledge transmission; and society service for knowledge dissemination. The fact that new entrants wished to be mentored in these three areas is a major concern. This may be attributed to the emergence of knowledge economy and digital revolution. These two events are making teaching profession more challenging. Teachers need to update themselves; they need to be conversant with the use of digital resources for the triple mandate of Higher Education. More specifically, the trend of research in education is on collaborative action research to solve problems at the classroom level (Saddler & Sadker, 2003; Obanya, 2007). These changes call for professional development for all teachers.

5 Conclusion and Implications for Professional Development

Inducting new staff into teaching is a very important aspect of training. When new teachers are well inducted into their new jobs and environment, they develop interest and confidence in the job. With the basic information gathered during induction they can fit easily into the job. The study revealed that new entrants into teaching are not well inducted into the job; it identified the strategies new entrants use and those that they do not use for professional development. The study also indicated that new teachers are well disposed towards mentoring as a strategy for professional development; and that they preferred to be mentored in all the domains of knowledge management of research-knowledge creation; teaching/education for knowledge transmission; and society service for knowledge dissemination. These finding are significant because they highlight the needs of new entrants into the teaching profession that should be addressed. Since we are in information-based society, new teachers need to be exposed to technological processes and resources to enable them cope with the demands of knowledge economy.

6 Recommendations

Based on the findings the following recommendations were made:

1. Comprehensive formal and informal inductions should be organized for new teachers in higher education institutions. Variety of documents should be issued, and the inductions should not rely on printed words alone. Individuals who are charged with the responsibility should run through the main points. In this way, a more personal touch is provided and queries can be answered.
2. Information and communication technology (ICT) devices, resources and technical assistants should be available for new teachers to enable them

acquire the necessary technological skill that they can be using for their routine job.

3. New entrants into teaching should be encouraged to use the Internet. They should have access. This will enable them reach out to expert in various fields globally. They will equally have access to other strategies for professional development.
4. Mentors in special fields like in ICT should be assigned to new teachers to enable them learn how to integrate ICT into education. This will enable them appreciate the relationship between ICT, education, and development in a knowledge economy.
5. There should be periodic open interactive sessions for junior and senior lecturers at the faculty level, to establish closer ties for mentoring relationship to develop.
6. New entrants should be availed of opportunities for professional staff exchange programmes where they can go on secondment to update knowledge and share ideas to build capacity.

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Does Multiple Intelligence Improve Performance? Evidence from a Case at Kampala International University

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Abstract. This study reports the findings of a study that investigated the relationship between multiple intelligence (MI) and academic performance in higher education. It addresses one question: does MI improve academic performance? Taking the case of the finalist cohort of the university's Faculty of Education of the academic year 2009/2010, data were collected on students' MI and performance. Subsequently, the data were subjected to linear regression analysis. The findings were that the relationship between MI and students' academic performance was not statistically significant. Accordingly, the study lends credence to the traditional conceptualization of the concept of intelligence. Therefore, the paper recommends that higher education institutions continue paying attention to the factors that have traditionally been known to influence academic performance.

Keywords: Pedagogical innovation; Student-centred curriculum; Intelligence

1 Introduction

Intelligence refers to the different learning abilities that students possess. They are classified as; linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial–visual, musical, interpersonal, bodily–kinaesthetic and naturalistic intelligence (Gardner, 1992) On the other hand, academic performance refers to the degree of success in reaching set learning-related goals. Traditionally, psychologists have discussed intelligence as a general capacity for comprehension and reasoning that manifests itself in various ways and abilities such as memory span, arithmetic skills and vocabulary knowledge. These psychologists noticed that some students tended to score higher than others on academic achievement tests so they characterized these students as being more intelligent. However, contemporary research (e.g. Gardner, 1992) contends that there is MI, meaning that there are no *bright* and *dull* students. Rather, students are talented differently, with the ability to excel at different things and requiring support when it comes to other aspects of learning.

The goal of education being the all round development of students, the inference here is that educators are obligated to accept that each learner is unique and brings some strengths and weakness to each learning experience. Therefore, higher education institutions (HEIs) and their lecturers need to make the learning process student centred.

On the contrary, for most of the last century, education has been content/instructor- rather than student-centred (Gardner, 1999). Education tended to be merely informative whereby students were treated merely as pitchers into which the lecturer poured information. In African HEIs, some lecturers have expected their students to remain quiet and receptive throughout the teaching and learning process. According to Gardner, (1992), the problem with this attitude towards students is that students' ability to contribute to the pedagogical process and to exercise initiative and innovation is underrated, with the result that the teaching and learning process does not unlock their full potential. Specifically, critics have argued that failure to appreciate students' MI has affected their academic performance and vice-versa. In higher education, it has been argued that, in a class situation, it means a lot if a lecturer facilitates learning rather than pumping knowledge into the students' brains.

Subsequently, there is evidence that, in many HEIs, pedagogical approaches are metamorphosing from instructor and single intelligence based to learner-centred and MI based (see, for example, Linda, 1997). Kampala International University, the largest of the *new* HEIs in Uganda (Ssempebwa et al., 2011), is one of these institutions. The university's philosophy of instruction derives from the conceptualization of MI described above. It "regards each student as a unique individual who brings to the learning environment certain strengths and ideals. It is the role of the University to assist students to actualize their strengths. The university ensures that the educational experiences of students are designed to produce productive graduates who can contribute positively to the overall wellbeing of society. Holistic development and a strong, positive intellectual development is what the university strives to inculcate in each student" (KIU, 2009).

However, hitherto, the relationship between MI and students academic performance, from which the university's philosophy of education derives, had not been examined. Thus, this study was conducted to fill this gap. Taking the case of the finalist cohort of the university's Faculty of Education of the academic year 2009/2010, data were collected on students' MI and performance. Subsequently, the data were subjected to linear regression analysis. The findings were that the relationship between MI and students' academic performance was not statistically significant. Accordingly, the study lends credence to the traditional conceptualization of the concept of intelligence, so HEIs are urged to continue paying attention to the factors that have traditionally been known to influence academic performance.

2 Methodology

2.1 Study Area, Population and Sample

The study was carried out at Kampala International University Main Campus in Kampala. Data were collected on the MI and academic performance of 123 of the 180 finalist students of Bachelor of Arts (BA) and Bachelor of Science (BSC) with Education for the academic year 2009/2010. The students were drawn from the four departments in the Faculty (Table 1).

Table 1: Distribution of Sample by Department

Department	Sample
Educational Foundations	50
Arts and Humanities	30
Sciences	20
Languages	10
Total	123*

*N = 180; Sample size based on Krejcie & Morgan (1970)

From each of the departments, the students served with the questionnaire were randomly. The selection was done using the computer method and relevant class lists as sampling frames. One hundred and ten of the 123 questionnaires administered were retrieved, representing a response rate of 89%.

2.2 Data Sources and Collection Instrument

Data on the students' MI were elicited using a questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha = .79). The questionnaire was constructed using attributes of MI adapted from related literature, so the instrument was assumed to be valid. The questionnaire focused on linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily kinaesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic the questionnaire was interpreted in the following manner. Number 1,8,17 refers to students with linguistic intelligence, 6, 12, 18 those with music intelligence, 3, 7, 15, as those with logical–mathematical, 4, 11, 13 spatial, 5, 9, 14 indicated those with bodily-kinaesthetic, 10, 16, 20 to those with intrapersonal, 2,19,24 as those with interpersonal and 21, 22, 23 as those with naturalistic intelligence. Thus when the three were encircled, the student was be said to be strong in that particular kind of intelligence even if he or she has not fully developed it. This instrument was chosen because, predetermined and standardized questions would be simple and eases time for respondents as it improved the report between the researcher and the respondent. A set of alternatives ranging from “Seldom”, “Often”, “Sometimes” and “Always” were assigned numerical values ranging from 1 to 4 respectively and mean scores on aspects of MI categorized among the alternatives. Students’ academic performance was looked at in terms of their scores in university examinations. These scores were taken to be a valid indicator of academic performance (see, for example, Kassahun, 2008; Israel, 2005).

2.3 Analysis

The students’ scores on the attributes of MI surveyed were computed into means. These means were distributed among the categories described in 2.2 (i.e. “Seldom”, “Often”, “Sometimes” or “Always”) to determine the extent to which the participants typified the given attributes of MI. These categorizations were computed into an index on MI. To determine whether MI improves academic performance, this index and the findings on the students’ academic performance were subjected to linear regression analysis.

2.4 Ethical Considerations

Both the data on students’ MI and academic performance were obtained with the informed consent of the dean of the Faculty of Education. In addition, the identity of subjects was concealed and the findings reported in aggregates, respectful to the confidential nature of subjects’ academic performance.

3 Findings

The findings on the relationship between MI and students’ academic performance are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: MI and Academic Performance

Variable (indices)	Sample	Mean	Std. Deviation	r value	Sig.
Students performance	80	3.50	0.482	0.125	0.277
MI index	78	2.64	0.375		

The results in Table 2 show that the relationship between MI and students’ academic performance was not statistically significant (sig. = 0.27). This implies that MI may not lead to improved academic performance.

Table 3: Analysis of Variance

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F statistic	Sig.	Adjusted R^2
Regression	0.327	1	0.327			
Residual	17.895	76	0.235	1.390	0.242	0.005
Total	18.222	77				

*Predictors: (Constant), MI
*Dependent Variable: STUDENTS PERFORMANCE

Table 4: Coefficients

	Unstandard coefficients		Standard coefficients	t	Sig.
	ß	Std. Error	ß		
(Constant)	3.163	0.293		10.790	0.000
MI	0.006	0.005	0.134	1.179	0.242

Accordingly, the study lends credence to the traditional conceptualization of the concept of intelligence. The inference here is that HEIs should continue paying attention to the factors that have traditionally been known to influence academic performance (e.g. learning environment and quality of teachers). Educators have a responsibility to nourish their learners and ensure their growth. Thus, HEIs need to take a hard look at how they can reach and teach their students to realize their full potential.

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Prevalence, Causes and Effects of Academic Corruption in Rivers State Universities, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study investigated the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption in Rivers State universities, Nigeria. Data were collected from 400 respondents using a 'Prevalence, Causes and Effects of Academic Corruption Questionnaire' (PCEACQ). The data were analyzed using frequency counts and percentages. The results indicated that academic corruption was prevalent, especially among male lecturers, and that it involves parents, students, lecturers and administrators. The study showed the main causes of academic corruption to be students' poor study habits (68.8%) and poor entry qualifications (66%). It further showed that the effects of this corruption include delayed absorption of graduates into the labour market (91.5%) and poor quality of university graduates (87%). Some recommendations based on these findings are made.

Keywords: Academic corruption; Quality assurance; Education administration

1 Introduction

1.1 Definition and Concept of Academic Corruption

Generally speaking, corruption is difficult to define. This is because it is too broad and definitions agreed upon are rare, except they are applicable to limited and well defined cases (Allen & Waite, 2003). While Osipian (2007) refers to corruption as a word coined from a Latin word '*corruptio*', which expresses wicked behaviour, putridity and rottenness; Heyneman (2004) defines corruption as "abuse of authority for personal or material gain''. This definition was further supported by Olopoenia (1998), that all manifestations of corruption are motivated by the desire to use the instrumentality of office for personal gains, (e.g. for the benefit of the official, his relations, ethnic group or friends) at the expense of the general good. In his submission, Dike (2003) refers to corruption as failing attitude of people towards certain expectations by society that connotes negativity and is evident in all aspects of society; economic, social, religious and educational. It involves bribes and other dishonest means for achieving particular disgraceful ends which is an indication of an ailing society (Milovanovic, 2001). Corrupt practices are also those behavioural practices that tend to break certain moral or social codes of conduct, administrative rule or procedures.

Corruption as it is perceived in academia is defined as a misuse of public office for private gain (Osipian, 2007). Although some aspects of academic corruption are seen in the various definitions, the definitions only cover the aspects of administrative services such as teaching service delivery without considering the other aspects of academic corruption in which students are involved. In view of this lapse and for the purpose of this paper, academic corruption includes all forms of corrupt practices taking place in the academia and which have a direct negative effect on the quality and standard of education (e.g. examination malpractices, bribery, extortion and favouritism).

Academic corruption is a problem requiring scholarly attention because it impedes qualitative university education. One other reason is because of the low quality performance variable ratings which were reported to be below average in Nigeria, in which Nigerian universities were not ranked among the best 20 in Africa (Okebukola, 2005). More importantly, academic corruption is a problem due to the public outcry of fallen standard of education both in the news and print media. For instance, the demand for gratification by teachers among others, have led to the fallen standard of education in Nigeria (Babalola, 2010). Unfortunately, none of the studies cited have carried out a research on the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption in the universities, with special reference to Rivers State universities, which is the gap that the present study sought to plug. The quality of academic staff recruited by universities in Nigeria was identified to be low, which invariably contributes to the poor quality of graduates (Moja, 2000). The essence of quality of education as it relates to teaching and learning involves education geared towards a desired level of performance. Some of these quality requirements include adequate curricular content, appropriate teaching methodologies, adequate number of well trained teaching staff, adequate and conducive infrastructural facilities, classroom operations and interactions in expected levels among others. Furthermore, the quality of education depends on the characteristics of candidates admitted into the institutions of learning, e.g. entry behaviour of the candidates, their career interests, mental ability, living and health status and socio-economic background (Babalola, 2010).

Investigating academic corruption in Rivers State Universities has become necessary because experience has shown that some undergraduate students are unable to communicate effectively in simple English, like completing a personal data form. This calls for concern since graduates from the universities would eventually work in the industries and affect the Nigerian economy. Therefore, the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption should be well understood if any meaningful progress is to be made in improving the quality of graduates in Nigerian universities. Some of the problems posed by poorly trained graduates include devaluation of Nigerian university certificates, under-employment, unemployment and lack of skills for graduates to fit into the changing world of the economy and technology. For example, there is a decline in trust about some schools, people and the procedures they follow, whereby some students are awarded undeserved degrees (Easterbrook, 2002:32). Consequently, it would have severe and negative multiplier effect on the entire society (Oyetola, Adesola & Yahya, 2010). Although there is no comparable data among countries on the gravity or intensity of corruption in the academia, Nigeria needs to revamp its university education if she must be recognized as one of the strongest economies in the world by the year 2020.

One of the ways of ensuring quality especially in relation to the students is to undertake research in this area. For instance, it was reported that the results of 116,000 candidates in the Universities Matriculation Examination (UME), which qualifies students for university admission was cancelled in 2010 (Jubril, 2010). Perhaps, one of the reasons for the cancellation of the results could be examination malpractices. Hence, it was observed that students who indulge in acts such as examination malpractices are not academically sound (Okebukola, 2005).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption in Rivers State Universities, Nigeria. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Examine the prevalence of academic corruption among students and lecturers.
2. Ascertain the main causes of academic corruption among students and lecturers.
3. Determine the effects of academic corruption on the quality of graduates.

1.3 Research Questions

The study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Does academic corruption exist among students and lecturers?
2. What are the main causes of academic corruption?

3. What are the effects of academic corruption on quality of university graduates?

2 Methodology

The study employed quantitative data in ascertaining the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption on quality of university education. The descriptive survey research design was used for the study. The justification for using survey was to obtain the opinions of a subset of the population on the subject matter in order for it to be representative of the entire population. There are three universities in the area, and two were randomly selected for the study. These universities have a population of 32,416 students and 956 lecturers in Port Harcourt municipal, Rivers state of Nigeria. A sample of 400 respondents comprising 200 students and 200 lecturers were selected from four faculties (i.e. 50 respondents per faculty) in two universities in Port Harcourt municipal, Rivers State of Nigeria using proportionate random sampling technique. The participants were made up of 100 male and 100 female students, as well as 100 male and 100 female lecturers from each of the two universities. The justification for selecting 400 respondents for the study was because the study adopted the table of random sampling in which a sample size of 384 is considered adequate for a population of 10,000,000 (Universal Accreditation Course, 2003).

The instrument for data collection was a researcher-designed ‘Prevalence, Causes and Effects of Academic Corruption Questionnaire’. The questionnaire consisted of two sections. Section A was for the respondents’ personal data and Section B had 15 statements on the prevalence, causes and effects of academic corruption. The Yes/No pattern of response was used to mean agreement or disagreement to a statement. Validation of the instrument was ascertained by three lecturers in the field of Sociology, who confirmed the instrument as having face and content validity. Reliability of the instrument was done by administering the instrument twice on a sample of 40 respondents who were not part of the final study. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient for the two tests was established at 0.79, meaning that the instrument was consistent. The researcher obtained permission from the Deans of the four faculties where the participants were selected before administering the questionnaire. The data were analyzed using frequency counts and percentages. Percentage value of -60 and above was used as cut-off mark, which connotes high agreement with an item in the ‘Yes’ column.

3 Results

The results are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: Prevalence, Causes and Effects of Academic Corruption

	Students				Lecturers			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
Attribute of Academic Corruption	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Prevalence								
Corruption is common in universities	116	58	84	42	142	71*	58	29
Involves parents, students, lecturers & administrators	158	79*	42	21	173	86	27	13
It exists among both the male and female gender	121	60*	79	39	139	69	61	31
It is higher in universities than other institutions	122	61*	78	39	146	73*	54	27
It is common among male than female lecturers	188	94*	12	6	163	81	30	19
Causes								
Poor entry qualification by students	86	43	114	57	178	89*	22	11
Compromising attitude of lecturers	152	76*	48	24	110	55	90	55
Poverty due to low salaries of lecturers	96	48	104	52	34	17	166	83
Poor study habits of students	84	42	116	58	191	95	09	0.5
Poor home background of students	139	69	61	30	108	54	92	46
Effects								
Poor quality of university graduates	167	83	33	7	184	92*	16	08
Low morals of students	143	71*	57	28	187	93	13	6.5
Inability of university graduates to perform tasks	26	13	174	87	116	58	84	42
Delayed absorption of graduates into labour market	189	94*	11	6	179	89	21	10
Inability of graduates to communicate effectively	143	71*	57	29	192	96*	08	0.4

*Significant

Table 1 indicates that in terms of prevalence, 116(58%) of students and 142(71%) of lecturers agreed that corruption is common in universities. It further shows that 158(79%) of students and 173 (86.5%) of lecturers agreed that parents, students, lecturers and administrators are all involved in academic corruption; 121(60.5%) of students and 139(69.5%) of lecturers indicated that it exists among both the male and female gender, 122(81%) of students and 143(76%) of lecturers indicated that it is higher in universities than other institutions; 188(94%) of students and 163(81.6%) of lecturers indicated that it is common among male than female lecturers. In terms of causes of corruption, 152(76%) of students indicated that corruption was caused by the compromising attitude of lecturers and 178(89%) of lecturers indicated poor study habits of students as the cause of academic corruption. Lastly, in respect to the effects of academic corruption, 167(83.5%) of students and 184(92%) of lecturers were unanimous in agreeing that it contributes to poor quality of university graduates; low morals as indicated by143(71.5%) of students and 187(93.5%) of lecturers; delayed absorption of graduates into the labour market as indicated by 189(94.5%) of students and 179(89.5%) of lecturers; and 143(71.5%) of students and 192(96%) of lecturers indicated inability of graduates to communicate effectively as one of the effects of academic corruption.

Table 2: Highest Scores on Prevalence, Causes and Effects of Academic Corruption

Attribute of Academic Corruption	%	Rank
Prevalence		
Academic corruption exists more among male than female lecturers	87.8	1st
It involves parents, students, lecturers and administrators	82.7	2nd
Causes		
Poor study habits of students	68.8	1st
Poor entry qualification of students	66	2nd
Effects		
Delayed absorption of graduates into the labour market	91.5	1st
Poor quality of university graduates	87.8	2nd

Note: % is average of students' and lecturers' choosing 'Yes' (in Table 1)

Table 2 shows that the two highest prevalence of academic corruption are that it exists more among male than female lecturers(87.8%) and it involves parents, students, lecturers and administrators(82.7%); two highest causes include poor study habits of students(68.8%) and poor entry qualification of students(66%). Lastly, two highest effects include delayed absorption of graduates into the labour market (91.5%) and poor quality of university graduates (87.8%).

4 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

This study shows that academic corruption is commonplace in the universities as indicated by students and lecturers. The prevalence of academic corruption was found to exist more among male than female lecturers (87.85) and it involves parents, students, lecturers and school administrators (82.7%) as seen in Table 2. This shows a high degree of agreement by the two groups of respondents to the items. This finding is consistent with previous reports that parents pay bribes for their children's admission into universities; professors alter scores of students and teachers were involved in aiding and abetting students in examination malpractices (Osipian, 2007; Jubril, 2010). Similarly, the findings are in consonance with another report that points to university administration as the most corrupt and that both students and lecturers initiate bribe (Rostiashvili, 2004). In other words, the finding is in line with the observation that corruption in the academia is one of the most prominent factors contributing to diminishing standard of university education (Kingston, 2011). The finding further corroborates the views that students alone should not take the blame because they were aided and abetted by lecturers (Jubril, 2010).

The highest causes of academic corruption were poor study habits of students (68.8%) and poor entry qualification of students (66%). The finding justifies earlier literature that the entry behaviour and mental ability of entrants could affect the quality of education and that bribe given to the university to facilitate students' admission by parents signifies their poor entry qualifications (Osipian, 2007; Babalola, 2010). In terms of the effects, delayed absorption of university graduates into the labour market (91.5%) and poor quality of university graduates (87.8%) were indicated as the main effects of academic corruption. This study confirms those of Okebukola (2005) who noted that students who engaged in paying bribes for good grades are not academically sound and Moja (2000) who reiterated that the quality of university products in Nigeria have dwindled from what it was in the early 1970s.

4.1 Limitations of the Study

Incidences of academic corruption border on the integrity and moral standards of individuals within a society. Thus, this study has some limitations. First, the data generated for this study were self-reported and, therefore vulnerable to deceit, ignorance and biases of the variables among the respondents. Second, there is the possibility that the outcome of the study could have been different if a larger sample size was used. Third, participants were selected from two universities in the area, limiting the study's applicability to universities outside Rivers State of Nigeria. Lastly, the population used belong to a culture where self disclosure is a problem since individuals hold secret what they regard to be personal matters.

4.2 Implications for Counselling

Preventive counselling strategies such as behaviour modification techniques should be used in view of these results by adopting the Cognitive Behaviour Modification (CBM) and video therapy. These two methods have been found to be useful in treating students who show tendency to engage in examination malpractice (Ossai & Omoni, 2007). Cognitive Behaviour Modification is a practice which involves the use of self talk or inner speech to change thoughts (cognition) and control overt actions (behaviour). The aim of using self talk is to replace irrational thinking with rational ones. According to Smith (2002), internalized self statements aid self control over adaptive or maladaptive behaviour. Video therapy on the other hand, involves visualizing relevant films which are therapeutic in nature. In other words, it involves discussions on issues or images related to the resolution of a client's problem (Abuse Consultants, 2006). The success of video therapy in bringing about positive educational developments has been reported by Vitiello (2001). Adult counselling bureau should be established to cater for adult problems. This is necessary not only for academic staff alone but for the non-academic staffs who engage in bribe taking in order to admit students. Behavioural practice that is, playing a scene until a client discovers a new response that is appropriate for dealing with a situation is similar to this approach and should be applied. Punishment can also be used to reduce inappropriate behaviour. When used, the client must be ready with the help of the counsellor to describe how he/she would like to act. This is because maladaptive behaviour is learned and can be unlearned with gradual changes in behaviour (Akinade & Adedipe, 2004). Finally, this research calls for counsellors to evolve theories with which academic corruption can be properly explained in order to device a better approach to its prevention and eradication.

4.3 Conclusion

The findings of this research are those that should be treated with the urgency they deserve if Nigerian universities will make appreciable progress in the near future in order to meet up with global challenges in higher education. Therefore, government and all stake holders must join hands in ensuring quality assurance, pursuant to the requirements for ranking Nigerian universities among the world class universities. Although university education should play a major role in actualizing the MDGs, academic corruption is a disadvantage in this direction. This is why academic corruption should be fought among lecturers and students while counselling is emphasized in bringing about quality management of staff and students so as to ensure ethical and moral uprightness which includes honesty, teaching right values and academic integrity, hard work and self discipline in order to ensure provision of quality university education in Nigeria

4.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made as a way forward:

1. Counsellors in the universities should organize seminars/symposia and workshops in enlightening the university community on good moral and ethical standards that help to prevent academic corruption especially based on examination ethics once in a semester, using orientation programmes. Invitation for such programmes should be extended to parents as well since they were identified as one of the people involved in academic corruption.

Emphasis should be placed on cognitive restructuring of behaviour and inculcating good morals in terms of good lecture delivery qualities, course content quality and staff-student relationships by learning essential skills as well as ethical behavioural standards. Family values should be emphasized, which used to be the pride of the African people in times past, especially on the part of parents.
2. Government should also strictly apply some anti-corruption measures in the universities such as the use of economic and legal means in addition to supplying lecture rooms and offices with surveillance cameras for monitoring activities of staff and students in the university.
3. In view of poor entry qualification of students as one of the causes of academic corruption, universities should ensure that only qualified students are admitted. This is a challenge for the Minister of Education to work closely with the vice chancellors of universities and for them to conduct more research on academic corruption. Counsellors should organize lectures for students, giving them tips on how to improve on their study habits. This can be integrated into the university orientation programmes or prior to the commencement of semester examinations.
4. In addressing the effects of academic corruption such as poor absorption of graduates into the labour market and general poor quality of graduates, the National Universities Commission should ensure that increase in student number be commensurate with staff and facilities.
5. Universities should be forced by NUC which ensures quality of education to comply with those criteria that enhance their qualification in the world ranking of universities such as number of students admitted, class size, number of academic staff with top terminal degrees such as PhD, student performance in tests, amongst others. Furthermore, designated committees should be formed for the purpose of monitoring lecturers' work in terms of ensuring that their course outlines are well covered for each semester and cross- checking entry of scores made by examination officers.
6. Staff and students caught engaging in bribery and extortion should be sent to the counsellors for group or individual counselling after facing disciplinary action.

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Students' Views on Prevention of Coursework Plagiarism

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Abstract. This study investigated the reasons as to why students plagiarize in conducting their coursework assignments. I used questionnaires to gather students' views on coursework malpractices and ways of preventing these malpractices. I collected quantitative and qualitative data from 83 undergraduate students of computing in two Ugandan universities. Laziness, desire to pass with high grades, inferiority complex, and unrealistic coursework timeframes were cited for plagiarism in doing coursework assignments. Recommendations for preventing plagiarism are drawn out of these findings. Thereafter, a framework for administering coursework is developed.

Keywords: Academic dishonesty; Higher education evaluation; Research

1 Introduction

Academic dishonesty characterized by practice of plagiarism by students and lecturers or professors in universities and other higher educational institutions has become an important area of research. Universities cannot claim quality in academic systems when coursework cheating and plagiarism is not effectively addressed by course facilitators. The Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers (IEEE) defines plagiarism as the reuse of someone else's ideas, processes, results, or words without explicitly acknowledging that person (Okyay et al., 2008). Plagiarism is an unacceptable practice that renounces academic integrity and threatens academic systems. According to Kennedy (2006), plagiarism is the illegal practice of taking someone else's ideas, data, findings, language, illustrative materials, images, or writing, and presenting them as if they were your own. To avoid plagiarism reference the source and put quotation marks around all the quoted words, or paraphrase and reference. The above definitions have limitations because they fail to cover the cases for ghost authorship, accidental plagiarism and self-plagiarism (McCuen, 2008).

Uganda Christian University (UCU) established “rule of life” to govern its activities. One of the statements in the above set of rules is that “we shall tell the truth and renounce all forms of plagiarism and false testimony” (UCU, 2006).

In a survey of 93 UK higher educational institutions, a total of 9,229 plagiarism cases were recorded in one year, and 143 students were expelled. Wider variations were discovered in the rates of plagiarism from one institution to another. Even though many students view plagiarism as unethical, under stressful conditions, they may still choose to plagiarize (McCuen, 2008). Hale (1987) reported that more than 50% of 300 undergraduates plagiarized papers even though they knew that plagiarism was wrong. From findings of research students thought their lecturers were reluctant to investigate plagiarism and that those who cheated were rarely caught. The 12 lecturers who were interviewed for the study were divided on whether they would investigate cheating. The lecturers who were not supporting investigations on cheating gave reasons ranging from the time it takes to go through university processes, their sympathy for students, and the burden of proof. The evidence puts the lecturers in the firing line because students can seek legal redress if they think the evidence is insufficient. Collberg and Kobourov (2005) acknowledged the misconduct in the academic community. They mentioned practices that included students submitting assignments copied from their friends, and researchers publishing the work of others as their own. In this research I investigated coursework copying by undergraduate students in two Ugandan universities to formulate guidelines that course facilitators may use to administer coursework in Universities.

1.1 Research Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to: 1) investigate the reasons as to why students plagiarize coursework assignments; 2) elicit suggestions that students give to their facilitators for minimizing plagiarism; and 3) develop a framework for administering coursework while minimizing plagiarism.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

The theory for study of plagiarism practices by students in Ugandan universities is adopted from McDonald and Carroll (2006) based on holistic institutional approaches needed to address academic integrity. The two scholars stated that looking to the underlying causes of plagiarism rather than its symptoms is perhaps the key to ensuring that a holistic approach to plagiarism with emphasis on promoting good scholarly practices rather than focusing on punishing plagiarism is adopted.

Stearns (2006) emphasized the role that course instructors play in fostering an ethical academic culture. One way to accomplish this is to develop positive student-instructor relationships through interpersonal competence and immediacy, arguing that instructor classroom behaviour shapes the university environment. She further said, "The first thing is to discuss academic integrity with students, including definitions and rationales of the importance of integrity."

2 Literature Review

2.1 Plagiarism

The word plagiarism comes from a Latin verb meaning to kidnap. It gives description of the process deliberately or unintentionally "kidnapping" which is stealing of other people's work and intellectual property without their consent. Donald L. McCabe, founder of centre for Academic integrity at Duke University, published an article in the *New York Times* that reported 38% of undergraduate students having participated in some form of Internet plagiarism. Those students did not consider plagiarism as cheating (McCabe, 2003 & Kizza, 2009). Technology has made it easy for students to lift term papers and only change author's names. Plagiarism is now common practice in computing science and engineering disciplines. In these disciplines technology has created a plagiarism culture that not only erodes ethics of individuals but has serious consequences in the safety and security of both hardware and software systems that run computing systems to serve mankind. Plagiarism includes, but does not only apply to, failure to indicate the source with quotation marks or footnotes where appropriate, references if any of the following are presented or reproduced in the work submitted by a student:

1. A written phrase
2. A graphic element
3. A proof
4. An idea derived from another person's published or unpublished work (Kizza, 2009).

2.2 Types of Plagiarism

McCuen (2008) stated the following types of plagiarism:

1. Self-Plagiarism. Self-Plagiarism and dual publishing are considered fraudulent. A person who publishes similar papers with similar titles, passages and words may be guilty of fraud.

2. Ghost Authorship. Here is a situation where someone's name is included among the publishers of a scholarly article when the person did not contribute anything in preparing the article.
3. Dual publishing. This is a situation where an author publishes more than one similar paper at the same time, and this is a case of self-plagiarism. Specter (1989) reported a case in which out of 1000 authors 228 authors had published 938 articles of similar titles in different journals.
4. Collberg and Kobourov (2005) said that there was little agreement among academics as to what should be regarded as self-plagiarism and what accepted republication was. They introduced the following terms:
5. Textual reuse which is the act of incorporating text/images/ or other material from a past publication in refereed conferences and journals where copyright is assigned to someone other than the author.
6. Semantic reuse incorporates ideas from previously published work
7. Blatant reuse incorporates texts or ideas from previously published work in such a way that the two works are virtually indistinguishable.
8. Incidental reuse incorporates texts or ideas not directly related to the new ideas presented in the paper
9. Advocacy reuse incorporates texts or ideas from previously published work when writing to a community different from that in which the original work was published.

When the above practices pertain to one's own work we refer to it as textual reuse, however, when the actions are not ethical we replace reuse by plagiarism (Collberg and Kobourov (2005)

2.3 Plagiarism by Students

According to Hua-Li Jian et al (2008), well-designed coursework stimulates students' learning. Lecturers have to carefully adjust coursework difficulty level. Students need challenges of sufficient difficult in order to foster academic development. Coursework perceived by students to be too difficult is likely to make them pursue undesirable strategies for reaching their goals.

2.4 Students' Guidelines to avoiding Plagiarism

Jordan (2006) gave the following guidelines that can help a student to avoid plagiarism:

1. Not to collaborate or do group work in a course when the course instructor does not allow that practice.
2. To list group members in case an assignment is for group work so that all the partners get credit for the work done.

3. Never to copy and paste when writing. For the case of easy writing, one should use his/her own words by first reflecting on the content read then writing the appropriate points from the content and giving the reference.
4. Do not give out the assignments you have completed. Giving your assignment to your friends adds no academic value to them but instead causes academic death.
5. Lack of time should not be used as an excuse to copy another student's work. When a student is behind time, the best is to negotiate more time with the professor who gave the assignment or just to submit it as it is.
6. Never resubmit work which had been previously submitted. You cannot resubmit a piece of work you had submitted in another class as this is practice of self-plagiarism.
7. When you have doubts about the course you are doing or if you need clarifications from lectures, ask your professor directly

2.5 Fabrication

Fabrication is the practice of using forged data to get an expected outcome or report. Research community would naturally reject fabricated and falsified data. Studies have revealed that fabrication and falsification are widespread practices throughout all sectors including academia.

2.6 Academic Cheating

Kizza (2009) defines academic cheating as presenting someone's work as your own. It is manifested in many forms including sharing another person's work, purchasing end of semester question paper or test questions in advance, and paying somebody to do an academic work for you. Among college students, cheating is common practice.

McCabe (2003) affirmed that 87% of students surveyed in 1993 admitted to cheating on written work, 70% cheated on a test at least once, 49% collaborated with others on an assignment, 52% copied from someone and 26% plagiarized (McCabe, 2003 and Kizza, 2009). According to Kizza (2009) cheating by students includes but is not limited to the following:

1. Plagiarism
2. Submission of academic work (papers, assignments, exams) that is not owned by student.
3. Submission of falsified data.
4. Accessing an examination without authority.
5. Use of unauthorized materials such as textbooks, notes or computer programs in the preparation of an assignment or during an examination.
6. Unauthorized collaboration in the preparation of an assignment.

7. Submitting the same work for credit in two courses without the permission of the course instructor.

2.7 Examination Malpractices

According to Olatoye (2002), many reasons exist for examination malpractice including: inadequate funding of schools, laxity in prosecuting offenders, inability of students to cope with school work, candidates inadequate preparations and desire to pass at all costs, poor sitting arrangement, too much emphasis on paper qualification and non completion of syllabuses, inadequate funding of school, corruption in society, and poor remuneration of teachers and examination officials.

3 Research Methodology

The cross-sectional research design was used to generate data. This is because with such a design it is easy to collect data in a short period of time from many respondents (Enon, 1998). It also allows generalization to be made about the characteristics, opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and practices of the entire population being studied. This method saves time and money without sacrificing efficiency, accuracy and information adequate in the research process. Administering questionnaires was the fact finding technique for this research.

The study focused on selected universities. Two universities were selected: one public university and one private university. Since this study is descriptive type of design, the questionnaire was selected as the best instrument for collecting data. I administered questionnaires to 83 undergraduate students in second and third years of studies. Open-ended questions were included to allow the respondents a chance to express and clarify their views.

I personally distributed the questionnaires to the students and this minimized the wastage of questionnaires and it saved time. The responses elicited were coded and tabulated. Descriptions were done on the basis of the frequencies and percentages tabulated. I analyzed the qualitative data by extracting themes and categories from the students' views.

4 Findings

The findings on the incidence of plagiarism in completing coursework assignments are summarized in Tables 1.

Table 1: Incidence of Coursework Plagiarism

Copying coursework	Frequency	Percentage
Yes, I copied	22	27
No, I did not copy	61	73
Yes, I witnessed fellow students copying	64	78
No, I did not notice any student copying	18	22
I believe copying is dishonest	18	30
I was able to finish the coursework in the given time	21	34
I was afraid my lecturer would detect the copied work	12	20
The institution policy on plagiarism is strict	10	16

Table1 shows that 27% of the students admitted having copied coursework from their fellow students, 73% responded that they did not copy coursework from colleagues, 78% of the students acknowledged that they witnessed fellow students copying other's coursework during the semester, 22% of the students responded that they did not witness any copying done by fellow students, 30% of the students believe that copying is dishonest, 34% acknowledge that they were able to finish coursework within the given timeframe, 20% were afraid that the lecturer would detect the copied work, and 16% feared the institution's policy on plagiarism which is strict.

The results of qualitative data analysis are presented in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 presents reasons why coursework malpractices are common and Table 3 gives preventive measures to minimize copying. The major issues students raised for coursework malpractices include: lack of commitment to research, lack of textbooks and journal articles, difficult coursework with incomprehensible questions, too much time committed to social life and less time for coursework, doing coursework under pressure, the will to pass examination at all costs, relaxed university laws on coursework malpractices punishment, inferiority complex, loosing coursework, and copying becoming mainstream culture. The details are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Reasons cited for Involvement in Coursework Plagiarism (%, N=83)

Theme	Students' responses/views	%
Low commitment to research	Students are lazy at research work have a poor attitude towards research, are not serious with research	43
Lack of text books and journal articles	The institution may not have up-to-date text books, lack of relevant data to answer coursework questions, some lecturers do not give handouts, and student's lack personal textbooks	16
Incomprehensible coursework	Sometimes the coursework is too hard to do, and students may fail to understand the coursework questions	11
No interest in the course	Students may not be interested in a course, may not be around when the coursework is given, coursework is not taken serious by both students and course instructor, and students have no background in the course due to missing lectures	12
Students are lured into social life	Students have more interest in non-academic issues, students like leisure more than studies, and as students we spend more time doing irrelevant things like drinking, watching movies, or playing computer games, and we are always caught up with time for doing the coursework and we end up copying.	9
Students work under pressure	Many assignments at the same time, poor time management, some students balance between work, family and studies	13
Easy exam passing	Copying is a fast way of passing an exam that is difficult, to compensate for low marks in tests and get good grades	22
Copying is not punishable	No punishment for copying, coursework is not marked with strictness, punishment for copying is friendly, no punishment when you copy	7
Inferiority complex	Perceived incompetence (if a better performing student has different work, the rest of the students copy from him/her)	13
Lost work	When work is corrupted in a computer system, you have to copy in order to meet the submission deadline.	3
Copying is tradition	Copying becomes habit, copy because others copy, some students start copying from secondary school and the practice continues to University	21
Poor teaching methods	Some lecturers give coursework to students without giving the class proper foundation lectures in the course, students don't understand some lecturers, don't understand some topics, poor teaching methods by some lecturers, lectures missing lectures, lecturer giving coursework given to recent classes	18
Low interest in education	Many who graduate are unemployed	2
Poor timing of coursework assignments	Coursework given close to final examination time is not done properly as students are preparing for finals, students may not be aware of the coursework submission date, and time allocated for coursework research is not enough	22
Supervisor cooperation	Research supervisors don't cooperate with their students, and students repeat same chapters many time, they resort to copying to cut on printing costs	9

The suggestions the students advanced for combating plagiarism are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Students' Suggestions for Addressing Coursework Malpractices (N=83)

Theme	Students' views	%
Standard coursework	Do not give questions that are so hard and for which students' do not have access to reference materials, do not give the same questions you gave to your students of the previous semester or year, give different questions to different students, and give chance to students to present group coursework reports	28
Counselling	Advise students to avoid copying and encourage them to revise, be flexible and encourage students to attend lectures	16
Use of good pedagogical approaches for course delivery	Cover entire course outline you present to your class, do not accumulate all the coursework at the same time and towards the end of the semester, cooperate with students to report copying, and be compassionate to weak students	20
Graduate research projects supervision	Supervisor should meet supervisees on a specified times during the week to monitor students' research progress. A student leader should be appointed for research coordination purpose	2
Punishment for copying coursework	Be strict in marking and award no marks for copied work, expose students who copy coursework and punish them. Punish the one who copies and the one who gives finished assignment for copying, implement the policies that spell punishment for copying, and agree with students on the punishment for copying	21
Realistic schedule for coursework research	Give your students enough time to research on coursework questions, and coursework submission time should be clear to the students. This should include the mode of collection, submission place and time	12
Directives for answering coursework questions	Guide students on question approach, give references and handouts make corrections to coursework, use clear and simple language for questions in coursework and stock library with the books needed for the courses offered in the university	27
Plagiarism detection	Spend some time to detect copied work, each student should sign one's coursework report before submission of the work	12
Extra coursework	Students who miss coursework for genuine reasons (e.g. sickness and bereavement) should be given another coursework	4

4.1 Framework for University coursework administration

I formulate this framework to guide course facilitators in universities in coursework administration. Most of the points in the framework call the attention of course facilitators to address them. There are few exceptions such as resources provision in libraries and competence building in pedagogy that should be addressed by the university management. Figure 1 is the diagrammatic representation of the 9-points framework for university coursework administration.

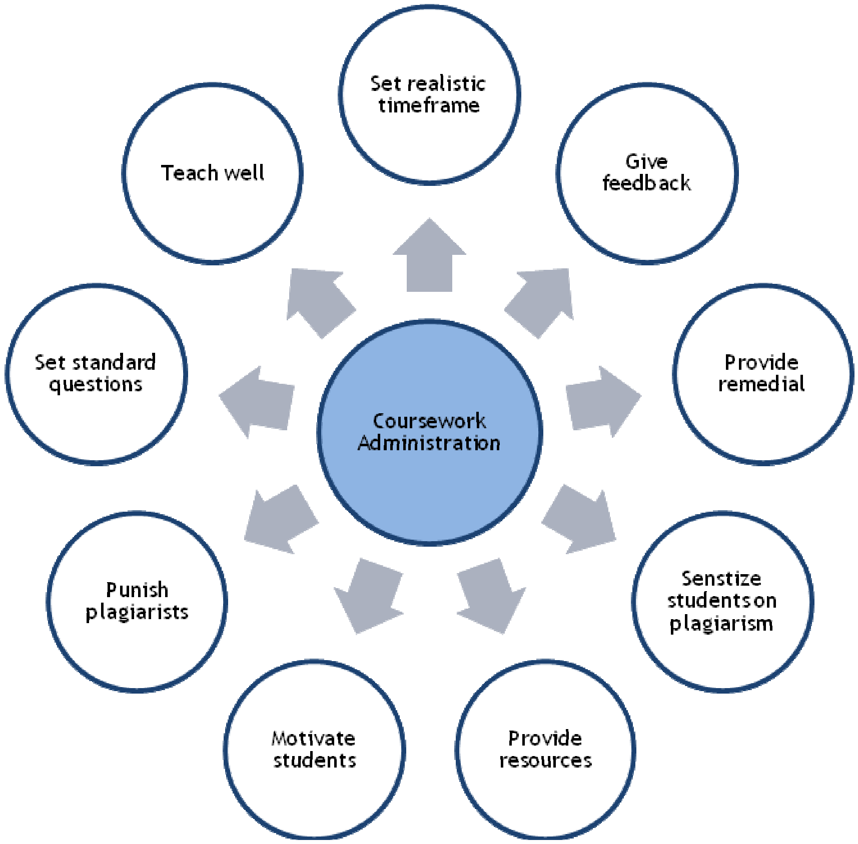

Figure 1: Framework for Administration of University Coursework

Each of the components of the above framework is explained in the next section below:

1. Set standard questions–the questions in the coursework should be appropriate to challenge the students' intellectual curiosity. Set questions students can understand and answer. Do not repeat questions you gave to your class of the previous semester.
2. Improve on quality of course delivery–give good foundation of the course in the first few lectures. With good background in the course the students can do effective research in coursework to explore more concepts and acquire additional knowledge. Encourage students to attend lectures. The institution should have policy on class attendance. For example, a student may be expected to attend at least 70% of the lectures before registering for

the final examination in the course. The course facilitators should use variety of teaching methods when conducting lectures. Examples of teaching methods include direct lectures using PowerPoint presentations, simulations, and group work and report presentations. Students learn differently, so the use of different teaching approaches enriches content delivery to students.

3. Sensitize students on plagiarism–the course facilitators should not only concentrate on the technical aspect of the course that is limited to the coverage of the course content, they should also counsel their students on moral issues regarding the course. The ethical and moral aspects of the course should highlight honesty in examination and coursework, punishments for cheating students, observation of the coursework submission deadlines, and no tolerance for plagiarism.
4. Set clear and realistic coursework timeframe – course facilitators should give sufficient time for students to do research and write course report for submission. The time for submission should be indicated on the coursework document. The mode of collecting completed coursework should be clearly stated. Example, online submission, submission at course facilitator's office or lecture room with defined time frame for collection.
5. Provide coursework feedback to students–the course facilitators should provide feedback or coursework results to students so that each student gets to know how he or she has performed in the coursework. The feedback may include steps of approaching different questions and hence the solutions to different types of questions.
6. Provide continuous assessments for improvements–the course facilitators are encouraged to provide extra coursework to students who either missed the timetabled coursework for genuine reasons or performed weakly in the coursework and want to do the next one with aim of improving on the previous one. Genuine reasons for missing coursework may include sickness in which case the student is admitted in a health clinic or hospital.
7. Provide resources for research–the institution or faculty should provide relevant textbooks for students to access from libraries. Alternatively, a faculty or university department should make subscription to an online library so that students access modern textbooks and journal articles for research. If there are no resources for students to use for research we can't expect them to produce quality reports. The students are encouraged to use the Internet for research as long as they know how to evaluate academic articles based on the authors' reputation and the value of the content.
8. Motivate students to do research—sometimes students do not have interest in the course and are not active to do research. In such a situation, the course facilitator should highlight the value of the course and the

importance of research work in career development and knowledge acquisition.

9. Implement rules on plagiarism and exam/ coursework cheating–do justice to the wrongdoers. If a student is caught copying or cheating in examination room the course facilitator should not compromise the punishment in form of bribes or other forms of favours. It adds no value to the integrity of an institution if the rules regarding assessment are developed and circulated to the academic units and they are not implemented for quality assurance in the institution.

5 Summary and Conclusion

Academic integrity in Universities and other higher educational institutions can be compromised by plagiarism, research data fabrication, coursework and exam cheating and poor teaching methods. The University students, academic staff and the general public expect high ethical and moral standards in administration of coursework, examination and research. In the world of competition ethics and morals can be compromised. In my research I discovered that much as students participate in coursework cheating, they are not happy with the practice and they condemn it in strong terms. The students expect course facilitators to direct them with a high degree of honesty in course administration. The students mentioned many factors that promote coursework cheating in Universities. Some of the factors are: laziness, difficult and incomprehensible questions, lack of time, lack of interest in the course, poor teaching methods by some course facilitators, lack of textbooks for research and desire for social life. The students also advised course facilitators to discourage coursework copying by adopting the following practices: giving enough time for coursework research, setting comprehensible questions, counselling students, providing hints for answering questions, and detecting copied work.

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Campus Cultism in Nigeria's Higher Education Institutions: Origins, Development and Suggestions for Control

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Abstract. This study situates the incidence of campus cultism in Nigerian HEIs in the broader area of higher education student activism. Starting with examination of commonly known forms of student activism, the study contrasts the cults in Nigeria's HEIs with *traditional* student activist organizations. It notes that the cults are not only unlike traditional student activist organizations but present serious threats for the wellbeing of their members, institutions and society. Thus, it examines the origins and development of the cults to explain why and how they attract and maintain their membership. It concludes that campus cultism is due to social, economic, educational and political grievances, adding that cults attract students because the students have needs that predispose them to affiliate with activist organizations. The study identifies these needs before arguing that, to be effective, efforts to control cultism must address the needs that attract students to the cults.

Keywords: Campus cultism; Education management; Legal control

1 Introduction

According to Sayers & Altbach (2002) students, as a force on campus and in society, must be understood by all who study or manage institutions of higher education. Authors like Altbach (1997) and Oni (2009) indicate that student activism is one of the important aspects of this (student) force that scholars on higher education and higher education institutions (HEI) managers need to understand. Defining it as heightened political or social activity among students, Sayers & Altbach (2002) note that the impact of student activism, on campus and in society, can be a force for change—or for disruption. Hence, the need to understand the activism, its motivations, forms, impact and strategies for containing its potential for disruption. It is against this background that this study delved into campus cultism—a peculiar and lethal form of student *activism* in Nigeria's HEIs.

The study situates the incidence of campus cultism in Nigerian HEIs in the broader area of higher education student activism. Starting with examination of commonly known forms of student activism as well as their impact and motivations, the study contrasts the campus cults in Nigeria's HEIs with the more traditional student activist organizations. It notes that the cults are not only unlike the traditional student activist organizations but present serious threats for the wellbeing of their members, campus communities and society at large. Why? To respond to this question, the study poses two questions: when and how did the cults start? 2) Why and how do they attract and maintain their membership?

Subsequently, it traces the origins of the cults to the Pyrates Confraternity, founded by Wole Soyinka (now a Nobel Laureate) and six undergraduates at the University of Ibadan in 1952. It is noted that the group typified the attributes of student activist organizations worldwide. However, by 1972, the group and similar groups had derailed from the attributes of traditional student activism and become obscure and occultist paramilitary organizations that frequently confronted each other and other targets on- and off-campus. The study examines the findings/ views of researchers on the subject of using political economy theory, opportunist theory and subculture theory as frames of analysis. This is with the conclusion that although the methods and activities of the cults are problematic, the phenomenon of campus cultism arises out of social, economic, educational and political inadequacies and grievances at individual and community levels. Thus, the cults' ability to attract students is not surprising. Like higher education students involved in other forms of activism in Nigeria and elsewhere, the followers of these cults have needs and are in circumstances that predispose them to seek membership to activist organizations. The only difference is that, in the case of the cults, the students' needs and circumstances are manipulated and their strength abused to pursue undesirable ends.

Therefore, it is argued that, to be effective, efforts to control the cults' excesses must be grounded on appreciation of the social, economic, educational and political needs that attract students to the cults, so that focus is put on addressing these needs rather than attacking the cults per se as has been done over the years. Recommendations towards realization of this suggestion are made.

2 Forms and Impact of Student Activism

Throughout the history of higher education worldwide, students have often been important political actors (Sayers & Altbach, 2002). These authors add that the most visible student organizations and movements are engaged in activist politics although there are many less dramatic student organizations, ranging from cultural and social groups (including fraternities and sororities) to student publications, newspapers, athletic groups and religious organizations. Notwithstanding the variety of forms of student activism, a desire by the activist students to correct campus or society ills and/ or assert alignment with an identity permeates most known forms of activism. Indeed, student activist movements have been the force behind monumental changes in many countries (e.g. Afghanistan, Indonesia, Serbia, South Korea, South Africa and United States). Sayers & Altbach (2002: 582) note that:

> The college or university is a particularly favourable environment for the development of organizations and movements among students. It is an active environment that stresses independent thought and analysis along with intellectual values, theories, and ideals that may call into question established social and political norms. University faculty, through their teaching and research, may also provide an atmosphere that legitimates dissent, or at least stimulates discussion about social and political issues…It is commonly recognized that such activities are an important part of the higher education experience and that the academic culture of the college or university extends beyond the classroom. The academic culture of the university also provides a considerable amount of free time for students to engage in extracurricular activities. Universities are in most instances "age-graded" cultures, where the majority of students are of a similar age and at a stage in life when they seek a sense of community and belonging. Also, with the daily lives of students centred around a physical campus, communication among students takes place naturally.

3 Difference between *Traditional* Student Activism and Cultism in Nigerian HEIs

In Nigeria, a significant proportion of student activism does not present a desire by the activist students to correct campus or society ills and/ or assert alignment with an identity. Rather, it has been abused to form cults—covert activist *cum* religious occultist associations that are not only dangerous to themselves but to others who are on the campus to pursue their legitimate goals (Oni, 2009). The cults mostly operate underground, bestriding the campus landscape like a colossus whenever they choose to strike.

Surreptitiously hiding their identity from *other* members of the university community, members of the campus cults are bold, daring and deadly. Their activities involve murder, rape and robbery, among other forms of violent crime. Their violence is usually characterized by the use of arms such as guns, axes, machetes, knives and broken bottles so it has led to varying degrees of homicide, maiming and sorrow. For example, in the wee hours of Saturday July 10, 1999, a gang of cultists invaded the Obafemi Awolowo University campus in the south-western part of Nigeria and unleashed terror on the institution in a deadly violent attack. The gang's ruthlessness was mostly felt in two of its male hostels where five undergraduates were brutally hacked to death in cold blood. Using the cover of darkness at a time when most students were deep in their sleep after a night of busy campus-life activities, the gang struck. Armed with guns and parading both male and female members, the deadly gang descended on the hapless students in a commando-style operation which lasted some few minutes before the attackers disappeared in thin air through a nearby bush. By the time the smoke cleared, many casualties littered the scene of the incident, the victims including prominent members of the Students' Union body.

4 Problem and Knowledge Gap

The problem is that the prevalence of campus cults in Nigeria's higher institutions has engendered a culture of violence with its attendant consequences for the development of HEIs and society at large. The heightened tempo of cult activities in HEIs has its negative impact on learning as cult violence is often associated with the truncating of school calendars, disruption of programmes, suspension of term activities, withdrawal of students, general breakdown of law and order and wastage of resources. A seeming tranquillity in an institution can suddenly be terminated by an invasion by members of a cult, resulting into violence, destruction of infrastructure, disruption of activities, maiming and death (cf. Adawo, 2010). It is estimated that, between 1996 and 2003, over one hundred and eighty (180) students were killed in violent gang warfare as a result of the activities of campus cults (Okebukola, 2003). A lot of property was also destroyed during the same period.

The menace of campus cults has posed challenges for the managers of HEIs in Nigeria that a multiplicity of authors (e.g. Adeola, 1997; Babarinde, 1998; Daminabo, 1991; Freedom Watch, 1997; Fayokun, 2003; Ossai, 2001) indicate that no aspect of Nigeria's education system has troubled the national conscience as the manifestation of secret cults in HEIs. Several summits, conferences, talk-shows and seminars have been held on campus cultism and the challenges they pose to higher education in Nigeria. Numerous academic papers had been presented, many of them offering "water-tight and elegant plans of action" to contain the "hydra-headed monster". All agree that confronting campus cultism is a difficult task fraught with many problems and conflicts. In 1997, the Federal Government of Nigeria constituted a team to discuss the menace of secret cults in HEIs. The team came up with recommendations for stamping out the cults but no significant achievements were made against the cults. In 1999, the federal government directed University Vice-Chancellors to eradicate cults from their campuses or lose their jobs but this too did not result into elimination of the cults. Hence the questions: 1) When and how did campus cultism in Nigeria start? 2) Why and how do campus cults attract and maintain their membership? 3) Does the history and nature of campus cults point to any suggestions for controlling them? Using related literature, this study attempts to respond to these questions.

5 Development of Campus Cultism in Nigerian HEIs

Abdu (2003), Ekong (2003) and Onoyase et al. (2008) trace the emergence of campus cults in Nigeria to the Pyrates Confraternity, founded by Wole Soyinka (now a Nobel Laureate) and six undergraduates at the University of Ibadan in 1952. At its inception, the Pyrates Confraternity, far from advocating a culture of violence, had as its aims noble ideals like the ending of tribalism, elitism, neo-colonialism and promotion of chivalry. For some years the Pyrates Confraternity required Spartan qualities in its membership and was the only student club of its kind. Its activities were devoid of violence and its members were held in high esteem among the student populace. It held public meetings, kept a directory of its membership and published a campus paper entitled *Scorpion*. Clearly, the group typified the attributes of higher education student activist groups (cf. section 2).

However, later, the Pyrates Confraternity derailed from its founding mission as an ideological activist group and became a secret cult. In 1972, a prominent member of the group, who fell afoul of the group's norms, was expelled for indiscipline. In protest, he pioneered a splinter group known as the Buccaneers. As time went by, other breakaway factions emerged, many of them motivated by rancour, feud and personal rivalry. A group known as Eiye was formed out of the bigger faction and it became a ready haven for many who failed in their bid to join the older groups. These groups rivalled against each other and kept watchful eyes not only on their members but also the activities of their rivals.

Many of the students denied admission to or expelled from a group harboured feelings of bitterness, envy and vengeance against the group. Thus, they sought opportunities for revenge. These students started new cults, not for the ideals that student activist organizations traditionally stand for but vengeance against rival groups. In due course, the violence used in confronting rival cults was deployed to any grievance that the leadership of the cults deemed required a violent response. These developments invariably degenerated into open skirmishes, confrontation and violent clashes. Mostly non-pulsed by the ensuing violent clashes, the response of University managers was usually a hurried closure of the institutions and a proscription of student groups without making a thorough study of the malaise of campus cultism. Of course, this “fire brigade” approach often proved to be merely cosmetic as the groups were merely driven underground where their activities found a festering ground to thrive and become more intricate. The next phase in the growth of campus cults involved the spread of the cults from the HEIs where they had started to neighbouring campuses where they launched massive recruitment drives in a cutthroat-like competitive manner. The resilience of campus cults could be seen in their enduring of most unfavourable conditions and environment. Where the atmosphere became too hostile to their recruitment and organization, they relocated to more conducive neighbourhoods but did not give up their activities. Today, cults can be found in all HEIs in the country. They have also spread to many high schools.

6 Types and Activities of Campus Cults in Nigerian HEIs

Abdu (2003) has listed as many as eighty five cult groups operating in Nigeria’s HEIs. No campus is known to be spared of their activities. The most prominent of these cults are classified into five categories as follows: Classical fraternities; God-father secret cults; Female cults; Mafia cults; and Terrorist cults. Though each of the cults claims a distinct identity and operates within its own belief system, they are all prone to violence and are characterized by brain-washing of neophytes, close mindedness of members, assumption of a distinguishable identity, covenant-induced brotherhood and intolerance of others outside their belief system.

The members of each cult are very strong-willed, close-minded, and operate under a command structure. As a result, they are found to go to any length to achieve their objectives or preserve their secrets. Due to their intolerance, they expend considerable energy denouncing other groups. In general, they are not receptive to rational ideas or thinking. Rather, they hold isolated or radical views. Their activities are usually pronounced during recruitment drives, initiation periods, social and political functions on campus or whenever there is a score to settle with opponents. Initiation into the cults is usually done at night in obscure places like dense jungles, cemeteries, abandoned buildings, locked-up classrooms or market stores. There is a thick air of secrecy around cult groups and their activities, which they mostly conduct in the night. Members of cult groups are bound under an oath of secrecy not to divulge information on the identity of other members or the group's activities. Initiation rites are usually frightful scenes where new members are made to enter into blood covenants to seal their commitments to the group and its objectives (Oni, 2009).

Cults promise their members who feel threatened by perceived enemies on the campus security. They help their members to gain power and influence (e.g. in the leadership of student guilds). They also promise to help their members to achieve desired grades in examinations. Some cults promise to satisfy their members' personal needs (e.g. money, food, drinks, drugs, clothes, cars, weapons, etc.) The cults provide *mercenary* services for people who need to attack or intimidate opponents (e.g. unscrupulous politicians who resort to the use of malice and violence to outwit their opponents). Cults terrorize campus communities and their neighbourhoods, to make them ungovernable and frustrate leaders that are hostile to their activities. Some of the campus cults affiliate with cults in the wider Nigerian community and recruit students for the cults in the larger community. Using their network of past and present members, they secure employment some of their members upon graduation. They also link their members to an influential political and professional network, including police officers, army officers, tax people, lawyers and officers of the judicial service among others. The cults also run sex and drug trade rings.

7 Why and how do the Cults Attract and Keep their Followers?

Many reasons have been advanced for the emergence and proliferation of campus cults in Nigeria's HEIs. Sociologists have advanced three theories on the causes of cultism in the society, namely, political economy theory; opportunist theory; and subculture theory. The political economy theory postulates that inequality in the society breeds vices like corruption, violent crimes, robbery, gangsters and cultism. On the other hand, opportunist theory states that there are prevailing societal conditions which predispose the people of the society to manifest certain characteristics and behaviour. Finally, subculture theory explains that whenever a subculture (in this case cultism) is allowed to develop, eradicating it becomes extremely difficult Abdu (2003).

In concurrence, related literature (e.g. Kazi, 1999; Oni, 2005; Ekong, 2003) suggests that the emergence of violent cult activities coincided with the militarization of the national polity. Gross mismanagement of public funds, dwindling economic fortunes, inadequate funding of education, mass importation of arms, influx of alien cultures into the Nigerian society, proliferation of hard drugs, exposure of students to occultism literature and violent films (whose characters serve as role models for the youths), moral decadence and corruption in the society have also been cited as all precipitating factors (see, for example, Oni, 2009; Adeola, 1997; Fayokun, 2003; Ikudayisi, 1998; Marcel, 1997; Smah, 2001). The violent nature of campus cults became noticeable from the early 1980s when corruption, mismanagement and nepotism began to take their toll on the Nigerian psyche. At the same time, a crop of leftist radicals in the citadels of learning assumed the role of a formidable opposition to the elite ruling class and military junta. In an attempt to crush these opponents, the military instigated and equipped cult groups to destabilize the ranks of critics. Within the university system itself cult gangs became ready tools for oppression and repression. The idea of "god-fatherism" took root, whereby cult groups provided the needed appendage to campus power brokers. It is believed that some managers of HEIs used cult groups to counter student activism for reforms in the management of their institutions. Even among the rank and file of university staff, cult groups were used to settle scores or silence perceived enemies.

Other factors given for the attractiveness of campus cults to youths include collapse of the family structure and good parental training; peer influence; a search for answers to felt needs (emotional, academic, financial etc); need for belongingness; inquisitiveness; lack of rigorous academic challenges or failure to measure up to these challenges in instances where they exist (i.e. substitution of efforts to succeed academically with participation in cult activities); and despair (for instance due to poverty and unemployment). It is noteworthy that in separate studies relating students' campus cult involvement and social adjustment, Oni (2009), Nwogu (1997) and Thompson (1998) concur that these factors indeed explain the proliferation of campus cults and their ability to attract and maintain followers. According to Nwogu (1997), for instance, cult members experience a high degree of social maladjustment because they have great difficulty in incorporating the values and standards of the society. Oni (2009) and Nwogu (1997) are corroborated by Faliye (2003) who observes reports members of campus cults harbour deep feelings of rejection, worry and dissatisfaction that cause the emotional outbursts and poor impulse control that predispose them to acts of rape, murder and assault among other antisocial behaviours. It may also be noted that these factors are highly similar to those that have been identified for student activism (cf. 2). Here, the inference is that although the activities of the campus cults are detrimental and undesirable, it is not difficult for them to attract and keep followers. Like higher education students involved in other forms of activism in Nigeria and elsewhere, the followers of these cults have needs and are in circumstances that predispose them to seek membership to activist organizations. The only difference is that, in the case of the cults, the students' needs and circumstances are manipulated and the strength arising out of the students' collective activity abused to pursue undesirable ends (Onoyase et al., 2008).

8 Implications for Control of Campus Cultism

The first, and most important, implication of the foregoing discussion is that efforts to control the cults' excesses must be grounded on appreciation of the fact that, like higher education students involved in other forms of activism in Nigeria and elsewhere, the followers of campus cults have needs and are in circumstances that predispose them to seek membership to activist organizations. Thus, these efforts should focus on addressing these needs rather than attacking the cults per se as has been done over the years. In particular, there is need to promote the development of student activist organizations that will address the students' needs for identity and collective bargaining albeit without recourse to the excesses associated with the cults. Oni (2009:270) writes in concurrence:

> …there is a need for a helping relationship that will enable students cope with the many problems of campus life…the cultists themselves need help to be able to understand themselves better and consequently live within the accepted values of the society.

Once avenues for gratifying the students' needs have been established to provide an option for potential cultists, government should put in place policy measures for stamping out cultism on our campuses. This includes the enactment of a comprehensive legislation to tackle the malaise of cultism in our society. Strongly worded legislation should equate cultism in the universities with cultism in the general society to be criminalized and penalized seriously. Secondly, an intelligence network should be expanded to apprehend cultists who are terrorizing the campuses. Security measures should be beefed up on the campuses with the police supporting the security outfits of the institutions in their operations. Each of the campuses should launch efficient machinery for weeding out known cultists and their intelligence units should be empowered and equipped to deal decisively with cult members. Water-tight security measures on campuses should be extended to the immediate communities where the campuses are located. There is the need of appointing only competent, courageous, honest, principled and uncompromising judicial personnel to preside over cult-related cases. Investigation of cult-related violence should be thorough and adequate protection provided for investigators, prospective witnesses and judicial officers. Committed cultists should be penalized without fear or favour and their identities properly publicized to attract public condemnation and serve as deterrence for prospective cult members. It may be noted that several authors (e.g. Ede, 1995; Ige, 2000) recommend equally tough responses to the problem of student cultists.

Nevertheless, it must be recognized that by themselves, legislation on cultism and prosecution of cultists can achieve very little. One effective measure for controlling the spread of campus cults is the instilling of the fear of God in our young minds at their earlier ages. We need to inculcate and promote proper parenting. No one can underestimate parental role in the shaping of the character of their children. The fear of God must be effectively instilled in pupils in lower schools. Students entering high schools should be properly instructed in moral and religious education. Moral instruction should be carried on through different methodologies even at the tertiary level. Religious leaders were found to be effective in helping university administrators to deal with campus cultism in the past. The drumbeats of moral renaissance which followed the bloodbath and cult violence at Obafemi Awolowo University Ile-Ife in 1999 led to many cultists renouncing their membership of cult groups in the public glare. This underscores the fact that efforts aimed at catching the youths at their earlier ages were not in vain. Thus, it is expedient to start creating awareness of the negative influence of cult groups among pupils right from the primary schools. Having a virile Guidance and Counselling unit in the Students Affairs Division of the university that will invigorate anti-cultism ideas in students on campuses is imperative. This suggestion is in concurrence with the conclusion of Oni (2009: 272) that:

> Religious organizations, counsellors, students, parents and guardians should see themselves as part of the effort to save our tertiary institutions. Without our joint efforts in this regard, decrees and instruments of terror will achieve nothing.

In concurrence, Alemika (2000) concluded that the only way to eradicate cultism from our HEIs is by using spiritual leaders to organise non-congregational services and counselling in schools. This *multifaceted* effort that integrates the input of all the stakeholders in higher education is supported by other researchers (e.g. Omotosho et al., 2008; Onoyase et al., 2008). For example, Onoyase et al. (2008) conclude that:

> …the use of coercion, persuasion, public awareness campaign, public renunciation and school disciplinary measure have been found effective in the management of cultism (Onoyase et al., 2008: 213).

Regulating activities in the university communities will go a long way in tightening the lax security in and around the campuses. All groups and associations within university campuses should be properly screened before their registration. Likewise all groups and associations outside the campuses to which student groups are afflicted should be screened to examine the level of their influence on students. The universities and the government should address the issue of illegal possession of arms and ammunition as well as the phenomenon of drug abuse among students. Students should sign bonds against cultism on admission (Oluwatobi & Babatunde, 2010). This should be complemented with a good monitoring system of their activities during college sessions. More particularly, setting up of vigilance groups against campus cults by the generality of the students themselves has been found to be a good control measure against campus cultism.

Stepping up rigorous scholarships in the institutions will keep the students busy with their studies and leave them with little time for frivolity. Positive relationships have been hypothesized between the amount of busy time students have on campuses and their non-involvement in cult activities (Okebukola, 2003). This suggestion derives credence from Adawo (2010) who contends that:

> [the] leading problem in cultism is admitting non-academic students into the university. And because they do not belong to academics, they sit back to practice what they belong [*sic*]. This is a spill-over effect of examination malpractice through which they found admission into universities.

For instance, Medical students have been found to be the busiest on campus and their level of participation in cult activities is recorded to be the lowest. In concurrence, Sayers & Altbach (2002) report that, in the United States, HEIs control the extent of student action using course load. When the universities were well funded and lecturers were well remunerated, there was no instability in the academic calendar and no dull academic moment for students. Schools terms were filled with academic activities, field trips, tests, etc., leaving little room for non-academic activities. Writing in concurrence, Oni (2009) recommends that teaching aids and research materials should be made available to the teachers.

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Obstacles to the Internationalisation of Higher Education in Africa: the Case of Uganda

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Abstract. As the world turns into a global village, shifting from national to international higher education systems presents itself as a subject of critical concern. Thus, higher education systems and institutions are internationalizing their outlook and programs. However, in Africa, little has been published on the challenges these systems and institutions are experiencing in their efforts to internationalise their programs and outlook. Taking the case of Uganda, this study examines some of these challenges. Using a questionnaire adapted from related literature, data were elicited from 54 managers of HEIs in the country. The findings were that underfunding; inadequate government and donor support; staffing gaps; and administrative rigidity are constraining the internationalization of higher education in the country. Therefore, recommendations towards improving the institutions' funding, modes of delivery and collaboration with offshore HEIs are made.

Keywords: Internationalisation; Curriculum innovation; Cross border education

1 Introduction

The rate at which globalization is sweeping every part of the world is so fast that it is rendering advocates of the closed-economy-philosophy and its tenets obsolete every passing day. It is now rather utopian to think that a society can develop economically, technologically, socially, or educationally in isolation of others (Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999; Chakrabarti and Bhaumik, 2009; Sharma and Roy, 1996). Today's world trends demand an international outlook to every aspect of life, work and development, be it at individual, organizational or national level. Most of the human activities, jobs, workplaces, markets, services and facilities needed by a country and/ or its individual citizens to transform from one stage to another, have been globalized either in the manner of their production, procurement, delivery, or utilization (Reihlen and Apel, 2007). This has particularly been witnessed in the sectors of transport and communications, manufacturing, trade, hospitality, tourism, and most of all education generally and its higher education sub sector in particular (Hammond, 2009; Kathuria, Maheshkumar and Dellande, 2008; Mazzarol, Soutar and Sim Yaw Seng, 2003).

Globalization is not simply an advanced form of internationalization writ large. Unlike internationalization, globalization is at best indifferent to, and at worst positively hostile to, nation states. It celebrates the "low" world of mass consumerism, not the "higher worlds of diplomacy and culture and, as it is not tied to the past, is subversive of, and not supportive of, the established world order.

Intimately related to globalization is the growing recognition that national economic success can no longer be guaranteed solely by the mass production of consumer goods, or the physical exploitation of natural assets. Rather, it is becoming increasingly dependent on ability to create and use new ideas and knowledge. Globalization and the 'knowledge society' have also generated far-reaching implications for higher education through the way in which they have transformed the nature of both our working lives and our daily lives. In today's education driven-economy, the message is loud and clear: if you don't learn, you won't earn.

Many institutions of higher learning, especially those in Europe, Asia and America have made tremendous efforts towards internationalization of their educational service delivery systems (Abdullahi, Kajberg and Virkus, 2007; Poh-Lin, 2004). They have initiated, promoted and continue to foster international cooperation, collaboration and networking not only amongst themselves but also between them and their counterparts in Africa (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007; International Association of Universities (IAU), 2009). This has been taking place and continues to occur in form of redesigning of curriculum; fostering teamwork in the conduct and publication of higher education research and consultancies; conferencing; pursuing exchange training programmes; e-learning, promotion of desired quality assurance management; and supporting educational infrastructure development (Abdullahi and Kajberg, 2004; Hudson, 2003; IAU, 2009; Mihhailova, 2006). These institutions have been internationalizing their educational delivery systems for purposes of producing graduates who are not only competitive in the increasingly internationalizing job market but also compatibly relevant to the highly globalized development of their nations (Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999). They are also doing it as a means of promoting and maintaining their international competitiveness and buoyancy as centres of excellence in academics, co-curricular activities, instructional expertise, research and innovation (Reihlen and Apel, 2007; Monye, 1995).

Unfortunately, the situation in Africa is rather different. The efforts made by African institutions of higher learning towards the internationalization of their educational service delivery systems have yielded little success (Knight, 2003). Indeed, African institutions of higher learning have been pursuing inter-university collaboration in form of student exchange programmes, faculty or departmental cooperation, research, internet exchange of information and ideas, but they have not achieved the desired level of internationalization (IAU, 2007, 2009). Instead, they have benefited far less from the fostered collaboration than their overseas counterparts. This is particularly witnessed in Uganda.

While most of the foreign collaborating institutions of higher learning have largely computerized their educational service delivery and are subsequently finding it easy to access and exchange information, experience and ideas, their counterparts in Uganda are still grappling with poorly installed and inefficient internet systems as well as negligible levels of e-learning and internet supported distance education (Kayongo, 2009; Nabwire, 2008). As far as the pursued student and staff exchange programmes are concerned, Ugandan institutions of higher learning enrol far more foreign students and staff than they send to foreign collaborating institutions of higher learning. The influx of foreign students and academic staff into Ugandan institutions of higher learning may give an impression that Uganda's higher education is internationalizing. Whereas this impression may be true in terms of foreign student inflows, it is essentially illusory since it is not matched with an equivalent or greater outflow of Ugandan students and academic staff to foreign institutions of higher learning.

As a matter of fact, the Ministry of Education and Sports (2008) indicates that the number of foreign students enrolled by Ugandan institutions of higher learning is almost five times the number of Ugandan students admitted by the collaborating foreign institutions of higher learning. The same source shows that Ugandan institutions of higher learning receive more visiting professors and lecturers than they send to collaborating foreign institutions of higher learning. This indicates Ugandan institutions of higher learning receive less in terms of international mobility of students and staff than their counterparts. In the fostered international research and consultancy teamwork, foreign members of the constituted teams not only tend to dominate in number but are also paid almost thrice as much as their Ugandan counterparts. While Ugandan institutions of higher learning are declining as far as quality assurance management is concerned (Kayongo, 2008; Nabwire, 2008), the curve for their collaborating counterparts is steadily rising (IAU, 2009). The glaring economic and technological differences in favour of foreign countries suggest that graduates of collaborating foreign institutions of higher learning contribute more to the development of their and other nations than their Ugandan counterparts do to Uganda's and other countries' development.

In general, the fore-described scenario indicates that compared to its counterparts in overseas countries, higher education in Uganda is far less internationalized in terms of quality, mobility of students and academic staff, benefits to Ugandans and global competitiveness. Why?

This article attempted to explore the reasons. It examined the challenges constraining the efforts of Ugandan institutions of higher learning to internationalize their educational service delivery systems to the level of their counterparts. The paper also attempted to come up with strategies by which the challenges can be overcome so as to promote the desired internationalization of higher education in Uganda. Accordingly, it endeavoured to answer the following questions:

1. What are the economic, political and curriculum challenges of internationalizing higher education in Uganda?
2. How can the challenges be addressed so as to promote the internationalization of higher education in Uganda?

2 Methodology

The methodology used to answer the foregoing questions involved reviewing literature on challenges of internationalizing higher education. It also involved administration of a questionnaire to 54 higher education officials and analysis of the collected data. The review of literature was intended to set a platform for exploring the obstacles to internationalizing higher education in Uganda. It therefore informed the designing of the questionnaire administered to the selected officials. The questionnaire was designed according to the themes derived directly from the foregoing questions.

University officials to whom the questionnaires were administered were selected from six institutions of higher learning (three private and three public institutions of higher learning). The institutions of higher learning were selected using simple random sampling so as to give each university an equal chance of being selected to take part in the study (Amin, 2005). A list of all private institutions of higher learning and another consisting of public institutions of higher learning of Uganda were compiled. Then three institutions of higher learning were selected from the public institutions of higher learning' list and three institutions of higher learning from the private institutions of higher learning' list without replacement. The selection of university officials followed thereafter.

University officials were selected using purposive sampling because only those who were considered as key informants were targeted. These included two top university administrators who included either the Vice Chancellor or

University Secretary, depending on who of the two was available at the time of data collection, and a university's bursar. While any of the former two was selected to provide data on administrative challenges, the bursar was selected to provide data on financial challenges. Three faculty deans and four heads of departments were also selected to provide data on academic and non-academic challenges against internationalization of higher education. All the respondents were accessed in their respective offices. Attempts were made to first request for the willingness and cooperation of the selected officials before administering questionnaires to them. The request involved self-introduction and explaining the objective of the study. Any official who accepted to be a respondent was then given a questionnaire to fill in.

Data was analyzed using the mean comparison option of the descriptive method of the SPSS software, version 13. The challenges to internationalizing higher education in Uganda were identified using a five-point Likert scale of responses. The responses and their respective codes were; strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), not sure (3), agree (4) and strongly agree (5). All the questionnaire items were stated positively, implying that if a respondent agreed, then the item did not constitute an obstacle, more so if a respondent strongly agreed (Mean close to 5). If respondents disagreed (Mean close to 2), this meant that the embedded factor was a challenge, and a critical one if respondents strongly disagreed (Mean close to 1). Not sure (Mean close to 3) was considered as a neutral response pointing to respondents' uncertainty about whether a given factor was a challenge or not. The reviewed literature and findings obtained from the analysis are presented in the next sections according to the research questions.

3 Related Literature and Findings

The International Association of Universities (IAU) (2009) indicates that despite making appreciable efforts to initiate and foster alliances, cooperation, collaboration and networking, many African universities and institutions of higher learning have not reached the optimal level of internationalizing their education service delivery systems in many ways. They have made attempts to internationalize higher education in terms of inter-university cooperation and networking (IAU, 2008). This has largely been manifested in form of efforts to form and sponsor quality assurance practices (such as expansion of educational infrastructure, research supervision, vetting and examination), joint research teams and consultancies (Ahwireng-Obeng, 1999; IAU, 2007). Other efforts have been expressed in terms of forming and encouraging student and staff exchange programmes, competition in co-curricular activities, academic course diversification, and shifting from a term to a semester system (IAU, 2007). However, little success has been achieved due to a number of obstacles and challenges. These challenges are reviewed as presented in the next section.

3.1 Obstacles to Internationalisation Higher Education

Knight (2003) discussed some of the challenges as including: lack of policy or strategy to facilitate internationalization of higher education; lack of financial support; administrative inertia; lack of understanding of what is involved; insufficiently trained or qualified staff to guide the process; competing priorities; lack of reliable and comprehensive information; issues of non-recognition abroad; and lack of opportunities.

A critical synthesis of these challenges reveals that higher education in Africa has failed to be internationalized mainly because of the internal management weaknesses of the continents' institutions of higher learning and factors characterizing their international operating environment. Indeed, the foregoing challenges show that African institutions of higher learning have not attained quality standards at which they can be recognized as internationally competitive institutions. The failure to attain such standards has also been highlighted in the work of Kasenene (2009), Kayongo (2008) and Nabwire (2008). Similar observations are made in the scholarly manuscripts of Malick and Grisay (2000), Munroe-Kavulya (2006), Munroe-Blum (2004), Tam Wai-Ming (2008), and Waithanji-Ngware and Ndirangu (2005).

Knight's (2003) highlighted challenges also indicate that African institutions of higher learning have not adequately marketed themselves in the international arena of higher education because they have not exploited the opportunities to do so. This is explained by the institutions' internal management weaknesses, which are revealed in Knight's (2003) observations as taking the form of organizational and administrative rigidities, inadequate knowledge of the internationalizing process, poor funding, and lack of necessary human resource and competences.

The available literature indicates that there is perhaps no challenge that has bedevilled the internationalization of higher education by African institutions of higher learning to the extent at which their funding has done so (Bitamazire, 2005; Getler and Glewwe, 1999; Glewwe and Jacoby, 1993; Jamil, 1992; Kajubi, 1992; Muyimbwa, 2004; Okoth-Ogola, 1995; Okwach, 2000; Saint, 1995; Ssekamwa, 1996; Tibarimbasa, 1989; Wamala, 2000; Woodhall, 1995). Poor funding explains why African universities have not adopted e-learning (Kayongo, 2009); yet this type of learning has been highlighted as one of the strategies for internationalizing higher education (Mihhailova, 2006). It is still a factor that has been cited as significantly critical in explaining the poor quality of educational services delivered by most of the African institutions (Munroe-

Blum, 2004; Kayongo, 2008; Nabwire, 2008); thereby hindering them from attaining desired international competitiveness.

The local operating environment of African institutions of higher learning has also played a significant role in barring the institutions from achieving desired internationalization of their educational service delivery systems. According to Bray and Lillis (1988), majority of the students enrolled from local areas come from poverty-stricken backgrounds. They cannot raise the tuition needed by the institutions to attain even the minimum international educational excellence. On the contrary, students admitted from foreign countries find the tuition charged by these institutions affordable, even when their rates are in most cases higher than the locally charged rates (Makerere University, 2008). The fact that local students take precedence when admitting students to most African institutions of higher learning, especially those in the public domain implies, therefore, that the institutions have no choice but no provide educational services that the raised tuition fees can enable them to. The net effect of this is however to fail to achieve international competitiveness in terms of educational standards. No wonder that most of these institutions have to contend with lack of recognition in the international arena of higher education.

Another challenge has been cited as focusing on differences in educational systems and curricula in terms of content and programming. Most of the African institutions of higher learning follow either the British or French systems of education (Namutebi, 2008). This comes with its own barriers such as dissimilarities in the language of instruction, which complicate internationalization of higher education, especially in terms of student and staff exchange programmes. In fact, when students are exchanged, they waste a period of at least three months learning only the language of instruction. In addition, some African countries have tended to emphasize the fact that the curricula content of higher education should focus on developing and graduating students who can meet local development needs (Ministry of Education and Sports, 1989, 1992; Museveni, 1995). As a result, many institutions of higher learning are on the course of changing their curricula outlook so as to make it nationally oriented. Whereas this may be relevant in the short run, it may not be tenable in the long run, especially in view of the rapid globalization process. For it effectively limits internationalization of the education provided by the institutions.

Further, the system of instruction in most of the African institutions of higher learning is programmed in the manner that is inconsistent with the programming followed by similar institutions in overseas countries (IAU, 2005). While most of the African institutions of higher learning follow a term-based system curriculum programming and instruction (IAU, 2006), their counterparts in Europe and America follow a semester system (Abdullahi et al, 2007; Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007). This complicates student exchange programmes since it effectively implies that students exchanged from one system to another have to lose time amounting to almost a whole academic before they are well incorporated.

In conclusion, it is important to note that while some of the fore cited observations were made in a manner that over-generalized all the institutions of higher learning in Africa, others were made focusing on institutions in South Africa, East Africa, West Africa or Kenya. Moreover, the geographical scope of some studies focuses on Europe or America. In addition, a critical synthesis of the context of the studies cited on Uganda's institutions reveals that they (the studies) were essentially not dealing with internationalization of higher education but rather other variables such as management, funding, and education systems, budget management, and so on. There was therefore a gap regarding whether the highlighted challenge also explain the low levels of internationalizing higher education in Uganda.

3.2 Challenges of Internationalizing Higher Education in Uganda

Accordingly, a questionnaire designed based on the foregoing literature was administered to the selected officials to gain an insight into the challenges of internationalizing higher education in Uganda. Indices were generated from Likert scale options that were coded as follows: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Not sure; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree. For each item, the range of the response pattern was shown by the minimum and maximum values. The average response is shown by the mean value. The extent of dispersion from the average response pattern is shown by the standard deviation. A close scrutiny of the response pattern reveals that for two of the variables investigated (that is, "institution realizes all the funding needed to support internationalization of the education offered to students" and "Fees needed to internationalize education are affordable") the means were close to one and the magnitudes of the standard deviations were numerically very small, the inference being that all the respondents "strongly disagreed" with the items (Table 1).

Table 1: Obstacles to Internationalisation of Higher Education in Uganda

Attribute	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Institution has a policy for internationalizing programmes	1	4	2.38	0.643
Curriculum mainly focuses on nationally-oriented education	4	5	4.11	0.998
Institution's curriculum is internationally focused.	1	5	3.63	0.505
Administration supports internationalisation of curricula	1	5	3.54	0.504
Managers are knowledgeable of what it takes to internationalize education	1	4	2.20	0.701
Academic staffs are qualified to internationalize education	1	4	2.34	0.232
Academic staffs propose programmes aimed at internationalizing instruction offered	1	2	2.04	0.070
Institution prioritizes internationalization of curricula	2	5	3.90	0.201
Managers have information on the need to internationalize	1	4	2.05	0.305
Institution is recognized internationally	1	3	1.52	0.401
There are opportunities for internationalizing programmes	1	4	1.57	0.905
Institution has the funds required for internationalization	1	2	1.09	0.302
Institution has capacity to support internet-aided learning	1	4	2.09	0.092
Fees needed to internationalize education are affordable	1	2	1.14	0.070
Medium of instruction supports internationalization	2	5	3.76	0.302
Institution's calendar rhymes with calendars of other countries	2	4	1.90	0.201

The mean responses imply that on average, respondents expressed strong dissent to the foregoing items. This implies that the factors that were embedded in these items were perceived as the most critical challenges to internationalization of higher education in Uganda. Disagreeing strongly to the items reveals that these challenges were:

1. Failure to realize all the funding needed to support internationalization of the education offered to students.
2. Inability of enrolled Ugandan students to pay the tuition and fees needed by the institutions to provide internationally competitive services. A further careful look at the results in Table 1 suggests that although the response range varied for the following items, the mean responses were close to '2'.
3. The institution has a policy for internationalizing the education it provides to students.
4. The management of the institution is knowledgeable about what it takes to internationalize education offered to students.
5. The institution's academic staff members are sufficiently trained and qualified to guide internationalization of education offered to students.
6. The institution's academic year is well matched with the academic years of other institutions with which the institution exchanges students.

7. The institution's bureaucracy does not frustrate efforts to internationalize offered education.
8. The management of the institution has information that keeps it reliably and adequately aware of what to do in order to internationalize the provided education.
9. The institution is at the desired level of recognition in the international arena of higher education.
10. Institution has opportunities to internationalize education
11. Institution receives all the funding needed to support internationalization of the education offered to students.
12. Institution has capacity to support internet-aided distance learning.
13. Institution's academic staffs design proposals for programmes aimed at internationalizing the education offered.

The findings imply that, on average, the respondents perceived the factors embedded in the foregoing items as challenges to internationalization of higher education in Uganda. "Disagreeing" to the items implies that Uganda's institutions of higher learning are still challenged by:

1. Lack of policy for internationalizing their education.
2. Their management not being adequately knowledgeable about what it takes to internationalize this education.
3. Their academic staff members being not adequately trained and qualified to guide internationalization of education offered to students.
4. Their academic years being not well matched with the academic years of other institutions outside Uganda.
5. Their frustrating bureaucratic administrative systems.
6. Their managements not lacking information needed to keep reliably aware of what to do in order to internationalize the education.
7. Their failure to attain the desired level of international recognition.
8. Having not opportunities to internationalize the provided education.
9. Lack of capacity to support internet-aided distance learning.
10. Failure of their academic staff members to design proposals for programmes aimed at making education offered to students internationally oriented.

On the contrary, the response range and mean responses in Table 1 reveal that the curriculum pursued by Uganda's institutions of higher learning was not a challenge to internationalizing the country's higher education. Despite the fact that it was largely nationally focused, it was perceivably not restricting the institution's efforts to internationalize this education. In addition all the institutions were also not challenged by lack of a charter to operate as nationally recognized institutions of higher learning. Important to note is that respondents were further asked to mention any other challenges that had not

been highlighted in the pre-coded items. The thematic analysis of their responses revealed the following additional challenges:
1. Conservative attitude of top administrators.
2. Government delays in awarding of charters.
3. Institutional rivalry between the traditional institutions and newly established upcoming institutions (some institutions sabotage others through mudslinging).
4. Lack of donor support towards internationalized study programmes.
5. Differences in the structure of education and medium of instruction between countries in the region.
6. Political instabilities, which have affected the development of the higher education sector.

In general, results indicate that the internationalization of higher education in Uganda is still hampered by various challenges, the most critical of which are poor funding and inability of local students to pay the tuition fees that would enable the institutions of higher learning to build capacity that turn them into internationally competitive institutions.

3.3 Strategies for Overcoming the Challenges to Internationalization of Higher Education

A number of strategies have been highlighted, including integrating an international and intercultural dimension into the curriculum pursued by institutions of higher learning; promoting networking, cooperation, alliances, consortia; and adoption of internationalized academic and co-curricular disciplines, programs and content (IAU, 2007, 2008). Some of the programmes whose content can be internationalized are: Business Administration; Social Sciences; Health Sciences; Arts and Humanities; National Sciences; Engineering; and Information Technology (Chakrabarti and Bhaumik, 2009; Knight, 2003). Ahwireng-Obeng (1999) added Economics as another discipline that can be internationalized. Other cited strategies include: promoting online collaboration or adoption of e-learning as a means of supporting distance or online education; promotion of correspondence learning aided by post offices; encouraging student exchange programmes; and developing international teacher training and evaluation criteria (Ayoubi and Massoud, 2007; Hudson, 2003; Kayondo, 2009; Mihhailova, 2006; Monye, 1995; Poh-Lin, 2004; Waithanji-Ngware and Ndirangu, 2005).

Guided by the foregoing strategies, a number of questionnaire items were administered to the selected officials to establish the strategies that could be adopted to internationalize higher education in Uganda. The officials were asked to rank the given strategies according to how important the strategy was to internationalizing higher education. Results obtained from the indices analysis of their rankings are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Strategies for Overcoming the Obstacles to Internationalization

	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Adoption of internationalized e-learning programmes	1	3	1.11	0.101
Adoption of internationalized learning experiences	2	4	2.01	0.102
Promoting inter-institutional cooperation in research	3	5	3.31	0.111
Encouraging student exchange programmes	4	8	4.15	0.575
Integrating an international dimension into curriculum	5	9	5.21	0.207
Supporting and participating in international symposia	6	9	6.11	0.404
Networking with overseas higher education institutions	2	9	7.11	0.109
Developing international teacher development criteria	8	9	8.94	0.101
Promotion of learning by correspondence	7	9	8.78	0.876

Results in Table 2 summarize the manner in which respondents ranked the strategies for overcoming the challenging to internationalization of Uganda's higher education. The standard deviations in Table 2 were all numerically small, suggesting low dispersion from the average ranking pattern. A close comparative scrutiny of the mean ranks reveals that the strategies were ranked with the first in the table as highest ranked and the last in the table as the lowest ranked strategy. Accordingly, adoption of online or e-learning as an internationalized programme was the highest ranked strategy (Mean = 1.11) followed by adoption of internationalized academic and co-curricular disciplines, programs and content (Mean = 2.01) and so forth.

Further attempt was made by asking selected respondents to outline any other strategies for overcoming the challenges of internationalizing higher education in Uganda. The thematic analysis of their responses indicated the following strategies:

1. Improving the funding of the institutions of higher learning through seeking donor support.
2. Alleviating poverty in Uganda by improving household incomes of the sponsors of higher education Ugandan students.
3. Building internal capacity in terms of in-service management training focused on equipping knowledge needed by institutional administrators to internationalize higher education.
4. Reducing the red tape against efforts to internationalize higher education.

4 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Findings show that while a number of challenges are still bedevilling the internationalization of higher education in Uganda, those that are critical to this process are failure of the institutions of higher learning to realize all the necessary funding and the inability of enrolled Ugandan students to pay tuition and fees needed by the institutions to provide internationally competitive educational services. The findings are therefore consistent with the observations raised by Kayongo (2009), Getler and Glewwe (1999), Glewwe and Jacoby (1993), Jamil (1992), Kajubi (1992), Muyimbwa (2004), Okoth-Ogola (1995), Okwach (2000), Saint (1995), Ssekamwa (1996), Tibarimbasa (1989), Wamala (2000), and Woodhall (1995). Each of these scholars has shown that poor funding is a critical constraint to the ability of Uganda's institutions of higher learning to achieve desired and therefore internationally competitive educational excellence. Interestingly, the most critical challenges are related in such a way that one obstacle explains the other. Therefore, efforts to improve the funding of the institutions need to also consider how to improve the economic situation of the sponsors of the enrolled students.

Critical analysis of other challenges points to weaknesses in the institutions' internal management and organization of the institutions, inadequate government and donor support, unsupportive international and local operating environments, insufficient training of staff members and programming of academic years, which does not match with that of overseas institutions. The challenges are therefore consistent with those pointed out in the work of Knight (2003) and IAU (2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008).

In conclusion, the obstacles to against the internationalization of higher education in Uganda include: inadequate funding; inability of Ugandan students to pay tuition that the institutions need to internationalize competitively; inadequate government and donor support; insufficiency staff training, internal management and administrative weaknesses; unsupportive operating environment.

The strategies that institutions of higher learning in Uganda need to adopt in order to internationalize higher education include: improving their funding through seeking donor and government support; adopting online or e-learning, building internal capacity in terms of in-service management training; and encouraging government to enhance initiatives for poverty alleviation. Therefore, it is recommended that:

1. The government of Uganda should enhance initiatives for poverty alleviation as this will help improve the economic situation of sponsors of Ugandan students; thereby enabling them to pay tuition needed the

institutions of higher learning to build internationally competitive educational capacity.
2. The government of Uganda should increase its funding to the higher institutions of learning.
3. Uganda's institutions of higher learning should put in more efforts to seek donor funding.
4. Uganda's institutions of higher learning should adopt online or e-learning as a means of internationalizing their education.
5. Administrators and managers of Uganda's institutions of higher learning should build internal capacity through in-service management training focused on equipping knowledge needed to internationalize higher education.

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Awareness, Availability and Utilization of Research Findings in Building the Education Sector for Sustainable Development

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Abstract. This study examined the extent of awareness, availability and utilization of educational research findings in enhancing the effectiveness of educational practices for sustainable development. A structured questionnaire—completed by a sample of 726 respondents, including lecturers, government officials and higher education students—sought perceptions on these variables in Nigeria. The data collected were analyzed using percentages, means and ANOVA. The results revealed no significant differences on awareness about and availability and utilization of research findings. However, availability of research findings was scored poorest by the three categories of respondents. Respondents that were involved in conducting research were most aware of research findings (81%). Nevertheless, a much smaller percentage (28%) of them indicated that they used these research findings in addressing professional and development challenges. Recommendations towards increased utilization of research findings are made.

Keywords: Evidence based policy; Research utilization; ESD

1 Introduction

This study is concerned with the “re-engineering” of educational research and outcomes for sustainable national development in Africa. Specifically, the study examined the extent of awareness, availability and utilization of educational research findings in solving education’s problems and enhancing educational practices for rapid economic growth and sustainable national development.

Education and its benefits to any country’s development are enormous and appreciated even by those who never saw the four walls of the school. But for education to work its optimum for us, we must make maximum use of all that it offers. What education can do for a man and his society and by furtherance, what education can do for any nation if her citizens were well educated, is vividly presented in Ojo (2003) study as follows:

1. The educated man sees himself as a useful member of every society and as one who has a sacred duty to protect, sustain and serve that society.
2. The real educated man is the one who will do nothing to undermine the integrity of his society and will never engage in anything that will negate or destroy what the society holds dear – society's common properties, its resources and its soul. Indeed, he has an unselfish devotion to public interests and uncommon commitment to the sustenance of society's value-systems.
3. He demonstrates an informed and intelligent understanding of public affairs.
4. Education is anti-ignorance and anti-mediocrity. Education builds up the mind, gives and increases knowledge, widens horizon, helps the learner to acquire new skills which also brings out the best of the individual, and in the end, the society.
5. Education refines the individual, enlightens him and makes him cultured and cultivated.
6. Education is anti-conformism because it opens up new vistas, new terrains and options from which choices are constructively made and which makes progress and development possible.
7. Education emboldens, empowers and helps the individual to make rational and informed decisions, to take principled stand on issues, and to conduct himself decently, rationally, and fully conscious of the implications of each of his actions and options.
8. Education is an instrument of change. The objective of change is to transform man from his original, natural, and crude state, through guided instruction, gradual orientation and knowledge to become an individual who is refined and civilized.
9. Education is a sure companion, a viable partner, a dependable friend, a trustworthy ally, an omnibus helper, handy at all times, and helping to make the individual a respected member of his society.
10. Education gives confidence to the individual and helps to raise his head at all times, and this, without pomposity and bridge but with humility and decorum.
11. Each of the education members is fully conscious of his rights and those of other members of the society. Each one tries to defend such rights very jealously and also endeavours not to trample on the rights of the others.

From this, we can conveniently declare that education makes the individual useful to himself and to his society. It enables the individual discover himself better and be better positioned to respond to the needs of the people living in his community. This in turn enables the society to be receptive and to progress, and to want to invest the more on the individual so as to allow him to profitably and positively explore his weaknesses, strengths, and potentials to make him happy, fulfilled and endowed with a sense of belonging. This type of educated person can only emanate from the education factories of higher institutions. This investment can only be effectively done through research, and, it is the higher institutions that must carry out researches for the betterment of the individual, the society, the nation, and the entire universe. These efforts will certainly be fruitless and would amount to investment in frustration when the findings from research are not properly disseminated and appropriated. Therefore, the outputs of research ought to be made known to the general public, be reachable when needed, and should be used by all concerned in solving human problems.

Furthermore, investments in education seem to have failed to deliver the goods in African countries, since most African countries are still battling with under-development, in the sense that the following indices of development noted by Udoidem (1992) are still eluding most African nations:

1. A reduction of the level of unemployment;
2. A reduction of the extent of personal and regional inequality;
3. A reduction of the level of absolute poverty;
4. A rise in the real output of goods and services and the improvement of the techniques of production;
5. Improvement in literacy, health services, housing conditions, and government services;
6. Improvement of the social and political consciousness of the people; and
7. Greater ability to draw on local resources (human and material) to meet the local needs, that is, becoming self reliant.

Talking about "re-engineering" implies that there is a discrepancy in the handling of education and development that must be addressed to ensure education's capacity to bring about sustainable national development. To "re-engineer" effectively, research findings must be disseminated and appropriated. It appears we have not fully understood in Africa what research can do in the education sector in enhancing sustainable national development. That research is a fundamental tool for knowledge development and dissemination, the essence of which is to logically and systematically find solutions to human problems for better living is not in doubt. Industrialized countries have continued to use research for greater development. Besides, there is no aspect of the benefits of education or the indices of development that cannot be studied and evaluated empirically. Research findings in education abound to the extent that we have no reason in Nigeria or Africa for that matter, to be retrogressing in development and modernization. What may be a problem could be in the area of awareness, availability, and utilization.

Research in education has increasingly recorded a significant correlation between literacy and sustainable development, yet as many as 44% of Nigeria's adult population compared to Indonesia's 32%, China's 27%, Egypt's 26%, Brazil's 19%, and Mexico's 13% are unable to read and write in any language (Okoli and Duze, 2009). Among African Countries, Nigeria was noted to have allocated the least in recent years to education (highest 11.12% in 1999, lowest 1.83% in 2003) as against UNESCO's 26% minimum budgetary allocation to education (ASUU, 2002) whereas Egypt, Gambia, Gabon, Mauritius and Libya are doing well relatively in funding education (Ajao, 2003). This portrays a measure of irresponsibility on the part of policy makers in government. Nigeria, as wealthy as she is, occupying the position of the 6th largest producer of oil in the world, is ranked 151st out of 174 countries on the recent HDR rating. This ranking implies a situation of absolute poverty. School enrolment, access to good education, access to water and power, proper health services, infant mortality, fertility rates, nutrition rates, life expectancy, food deficit position, etc are all posing great threats and painting a vivid picture of a nation in distress (Anya, 2003). This scenario is disquieting and worrisome, as the situation continues to take a downward plunge into what may be described as a national disaster. The question is: could the extent of awareness, availability, and utilization of educational research findings explain the missing link between education and sustainable development in Nigeria?

Research is a complex activity and its contribution to nation-building is enormous. This has necessitated the continuous call by governments, research organizations, universities, and other higher institutions for a vibrant research function in higher education worldwide. To achieve this, special attention must be paid to its management, important among which, are proper dissemination and appropriation of research findings. The management of research involves all the activities and processes directed at creating an enabling environment for it to flourish as well as ascertaining good practices and quality output. These will obviously include the policies to be made, the planning for the present and future, the provision of human and physical resources such as staff, funding, and equipment and materials. To this extent, the practices, the challenges, and the opportunities for reform and sustainable development will differ in different continents and countries of the world. It has been observed that even in industrialized settings where enviable grounds have been gained in research and development due to their appreciable support systems, there still exist some forms of challenges in the research function. In Africa, proper management is lacking hence the research function has continued to attract significant criticisms worldwide. While African scholars outside the continent are making significant inputs into global knowledge in science and technology through research, those inside Africa seem to be handicapped. Though there have been achievements and good practices in higher education research, the impediments in research publication, recessions in opportunities, and bad practices tend to overshadow the former. However, the multiple challenges we are experiencing in our developing continent should not dampen our efforts, but rather ginger us into digging deeper, wider, and longer into known and unknown information to overcome these challenges. This would involve awareness, availability, and utilization of such information. Though the consensus on the need for research in higher education is compelling, what we need most importantly in doing so, is to obtain reliable and quality information about our peculiar circumstances in different African countries, to enable us strengthen our research function, appreciate the criticisms, and make future improvements in our practices and opportunities for sustainable development. It is from the foregoing that this paper x-rayed the extent of awareness, availability, and utilization of research findings in building the education sector in Nigeria for sustainable national development, and to proffer the next steps forward. To guide the trust of this study, four research questions were raised from which three null hypotheses were formulated.

1.1 Research Questions

1. What is the extent of awareness, availability, and utilization of research findings by lecturers, students, and government policy-makers in Nigeria?
2. Is there any difference in the extent of awareness of the usefulness of research findings by higher institution lecturers, students, and government policy-makers in building the education sector for sustainable national development?
3. Is there any difference in the extent of availability of research findings to these three categories of stakeholders in Nigeria?
4. Is there any difference in the extent of utilization of research findings by these three categories of stakeholders in Nigeria?

1.2 Research Hypotheses

Ho$_1$: There is no significant difference in the mean responses of lecturers, students and policy-makers on the extent of awareness of the usefulness of research findings in building the education sector for sustainable national development.

Ho$_2$: There is no significant difference in the mean responses of lecturers, students, and policy-makers on the extent of availability of research findings in Nigeria.

Ho$_3$: There is no significant difference in the mean responses of lecturers, students, and policy-makers on the extent of utilization of research findings in Nigeria.

2 Methodology

The study is a survey which examined the extent of awareness, availability, and utilization of research findings in solving education's problems and enhancing educational practices for sustainable national development by three categories of stakeholders in Nigeria – lecturers, students, and government policy-makers which represent the target population. A sample of 726 subjects selected through stratified random sampling, comprising 196 lecturers, 481 students, and 49 policy-makers, was used for the study. The instrument used to collect data for the study was a structured questionnaire containing 36 items on a four-point scale of Very High (4 points), High (3 points), Low (2 points), and Very Low (1 point), which elicited considerable information on each of the three variables of study - awareness, availability, and utilization of research findings in building the education sector for sustainable development. The validity of the instrument was certified by research experts in education. In a pilot test administered to a total of thirty respondents not involved in this study (the three categories well represented), a reliability coefficient of 0.84 was obtained for the instrument through the Split-half method also duly stepped up by the Spearman Brown Formula. The questionnaire copies were administered and retrieved by the researcher with the help of research assistants with all duly completed. These were analyzed using the simple percentage, mean, and ANOVA.

3 Results

Data were analyzed according to how they related to the one research question answered and the three null hypotheses tested in the study and results presented in Tables 1-4. To test the three null hypotheses formulated, the responses of lecturers, students and government policy-makers were isolated and scored for each of the variables, and their respective mean scores computed. The three independent mean scores were subjected to the One-way analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for each of the three variables investigated and tested at the 0.05 level of significance, df = 2, 723, and region of rejection R: $F > 3.00$ (Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4).

Table1. Awareness, Availability and Utilization of Research Findings in Education

Variables	Lecturers n=196		Students n=481		Government Policy-makers n=49	
	f	%	f	%	F	%
Awareness	177	89.85	382	79.42	40	81.63
Availability	68	34.69	149	30.98	13	26.53
Utilization	72	36.74	161	33.47	14	28.57

The result in Table 1 showed that 89.85% of lecturers, 79.42% of students, and 81.63% of government policy-makers sampled were aware of the importance of research findings in building the education sector for sustainable development, but all the categories recorded below fifty percent in availability and utilization, with availability lagging behind. Government policy-makers recorded the lowest percentages of 26.53% and 28.57% in availability and utilization respectively, followed by the students (30.98% and 33.47%), and the lecturers (34.69% and 36.74%).

Table 2: ANOVA for Awareness of Usefulness of Research Findings

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	F_{cal}	$F_{critical}$	Decision
Between Groups	2	37.06	18.53			Not significant
Within Groups	723	9165	12.66	1.46	3.00	
Total	725	9202.06	-			

The result in Table 2 showed that the calculated F value of 1.46 is numerically smaller than the critical F value of 3 therefore the null hypothesis was retained. This means that there was no significant difference between the three groups of respondents implying that students, lecturers and government policy-makers were well aware of the usefulness of research outputs in building the education sector for sustainable development.

Table 3: ANOVA in Availability of Research Findings

Source of Variation	df	SS	MS	F_{cal}	$F_{critical}$	Decision
Between Groups	2	35.39	17.70			Not significant
Within Groups	723	11062.72	15.28	1.16	3.00	
Total	725	10820.98	-			

The result in Table 3 showed no significant difference between the three groups of respondents because the calculated F value of 1.16 was numerically smaller than the critical F value of 3.00, and therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. This implied that the extent of research findings availability to students, lecturers, and government policy-makers was more or less the same.

Table 4: ANOVA in Utilization of Research Findings

Source of Variation	Df	SS	MS	Fcal	Fcritical	Decision
Between Groups	2	20.33	10.17			Not significant
Within Groups	723	6487.04	8.96	1.14	3.00	
Total	725	6507.37	-			

The result in Table 4 showed that the calculated F value of 1.14 is numerically smaller than the critical F value of 3 therefore the null hypothesis was retained meaning that there was no significant difference between the three groups of respondents in the extent of research findings utilization in Nigeria.

4 Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

The only research question empirically answered and the three null hypotheses tested in this study all point to the fact that the stakeholders in higher education studied – lecturers, students, and government policy-makers, were all well aware of the enormous contributions that research outputs can make in solving education's problems and enhancing educational practices for sustainable national development, but have indicated low levels in research output availability and utilization, with availability lagging behind. Despite the discovery that policy-makers who are the producers of education recorded a handsome score of 81.63 percent in awareness, they hardly ever bothered to search for and adopt research outputs in planning and managing education, as evidenced in their poor scores of 26.53 percent in availability and 28.57 percent in utilization.

This may amount to indifference to issues that must actually be addressed in order to raise the living standards of the majority of Nigerians living in abject poverty by government. This has been the problem in Nigeria and most African countries where educational policies have been highly politicized to suit the government in power rather than address the real needs of the education sector. Even when astute academics who have published ideal research findings in international journals for boosting the education sector were appointed into political positions, they tended to fall back to "politics-and-power" forgetting their books! This observation was also made by Oghenekohwo et al (2007) on "University carrying capacity and incidence of higher education efficiency in Nigeria" whose chief recommendation was that higher education should be de-politicized. Furthermore, this record underpinned the fact that policy-makers are not truly committed to solving education's problems since they know what to do but fail to do it. For instance, research findings have repeatedly pointed to lack of adequate funding as responsible for the myriads of problems in education yet, the Nigerian government continues to increasingly reduce budgetary allocations to education and starve educational institutions of necessary funds (Ajao, 2003; ASUU, 2002; Okebukola, 1998; Okon, 2006). In the same vein, the extent of awareness of lecturers (89.85%), the ones who conduct most of the researches, is higher than for availability (34.69%) and utilization (36.74%).

This could be due to the inability to access the internet for information, institutions' poor and obsolete libraries, and financial constraints in publishing research studies in books and journals for wider usage. However, they seem to use whatever is available only to satisfy the conditions for promotion to the next rank in order to beat the "Publish-or-Perish" syndrome of academics in Nigeria. The same applied to students who are the direct consumers of education, indicating 79.42 percent in awareness, 30.98 percent in availability, and 33.47 percent in utilization. They seem to find and use research outputs only available in their own institutions, and only for the purpose of making inputs into their own research projects which are compulsory requirements in higher institutions for graduation in Nigeria. It is commonly observed that volumes of valuable research reports done by academics and students which addressed the problems of Nigeria and other African nations are stacked away in departmental and faculty offices, gathering dust and occupying scarce spaces rather than being widely disseminated and appropriated in solving human problems and thus lifting African nations from extreme poverty to economic growth and modernization. So, for government policy-makers who have nothing personal at stake, they simply sit in their glamorous air-conditioned offices powered by gigantic noiseless generators and drink tea or coffee to keep warm, and read newspapers!

These findings reflect Okebukola's (2002) and Adu's (2003) findings on research and publication in Nigeria. Okebukola (2002) noted that the highest number of publications by Nigerian academics in international journals between 1962 and 2000 was ten in 1998 which dropped to only one in 2000. Also the highest number of active local journals was twenty-two in 1998 and had dropped to three in 2000. Adu (2003) had lamented Nigeria's lowest volume of research and publication (711) in 1995 as compared to some other third world countries (South Africa, 3,414; Brazil, 5,440; and India, 14,883), despite having the largest number of universities (86) in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Results and findings have shown that there is poor dissemination (availability) and appropriation (utilization) of research findings in Nigeria despite great awareness of their usefulness in solving education's problems and enhancing the quality of life of the citizens. It therefore means that research outputs from higher education in Nigeria have not been able to translate into development indices appreciably, and consequently, have not helped in building the education sector effectively for sustainable national development.

From this discourse, and hoping that Nigeria would one day find reason to adopt research findings appreciably in solving the myriads of problems of education and underdevelopment, and thereby begin to reap the fruits of the well-educated citizens as enumerated by Ojo (2003) and enjoy the indices of development listed by Udoidem (1992), as discussed in the introduction of this paper, we join other researchers to continue to echo the need to de-politicize education as well as adequately fund it to attain sustainable national development. Furthermore, research findings should be made known to the general public, should be made available for use in solving the human problems that militate against sustainable national development. We could begin by opening avenues for research dissemination like “research-bank” akin to a blood-bank and the like.

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Role of the African Council for Distance Education in Fostering Quality Assurance in Open and Distance Learning in Africa

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Abstract. The African Council for Distance Education (ACDE) was established to promote research, policy and quality in open and distance learning (ODL), so as to increase access to education and training in Africa. This paper discusses the role of the council in fostering establishment of a quality assurance and accreditation agency (QAAA) aimed at addressing concerns for quality in ODL on the continent, so that the society can have confidence in it. The paper discusses the context within which establishment of the council and development of the QAAA were necessitated as well as the policy framework within which the QAAA is being developed. The challenges being experienced in implementing the project are examined and recommendations towards their resolution, and ensuring the success and sustainability of the agency, are made.

Keywords: Quality assurance; Open and distance learning; Accreditation; ACDE

1 Introduction

Quality and the concept of ODL in higher education are almost inseparable by virtue of the features and components. This is because ODL is designed to achieve delivery of significant improvement in terms of increased access to higher education at relatively reduced costs without compromising quality. However, Koul (2005) reported that, the features of flexibility and increased access which make ODL attractive are the same features that constitute a source of suspicion by institutions and the public who are more comfortable with the traditional face to face instructional delivery system. It was also reported by Jegede (2005) that the features of ODL are however, changing to a full-fledged modern day technology- mediated, flexible, learner- driven and self- directed mode of learning.

The first decade of the 21st century witnessed several positive developments in higher education in Africa. Access was expanded, use of ICT gained increased prominence, several national quality assurance agencies sprouted and the engine of funding was ignited (Evans and Dean, 2003). Similarly, ODL gained increased acceptability as a delivery system and the equity issue was more resolutely addressed. Yet, as the decade closed, the quality of input, process and output remains a major source of concern to the practitioners and other stakeholders in Open and Distance Education.

With regard to expanded access, more institutions were established which opened their doors to over ten percent more students relative to the previous decade. In many African countries like Ethiopia, Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria, Egypt and Tunisia, a minimum of 5% increase in student numbers was recorded. However, this seems to have barely scratched the surface of the huge demand for placement in higher education. The access challenge continues to loom large. Gains in access, albeit mismatching need, translated into some loss in quality. The quality of graduates produced during the last decade failed to meet labour market expectations and international competitiveness. It is estimated that less than 30% of the products from the higher education systems across Africa are able to secure employment within two years of graduation as a consequence of inadequate preparation for the labour market and the low absorptive capacity of the market.

As expected, several complimentary events which are aimed at improving the quality of higher education in Africa featured during the last two years of the first decade of Education for all in Africa. One of these is the launch of the Second Decade of Education (2006-2015) by the African Union, the Action Plan of which gave visibility to higher education development in the region. The World Bank also launched its initiative in order to improve the competitiveness of Higher Education in Africa. The Association of African Universities (AAU) supported by partners including the World Bank launched the African Quality Assurance Network (AfriQAN) while the ACDE which was established by Vice Chancellors as stakeholders in African Universities came up with the idea of QAAA.

A significant event which took place at the close of the decade was also the 2009 UNESCO World Conference on Higher Education. The UNESCO BREDA effort was marked with a preparatory meeting which was followed by a conference that brought together stakeholders in the higher education sub-sector. One of the major conclusions of this regional meeting was that although significant strides were recorded with regard to access, management, quality, funding and equity during the period 1999 to 2009, a yawning gap still exists between where Africa is and where it should be with regards to achieving best practices in the quality of ODL. The World Conference on Higher Education of 2009 noted this observation and in its closing statements, urged that urgent steps should be taken to address the quality dimension of higher education in Africa. It is on record that organizations like the CAMES are in existence but they have only been able to address issues of quality assurance at the regional level where they exist whereas, ACDE-QAAA is an African wide initiative that cut across the continent of Africa with the specific mandate to address issues of quality assurance and accreditation in the African Higher Educational institutions

There is also an increasing realization globally of the importance of close cooperation between countries through sharing of resources and technologies to address common problems, and to facilitate the free movement of people. Similarly, there is an increased cooperation through trade and services which has resulted in a corresponding need for education systems to be adapted in response to the demands for trained people with recognized qualifications who are able and ready to move and serve in any part of the world.

The strategy of ACDE to enhance quality among ODL institutions (ACDE-QAAA) will assist in driving quality assurance measures, which will ultimately contribute to greater quality of education in Africa. It will help to create a mechanism for benchmarking and comparison of qualifications to foster professional mobility in employment as well as expand job markets. The development of widely accepted standards for quality will also facilitate creation of centres of excellence in Africa.

The establishment of the ACDE-QAAA will benefit Africa because it will allow for greater intra-regional mobility, thereby fostering increased sharing of information, intellectual resources, research, as well as a growing ability to rely on African expertise rather than skills from elsewhere in the world. It will increase access to reliable and transparent information, and promote greater networking among all stakeholders in Quality assurance. This includes creating increased dialogue and cooperation between the higher education systems of different linguistic areas (which have different education systems) thereby, allowing for a more coherent and unified vision for African Quality assurance in higher education.

It is on record that there is an increase in the attention being paid to quality assurance in higher education systems in Africa. For an example, in the last five years, not less than ten countries have established the framework for quality assurance. To maintain the momentum and ensure effectiveness of the efforts, there is need to continually build capacity of persons (old and new) who are involved in the quality assurance enterprise in the region.

Ipaye (2005) reported that the trend in the development of ODL in Africa shows that, the recognition given to quality in ODL in higher education could be as a result of a global emphasis on quality service delivery and the growing concern about the high cost and uncertain benefits of the conventional higher education system. According to him, there is also a clear indication that with the way ODL system is designed, it is supposed to possess huge potential to provide enhanced quality education to more people at relatively reduced costs by virtue of its Quality Assurance mechanisms which are inbuilt into its policies, processes and procedures. In ODL, there is a philosophy of viewing quality assurance as a process rather than an activity or event that makes the merits of Quality assurance over and above Quality Control quite palpable. Observation by Koul (2005) shows that, Quality Assurance subsumes Quality control as one of its processes rather than an output. His report shows that, Quality Assurance is structured to achieve good practices and the highest standards in products and services through a set of processes that include monitoring, evaluating and auditing. Similarly, Njoku (2007) asserted that, quality can be described using the elements stated below:

- Fitness for purpose
- Value for money
- Customer satisfaction
- Minimum benchmarks or standards.

It is in this context that there are those who believe that higher education cannot be effectively *massified* without compromising quality. According to Ojo (2009), the ODL feature of massifying education is not a sufficient issue that should be used to discard the great opportunities that ODL presents especially to countries with huge needs for human capacity development to meet the challenges of the 21st century. This is because, both conventional and ODL tertiary education institutions are faced with the challenges to continue to reinvent themselves in keeping step with the developmental demands of the 21st century, and maintaining quality in instructional delivery as one of the major challenges (Jegede, 2009a). It was also observed by Gbolagade (1999) that the demand crave for quality and credibility in ODL institutions is even more than the requirements of conventional institutions due to the perception that their operational parameters of openness and flexibility give room for lower quality of output. ODL for example according to him, is based on the principle of open access whereby flexible entry qualifications apply and in which exit behaviour is considered to be more important than the entry requirement. It was also opined by Jegede (2005) that, conventional institutions often view their highly selective process of enrolling the best students as a quality control strategy.

Teaching and learning activities in the universities generally show that the task of achieving best practices in assuring quality is not easy as there is a constant need to continue to develop policies and strategies that will ensure optimal throughput of mass access and quality of instructional delivery. Holberge (1989) had reported that, ODL institutions differ from conventional institutions in their operational structures, therefore the strategies and aspects requiring Quality Assurance also differ. Therefore according to him, the peculiarities of ODL as observed in administration, management and delivery of teaching/learning activities include:

- Course material development – has the advantage of making use of academic and professional experts, and educational instructional designers to achieve optimal learning outcomes. There is no hidden curriculum and the content is open for public scrutiny.
- Learners' support services – This unit of the ODL ensures that there is quality in the services provided to learners This is done by regularly training instructional facilitators, Counsellors, virtual library services providers, and ICT network staff. These services help in reducing attrition rates and ensuring completion.
- Evaluation and Assessment- the quality of administration and management of the processes of assessing and grading students' performance.

2 Need for Harmonized Quality Assurance Framework and Policies in ODL Institutions

The advent of ODL has been marked by individualised effort by practitioners in ODL tertiary education institutions in Africa to enshrine quality assurance in every facet of this mode of educational practice. It was reported by Jegede (2005) that this has resulted in to emergence of different forms, focus, operations and practices. It was in the face of this that a great concern was expressed by practitioners in distance education across Africa particularly to create a forum that will forge out a strategy towards ensuring that ODL institutions in Africa engage in acceptable quality assurance practices through consultation, partnership and collaboration (Jegede, 2009b).

The quality assurance provision by CAMES is only operational among the francophone countries of; Mauritius, Cameroon and Madagascar. It was reported by Ofulue (2011) that the arrangement is over stretched while participation is voluntary, thus lacks mandate to enforce quality standards even in the region. It was also reported by Mhlanga (2011) that, there is highly disparate higher education systems in the Anglophone, Francophone, Lusophone and Arabophone countries. Other observations that are noted in the trend of the quality assurance practices in Africa show that:

- There are presently four Open Universities while, there are forty countries with single/dual mode Distance Learning institutions.
- There is no acceptable standards nor available expertise to regulate quality of Open and Distance Higher Educational Institutions' provisions

- Although, all the existing quality assurance agencies have responsibility over DL, e-learning and cross border provisions, none has conducted accreditation.
- In most cases, national standards do not exist or are not well developed in African Higher Educational Institutions
- Skills required for developing quality standards and verification of compliance for Distance Higher Education are lacking in most countries
- Capacity building for Quality Assurance in Distance Higher Education is critical
- Capacity for self-assessment is weak
- National QA agency for countries with small tertiary education systems appears not viable
- There is an increase in mobility of students, faculty and labour
- There is need for recognition of degree qualifications across countries (not same degree structures but comparable to the internationally recognized).

3 Establishment of the ACDE-QAAA

It was out of great challenge of ensuring that best and acceptable practices in quality assurance are embedded in every activity of tertiary education institutions in Africa where ODL is practiced that the ACDE was established. ACDE is a continental educational organisation comprising African universities and other tertiary education institutions that are committed to expanding access to quality education and training through ODL. The QAAA as an important organ of the ACDE was therefore established as an independent and project driven unit with the mandate to contribute to the development of an indigenous model of quality assurance and accreditation that would serve to position African ODL in the global community.

As explained by Jegede (2009b), the initiative to establish ACDE–QAAA was first muted at a meeting of stakeholders including 10 Government Ministers of Education, 25 vice chancellors from African Universities and other high ranking policy makers, academics with ODL practitioners during the inaugural conference and General Assemblies of the ACDE (10-12 August, 2005) at UNISA in Pretoria. According to him, this was at a time when it became obvious that ODL in higher education in Africa was faced with two major challenges: first, the effective and efficient management of access, quality and cost, and second, need for strategies for the development of shared and common quality assurance conceptions and practices. In addition, ODL Higher Education in Africa is characterised by diverse systems and practices that need convergence of understanding and acceptable approaches across the African continent.

Following this, a stakeholders' Workshop was held at the University of South Africa on 21-23 February, 2008.The Planning and Programme Development Workshop also took place at Nairobi from 25 to 29 August, 2008. Consequently, the Stakeholders made recommendations to the ACDE Executive Board which was approved in a special meeting held in October, 2008 in Nairobi (Jegede, 2009b).Thus approval was given to establish the ACDE-QAAA. The Executive Board also declared that the Agency should be hosted in Nigeria by the National Open University of Nigeria. The Federal Government of Nigeria subsequently approved the hosting right and directed that ACDE-QAAA should be included in the annual budget for year 2010 and beyond in order to ensure a proper take off of the agency. Since its establishment, membership of ACDE at the institutional, corporate and individual level have kept on increasing. Thirty higher educational institutions and corporate organisations are members with forty six individuals who are mostly lecturers.

3.1 Rationale Underlying Establishment of the ACDE-Quality QAAA

According to Jegede (2009b), in his report of the activities of the ACDE-QAAA Working Group, the reasons for establishing the ACDE-QAAA are:

- To ensure that ODL institutions in Africa engage in acceptable quality assurance practices through consultation, partnership and collaboration in distance education;
- To ensure that, the different national and regional policies on ODL will eventually find their point of convergence through the ACDE which, in turn, will provide general direction to the ACDE-Quality Assurance and Accreditation Agency to ensure a common understanding on the issue of quality assurance and accreditation;
- To provide a continental platform for assuring quality, accreditation, articulation and credit transfer within Africa.
- To encourage the establishment and sustenance of national and regional ODL associations for advocacy and policy development.
- To provide ongoing platforms for sharing and creation of ODL resources and programmes for quality assurance and accreditation.
- To ensure the availability and affordability of adequate pool of qualified personnel for peer reviews
- To ensure that the capacity for assessment is strengthened
- Encourage the reconstruction and development of quality assurance practices.

- Enhance human and financial capacity development among the ACDE member institutions.
- Ensure that a common Quality Assurance framework is developed and entrenched. This will also translate to achieving recognition of qualifications, harmonised African Higher Education system and an enhanced quality of provisions in ODL.

3.2 Policy Framework

The policy centres on reviewing and promoting institutional, national, regional and continental quality assurance and accreditation policies, structures and practices for ODL in Africa by identifying and addressing challenges and gaps and draw lessons for the smooth functioning of the continental ODL QAAA. In attempting to sharpen the focus and purpose of the agency, the following five strategic objectives were identified:

- To search for and integrate an appropriate model of quality assurance and accreditation that would position African ODL in the global perspective.
- To develop a broad mandate and governance structure for continental QAAA for ODL in African Higher Education.
- To develop a broad framework for collaboration in the development of ODL quality assurance and code of practices.
- To construct instruments for monitoring and evaluating quality assurance practices in African ODL Higher Education institutions.
- To set up the quality assurance working group as a matter of urgency.

The management structure shown in Figure 1 was adopted for implementing the activities of the ACDE-QAAA.

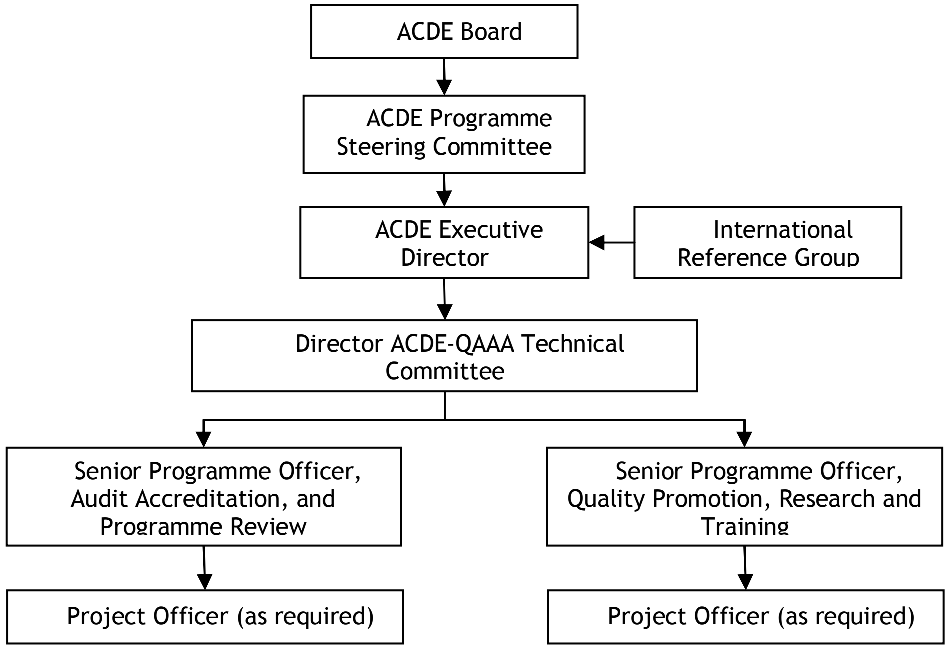

Figure 1: ACDE-QAAA Management Structure

In Figure 1, provision is made for at least five Key staff members who are responsible for the meaningful implementation of the ACDE-QAAA, comprising a QAAA Director, two senior programme officers, and two project officers.

In addition, an International Reference Group (IRG), consisting of key players from ODL counterparts such as the International Council for Distance Education, Commonwealth of Learning, and International Network for Quality Assurance Agencies in Higher Education, European Association for University Lifelong Learning and Australian Universities Quality Agencies is proposed. Its purpose will be to promote collaboration, engender proficiency of the QAAA, and provide critical benchmarking of its conceptual framework and business model within a global quality assurance environment. The IRG will also facilitate identification of international experts to participate in institutional and programme audits and envisaged collaboration initiatives. ACDE Executive Board is the overseer of all issues that concern the activities of the various levels of the organs of the QAAA based on the report submitted to it by the chairman of the Programme steering committee. The ACDE Executive Board carries out deliberations on the critical areas of the reports, takes decisions and provides feedback. It also makes reports available to the General Assembly of the ACDE.

3.3 Functions of the ACDE-QAAA

The functions of the QAAA are to:

- Develop an ACDE-QAAA code of practices, policies and standards, repertoire of instruments and tools to inform the code of practices and establish criteria for the operation and conduct of ODL in Africa;
- Promote the establishment, consolidation, coordination and enhancement of institutional, national, regional and continental quality assurance systems for African ODL;
- Build capacity of higher institutions in quality development and management for African ODL;
- Undertake institutional, national, regional and continental quality assurance audits;
- Promote ethical practices and business standards in the provision of ODL;
- Provide accreditation to institutions and programmes that meet established standards and strive to encourage others to seek accreditation;
- Conduct and promote research for the advancement of quality in distance education and open learning in Africa;
- Promote collaboration and partnerships with international distance learning accreditation agencies to improve quality management and practice in distance education in Africa;
- Constitute an International Reference Group (IRG) for the purposes of promoting collaboration, engendering proficiency and critical benchmarking within a global quality assurance environment; and
- Develop systems and procedures through which learners can transfer credits across African ODL higher institutions.

3.4 Beneficiaries

The beneficiaries of the quality assurance initiative of the ACDE are,

- Graduates who shall be able to transfer credits across the African tertiary education system and have their qualifications recognised and affirmed.
- Wider society and key stakeholders such as employers of labour, professional bodies and alumni communities will be valued and responded to in terms of planning and measuring outputs and impacts.
- The management and operations of ODL and other tertiary institutions will be harmonized with consistent and comparable enabling collective growth and development.

- ODL practitioners, academics and researchers will have certified competencies as Quality Assurance specialists who are able to make significant contributions to systems' development.
- Consolidated and legitimized ACDE as the official voice and platform for ODL in Africa, which will be able to represent African positions and concerns in engagements as equals with international counterparts.
- Strengthened and continuously developed regional, national and institutional ODL Quality Assurance bodies.
- Provide ODL Quality Framework and supporting tools to guide further harmonization and development among higher education and research institutions such as AAU, COL, RETRIDAL, SARDEC, etc.

3.5 Sustainability Plan

In order to be able to sustain this agency (ACDE-QAAA), member institutions and Government of the host country regularly donate seed-funds for the initial start-up phase. Very central to the sustainability of the agency is the fact that, implementation of the work plans was carried out as stipulated in the project document (Jegede, 2009b). Similarly, beneficiaries are expected to cover the cost of ACDE-QAAA activities conducted in the institutions or conducted by ACDE-QAAA experts on their behalf.

3.6 Process and Benefits of Collaborating to establish ACDE-QAAA

It has been very beneficial for ODL institutions to collaborate and work together because ACDE-QAAA is well positioned to facilitate the process of achieving the goal of integrating an indigenous model of quality assurance and accreditation that would position African ODL in the global perspective and develop a broad framework for collaboration in the development of ODL quality assurance and code of practice. Collaboration would be fostered through the following approaches;

- Invite experts from the various ODL institutions to join the team of assessors during accreditation exercises.
- Involve experts from other Universities [and other higher education institutions] in some activities particularly in programme development.
- Getting prompt feedback from ACDE-QAAA on the performance of an institution after the accreditation exercise.
- Promote exchange of ideas between the Agency and educational institutions on the development and assurance of quality in Africa higher education in all its dimensions.

- Build capacity and share knowledge in teaching, research, and community outreach among the ODL institutions.
- pull resources and develop programmes in capacity development
- Proliferate opportunities for learning, scholarship and academic exchange in ODL.
- facilitate credit transfer between distance learning institutions across Africa
- Provide enabling environment to administer examinations of different ODL institutions in member institutions of ACDE.

3.7 Activities of the Agency

The following are the activities of the ACDE-QAAA that have been carried out or are on-going,

- Regular advocacy and sensitization through presentation of position papers in the Commonwealth of Learning and ICDE workshops.
- Providing representation for all ODL higher education institutions and individuals in Africa through quality provisioning that is in the process of achieving a convergence of understanding and approaches for continental development. Hitherto the establishment of ACDE-QAAA, ODL Higher Education in Africa is marked by diverse systems and practices.
- Creation of point of convergence for the different national and regional policies on ODL through the ACDE which, in turn, gives general direction to the ACDE-QAAA to ensure a common understanding of the issue of quality assurance and accreditation.
- Develop a continental platform for assuring quality, accreditation, articulation and credit transfer within Africa. It is in the process of establishing a sustained national and regional ODL association for advocacy and policy development. This will further provide platforms for sharing and creation of ODL resources and programmes for quality assurance and accreditation.
- Fostering of regional collaboration in ODL so as to contribute to the development of policies and practices that are essential to the advancement of quality that will help to harmonise and strengthen all ODL operations.
- Provide a common front to address issues of accessibility, cost, accreditation, resource sharing, flexibility, training needs, infrastructural development, and articulation of programmes and credit transfer among member institutions.

- Develop an acceptable Quality Assurance model for the ODL higher educational institutions in Africa.

4 Challenges

The ACDE-QAAA is certainly facing some challenges partly because it has just been established. Some of the challenges are stated below:

- Need for buoyant financial resources for carrying out project activities of the Agency. This is because ACDE is an international Non – Governmental Organization which basically depends on financial supports from member institutions, donations from agencies and Federal Government of the member institutions, and membership subscription. Please see the attachment on membership in the appendix.
- Capacity Building of experts in ODL who will turn out to be Quality Assurance practitioners requires time and fund to accomplish.
- Need to develop a widely acceptable model that can be used to carry out accreditation of ODL higher education institutions in Africa. This indeed requires time, fund, human capital resources and expertise.
- Need to correct the wrong perception of the quality of ODL products by academics, the employers of labour and the society. This requires determination and consistency in the campaign for adherence to best practices among the ODL member institutions.

5 Recommendation

The roles of the ACDE in fostering quality assurance in African ODL so far has shown that great benefit avail in collaboration among the tertiary education institutions where ODL is practiced in Africa. It is also obvious that no ODL system can be successful without strict adherence to the application of Quality Assurance mechanisms that have been built into its processes from policy and planning framework to learners' entry and completion of study. It is therefore recommended that ACDE-QAAA should intensify effort in playing her role to,

- Enhance quality assurance practices in teaching and learning by promoting uniform practices and standards that are in tune with the objectives of the agency.
- Encourage technology mediated learning in order to maximize the learning process.

- Put in place a sustainable programme that will ensure availability of quality of staff through training and exchange programme at the national and regional level.
- Encourage member institutions to adhere to the practice that will ensure quality of course content development and editing of study materials.
- Embark on activities that will improve on the quality of support services and facilitation of learning through the development and use of training manuals.
- Organize seminar and training regularly in the area of internal self review processes and inform member institutions on how to prepare for, and meet the criteria for external audits and assessments

6 Conclusion

There is no doubt that in the current knowledge driven economy, the global community will increasingly demand for higher standards in service delivery, thus making Quality Assurance to remain a pertinent issue for ODL higher education delivery. It is also clear that Africa has recognised the need and value of assuring quality of ODL higher education by establishing ACDE-QAAA. Following this and as clearly stated in the communiqué of the 2nd ACDE Conference July 2008, the ACDE general assembly called upon the Commonwealth of Learning to strengthen its collaboration with and support for ACDE in the actualization of its mandate especially in operationalising the Consortium of African Open Universities and the Continental Quality Assurance and Accreditation initiatives (ACDE Conference Proceedings, 2008). The establishment of ACDE-QAAA is indeed timely and forthright. It is certain that if it is able to live up to its mandate of helping to forge a common forum for uniform practice and assist in the establishment and sustenance of quality assurance agencies among ODL higher education institutions at the national and regional levels in Africa, then, the scepticism against ODL programmes and institutions by individuals and the public would be corrected

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The Case Method and Students' Performance at Makerere University Business School

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Abstract. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the case method of teaching and students' performance in a university setting. The study describes the nature of student involvement and engagement in the process of study, especially as stimulated by the use of the case method. The findings indicate a positive relationship between application of the method and students' performance. It is noted that using the method promotes *in-depth* understanding because students are exposed to 'wrapped-around' and holistic learning, which enables them to compare and contrast concepts; relate these concepts to other subjects and experiences; and to generate questions and hypotheses that lead to further inquiry and new knowledge. Therefore, it is recommended that universities promote utilisation of the method and facilitate further research into its effectiveness.

Keywords: Curriculum innovation; Student-centred learning; MUBS

1 Background

Makerere university business school (MUBS) is the leading institution in Uganda in business training for both undergraduate and post graduate courses. Through innovative approaches, the school is engaging the private sector through entrepreneurship training programmes. It is also engaging an international student community through "hybrid" collaborations with universities in the United States. Though MUBS became a constituent school of Makerere university in 1998, it has since grown into a fully independent institution with a student population of up to ten thousand and offers a range of undergraduate and postgraduate courses, which are accredited by the Uganda National Council for Higher Education (NCHE).

The pedagogical approaches used in MUBS have remained traditional, majorly lecturer-led. Though the school has tried to be innovative, by training some staff in the case teaching method, these few staffs have not disseminated the knowledge to others. Interactions with some staff indicate that they lack skills in case design and analysis yet cases demand a lot of effort to research and could present challenging scenarios. On the other hand, students also seem to present a more ignorant position on the case method, with many indicating that cases tend to be long and demanding to read and generally requiring a lot of "out-of class" efforts.

Despite the advantages associated with the case method and MUBS' effort to promote its utilisation, therefore, there has not been any school-wide policy in this regard. Except in two courses (i.e. strategic management and marketing), there has been no effort by departments in general and lecturers in particular to integrate the use of cases in teaching. In fact, various departmental meetings have noted a general discomfort among many staff concerning the use of cases and, at one point in time, some lecturers abandoned teaching strategic management because the team leader insisted on use of cases.

It is against this background that this study examined performance in the courses using the case method, to demonstrate the efficacy of the method in the school's setting. The researcher hopes that this information could guide the school in its efforts to innovate its pedagogical approaches for improved learning.

2 Related Literature, Knowledge Gap and Objectives

2.1 Case Teaching Method

The case method is a form of learning where the students read a description of a (real) case or a problem taken from an existing area. The lecturer elaborates on what to do in this case by providing a range of guidelines, and then the students undertake a case analysis that enables them to make justifiable decisions to solve the problem. The case method emphasizes undertaking the analysis in groups. Indeed extant literature indicates no guide on group structure, dynamics or size, but the lecturer can innovatively form the groups depending on the total number of the students in the class. After that they meet with the class to present and discuss the case with one another and with the lecturers' facilitation.

The case method has been used at Harvard University and many other universities for more than 50 years, mostly within business and law studies. Business and law schools have had a long tradition of using real or simulated stories known as cases to teach students about their field (Christensen 1986), and valuable case books in the field have been written about the pedagogy (J. Erskine et al. 1981) indeed Robert Merry (1954) indicated that cases should improve students' learning through their joint, cooperative effort, rather than on the teacher conveying his/her views. Cases can be administered to students either in a discussion format, debate format, public hearing format, trial format, problem based learning format, and team learning format. Each of these formats has its own challenges and can be administered in combination depending on the situation.

For purposes of this research the author will concentrate on three formats namely; discussion, debate and team learning as these form the "hybrid" method used at MUBS, as these promote active learning (Myers & Jones, 1993; Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1991), cooperative learning (Cooper 1991), and critical thinking (Paul, 1992).

2.2 Student Engagement

Extant literature shows that student engagement is increasingly seen as an indicator of successful classroom instruction, and as a valued outcome of school reform (Kenny *et al* 1995), and Schlecty (1994) contends that the phrase has been identified with, and widely used in education circles. Students are engaged when they are attracted to their work, persist despite challenges and obstacles, and take visible delight in accomplishing their work. Bomia, et al (1997), and this also focuses on student's willingness, need, desire and compulsion to participate in, and be successful in, the learning process, a view held by Chapman (2003) as depicting students' willingness to participate in routine school activities, such as attending class, submitting required work, and following teachers' directions in class. On the other hand, Fletcher (2005) indicates that the term is also increasingly used to describe meaningful student involvement throughout the learning environment, including students participating curriculum design, classroom management and school building climate.

Though many studies have focused on student engagement and have earmarked it a desirable trait in schools (Schlecty, 1994, Kenny et al 1995), there is little consensus among students and educators as to how to define it (Sharan et al, 1999). Though some studies link student engagement to student motivation, Williams (2003) has looked at student engagement in terms of both psychological and behavioural components, and that it focuses students' attitudes towards school, as opposed to student disengagement identifies withdrawing from school in any significant way.

Psychological engagement happens when a lesson captures students' imaginations, and attracts their meandering attention, indeed Strong et.al. (1995) indicates that this will lead to students give clear, immediate, and constructive feedback. Behavioural engagement reflects the student's actions within and outside the classroom environment, both as an individual or as a group (McCombs & Pope, 1994; Fletcher, A. 2005). Chapman, E. (2003) contends that the term student engagement has been used students' willingness to participate in routine school activities, such as attending classes, submitting required work, and following teachers' directions in class. Skinner & Belmont (1993) indicates that students who are engaged show sustained behavioural involvement in learning activities accompanied by a positive emotional tone. Whether psychological or behavioural, student engagement is indicated by; the level of academic challenge, collaborative learning, student-process interaction, enriching education experiences, initiative, self-motivation, independent experimentation, and peer coaching, and enthusiasm, indeed all the above will make students devote substantial time and effort to a task (Newman, 1986).

Despite being difficult to conceptualize, student engagement is recognized by teachers and researchers alike as an important link to student achievement and other learning outcomes (McGarity & Butts, 1984; Capie & Tobin, 1981).

2.3 Student Involvement

Extant literature indicates that student involvement is hinged on pedagogical practices and as a process it is based on multiple relationships and activities that enforce learning (Kember & Gow, 1994; Astin, 1984) Astin's (1984) theory of involvement posits that students learn more the more they are involved in the academic aspects of the class experience. Students who are involved devote significant energy to academics, spend time discuss class/course works and interact often with one another. Importantly, the most persuasive types of involvement are academic involvement, that encourages class-peer interaction and is a lynch pin of student-centred teaching. According to Astin (1984), the quality and quantity of the student's involvement influences several educational outcomes including cognitive learning and academic performance, and for a student to be involved in the learning process, she or he must invest energy in academic relationships and activities. With student involvement there should be; student-lecturer contact, cooperation among students, active learning, prompt feedback, time on task, and expression of diverse talents.

Literature provides an interesting array of outcomes and supporting benchmarks for student involvement; Class-wide approaches - student-specific roles in building leadership, and; intentional programs designed to increase student efficacy as partners and equal players in classrooms (Fullan, 2000), Sustainable classroom structures of support - Policies and procedures are created and amended to promote meaningful student involvement within the classroom. Sustainability within a class cannot be seen solely through a structural lens; instead, it must happen within a clear set of procedures (White & Crump, 1993), Personal commitment – Students' dedication, relationships, and classroom culture builds a long term connection among students, Strong learning connections - Classroom learning and student involvement are connected by classroom credit, ensuring relevancy for educators and significance to students. Meaningful student involvement should not be an "add-on" strategy for lecturers but it should be integrated throughout their teaching activities (Cipolle, 2004).

2.4 Student Performance

Student performance can either be classroom based or assessment based. Though assessment-based student performance is undertaken through course works and examinations sat at the end of each course of study, and this has slightly been studied even though not in relation to case method of teaching, on the other hand, classroom-based student performance refers to the level of skill a student exhibits during and in a process of study in a classroom. Though assessment-based student performance can be measured directly using scores/ results of course works or examinations that can be computed in percentages, classroom-based student performance can be measured on the basis of skill development in terms of communicational, presentational, analytical and interpersonal abilities amassed by an individual student as a result of interaction with a particular process in classroom or largely in a learning process. This study will focus on classroom-based student performance since the case method of teaching is more of a process interaction between students and lecturers than assessment-based student performance which based on only the lecturers assessment of students work. And according to William Daggart of the International Centre of Leadership in Education student performance is a base of skills such as problem solving, decision making, innovation, creativity, respect, responsibility, organizational skills, initiative, and perseverance. They can be developed as much by how we teach as by what we teach and these skills have a great deal to do with instruction, not just content.

2.5 Knowledge Gap

Little is known or evidenced in the school’s efforts to track student performance apart from the summaries made on the results sheet (Course files 2007, 2008), and indeed no apparent analysis of any kind has been done in respect students interaction in and with the process of study and how this would affect their performance. Despite the importance of cases and case method of teaching in enhancing student performance, there has been a lukewarm reception among many circles within university lecturers and students in the few universities in the developing world that have embraced this method (Chapman, 2003), indeed MUBS is no exception to this. There has been widespread misconception and ill feeling about the case method of teaching

(MUBS Course files 2006, 2007, 2008), and this is exemplified by the failure to adopt the case method by many courses except strategic management and marketing case study, despite the school wide encouragement. An analysis of all academic based policies indicates no known efforts prior to this study specifically at MUBS that have a focal attention on student engagement and involvement and their influence on student performance.

2.6 Objectives and Conceptual Framework

The major purpose of the study is to examine the relationship between the case method of teaching and student performance in a university setting. The specific objectives were to establish the relationship between the case method of teaching and student engagement, involvement and performance. The variables involved in the study were conceptualized as delineated in Figure 1.

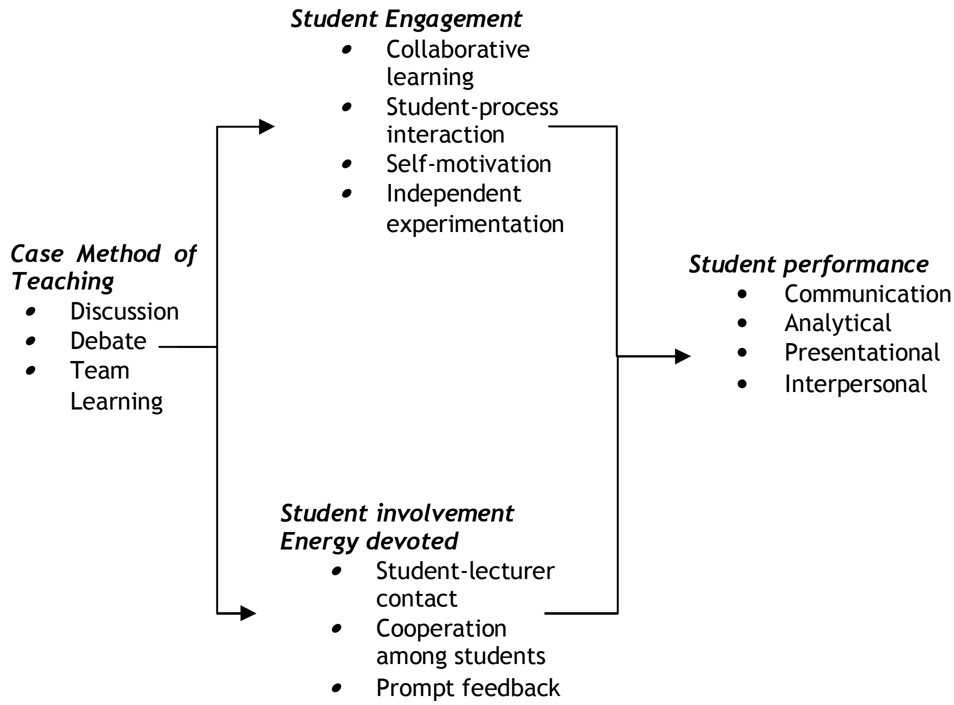

Figure 1: Case Teaching Method and Students' Performance
Source: Adapted from Erskine (et al., 1981); Newman (1986); Astin (1984)

3 Methodology

3.1 Population and Sample

Data were collected on the performance of Bachelor of Leisure and Hospitality Management students offering strategic management (Semester Two of the 2007/2008 academic year). The population consisted of 111 students. The researcher used the class list provided by the faculty as a complete sampling frame from whom a sample of 80 respondents was selected using simple random sampling. The size of the sample was determined from Morgan and Krejcie (1970)'s sample size estimation table cited by Sekaran (2004, p.294).

3.2 Data Collection Procedures

Data were gathered from University Students in a University. Primary data was collected through the use of self-administered questionnaires, and the researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires from the students, of the 80 questionnaires sent out, the researcher managed collect back 51 questionnaires amounting to 63.75% response rate. The self-administered questionnaire approach was preferred because this made data collection easy and manageable. To establish reliability and validity, the questionnaire was pre-tested on 10 respondents, an equivalent of 10% of the sample size (Saunders et al, 2003) and the test results are indicated later. The first part of the questionnaire consists of the general information of the respondent, Case Method of Teaching attributes were used in the second part, which is the independent variable of this research. The third part of the questionnaire explains Student Engagement and Student Involvement, and these are the independent/dependent variable of this research. The final part consists of Student Performance and this is the dependent variable of this research. The Introduction part of the questionnaire was designed to provide explanation for each part to the respondents.

3.3 Validity and Reliability

The data collected were valid because the items in the data collection instrument were culled from literature related to the variables studied while others were adapted from instruments used in related studies (i.e. concomitant validity). The internal consistency method was used to ascertain the reliability of the study because the study uses multiple items in all constructs. Hair *et al.* (2007) mentioned that the rationale for internal consistency is that the individual items or indicators of the scale should all be measuring the same construct and thus be highly inter-correlated and as it is the items in this study are (Table 1).

Table 1: Reliability Coefficients

Variable/Combined items	Anchor	Cronbach's α
Case Method of Teaching	5	0.80
Student engagement	5	0.88
Student Involvement	5	0.805
Student Performance	5	0.84

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Age Group by Gender Distribution of the respondents

Table 2 shows the distribution of respondents by age and gender.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Age and Gender

			Gender		Total
			Male	Females	
Age Group	Below 30	Count	17	20	37
		Row %	45.9	54.1	100
		Column %	73.9	71.4	72.5
	31-40	Count	6	6	12
		Row %	50.0	50.0	100
		Column %	26.1	21.4	23.5
	41-50	Count		2	2
		Row %		100.0	100
		Column %		7.1	3.9
Total		Count	23	28	51
		Row %	45.1	54.9	100.0
		Column %	100	100.0	100.0

The female students dominated the sample (54.9%) while their male counterparts comprised only 45.1% of the sample. Among the Females, the majority were below 30 years (71.4%), 21.4% of them were in the 31-40 year age group and the other 7.1% were in the 41.50 year age group. On the other hand, the males were dominantly of the "Below 30 year age group" (73.9 %.) It was observed that there were no males students in the 41-50 year age group but all respondents in this age group were the females. The results were also presented using the figure below.

4.2 Gender and Preferred Method of Teaching

Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents by most preferred method of teaching.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Preferred Method of Teaching

			Most Preferred Method of Teaching			Total
			Case study	Straight Lectures	Others	
Gender	Male	Count	9	13	1	23
		%	39.2	56.5	4.3	100
	Female	Count	11	16	1	28
		%	39.3	57.2	3.5	100
Total		Count	20	29	2	51
		%	39.2	56.9	3.9	100

Table 3 shows that majority (56.9 %,) of the respondents prefer *straight* lectures while those who preferred Case Study comprised 39.2% of the sample and those who prefer other methods were in the minority (3.9%). Interesting to note is the consistence across gender in the results with both males (39.2%) and females (39.3%) preferring the case method of teaching and also 56.5% and 57.2% respectively between the genders for straight lectures, this would indicate that there might not be any significant differences as a result of gender disparity.

4.3 Case Method and Student Engagement, Involvement and Performance

The zero order correlations were employed to explore the relationships between, on one hand, the case method and, on the other hand, students' engagement, involvement and performance. The results are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Case Method and Student Engagement, Involvement and Performance

	1	2	3	4
Student Engagement-1	1.000			
Student Involvement-2	.688**	1.000		
Case Method of Teaching-3	.514**	.531**	1.000	
Student Performance-4	.736**	.604**	.749**	1.000

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4 Relationship between Case Method and Students' Performance

The results in the table above showed that the Case method of teaching and student performance are significantly and positively related (r =.749**, p<.01). In addition, student Engagement (r = .736**, p<.01), Student Involvement(r =.604**, p<.01) were also positively related to Student performance. The results imply that the better the management of administering course content using the Case method of teaching, the better the levels of student performance that will be observed. The findings indicate a positive relationship, and indeed as contended by Erskine et al. (1981) cases do improve student learning through flexible pedagogical approaches that are involving and problem-solving based. All the dynamics students go through to prepare, discuss, debate and present case findings or solutions are significant activities that have not only psychological and behavioural impact, but also both short-term and long-term capability development among the students, and these will in-turn improve student performance

4.5 Relationship between Case Method and Students' Student Involvement

The results also showed that the Case method of teaching and Student Involvement were positively related (r =.531**, p<.01). These results show that the Case Method of Teaching enhances the level of Student Involvement. The Student Involvement was also observed to have a positive relationship with Student Performance (r = .604**, p<.01). Case Method of teaching therefore enhances the level of student Involvement which in turn also leads to improved levels of student performance. The findings above indicate a rather positive relationship between the case method of teaching and student involvement, this establishment is an outcome of good classroom culture, student commitment, and strong student-learning based relationships especially as advanced by (Kember & Gow, 1994).

4.6 Relationship between Case Method and Students' Engagement

The Case Method of Teaching and Student Engagement were also observed to be significantly and positively related (r=.514**, p<.01). Furthermore, the level of Student Engagement was observed to be related to the level of Student Engagement (r=.736, p<.01). The results also highlight the potential of the Case Method of teaching to enhance the level of student engagement which in turn results into improved Student Performance. Whereas Strong et.al (1995) emphasizes that capturing student's imagination increases Psychological engagement, and McCombs & Pope (1994) contends that student's actions within classrooms reflect behavioural engagement, these are paramount indications towards student performance. Indeed the findings have revealed that there was such a positive relation between the case method of teaching and student engagement (r=.514**, p<.01). This indicates a big potential of the Case Method of teaching towards enhancing student engagement and performance (r=.736, p<.01). These findings supplement further the arguments that student engagement is based on a successful classroom instruction (Kenny *et al* 1995).

4.7 Prediction Model

These results highlight the extent to which the predictors i.e. Student Engagement, Case Method of Teaching and Student Involvement can explain the level of Student Performance (Table 5).

Table 5: Prediction Model

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Dependent Variable: Student Performance	
	B	Std. Error	Beta				
(Constant)	.549	.340		1.613	.114	R Square	.729
Engagement	.486	.113	.468	4.290	.000	Adjusted R Square	.711
Case Method	.369	.069	.499	5.340	.000	F Change	41.183
Involvement	.018	.108	.018	.164	.871	Sig. F Change	.000

These results highlight that the predictors can explain up to 71.1% of the variance in the Student Performance (Adjusted R Square = .711). These results further reveal that the Case Method of Teaching was the most powerful at explaining the Student Performance (Beta = .499, sig. = .000) and this was closely followed by the Student Engagement (Beta = .468, Sig. = .468, Sig. = .000). Overall, the regression model was significant (sig. F Change = .000). Indeed the ability of the case method of teaching to predict up 71.1% of student performance indicates the student's ability to communicate, analyze, and meaningfully present ideas, as well improved interpersonal-relationships are key components, and all these skills developed for a student will improve the level of performance.

5 Conclusion and Implications

From the above discussions it is clear that though the case method of teaching is not the most preferred (45.1 %), and as indicated earlier in the background that in the universities that are innovatively implementing it there is a lukewarm reception, there significant indications that it is the most effective method in enhancing student performance especially with the prediction potential of 71.1

%. Since student performance reflects much on the skills that emerge from the instruction mode rather than the content as discussed in the literature, adopting this method and effectively implementing in Universities would generally increase student performance and thus out graduates with relevant skills to the job market. This is further supported by the fact that the relationship between the case method of teaching and student engagement and involvement are significant, and they also influence student performance. It is therefore it implies that Universities should establish clear policies that emphasize the use of case method of teaching in their pedagogical approaches as these will enhance student performance.

Also Universities should train their staff in the case method of teaching to help them gain the necessary pedagogical skills needed, perhaps this would increase the case “reception” levels among the academic staff. As the trainers and facilitators should be the first among those to appreciate this method and thus Universities should integrate in their human resources development plan, components to do with training staff in the case method with specific focus on case writing and design, case analysis, developing the case assessment tools and most importantly using cases as a method of teaching.

The other implication is that Universities should facilitate case-focused research both among the staff and students in order to gain new insights and also undertake benchmarking study visits to Universities that are known to use the case method of teaching perfectly. Though this study was based on the a single course and this would have been methodologically limiting, efforts in future research may be put on broadening the population to include all courses that use the case method, study the relationships between the case method of teaching and exam performance and grades, and longitudinal research may suffice here and also include the academic staff, these and other research efforts may be undertaken to further strengthen the call.

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