

ISSN: 1816-6822  
Volume 8 Numbers 1 & 2  
August 2016

**Makerere Journal of**  
**Higher Education**  
**The International Journal of Theory, Policy and Practice**



**East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development**  
**College of Education & External Studies**  
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## Editorial

This volume of *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* includes both the issues for 2016. This is a result of delays in the Journal's production lifecycle experienced during the 2015-2016 and 2016-2017 academic years—due to challenges at Makerere University that resulted into various disruptions of the academic calendar.

These challenges, as well as efforts to resolve them, were as diverse as those in higher education institutions and systems in various parts of Africa. This diversity underscores the relevance of the Journal to the development of these institutions and systems. The goal of the Journal is to provide a visible outlet for writing discussing the theory, practice and policies relating to the role, development, management and improvement of higher education from an international viewpoint. Indeed, this volume includes contributions from higher education institutions in Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda that touch on teacher education; business, technical and vocational education and training; financial management; privatization; relevance and university-community engagement; the philosophical foundations of higher education; student affairs management; educational technology; quality assurance; and human resources management in higher education.

A major feature of the articles that is particularly relevant to the improved understanding and management of higher education in Africa is that they cross-reference the institutional/ country experiences they discuss to pertinent theories, literature and practices in institutions and systems beyond their immediate setting. Thus, we hope that the volume will guide scholars and practitioners in their efforts to address some of the current and emerging challenges facing higher education institutions and systems on the Continent.

Production of the Journal benefited from the feedback of our anonymous reviewers and we thank them. We also thank the contributors for their diligence in revising their manuscripts as suggested by the reviewers. Finally, we thank the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development for hosting the journal institutionally and African Journals Online for indexing the journal on its database

**Editor**





# Implications of Teacher Educators' Practices in Assessment for Student Learning in Tanzania

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**Abstract.** This study presents findings on teacher educators' practices in assessment and their implications for student learning in Tanzania. Research on classroom assessment has been dichotomizing assessment and teaching-learning processes instead of viewing assessment as an integral part of the teaching-learning process. It is against this background that this study delved into teacher educators' practices in assessment and their implications for student learning in Tanzania. Data were collected using in-depth interviews and analysed using thematic coding. The findings show that teacher educators perceive assessment as a one-shot activity in terms of tests and examinations. Consequently, teaching, learning and assessment are performed disjointedly. Despite believing that learning is an active process, teachers predominantly use deductive teaching methods, which render students passive recipients of knowledge. It is concluded that although students need to see assessment as an essential measure of their learning and as an indication of opportunities for their improvement, teacher educators are still caught in a dilemma of either facilitating students' meaningful learning or preparing students who can earn high grades.

**Keywords:** Teacher education; Assessment for learning; Innovation.

## 1 Introduction

An education process in the classroom ought to involve at least three core processes: teaching, learning and assessment. These processes should be constructively aligned in such a way that change in one compels a sympathetic adjustment of the rest (Stiggins, 2007). A problem arises when teachers and educators do not possess the knowledge and skills required to balance the three processes. The fundamental reason for students' lack of meaningful learning and acquisition of skills deemed imperative for survival in this knowledge economy is the consistent detachment, or at least poor connection, of these

three processes. Effective assessment helps to improve student learning and informs the teachers of their teaching process. Therefore, in order for teachers to maximize the potential benefits of assessment to inform teaching and improve learning, the three processes must be planned and carried out concurrently.

Several scholars have emphasized the necessity of designing and executing assessments that have the potential of measuring students' intellectual accomplishments that are worthwhile, significant and meaningful (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000; Gibbs & Simpson, 2004; Griffin & Hett, 2004, Stiggins, 2007). Such assessments should equip students with the capacity to demonstrate meaningful application of essential knowledge, skills and values to real-world situations, beyond the school (Griffin & Hett, 2004; Mueller, 2005). What counts for success in schools is often considered trivial, less relevant and contrived. The quality and utility of assessment rests upon the extent to which the performance measured represents appropriate and meaningful forms of human achievements that are relevant in real-life situations.

In Tanzania, like its East African counterparts, university graduates, including student teachers, are persistently blamed for graduating 'successfully' but failing to effectively discharge their anticipated real-life responsibilities (Kajoro, Chirure & Simiyu, 2013). This phenomenon observably brings to the fore questions about how students are being taught, how they learn, and how they are being assessed (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000; Shepard, 2000; Stiggins, 2007). Many secondary school teachers in Tanzania and East Africa at large face challenges when preparing and implementing teaching and assessment activities for their students (for examples, see these studies: Jidamva, 2012 and Nzilano, 2013 in Tanzania; Najjumba & Marshall, 2013 and Otaala, Maani & Bakaira, 2013 in Uganda). Serious shortfalls have been identified in areas such as the way these teachers were trained at college, especially the assessment processes that they underwent. In most cases only abstract learning outcomes and their application in limited contexts as measured by paper and pencil tests and academic assignments such as writing term papers are assessed. Assessment of student learning ought to consist of a wide range of student attributes and abilities, including cognitive, psychomotor and affective domains, which determine the extent to which their learning experiences have supported their holistic development (Huba & Freed, 2000).

Despite graduating successfully, even with excellent grades, still the motivation and quality of teachers employed in secondary schools in Tanzania has come in for criticism from several sectors (Bennel & Mukyanuzi, 2005; Kitta & Fussy, 2013). Such a situation, in which teachers are being employed because they hold paper qualifications but without having candid proof of the ability for quality teaching, is referred to as a "conceptual confusion" between quality and qualification (Altbach, as cited in Moshia, 2004, p. 49). It is believed

that assessment approaches are embedded within rich pedagogical understandings and the experiences of teachers, and they reside at the core of the teaching and learning process (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000; Unwin & Caraher, 2000). It is further underlined by Gibbs & Simpson (2004) that assessment defines what students consider to be important and how they spend their time when learning. Therefore, the need to change student learning behaviour compels a change in the methods of assessment. For that reason, this study sought to investigate the implications of teacher educators' assessment practices on student learning.

## **1.1 Role of Classroom Assessment**

It has already been discussed that assessment is an integral part of the teaching and learning process, aimed at enhancing student learning and improving teaching. Stiggins (2007) asserts that assessment includes all activities carried out by teachers and learners to obtain information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning processes. It is further emphasised that, assessment directly influences any mode of learning through communicating messages about how learners should study and what things should be considered a priority in learning, as well as providing opportunities for learners on how to review, practise, and apply what they have learned, promoting learner ownership and cultivating such skills as self-regulation and self-evaluation. Assessment activities give a message to students about what they should focus on learning and how they should go about it. The message is often not explicit, and it may be given a different emphasis by teachers and by students. With this perspective, educators have the opportunity to maximise student learning through effectively designed assessment activities. Traditionally, assessment has been divided into three types: diagnostic assessment, formative assessment and summative assessment (Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 2000; Omari, 2011; Stiggins, 2007).

### **1.1.1 Diagnostic Assessment**

This is usually carried out at the beginning of a topic or unit of study to assess the knowledge, interests, experiences, strengths and weaknesses of a student. Knowing students' weaknesses and strengths helps the teacher to plan for better teaching, and it can be used to clarify misconceptions before teaching depending on students' current level of knowledge. It can involve both formal and informal measurements. Diagnostic assessment tools include aptitude tests, fitness examinations, questioning, interviews, self-assessment, observation and discussing board responses.

### **1.1.2 Formative Assessment**

This is commonly undertaken on a day-to-day basis and may involve ongoing formal and informal observations throughout the course, term, semester or unit of study. It is more helpful in improving learning and modifying teaching strategies and materials because it provides feedback and information during the learning process. It involves multiple tools, such as written tests, portfolio assessments, projects, exhibitions, interviews and rating scales, reflection journals and student-teacher conferences.

### **1.1.3 Summative Assessment**

This is conducted at the end of the course, topic or unit of study and helps to make judgments about student achievement at certain relevant points in the learning process. Normally it focuses on measuring the achievement of learning outcomes, which is why it takes place after the learning has been completed and provides information and feedback that sums up the teaching and learning. Examples of tools that can be used for summative assessment are tests, examinations, terms papers, projects, portfolios and performances. Summative assessment is also known as evaluation.

## **1.2 Integration of Teaching, Learning and Assessment**

There is a mutual relationship between learning objectives, learning processes, teaching processes and assessment procedures (Biggs, 2003). These four variables are in a state of dynamic tension and balance in which adjustment or disturbance of one variable calls for a considerate adjustment of the other three. However, the relationships of these variables largely depend on the social, cultural and political context in which they operate. Wiggins (1993) argues that serious problems in assessment reform have to do with a “pervasive thoughtlessness about testing and failure to understand the relationship between assessment and learning” (p.3). Thoughtful teachers should realise that high quality classroom interactions that promote thinking and demonstrate learning and development lie at the heart of assessment as part of the learning and teaching processes.

When assessment is integrated with teaching and learning, both students and teachers benefit. Students are more likely to improve their learning because the teaching is focused and because they are assessed on what they are taught. Teachers are also able to focus and use their time more effectively. Because assessment involves real learning, teachers can integrate assessment into daily teaching and learning and other classroom activities. For teachers, assessment helps them not only in determining the level of students' knowledge, but also the effectiveness of the teaching process. Effective assessment helps in

generating information that is useful in making informed decisions about the students, curriculum, institution and the general education system.

Ongoing assessment in particular that seeks to diagnose and to improve the learning, instead of merely classifying learners, is vital in learning to boost the adaptability of the systems and the personalisation of learning, increasing motivation and the quality and productivity of the learning. Assessment for learning plays an important role in determining the quality of learning due to the truth that learning activities and assessment are connected very closely in well-designed courses (Sewell, Frith & Colvin, 2010). That is to say, higher education syllabuses have to clearly outline basic information such as learning objectives, teaching/learning methods and how assessment will be conducted and used.

The following three concepts - assessment *of*, *for* and *as* learning - may be worth knowing, as they expand our theoretical understanding on assessment practices in the classroom.

1. *Assessment of* learning is the use of student information to measure, record and report on a student's level of achievement in regards to specific learning expectations. It is normally known as summative assessment and is accompanied by number or letter grades.
2. *Assessment for* learning is more commonly known as formative and diagnostic assessment. In this case, student information is used to determine his/her progress in order for the teacher to adjust the classroom instruction based upon the needs of the students. Similarly, students are provided with valuable feedback on their own learning. Assessment for learning consists of initial or diagnostic assessment and formative assessment. Assessment can be based on a variety of information sources, such as teacher observation, conversation, portfolios and works in progress. Verbal or written feedback to the student is descriptive and highlights strengths, identifies challenges and points to the way forward.
3. *Assessment as* learning is the use of information and activities for students to further their own learning. For instance, self and peer assessments allow students to reflect on their own learning and identify areas of strength and need. These tasks offer students the chance to set their own personal goals and advocate their own learning, and it occurs throughout the learning process (Stiggins, 2007). In this mode, learning and assessment are deeply integrated such that assessment is completely part and parcel of learning.

### **1.3 Teacher Preparation in Tanzania**

The United Republic of Tanzania, like many other countries, realises that quality education is the pillar of national development. It is through quality education that Tanzania can create a strong and competitive economy that can

effectively cope with the challenges of the dynamic global economy. However, as Wagner (2010) asserts, the quality of education is dependent on the quality of teachers and the quality of teachers is the most reliable determinant of the quality of an education system.

For several decades teacher trainees in Tanzania have been selected from a pool of average-performing students who in some cases missed admission to further education in other fields. This malpractice is likely to be exacerbated by the undesirable encroachment of political leaders to education sector through their ad hoc declarations which are usually taken for granted as policies. One such typical example can be given when one of the top political officials of the ministry of education announced the government's decision to introduce a special examination for all teacher training colleges to test the academic competence of student teachers. As a matter of fact, this resolution was not backed by any empirical evidence. The top official proclaimed:

The ministry has come to learn that many of the recent graduate teachers have demonstrated poor performance in the office, prompting the government to take immediate action to reverse the trend. In the last three years we have experienced a sharp drop of teaching performance among many teachers . . . so the new examination will probably help redress the matter. (Rugonzibwa, 2014, para. 4, 5)

Regrettably, such political declarations have been the basis of many educational practices within the country. The situation is worsened when student teachers meet inadequate preparations at college, coupled with poor and outdated basic facilities such as teaching and learning resources, textbooks and computer and Internet access. Besides quality teachers, adequate and modern teaching and learning facilities are necessary for effective teaching and meaningful learning. The emphasis is not only on enough numbers of teachers but also quality teachers. Focusing solely on numbers of teachers is doing more harm than good to educational sector.

One can study under the tree; if the teachers are available, things will go on. One can lack textbooks but with the presence of enough numbers of teachers, one can keep on studying and will eventually pass the exam. Some of us went to school and were studying under the trees, yet we passed exams, and could not feel the problems. The presence of teachers necessarily made it possible for the students to pass the exam. (King, 2013, p. 54).

With this understanding, one may question the legitimacy of claims from some authors that when "enough numbers of teachers" (King, 2013, p.54) are present things can go on even with poor teaching and learning resources. Such unfounded statements are not only misleading but also detrimental to educational sector, especially when heard from socially or politically influential individuals.



#### **1.4 Teacher Certification and Employment**

Subsequent to liberalisation policies established in 1994 (MOEVT, 2007), the Tanzanian government encouraged the private sector to engage in education provision services in order to complement the government's efforts. Many private colleges of education have been established since then. In Tanzania, teacher education and training is categorized into in-service (INSET) and pre-service (PRESET) programs. In-service training focuses on training teachers who are already working. This is done as part of professional development and/or personal growth efforts in the profession. It can be provided both as a long-term or short-term education and training programme, and its core purpose is to improve the knowledge, skills and professional attitude of teachers for the better discharging of their teaching responsibilities. Pre-service training deals with the preparation of students who aspire to become teachers by profession. The training enables future teachers to be exposed to the foundations of education (philosophy), educational psychology, pedagogy and professional ethics in education. Likewise, prospective teachers are being facilitated in developing a mastery of their teaching subjects, such as mathematics, geography and chemistry.

The structure of teacher preparation in Tanzania is currently undergoing a major overhaul in which, among others, the certificate and diploma holding teachers are being phased out to give room for any teacher to possess at least a bachelor's degree. A noteworthy point is that, in Tanzania, the certification undertaken by the education institution is a sufficient endorsement for a student teacher to be employed in either public or private schools. However, some private schools may wish to conduct an interview prior to finally employing their teachers.

## **2 Related Literature**

In Spain, Remesal (2011) explored in-service teachers' views on the functions of assessment in basic schooling as a necessary first-step before challenging teachers' practices towards formative assessment.

Two phases of semi-structured interviews were undertaken for 50 primary and secondary school teachers (an average of 22 years of teaching experience). Analysis of interview transcripts suggested that teachers' conceptions about the functions of assessment fall under four distinct categories: pedagogical, societal, mixed-pedagogical, and mixed-societal. However, extracting data from 50 participants through interviews should normally bring rich data (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Further, her lack of triangulation and

depending solely on one source of data collection may cast some doubts over the reliability and validity of the study.

Thomas (2012) conducted a cross-sectional survey to compare the beliefs of trained and untrained middle and secondary school teachers in Pakistan about classroom assessment. This study administered a survey questionnaire to 88 trained and 35 untrained teachers selected from 15 different schools. The major findings indicated no significant difference between the beliefs of trained and untrained teachers regarding classroom assessments and their selection of assessment strategies. Thomas concludes that, for reasons such as time constraints, some teachers, especially trained teachers, are reluctant to use some student-centred strategies. This reluctance to use alternative assessment strategies is due to factors related to energy and financial costs, time constraints and subjectivity of marking. This study, however, could do more justice by corroborating the data collection with any other instrument instead of depending entirely on a survey questionnaire.

In Tanzania, not many studies related to teacher preparation programs have been conducted. Even the few available studies have focused on aspects other than assessment. For instance, Msonde (2011) employed a combination of case study and phenomenological approaches to investigate how the learning study guided by the variation theory can enhance teachers' competencies using the learner-centred approach (LCA) in Tanzanian secondary schools. Data collection was done using interview protocols, lesson video recordings, lesson preparatory meetings, teacher's journals and students' tests. It was found that, teachers' capability to implement LCA improved gradually in slightly different ways, which in turn improved student learning. Nevertheless, one wonders whether teachers' understanding and application of LCA in teaching tend to be reflected in their assessment practices or not.

More recently, Nzilano (2013) examined the ways pre-service teachers prepared for classroom teaching and assessment of learning activities. He employed questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, portfolio reviews and classroom observations to collect data. One serious area of incompetence he identified is their assessment skills. Some were not able to set assessment tools that reflected the student learning outcomes (Nzilano, 2013), and others suggested they did not have enough time to plan assessment and construct high quality assessment tools. Mtitu (2014) undertook a study that is similar to that conducted by Msonde (2011). For his part, Mtitu focused on exploring learner-centred teaching (LCT) in Tanzania from the perceptions and experiences of secondary school geography teachers. Semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and detailed reviews of teachers' own teaching portfolios were used as primary sources of data. Besides his findings, there is still a lingering desire to know how well teachers connect their knowledge and practices of LCT with their classroom assessment practices.

### **3 Methodology**

This is a multiple case study that draws qualitative data from eight in-depth interviewed teacher educators from two different universities-one public and the other private. The interview data are complemented with data from literature analysis and self-administered questionnaires. A good case “provides an opportunity for knowledge to be linked to the context, theories linked to practice, and abstractions linked to concrete experiences.” (Chung, 1997, p.1). Eight teacher educators were purposively selected among those who are directly and actively involved in preparing student teachers (prospective secondary school teachers, college tutors and educators) at university. Their experiences as teacher educators ranged from five to forty years. Data from the in-depth interviews was analysed by reducing them into themes and sub-themes (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Firstly, data were processed by clustering together similar topics, then sorting out major topics, unique topics and “leftovers” (Creswell, 2009, p. 186). I focused on research objectives and questions as Miles & Huberman (1994) precisely underline that the purpose of the study is your storyline and it is the analytic thread that unites and integrates the major themes of your transcriptions. The seven-stage analytic processes suggested by Creswell (2009) and significantly informed by the grounded theory method were applied. The coding process was enhanced by MAXQDA software, which greatly helped in systematically organizing and evaluating the transcripts (Schönfelder, 2011).

### **4 Findings**

Learning is an active process where the learner constructs new knowledge by discovering principles themselves under the facilitation of a teacher (see Bruner, 1986; Vygotsky, 1987). For teachers to be able to understand their teaching and be capable of facilitating learning, they need to be critical about their students’ learning and their teaching and assessment roles. While only three out of the eight teacher educators consider learning to be a product that culminates in students passively receiving material from the teacher, the other five described it as a process that involves the active interaction between a teacher and learners to produce knowledge. When learning is viewed as a product, the same performance measure applies to all students, and learning facilitation can be reduced to lecturing because the same pieces of information and instruction are seen as sufficient for all students. On the contrary, when regarding learning as a process then more emphasis is placed on the differentiation and individualisation of teaching activities. Assessment focuses

more on comparing one's own achievement (criterion referenced assessment) for the purpose of improvement as opposed to the norm-referenced assessment emphasized in learning as a product.

In learning as an active process, the teacher struggles to create a learning atmosphere in which the student can learn to reorganize the new information and their prior knowledge into new knowledge about the content and to apply it. This is what Vygotsky (1987) call constructive learning. In support of this idea, two teacher educators expressed a similar idea.

To me, learning is a process and a product in which students actively engage in receiving, organizing and re-organizing materials from the teacher. (Transcript T4, June 19, 2015).

Learning should be confirmed through students' ability to perform in real-life situations what they have learnt. For example, if you are teaching a subject which is more or less of doing (hands-on activities) then learning refers to how they perform in reality what you've taught them in the classroom. (Transcript T2, June17, 2015).

These two teacher educators conceptualised learning as a product manifested by the change of some behaviour because, according to their explanations, it requires conscious planning to be undertaken by the teacher on what should be taught and learnt. The teacher therefore works hard to achieve his/her predetermined objectives in an uninterrupted manner. In harmony with these words, one teacher educator contended that at university level we have lecturers whose work is to lecture. In his view, there is no time for questions, asking if students understand and for explaining issues in lectures.

If I'm going to the lecture I write everything exactly that I will speak in that lecture (showing a bunch of hand-written sample notes that he normally uses) so that I don't waste time explaining things. In one lecture you have to cover so much material. (Transcript T6, August 27, 2015)

By and large, it has been established that most teacher educators consider learning to be an active process through which a teacher interacts with students to organize and reorganize information to produce knowledge. When perceived this way, the emphasis of assessment tends to criterion-referenced assessment so as to see areas that require improvement. By emphasizing the processing of information to produce knowledge through the interaction of teacher and students, this conception concurs with both the cognitive (Bruner, 1986) and social (Vygotsky, 1987) learning orientations.

The minority of teacher educators who considered learning as a passive reception of material from the teacher and manifested by the students' performance in a test or examination are characteristically largely influenced by

the behaviourist learning orientation. Behaviourist teachers can be identified through their systematic design of instruction, behavioural and performance objectives, competency-based instruction, and teacher accountability. Therefore, their emphasis is norm-referenced assessment that triggers competition among students.

It is, however, surprising to notice that even those teacher educators who conceptualized learning as an active process could not show any significant differences in terms of their teaching and assessment methods when compared to their counterparts who regarded learning as a product. In either case, the traditional teaching and assessment methods constituted their dominant practices.

#### **4.1 Role of Assessment for Student Learning**

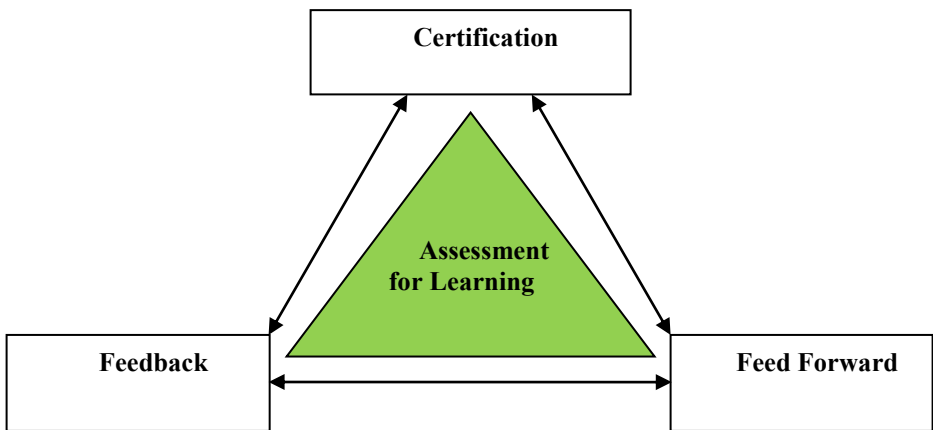
In relation to the role of assessment, responses from the eight teacher educators emphasised the following: Assessment is used for certification and promotion; assessment is needed for diagnosing student needs, problems, weaknesses and strengths; assessment helps institutions to put more strategies on teaching and learning depending on assessment results, especially when certain trends of results consistently happen unusually; and assessment shows the extent to which students have understood the taught materials. Understanding the broader roles of assessment may require teachers to not only depend on their experiences, but to be flexible in order to add new knowledge through attending relevant training programs.

Assessment is very important, there is no way you can be able to tell that students have understood you, acquired some knowledge or skills without assessing them. (Transcript T1, June 16, 2015)

In order to achieve reliable results from assessment of students, teachers need to involve students in the planning of assessment activities, and students have to be given explicit guidelines on how to undertake the activities. Equally important, the marking should be fair enough that the grades reflect the students' quality of work as much as possible. Quality work ought to be significantly creative but also meet the predetermined standards. Assessment is necessary because without it there is no way a teacher can tell that students have understood and acquired some values, knowledge or skills. Assessment is not a one-shot activity; it is a way of discovering student difficulties in understanding certain parts of the lessons in a progressive manner. Even if there are no problematic areas for students, assessment will still help the teacher to evaluate the materials and teaching methods. As a teacher, you may need to review how better you are performing in the class to attain lesson objectives. As much as possible, effective assessment needs to promote teacher-learner and

learner-learner interaction (Puspitasari, 2008; Simonson, Smaldino & Albright, 2006).

If teachers focus on assessment for learning then it becomes easy for them to explore better ways of facilitating student learning. Assessment for learning helps the teacher not only to understand the teaching and learning process, but also to be able to facilitate learning more meaningfully. It informs the teacher of what students are able or not able to do. For example, when certain students fail to perform their assignments the teacher may then decide to review his/her teaching approaches or change the resources for teaching. When put together, this study comes to the conclusion that the analysis of the responses of all eight teacher educators indicates that they had been talking about three basic roles of assessment (the tripartite role of assessment): the feedback role, the certification role and the feed forward role as synthesized and summarized in Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** The tripartite role of assessment for learning

From Figure 1, the certification role of assessment is done when grading is meant for purposes such as promotion from one level to another and transition to a new level of school. While summative assessment is normally associated with certification, in practice, diagnostic assessment can also serve this purpose. The feedback role of assessment is expressed when an assessment has been conducted to gauge whether students have learnt or not, the extent to which they have understood, and hence highlight the issues that need adjustment to improve learning and teaching. Besides providing feedback to students and teachers, assessment results can also give feedback to the administration for any necessary institutional measures that might be needed to improve learning, teaching and assessment processes.

While feedback focuses on current performance, and in most cases may simply justify the grade awarded, feed forward looks ahead to the next

activities, offering constructive guidance on how to do better in future activities. A combination of feedback and feed forward ensures that assessment has an effective developmental impact on learning. Students need to be provided with the opportunity and facilitation to develop their own evaluative skills in order to use the feedback effectively. An effective feedback must explicitly address future activity; that is, feed forward. The three main roles of assessment are certainly interconnected and differentiating between teaching and assessment is both unnecessary and counterproductive.

## 4.2 Alternative Assessment Practices

Three teacher educators admitted that they try to use alternative assessments from time to time. Those hesitant to try alternative assessments commented that traditional tools, in particular formal tests and examinations, are quite useful because they are objective and impartial. This might look a plausible comment, as Wiggins (1993) affirms that alternative assessments are normally subjective and value-laden. In spite of such and other shortfalls, alternative assessments are believed to provide students with a wide range of tasks that reflect priorities and challenges found in the instructional activities that allow knowledge construction (Wiggins, 1993). One teacher educator raised a financial concern.

I change the type of assessment activities from time to time. I don't change the course content rather the assessment activities. When you practise alternative activities (innovations) that don't require money from the institution you'll normally be supported....The trouble arises when you attach your plans with some financial request. (Transcript T2, June 17, 2015)

While one teacher educator said she practises alternative assessments by trying to keep the course outline as conventional as possible, the other two provided a similar narration but by emphasising the fact that teachers have a high level of autonomy in the classroom.

As teachers, we have got the autonomy. The institution has provided guidelines on assessment such as using tests and examination. However, the teacher has the power to do whatever he/she believes to be useful for the students. No one will query if you fulfil all the basic activities as stipulated in the guidelines. The institutions do not deny teacher's creativity. (Transcript T4, June 19, 2015)

Therefore by recognizing the autonomy they have and being aware that institutions do not thwart teachers' creativity, effective teachers tend to constantly practise alternative assessment activities in their classes. The foregoing narrations contrast themselves sharply with one teacher educator, who thought that teachers need to inform the institutional administration

whenever they plan to implement an alternative assessment activity in their class.

An important point one can learn from these narrations is that there may be a greater possibility of being at risk by implementing anything unconventional in the class. However, teachers may need to recognize the degree of autonomy they have in the class and the fact that institutions, in most cases, expect innovative performance of them. Teacher educators have, therefore, two main options: being conventional so that they remain safe, but at the cost of students learning very little; or being unconventional and subject to risk, but whose value is that of students learning critically and meaningfully.

### **4.3 Integration of Teaching, Learning and Assessment**

When teachers carefully plan for classroom teaching and assessment of their students, teaching and assessment methods are expected to be compatible in the sense that they both focus on facilitating and improving student learning. Under such circumstances the three core classroom processes, teaching, learning and assessment, become properly connected. In response to the question on the assessment methods and tools they use, all eight teacher educators could not make any distinction between a method and a tool. By definition, an assessment method refers to a philosophical or pedagogical approach to assessing. This can be termed as the system through which assessment is carried out, an example of which is written assessment or practical assessment, formative or summative assessment. Assessment tools, on the other hand, Dunn (2011) describes as specific mechanisms that can be used for different assessment, with an example being exams, interviews, essays, posters, multiple choice questions, portfolios, online tests, videos and checklists, which can be used across a number of assessment methods. Also, the tools used to mark assessments, such as rubrics, can be considered assessment tools.

The list of assessment tools mentioned by teacher educators, in order of their importance is: tests; assignments; quizzes; seminar presentations; projects; oral questions; and micro teaching. One of them who has been in this field for about five years declared his preference on seminar presentations over other tools that he uses. He justified that seminar presentations offer the possibility of assessing multiple attributes of a student at the same time.

Seminar presentations is the most effective assessment tool because, through it I can assess several attributes such as organization of presentation, speech or talking, (that is oral presentation), defending skills, skills to handle questions, authenticity of responses, and skills to write reports. (Transcript T4, June 19, 2015)

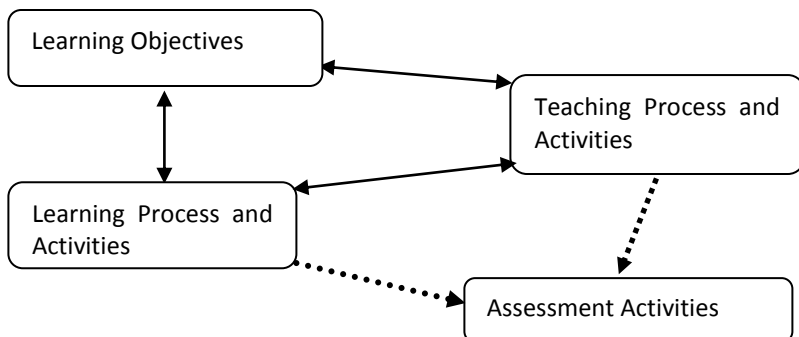
Besides report writing skills, during seminar presentations he felt he could assess: written presentation, oral presentation, defending, questioning and



question handling skills; organization; and authenticity of responses. The same assessment tool is highly preferred by the most experienced teacher educator (40 years of teaching). However, he has a different reason for liking it over others. This one believes that seminar questions keep students awake because each student must answer in writing the prepared seminar questions. During class, a few students are randomly pointed at to make their presentations based on what they prepared from the seminar questions. In this way, it is very likely that all students might work hard.

Only one teacher educator mentioned the use of microteaching for assessment. Microteaching is organized practice teaching. It aims to give student teachers confidence, support and feedback by letting them try out teaching among colleagues. For best results they can videotape themselves for individual review alongside an experienced teacher. This is done for year one students before they go on to their first teaching practice. This brings to mind the fact that there is also *teaching practice* as an assessment tool, which none of the teacher educators mentioned.

Teacher educators need to opt for methods that have a likelihood of embedding teaching, learning and assessment together. When a student is required to produce a reflection paper at the end of the week, for instance, there is no way she/he can avoid being attentive to actively engage in each class activity as the reflection will need to be an aggregate of the weekly teaching and learning activities. The traditional tools that most teacher educators use by no means detach assessment from teaching and learning activities. Conceived that way, assessment is planned and conducted as an afterthought when teaching is completed (see Figure 2). What was observed from such teachers is the fact that assessment is usually planned for at the end of teaching and learning, and worse still assessment results neither explicitly inform teaching nor provide effective feedback for improving learning. The dashed arrows in Fig. 2 emphasise the weak relationship of the elements and absence of effective feedback.



**Figure 2.** Traditional alignment of teaching, learning and assessment

## **5 Discussion of Findings and Implications**

Assessment defines what students regard as important, how they spend their time and how they come to see themselves as students and then as graduates. [Therefore], if you want to change student learning then change the methods of assessment. (Brown, 1997, p. 7).

Similar to Brown (1997), Gibbs (1992) asserts that assessment systems dominate what students are oriented toward in their learning. Both Brown and Gibbs further claim that even when teachers say they want students to be creative and critical thinkers, students often recognize that what is actually necessary is to memorize. This study found out that in most cases teachers are aware of the influence that assessment methods and practices have on student learning behaviour. At least they certainly know that if an assignment will not be marked and graded then many students will either not do it at all or passively respond to it. But how far have studies about assessment practically informed and reformed assessment practices?

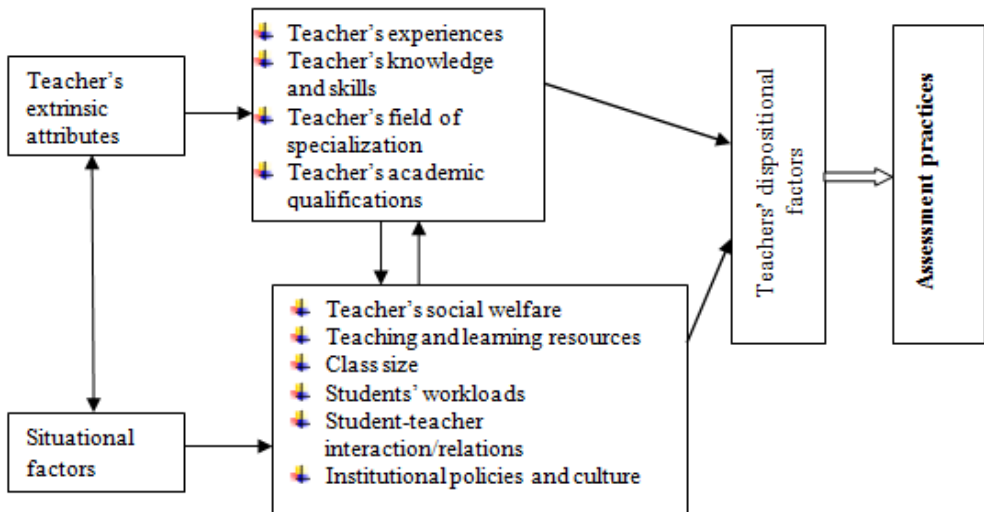
### **5.1 Active Learning in the Classroom**

The differences between learning as an active process and learning as a product conceptions recommend different roles for teachers and students in the classroom. The practical implications of this on assessment practices are diverse. In the first place, we need to make sure as much as possible that students' workloads are realistic, class contact hours are not too high, the amount of course material is manageable and that the assessment system is unthreatening. The latter can be achieved by, among others, continuous assessment instead of the current popular assessments that come at the end of semesters or programmes. Within continuous assessment there should be adequate formative feedback at regular intervals. Together with that, all assessments need to have clear criteria that are known by students before they perform the activity. Other assessment procedures and processes should be explicit, valid and reliable. As much as possible, assessment activities should be juxtaposed with the real-world tasks.

### **5.2 Effective Teaching and Assessment**

It is essential to assess what students have achieved, but of critical relevance is to assess how they are learning. The emphasis on assessment for learning offers better prospects of improving a student's overall achievement. Thus, assessment for learning deals with assessment of learning as well.

This study discovered that there are many factors that influence teachers' effectiveness in teaching and assessment. Generally, the factors are put into two main categories: teachers' trained attributes, or extrinsic characteristics, and situational factors. Teachers' extrinsic characteristics include: teachers' academic qualifications and educational background; their field of specialization or area of expertise; and their knowledge and skills. Situational factors involve: institutional policies; culture and practices; teaching and learning resources; teachers' social welfare; class sizes; and student-teacher interactions. However, the model established by this study (Fig. 3) further suggests that under normal circumstances, both teachers' extrinsic characteristics and situational factors can be mediated by teachers' intrinsic characteristics (dispositional factors), which include their personal interests, adaptability, perceptions, attitudes and beliefs which are usually not easily acquired through training or teaching. Although intrinsic characteristics can be manipulated, in most cases they are determinants of teachers' decisions to conduct teaching and assessment in certain ways.



**Figure 3:** Model for factors affecting teaching and assessment effectiveness

On the other level, teachers' extrinsic attributes and situational factors are more likely to influence each other. In other words, situational factors can act as barriers to a teacher's effective practice of his/her role in the classroom. Overcoming such barriers will mostly depend on many factors, such as teachers' levels of awareness, personal skills and flexibility to deal with changes.

### 5.3 A Model for Integrating Teaching, Learning and Assessment

In many instances, as supported by findings from this study, class activities miss a meaningful connection between teaching, learning and assessment. The fundamental principle of constructive integration of classroom activities is that an effective teaching system integrates teaching methods and assessment with the learning activities stated in the lesson objectives. All aspects of this system have to be in harmony in facilitating student learning (Biggs, 2003). The main reasons for integrating teaching, learning and assessment are: First, integration increases the probability that we will provide students with opportunities to learn and practise their knowledge and skills in meaningful ways. Second, when assessments and learning objectives are integrated then student grades are more likely to translate into learning. When learning objectives and assessments are misaligned, many students will focus their efforts on activities that will lead to good grades on assessments rather than focusing their efforts on learning what we believe is significant. The relationships of these variables (teaching, learning and assessment) largely depend not only on the teacher's knowledge, skills and values, but equally greatly on many other factors as observed in the preceding model (Fig. 3).

Likewise, Figure 4 portrays a model developed by this study in an endeavour to underline the critical need for teachers and educational institutions to consider the mutuality of teaching, learning and assessment more practically. This ideal integration (Fig. 4) is an alternative alignment that criticizes the traditional alignment (see Fig. 2). Separating assessment from teaching was clearly revealed to be the practice of many teacher educators.

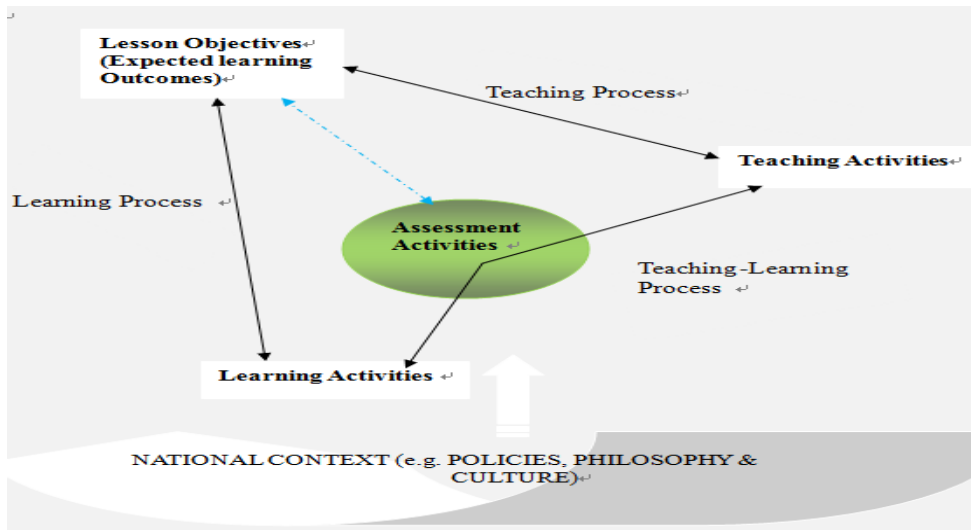


Figure 4: Model for integration of teaching, learning and assessment in the classroom

## 6 Conclusion

It is disclosed that teacher educators are caught in a dilemma of either facilitating students' meaningful learning or preparing students who can earn high grades. Although learning and assessment are supposed to be two mutually dependent processes, in most teachers' perspectives they are treated as two separate entities. While assessment, just like learning, ought to be a transparent and shared activity between the teacher and students, it is usually handled under strict and confidential settings. Many teachers do erroneously believe that they must keep their assessments secret. The appalling side of this is that students view success as depending on how well they can guess what their teachers will ask on tests, examinations and other assignments. Very regrettably, some teachers even take pride in their ability to baffle students. For some reasons, such teachers may ask questions about disconnected concepts or vague understanding.

Assessments ought to reflect on the concepts and issues that are outlined in the learning objectives and emphasized during teaching and learning activities. This goes along with explicit assessment criteria that sometimes can be agreed upon by the teacher and students. Students need to see assessment as an essential measure of how learning objectives are being accomplished and how they can move forward as improving learners after receiving feedback from their teacher (Stiggins, 2007). Treating assessment as evaluation is criticised because that is equivalent to "teaching to the test or examination," in which the assessment activities become the key determinant of what teachers plan to teach and how they teach it. In an ideal situation, learning objectives should be a guide to what and how to teach, such that assessment of student learning becomes an expansion of those same objectives. Thus, teachers are "testing what they teach." If an idea is significant enough to assess, then it has to be equally significant enough to teach and learn.

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## **Impact of Vocational and Entrepreneurship Education on the Economic Growth of Ogun State, Nigeria**

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**Abstract.** This paper reports the findings of a study that delved into the impact of vocational and entrepreneurship education (VEE) on the economic growth of Ogun State, Nigeria. Specifically, the study investigated the extent to which VEE can enhance the economic growth of the state and the factors inhibiting its development. Data was collected from 250 VEE educators in the state. These responded to a questionnaire. The questionnaire was validated by six experts in VEE and, using Cronbach's alpha, the reliability of the instrument was found to be .82. The data collected was analysed using means and standard deviation while the t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses at .05 level of significance. It was found that VEE is a factor for the economic growth of the state. Therefore, it is recommended that VEE is given the priority that it deserves notably in the area of funding.

**Keywords:** Curriculum Reform; BTVET; Development.

### **1 Introduction**

Vocational education is an instrument necessary for uplifting and promoting a sustainable development. It involves the necessary skill that would be needed for economic growth. Invariably, in Nigeria today, vocational education is yet to be accorded with the required attention and this is due to poor policy implementation. According to Otuaga, (2012), advancement and sustainable development is a very vital issue in a global world. He further stated that vocational education is focused on acquisition of individual skills and capability for occupation. Vocational education has been an integral part of national development strategies in many societies because of the impact on human resource development, productivity and economic growth (Oguejiofor

and Ezeabasili, 2014). The duo further stated that vocational education entails the enrichment of the capabilities that influence the effective psychomotor or cognitive domains of individual in readiness for entry into the world of work in order to satisfy their intrinsic and extrinsic values, work, and aspirations such that local and national needs would be met. Indeed, vocational education in Nigeria must emphasize entrepreneurship awareness for it to be relevant in achieving economic growth of any state/nation. However, vocational education combines human and material resources for the promotion of sustainable occupational development and this can also be linked to entrepreneurship education.

Entrepreneurship education like vocational education as well requires the skills that will enable individuals that would not want to rely on white-collar job for a living. According to Emeraton (2008), entrepreneurship education deals with those attitudes and skills that are necessary for the individual to respond to his environment in the process of conserving, starting and managing a business enterprise.

Entrepreneurship education should involve both literate and illiterate citizens. The reason being that not every individual has the opportunity for formal education and everyone wanted to be successful in any occupation he/she finds him/herself. This assertion is in line with Oduwaiye (2005) that entrepreneurship education prepares individual to properly acquire saleable skills which could be used to manage his/her own business or that of another person. Therefore, entrepreneurship education is an education that would equip individual formally or informally with knowledge, skills, idea, motivation as well as management ability in any occupation necessary for self-sustenance.

VEE may not be separated since the two involves combination of human and material resources for productivity. Therefore, VEE requires the acquisition of ability, knowledge, skills and competencies that would make individual to be productive and useful for the challenges of unemployment in the world of work. With the above, one can say that VEE may play a very important role in the economic growth of any state in a country in which Ogun State, Nigeria is one. However VEE if not given the attention it requires, it may one way or the other inhibit the economic growth of Ogun State. To this extent, for any state/nation to be developed, her citizens must be economically productive in order to contribute to her economic growth. This may be achieved through VEE which is the focus of this study.

### **Statement of the Problem**

VEE involves the necessary skill and competence that would be needed for economic growth. It involves step by step learning of skills that will bring out the knowledge and competencies in an individual. Just because of the

challenges facing VEE in the Ogun State, little could be done to energize the competence in individual since the motivation in this regard is nothing to write about. Invariably, in Nigeria today in which Ogun State is one of the states in the country, VEE is yet to be accorded with the required attention and this is may be due to poor policy implementation. Inadequate practical work in vocational and entrepreneurship education courses in most tertiary institutions in Ogun State due to in-availability of adequate manpower, equipment, machines and necessary tools contributed to the problems facing VEE in the state. Therefore, for VEE to really take its place in the economic growth of Ogun State the problems facing it has to be addressed.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of VEE on the economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria. Specifically, the study seeks to determine: Whether VEE can enhance economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria. The factors that may inhibit VEE from enhancing economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria.

### **Research Questions**

1. To what extent can VEE enhance economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria?
2. What are the factors that may inhibit VEE from enhancing economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria?

### **Research Hypotheses**

1. There is no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female VEE educators on the extent to which VEE could enhance economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria.
2. There is no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female VEE educators on the factors that may inhibit VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria.

### **Methodology**

The research design adopted for the study is a survey design. The design was adopted because the variables of the study were not subjected to any manipulation as they have already occurred in the field before the research started (Alade, 2011).

The population of the study consists of 250 vocational and entrepreneurship educators in tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. The tertiary institutions

are: Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun; Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye; Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Abeokuta; Federal Polytechnic, Ilaro; Tai Solarin College of Education, Omu-Ijebu and Abraham Adesanya Polytechnic, Ijebu-Igbo. The vocational and entrepreneurship educators are 250 in number. There was no sample since the whole population was used for the study.

A structured questionnaire was used. This comprises of eleven-item questionnaire that covers research question 1 and nine-item questionnaire that covers research question 2. A four-point rating scale which is modification of Likert-Scale was used for the study. The instrument ratings are Strongly Agree (SA) – 4, Agree (A) – 3, Disagree (D) – 2 and Strongly Disagree (SD) – 1.

The instrument was subjected to face validation by six experts in VEE. Their observations, comments and suggestions were taken into consideration for the final draft of the instruments.

The researchers administered the questionnaire to the respondents with the help of six research assistants employed from each of the institution used for the study. The filled questionnaire was collected immediately. The entire 250 questionnaire were returned.

For the establishment of the reliability of the instrument, the instrument was administered on 30 vocational and entrepreneurship educators from five institutions in Lagos State, Nigeria. The institutions are: University of Lagos, Lagos State University; Lagos State Polytechnic, Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka and Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Ijanikin. The institutions are outside the study area. The reliability was established using Cronbach alpha and it was found to be 0.79. This is an indication that the instruments are reliable.

The research questions were answered using mean and standard deviation while t-test statistics was used to analyse the hypotheses at 0.05 significant level.

A mean of 2.50 and above was taken as an index of agreement while a mean below 2.50 was taken as index of disagreement. Also if the t-calculated is less than the t-table, the null hypothesis is accepted. On the other hand if the t-calculated is greater than the t-table, the null hypothesis is rejected.

## **Results**

The findings on the impact of VEE on economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria are summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Scores on the extent to which VEE can enhance economic growth

Attribute	Male		Female	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
VEE would be an instrument for promoting a perfect sustainable economic growth in Ogun State.	3.28	0.94	2.89	0.97
Any kind effort for economic growth or initiatives requires human capital amongst others.	3.68	0.57	3.49	0.81
Development of human capital requires appropriate skills, attitudes and knowledge.	3.79	0.41	3.57	0.73
Artisans, craftsmen, technicians and technologist require knowledge of VEE to fit in production for growth.	3.76	0.43	3.44	0.86
Indigenous technology should be encouraged for economic growth.	3.78	0.42	3.55	0.49
There should be adequate manpower to handle engineering works, agriculture and computer services.	3.63	0.49	3.53	0.50
Youth should be equipped with the occupational skills and competencies required for effective participation in economic growth.	3.69	0.46	3.50	0.50
VEE should be intensified to reduce unemployment and enhance economic growth.	3.36	0.83	3.32	0.82
Graduates of various institutions in Ogun State should be given the right education that can give them the opportunity to be entrepreneurs and contribute to the economic growth of the state.	3.82	0.35	3.61	0.49
VEE will give an individual the ability to exploit market opportunities.	3.31	0.87	3.20	0.94
VEE should be encouraged in order to safeguard economic conditions and develop physical infrastructure.	3.12	0.91	3.03	0.98
Weighted Average	3.57	0.61	3.38	0.74

Table 1 above indicates that both male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators are in agreement with items 1-11 in the table ranges from a mean of 2.89 to 3.82 and a standard deviation ranges as well from 0.35 to 0.98 respectively. The responses of the respondents are indication that VEE can enhance or boost the economic growth of Ogun State, Nigeria.

Table 2 shows the findings on the factors that may inhibit VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria

**Table 2:** Mean scores on inhibiting VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State

Attributes	Male		Female	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Inability to develop necessary skills, especially critical thinking, communication and teamwork.	3.21	0.88	3.12	0.98
Lack of an access to resources such as workshops.	3.12	0.94	3.04	0.99
Inadequate skilled manpower to exploit business opportunities available.	3.49	0.50	3.47	0.50
Scarcity of VEE educators poses a challenge to economic growth.	2.96	1.04	2.93	1.04
Lack of adequate modern machines and equipment and tools.	2.96	1.04	2.99	0.99
Inability to develop problem solving skills	3.16	0.83	2.98	0.93
Lack of practical skills development.	3.15	0.99	3.06	0.99
Lack of adequate loan facility.	2.89	1.14	2.92	1.07
Low commitment of government on VEE	2.78	0.99	2.92	0.99
Weighted Average	3.08	0.93	3.38	0.77

The result on revealed that all the respondents from items 12 to 20 (both male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators) agreed on all the items in table with a mean ranging from 2.78 to 3.49 and standard deviation ranging from 0.50 to 1.14 respectively.

Hypothesis one stated that there is no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the extent to VEE could enhance economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria. The results of testing the hypothesis are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3:** Significance of difference in mean scores on impact of VEE on economic growth in Ogun State

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t <sub>cal</sub>	t <sub>tab</sub>	Df	Sf
Male	121	3.57	0.61	1.71	1.97	248	0.05
Female	129	3.38	0.74				

Table 3 indicated that the t-calculated value is 1.71 while that of table-value is 1.97 at 0.05 level of significance. This revealed that the null hypothesis one is accepted. This is an indication that the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the extent to which VEE could enhance economic growth in Ogun State was not significant.

Hypothesis 2 stated that there is no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the factors that may inhibit VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria. The results of testing the hypothesis are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4:** Significance of difference in mean scores on factors inhibiting VEE from contributing to economic growth in Ogun State

Variables	N	Mean	SD	t <sub>cal</sub>	t <sub>tab</sub>	df	Sf
Male	121	3.08	0.93	0.20	1.97	248	0.05
Female	129	3.05	0.94				

From Table 4, the t-calculated value is 0.20 and that of table-value is 1.97 at significance level of 0.05. This is an indication that the null hypothesis two is accepted. Hence, there is no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the factors that may inhibit VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State.

## Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

The study tested two hypotheses based on the two research questions formulated. Table 1 shows that all the vocational and entrepreneurship educators agreed with all the items in the table that VEE can really enhance economic growth in Ogun State, Nigeria. Based on the responses of the educators, hypothesis 1 when analysed indicated that there was no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the extent to which VEE could enhance economic growth in Ogun State. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

This result was in agreement with Mustapha and Greeman (2002) in their study on the role of Vocational Education in Economic Development in Malaysia: Educators and Employers' Perspective. The educators and employers believed that vocational education and training contributed to the economic development of Malaysia. The result was also in agreement with Wenekers, Van-Wenekers, Thurik, and Reynolds (2005) in their study on Nascent Entrepreneurship and the Level of Economic Development, Small Business Economics that promotion of entrepreneurial education is especially recommended in low-income nations, besides improvements of confidence in

property rights, guarantee access to capital, safeguard safe economic conditions, develop physical infrastructure.

The result as well corroborates Kazmi (2007) in which his study pointed out that vocational training and skill development are the tools to improve productivity of the labour force of any country. Both the vocational training and skill development are the most impact factors of human capital development of a country. The result also supported Uduma (2004) that with entrepreneurship, individual will combine human and material resources in order to produce goods and services desired by man. From the result of Uduma (2004), human and material resources play a vital role in economic growth of any state or nation.

Table 2 as well indicated that all the vocational and entrepreneurship educators agreed on the factors that may inhibit VEE in Ogun State, Nigeria. With this agreement, hypothesis 2 after the analysis showed that there was no significant difference in the mean responses of male and female vocational and entrepreneurship educators on the factors that may inhibit VEE in enhancing economic growth in Ogun State.

This result corroborates Kazmi (2007) that both the vocational training and skill development are the most impact factors of human capital development of the country. This shows that without vocational training and skill and human capital development for the economic growth of a state or nation would be nothing to write about. The result also supported Nilsson (2010) study that vocational education and training are the most important factors for economic growth as well as social inclusion in the country. This shows that if social amenities such as workshop, training centre, etcetera, are not in place, it can dwindle the economic growth of any state or nation as unskilled manpower would take the control of the economy.

The study concluded that VEE is a factor in the economic growth of a nation. Vocational and entrepreneurship also play eminent roles/functions in creating an avenue for economic growth for nations. The study as well concluded that VEE is a twin that may be difficult to separate from economic growth. The study however recommended that VEE should be given the priorities it deserves as it is an important factor for economic growth. Also, public expenditure on VEE must be increased far above its current level in order to improve the human capital in the Ogun State as well as Nigeria.

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# Financial Policies and Performance of Line Managers in Universities in Uganda

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**Abstract.** This study analysed the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers in Ugandan Universities. The field research was carried out in private and public universities. Every university had a financial policies so their line managers were expected to perform their duties effectively. The objectives of the study were to: assess the relationship between financial policies and departmental budgets; analyse the effect of budgets on the performance of line managers; and evaluate the influence of financial policy on the performance of line managers. The influence of financial policies on budgeting was established at 31%; the relationship between the budget function and performance was established at 18 %; and the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers was established at 48%. The total causal effect was 54%. Therefore, the study recommended adoption of financial policies enhancing the performance of line managers.

**Keywords:** Financial policy; Line managers, Performance management.

## 1 Introduction

This study set out to assess the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers in Ugandan Universities. This study was premised on the view that although financial policies existed to enable line managers to ensure that departmental operations are executed successfully, the performance of these managers had been rated as *lukewarm* (Tibarimbasa, 2010). In a confutative rebuttal, line managers had blamed the snail's pace to success on the universities' financial policies (Karuhanaga, 2010; Karuhanga & Werner, 2013). This situation brought the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers to question.

In Ugandan universities, line managers were mandated to implement programmes in their departments. In spite of that mandate, there were some

criticisms levelled against universities (see, e.g., Eupal, 2009; Twinamatsiko, 2009; Bunoti, 2010; Cutright, 2010; Kavuma, 2011; Kyambogo, 2012; Nyombi, 2013; Businge, 2012; 2015). All these commentators had one common point that university departments were not producing at the expected rate. Line managers were those managers who were charged with the responsibility of detailed running of departments. Actions took place in a department. Line managers dealt with goal setting and department-level decision-making. In a university setting, line managers were mainly heads of department. These were responsible for (a) curriculum management; (b) assessment and evaluation; (c) planning; (d) human resource development; (e) supervision of performance; (f) provide accountability for their department; and (g) implement university policies and programmes at the departmental level.

However, the success or otherwise of the line managers depended to great deal on financial policies. Such a policy guides fund raising, budgeting, procurement, motivation of staff, teaching, research, and implementation of annual plans of a department. For that matter, financial policies played an important role in supporting success in Higher Education (Wellman, 2011).

### **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

As noted, finances were quite necessary for the operations of university departments. This is in agreement with a common parlance that money is the life blood of any organisation, university inclusive. At departmental level, finances make productivity possible. Failure to keep the standards is partly blamed on line managers. Graduates in Uganda were said to be unemployed because the university departments had not equipped them with innovation skills (Kituuka, 2012). That criticism partly meant that line managers had not performed well enough. It was observed that some line managers were involved in fraud (Mulindwa, 2015). Furthermore, it was noted that financial policies in Universities had contributed to students' and staff's strikes in both public and private universities in Uganda (Wandera, 2014; Nakayiwa, 2015). Most if not all leading universities in the world register success with the help of money. In the light of the above situation, it was necessary to analyse the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers in Ugandan universities.

### **1.2 Objectives**

Three objectives were developed for this study. These were: (1) To assess the relationship between financial policy and university budget in Ugandan universities; (2) To analyse the effect of university budget on the performance of line managers; and (3) To assess the effect of financial policy on the performance of line managers in Ugandan universities.

## **2 Literature review**

### **2.1 Concept of Financial Policy**

The concept of financial policy was influenced by a sector defining it. For instance, Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) described financial policies as the policies related to the regulation, supervision, and oversight of the financial and payment systems (OECD, 2002). Similarly, the American stock market entity National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotations (Nasdaq) defined financial policies as a “criteria describing choices regarding its debt, currencies, of denomination, method of financing investment projects, and hedging decisions with a goal of maximizing the value of the firm to some set of stockholders” (Nasdaq, 2011). These two definitions were based on the financial markets considerations and therefore not ideal representative of what happened in universities

In contrast, financial policies were described as the framework within which university finances were acquired, allocated, utilised, and accounted for (Mande & Nakayita, 2015). University financial policies included: (i) Funding policy; (ii) Accounting policy; (iii) Budgeting policy; (iv) Cash management policy; (v) Remuneration policy; (vi) Auditing policy; (vii) Revenue generation policy; and (viii) Expenditure policy investment policy’

Regarding financial management in university departments, some universities preferred the head of each department to be responsible for managing the department's financial resources (UCOP, 2014). Other universities devolved management of finances to heads of budget units (UCT, 2014). In Ugandan universities, most line managers dealt with votes (Nkumba, 2014). For that matter, it was true to argue that even though all line managers handled finances, the policies of approaches differed from university to university.

### **2.2 Policy on Funding Universities**

Some studies focusing on funding higher education in Uganda (Kasozi, 2003, Mamdani, 2007; Ssempebwa, 2007; Kasozi, 2009) pointed out the paucity of funding of mainly public universities. In contrast, others (Senyonyi, 2015) offered workable approaches to funding private universities in a Ugandan setting. Other researchers measured the effect of cost on quality education (Mande 2009; Nakayita, 2013; Mande & Nakayita 2015a; Mande & Nakayita 2015b). These studies concentrated more on sources of funding and the effect of cost on quality. Although the debate on funding or cost vis-à-vis quality was

quite pertinent, it did not address the effect of financial policy on line managers' performance. Hence the gap the current study is concerned with.

A good amount of literature exists about funding university education (Kasozi, 2003) explored the state of university education in Uganda. First, on funding he noted that there had been a persistent funding gap at Makerere University. Second, he intimated that there was also a gap between funding and unit cost in universities generally. On the same matter, Mamdani (2007) pointed out funding availed to public universities was inadequate. This inadequacy was a challenge to line managers. Cutright (2010) in the same tone argued that funding was one of the challenges facing Ugandan universities as they struggled to expand higher education.

In contrast to the above contentions of funding, other scholars (Mande, 2009; Nakayita, 2013) focused on specific programmes like the MBA programmes in Ugandan universities. The study concluded that each university charged its own amount for the MBA; academic performance was influenced by cost; this in turn affected quality significantly; and that funding contributed 68% to the quality of the MBA programme. All this was plausible, however, it did not address the role of financial policies in enhancing the performance of line managers in the universities. It is contended by some authors (Ndudzo & Jubenkanda, 2014) that line managers in universities found resources insufficient.

The debate so far on funding universities was appropriate. The studies assumed that universities had perfect financial policies. So they seemed to see the amount of money that entered into the university coffers to be the main area of concern.

### **2.3 Budgeting**

The definition of budgeting attracted some debate. On one hand, some authors (Barr & McClellan, 2011) emphasised quantitative outlook of a budget. They argue that it is a formal quantitative expression of management expectations. This points to top-down approach to budgeting. On the other hand, writers like Koontz and his colleagues (1988) saw budgeting simply as a formulation of plans for a desired future expressed in numerical terms. Similarly, Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert (2000) and Amany (1999) considered budgeting to be a process of making plans and setting goals. All expressed in numerical terms. Although the above authors put emphases at different points, it could be concluded from that budgeting as a financial term described the creating of a road map to the future but expressed in quantitative manner. In university departments like any firm were run on budgets.

Another debate revolved around the importance of budgets. One side contended that the importance of budgets lay in supporting plans of annual

operations (Drury, 1992); Another side, the argument was that budgets facilitated co-ordination through communication of information about plans (Nassolo, 1997). Yet another side raised the issue of budgets being a means to facilitate the function of controlling. All activities had to be based on budget provisions. In that way it is possible to ensure that the plans laid down could be achieved (Lewis, 1996). So activities of a university department could be kept in check and it was possible to evaluate performance. Another view was that budgets were important because they aided management to learn from experience (Chandon, 1987). Budgets were also considered useful in determining short term financial needs (Horne, 2002). Furthermore, it was possible to reduce uncertainty through budgeting because with a budget, a firm or a department could predict the future with some precision (Pandey, 1995). Just as Wood & Sangster (1999) observed budgets were crucial in guiding a firm towards set objectives, it was also true of university departments. In that way budgeting was an indispensable tool for line managers.

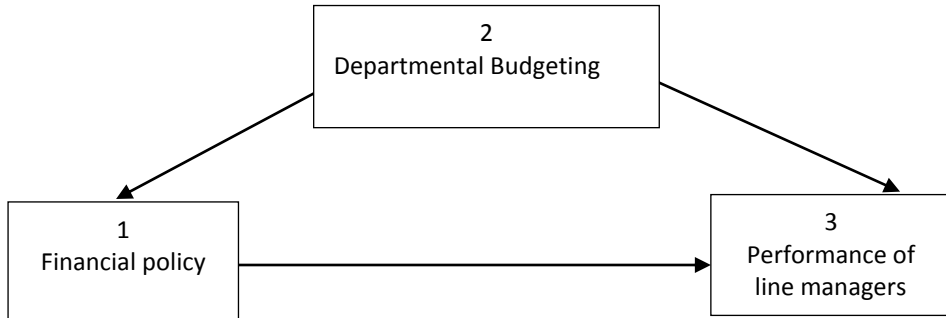
#### **2.4 Roles and Performance of Line Managers in Universities**

There are specific roles and responsibilities for line managers in a university setting. Line managers supervise staff in their departments (Inutsikt, 2003); they are responsible for strategy implementation (Ikavalkoand & Aaltonen, 2001); they make operational plans for departments; and coordinate various activities in their departments (Sadowky, 2015). Supervision of department, strategy implementation, and handling routine departmental activities required a good amount of funds guided by sound financial policies.

As far as performance of line managers was concerned, various observations emerged. Some studies (Kent 2000; Lewis 2015) reported that some line managers in universities were ineffective. That was the assessment of their constituencies, which include the faculty, the students, the alumni, the central administration, the staff, the professional community, and the regulators of a University. Furthermore "academic leadership" was advanced as one of the key roles of line managers in an academic department. Often, heads choose to see themselves and be seen as academics, not administrators (McHenry *et al* (1977: 48). It was further observed that heads of department usually had other academic and research pursuits (Philip 2009), therefore, they could not be expected to assign adequate time for departmental demands. It was therefore necessary to investigate whether the above observations were equally applicable to Ugandan universities in the 21st century.

## 2.5 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework puts together the three main variables of study. The concept is that financial policies had had an effect on the performance of line managers; the relationship between the two variables was moderated by the budgeting and its application in the departments.



**Figure 1:** Conceptual Framework

From the conceptual framework, it was noted that analyses were to be made about financial policies and departmental budgets. The existing literature explored university management and funding (Mamdani, 2007; Ssempebwa 2007; Kasozi, 2009) of universities separately. The main contention was that Ugandan universities had a very shaky funding base. Important as this theme was, it did not concern itself with the focus of the current study whose focus was financial policies and line managers' performance.

In the above conceptual framework, the relationship between financial policies and the performance of line managers required to be explored. Budgeting was brought as factor that moderated both financial policies and performance. The relationships among the three variables were novel in Uganda as no one had investigated these operational matters in same way.

## 3 Methodology

### 3.1 Research Design

The study used a cross-sectional design. A good field research required a plan for conducting field research (Ahuja, 2005). So data were collected from a cross section of respondents from the four universities of Makerere, Kyambogo, Ndejje, and Nkumba. These included heads of departments.



The major research method used in this study was the survey method. In tandem with that method, quantitative and qualitative data were gathered using a questionnaire and interview guide. The use of several methods was very useful because it was possible for the study to gain greater validity and reliability than employing a single methodological approach (Gill & Johnson, 1991, White, 2002). Views of respondents were analysed according to themes as they rhymed with objectives.

### 3.2 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The number of people in all the departments of the four universities was rather big. In the current study, the rule of the thumb approach was used to determine the number of respondents. The advocate of use of the rule of the thumb (Roscoe, 1975) in determining a sample size contended that in social science research any sample between 30 and 500 was sufficient to give credible results. So a total of 248 respondents including line managers were considered as an appropriate sample for the study. All line managers and other members of department responded to the questionnaire. The numbers of those who participated in the study as respondents are shown on Table 1.

**Table 1:** Sample

	University	Approx. student population	Number of staff selected
1	Makerere	40,000	108
2	Kyambogo	21,000	60
3	Ndejje	6,000	40
4	Nkumba	6,000	40
	Total	73,000	248

The sample of 248 was considered big enough to give a representative of the line managers in the four universities; two public (Makerere and Kyambogo) and two private (Ndejje and Nkumba). In order to get to the respondents, a convenient sampling technique was employed. Convenient sampling was where data were gathered from members of the strata who happened to be available at the time of the field research and who were conveniently ready to provide the required data (Sekaran, 2003). It was therefore those managers who happened to be available in the universities during the period of the field research omit participated in this study.

### 3.3 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Data was collected through administration of questionnaires and conducting interviews. Interviewing was considered useful for some line managers who

had oversight responsibilities even other line managers. In some instances, these included Principals and Deans. The questionnaire had four main sections: demographic characteristics; financial policy; budgeting, and performance of line managers. The items on the questionnaire were measured by a Likert scale of: strongly disagree = 1; disagree= 2; neither disagree nor agree = 3; agree = 4; and strongly agree = 5.

The instrument was validated using a scale of: not valid at all = 1; somewhat valid = 2; valid = 3; and quite valid = 4. The valid and quite valid were summed up and divided by the sum of all. The result was a validity index of 0.663. The reliability of the instrument was computed using Cronbach's (1964) alpha ( $\alpha$ ) (Table 2).

**Table 2: Reliability of Instrument**

Variables	Cronbach alpha coefficients
Performance of line management	0.67
Financial policy	0.71
Budgeting	0.64
Average	0.67

### 3.4 Data Analysis

The quantitative data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics, correlation and regressions. On the other hand, the data elicited by the unstructured interviews and document analysis were analysed thematically in consonance with the objectives of the study.

## 4 Findings

### 4.1 Organisational Structure of Universities

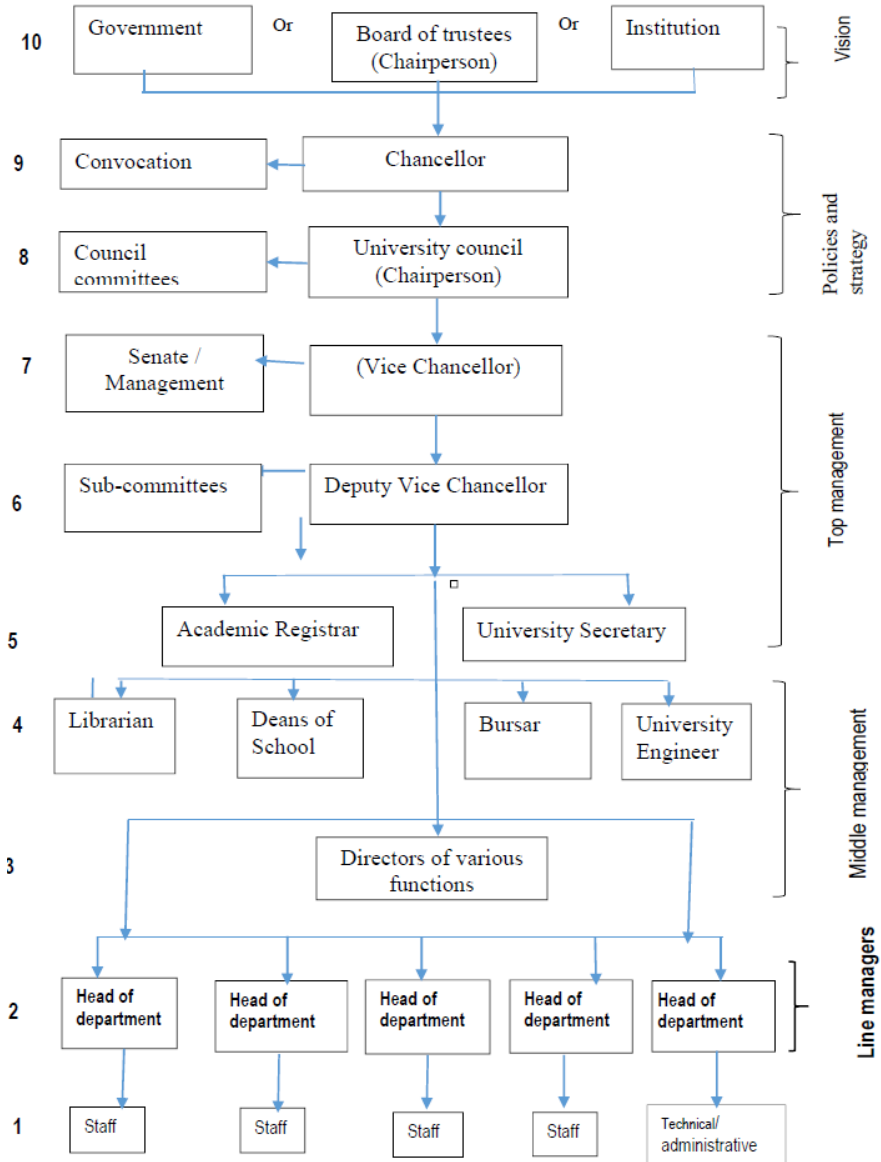
The organisational structure of a Ugandan university oftentimes depended on how a particular university was set up. For the public universities, the founding body was government. This was true for Makerere and Kyambogo universities. These have government at the apex of the organisational structure. Other universities were established by institutions and groups of people. That was the way Ndejje and Nkumba were established respectively. At the apex, there are institutions and boards of trustees respectively.

For public universities, the head of government, that is, the president would also be the chancellor. Consequently, Apollo Milton Obote, Idi Amin, and Yoweri Museveni serve as chancellor of Makerere University. However, this

policy changed with the enactment of the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (cf. Republic of Uganda [RoU], 2001). This law [(Part VIII 30 (1)] provides that “there shall be a chancellor for each public university who shall be appointed by the president on the recommendation of the university council”. In line with the new law, Professor Apollo Nsibambi was appointed chancellor of Makerere. After Nsibambi’s tenure, Professor Mondo Kagonyera was appointed and this was followed by Dr Ezra Suruma in 2016. Government is responsible for the appointment of chancellors in public universities. The chancellors of other universities were appointed by the foundation bodies. In both public and private universities, the main roles of a chancellor are: (a) to be a titular head of the university; (b) to preside over university ceremonies; and (c) to confer degrees and other academic titles and distinctions of the university. With all that, it is true to infer that a chancellor promotes the corporate image of a university.

The second level of corporate governance is that of directors. However, in Uganda’s university setting, they were commonly known as university council. This level has three main functions: (i) to make policies for the university; (ii) to supervise university managers; and (iii) to make key decisions under council committees. In this way, it could be firmly argued that councils were responsible for most of the factors that influenced operational matters. As far as financial policies were concerned, the university councils composed finance committees which analysed the university budgets before finally being approved by the whole council. So the formulation and operationalisation of the budget were partly shouldered by the council.

Below the council is the university management. This level is responsible for developing a university budget and financial management among other roles. So this is the level at which a university budget is implemented.



**Figure 2:** Typical University Structure in Uganda

#### 4.2 Financial Policy and Departmental Budgets

The universities had Financial Policy Manual containing policies related to the financial operation of a University. The Financial Policy Manuals were intended to guide administrators who were responsible for the financial

operations in a University. The financial policies contained in policy manual set the centres of financial responsibility, authority, and accountability.

Financial policy manuals in universities were designed to assist all University departments in handling their daily financial transactions. So a financial policy manual provides information related to fund raising, distribution, expenditures, and accountability. In that way, the financial policies helped line managers to perform their roles.

It was agreed by most (83%) line managers who took part in this study that funding was one of the challenges that dogged Ugandan universities. Both public and private universities alike grappled with the insufficiency of funds to run and develop the universities. On many occasions, staff and students staged strikes over issues of money. Staff often wanted the universities' financial policies to change so that their earning could come nearer to a living wage. Staff strikes and conflicts had occurred at Makerere, Kyambogo, Ndejje, and Nkumba universities over either salary increment or unpaid wages. Students on their part did not want financial policies of the university to change have higher fees imposed on them. Neither did they want the financial policies which set targets of paying fees within specified time periods. Students' strikes had occurred at the universities of Makerere, Kyambogo, Ndejje, and Nkumba in the recent years (2010-2015). The strikes regardless of whether of staff or students affected the performance of line managers and their departments.

It was necessary to investigate the major sources of funding for universities in Uganda. This was done by using the factor analysis to determine which of the many possible sources were the most critical for the universities. The sources included were tuition fees, endowments, investment by university owners, donations, money from consultancy services, research funding, open funding raising, alumni contribution, university projects, and others. These sources were items on the questionnaire and when the factor analysis was done the results in Table 3 were obtained.

**Table 3:** Major sources of funding for Ugandan universities

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.916	44.691	44.691	4.916	44.691	44.691
2	1.370	12.450	57.141	1.370	12.450	57.141
3	1.150	10.456	67.597	1.150	10.456	67.597

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

In Table 3, the principal components in order of characteristic roots were listed. This table is the result of the factor extracts and factor rotation after factor analysis. The results indicated that there were three major factors. These were:

(1) “investment” which had the eigenvalue of 4.916 with a 45%; (2) “sale of university services” which had the eigenvalue of 1.370 with a 12%; and (3) “tuition fees from students” which had eigenvalue of 1.150 with a 10%.

It could be noted that when rotation was done using Variance maximisation with Kaiser Normalisation, it emerged that “investments” were the major source of funding for universities. The founders or owners of the universities put a lot of funds to start the universities regardless of being public or private. This factor was explained strongly by alumni donations with a coefficient of 0.785. This was followed by donations in both cash and kind with the coefficient of 0.773, and founding bodies with a coefficient of 0.743.

The second source of funding for universities was services sold by universities. This was explained strongly by cases like “consultancy services” which had a coefficient of 0.851, “grants” with coefficient of 0.700, “international agencies” with a coefficient of 0.642, and “university projects” with a coefficient of 0.601. The third source was the tuition fees which as a single item had an eigenvalue of 0.849. Services may not apply to all universities because it is mainly Makerere which had a lot more resources whose services could be hired out. Both Makerere and Kyambogo being public universities were the main the recipients of both bilateral and multilateral aid for higher education in Uganda.

It was considered important to use the factor analysis on the above extracted variables in order to determine their internal consistency. The results are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4:** Reliability Analysis of Factors Extracted

Factors	Cronbach alpha	Number of items	Sig
Initial investment	.840	5	.000
Services	.790	4	.000
Tuition fees	.547	2	.000
Total	.823	11	

As revealed in Table 5, factor 1 (initial investments) had a Cronbach alpha of 0.840 and the reliability was high. The Cronbach alpha of the second factor was 0.790 and the related reliability was high. The third factor had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.547 with a high reliability. The total scale was alpha was 0.823, indicating that reliability of this scale was quite appropriate and reasonable.

The implication of the above discussion was that although items like tuition fees had been fronted as the source of funding for universities which was problematic, it was not the major one. Contributions, donations, and initial investment of proprietors of the universities were considered major sources of funding by line managers.

**Table 5: University Budget for Financial Year 2014/2015**

University	Budget in UGX billions
Makerere	229.196
Kyambogo	73.960
Ndejje	24.000
Nkumba	23.891

It could also be noted that it was one thing to get funding and it was another to allocate it equitably in order to meet the needs of the university in an even way. This consideration brought the need to analyse whether or not line managers were allocated sufficient funds. The response to this question was captured in 54% of line managers were allocated enough funds, while 46% did not get enough funds. This meant that every line manager had to have a plan of activities and corresponding budget every financial year. These budgets would be collated and used to come up with a university budget. The projected revenue for the university in a particular financial year would dictate the amount to be allocated to every cost centre including the line managers' functions. As noted above, it was not always possible to fully fund each cost centre as desired and estimated.

In order to assess how much line managers were influenced by funding, Person's correlation and a simple linear regression tests were executed. This was intended to provide to support or otherwise the first objective which sought "to assess the effect of funding on effectiveness of line managers in Ugandan Universities".

### 4.3 Relationship between Financial Policies and Departmental Budgets

The first objective of the study sought to analyse the relationship between financial policies and budgeting in the university departments. The bivariate correlation revealed that there was a moderate positive relationship between financial policy and budgets [ $r(248) = .641, p < 0.01$ ]. The implication of this statistic was that financial policies guided the budget and the budget depended majorly on financial policies. It is also noted that the sourcing for funds, distribution, and expenses were governed by policies.

A simple linear regression test was also executed. The goodness of fit results showed that there was a linear relationship between the financial policies and budget [ $F(1,246) 171.562, p < 0.01$ ]. It follows therefore that any change in financial policy led to changes in the departmental budget.

The other set of results of the regression indicated an Adj.  $R^2$  of 0.408. This translated into 41%. It could infer that financial policy influence on budgets was as much as 41%. Another set of results was the standard coefficients of Beta. This was  $\beta = .641, p < 0.01$ . For this statistic one could deduce that the first null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ), "there is no significant relationship between financial

policies and departmental budgets in Ugandan universities” was rejected. Instead the alternate hypothesis (H1A) “there is a significant relationship between financial policies and departmental budgets in Ugandan universities” was supported. This affirms that financial policies and budgets moved together to accomplish the departmental activities over which line managers presided.

#### 4.4 Budgets and Performance of Line Managers

Regarding the extent to which budgets influence the performance of line managers in the universities, it was necessary to emphasize that generally in Ugandan universities, the budgeting process was participatory. All levels of the university management were involved in the budgeting process. Departments make their budget proposals which are collated at the next levels until a consolidated university budget is made. The line managers who head the departments convene meetings and using the method of brainstorming make plans for a year and attach monetary figures to each activity. The departmental budget estimates are then used to formulate a School or Faculty budget. In considering budget estimates at the departmental level, only operational items were taken into account. These were the items that concerned the performance of a department. Other items which required a School or Faculty or University-wide approval were not included in a departmental budget estimates. Such items were salaries, taxes, gratuity, capital development, loan repayments, and the like. Other budget items that would be considered are indicated in Table 6.

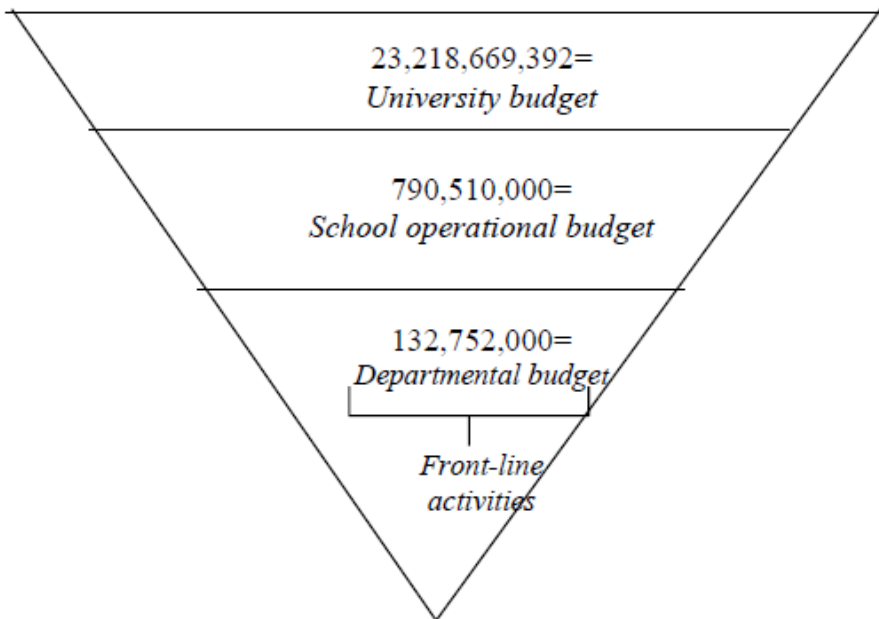
**Table 6:** Departmental and school budget estimates for 2014/2015 (UGX)

<b>Item</b>	<b>Departmental estimate</b>	<b>School / Faculty</b>
Staff workshops and seminars	13,280,000	66,400,000
ICT accessories	16,000,000	80,000,000
Teaching materials	9,200,000	46,000,000
Stationery and supplies	9,600,000	48,000,000
Evaluation of academic programmes	4,000,000	20,000,000
Developing distance learners’ modules	17,400,000	87,000,000
Field trips	1,200,000	6,000,000
Research and publications	39,080,000	195,400,000
Office expenses	4,272,000	21,360,000
Departmental Meetings	4,000,000	20,000,000
Travels	14,720,000	73,600,000
School /Faculty Board meetings	-	20,000,000
Community outreach programmes	-	9,250,000
Institutional affiliations	-	20,000,000
Equipment in School / faculty	-	77,500,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>132,752,000</b>	<b>790,510,000</b>



It was noted from the budget estimates as given in Table 6 that (a) each department participates in the budgeting process every financial year; (b) there are items that are budgeted for at School level only; (c) the departmental budgets contribute towards the School or Faculty budget; (d) the zero budgeting approach is espoused; and (e) at department level, budgeting is mainly about operational issues. In view of the above approach to budgeting, it was noted that budgeting was one of the activities that line managers took part in. They would include in a budget items they deemed helpful for their performance.

Line managers shouldered the role of planning. However, the funding of a budget lay with the university. So it was one thing to budget and it was another to have the budget funded. If a budget was not funded fully, it was a foregone conclusion that performance would be affected negatively. The departmental budgets had a connection with the university-wide budget. This is illustrated in the inverted pyramid in Figure 3.



**Figure 3:** Bottom up approach to budgeting

The staff involved in the day to day activities map out their routine and new actions. These feed into the departmental budget. The departmental budgets form part of the school budgets. They form only part because there are items which are budgeted for at that level. Similarly, the school / faculty or sectional budgets form part of the university wide budget. These budgets are added to the items which are budgeted at university level. For instance Nkumba University

budgeted to purchase property and establish Kampala campus in the 2014/2015 financial year. This item did not fall under any department, so it could only be budgeted at university level. Line managers are responsible for:

1. planning - for the department every semester and every academic year
2. managing staffing- issues in the department under the University's procedures;
3. operational strategies- considering risks of cases and deciding on a course of action;
4. decision making- and communicating them to members of staff and students
5. ensuring quality - of academic work in line with quality assurance policies of the university
6. providing advice - to students all matters in the department
7. handling financial matters - of the department according to university financial policies.

In the answering, the question on the effect of budget on the performance of line managers, both bivariate correlation and simple linear regression tests were carried out. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation revealed that there was a low positive significant relationship between budgets and performance of the line managers [ $r(248) = .143, p < 0.05$ ]. So this meant that budgets were important for the performance of line managers. In other words, the better the budget, the more the line managers perform. The second test was the simple linear regression. This test indicated first of all that the Adj.  $R_2$  was 0.016. This implied that budgets as a predictor of performance of line managers, contributed only 1.6%. This was a rather low contribution. Secondly, the goodness of fit results was about linearity. This yielded results of  $F(1,146) = 5.121, p < 0.05$ . For that matter there was a linear relationship between the two variables (budget and performance). It was clear therefore that any change in the predictor variable (budget) triggered a change in the dependent variable (performance).

The third set of results which was the standard coefficients or Beta, gave a statistic of  $\beta = .143, p < 0.05$ . From this set of results, one could infer that the second null hypothesis ( $H_{2o}$ ) "there was no significant relationship between budget and performance of line managers in Ugandan universities" was jettisoned. This left the alternate hypothesis ( $H_{2A}$ ) "there was no significant relationship between budget and performance of line managers in Ugandan universities". With budgets, line managers are able to control finances of their departments and get work done.

A budget was valuable to line managers because it served as a communication implement as it allowed the members of the department to discuss priorities. It was pointed out by 72% of line managers who participated

in this study, that it was a common phenomenon to cut budgets. The way a budget was presented was not always the way it was funded. This situation required a line manager and colleagues to review their plans and reset priorities.

Furthermore, budgets enabled line managers to take advantage of available opportunities in a particular financial year. For instance, there would be opportunities to access research funds from foreign donors. Heads of departments could apply to this and the performance in the area of research would be very good. This would be achieved even if the funds were not obtained from the line managers' budget.

In view of the above analysis, line managers' performance was influenced to a marked extent by the budgets they had each financial year. Without adequate budget provisions, the performance of line managers suffers. Consequently, the whole university experienced low rating. This affected the corporate image of a university as the world prefers to identify with winners.

#### **4.5 Financial Policy and Performance of Line Managers**

Line managers are lower level managers and have no other managers below them. So they have limited chances of delegating line management activities. The line managers (82%) who participated in this study as respondents intimated that they handle this issue by forming *ad hoc* committee or task forces to handle some clearly defined activities. The *ad hoc* committees and task forces were given terms of reference and required to produce reports on the activities they handled. It was also pointed out that line managers usually used the teamwork approach. It was common for the line managers to have teams from the department to take up roles of:

1. reviewing academic programmes
2. developing a departmental budget
3. allocating teaching load to staff
4. carrying out research
5. dealing staff or students matters in the department
6. working out operational strategies
7. considering students' results and performance
8. Engaging in special projects
9. Taking up consultancy roles
10. Organising seminar and conferences for department
11. Compilation of quarterly and annual reports about the department
12. Preparation of students for graduation

As far as teamwork approach was concerned, 77% of respondents believed it had more advantages and fewer drawbacks. For the line managers it was possible to have all the staff in the department in the know of tasks at hand.

This motivates and helps to solve work related issues. It was only 23% of line managers who insisted that teams often delay work and deadlines and targets become unachievable. So most line managers were democratic while only a few were autocratic leaders.

To determine and assess how much effect financial policies had on the performance of line managers, the third null hypothesis ( $H3_0$ ) was tested by carrying out the inferential statistical tests of bivariate correlations and a simple linear regression. The results indicated that there was a low but positive significant relationship between financial policies and the performance of line managers in Ugandan universities [ $r(248) = .369, p < 0.01$ ]. The results meant that financial policies had an impact on the performance of line managers.

Given the fact that the Adj.  $R^2$  was .133, it meant that financial policies explained 13% of the performance of line managers. The remaining 87% could be explained by other factors which were outside the scope of the current model.

The goodness fit result was  $F(1,246) = 38.838, p < 0.01$  which implied that there was linearity between financial policies and performance of line managers in Ugandan universities. Furthermore, the simple linear regression test gave results of  $\beta = .369, p < 0.01$  showed that indeed financial policies were a critical factor in the performance of university line managers. In view of these results, one could conclude that the third null hypothesis ( $H3_0$ ) “financial policies did not have significant effect on the performance of line managers” was not supported. Instead the alternate hypothesis, “financial policies had a significant effect on the performance of line managers” was upheld. Financial policies were quite important because they guided the sourcing of funds for the university, utilisation, and accountability aspects of the monies made available to a department.

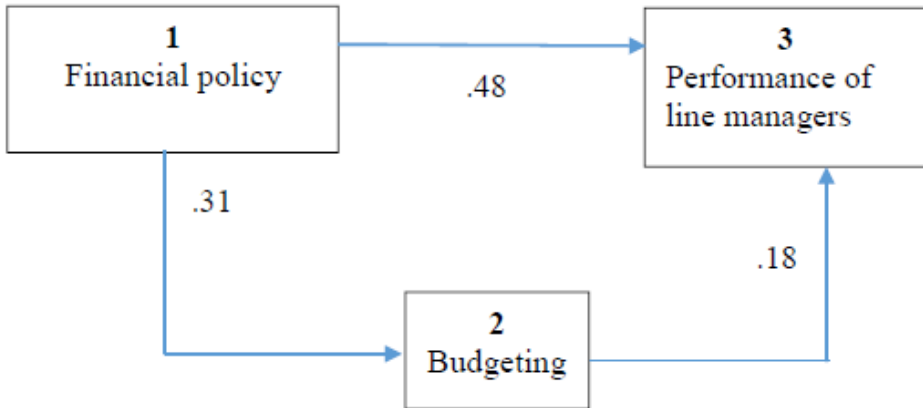
#### **4.6 Hypothetical Model for Financial Policies and Performance of Line Managers**

A hypothetical model was used to determine the overall effect of the financial policies on the performance of line managers in Ugandan universities. This hypothetical model provides a liable explication of the effect that is performance of line managers being a function of financial policies among other factors. That is,  $plm = f(fp)$ . Where:  $plm$  is performance of line managers,  $f$  is a function  $fp$  is financial policy.

The following issues are given special attention in the discussion which ensues below:

1. *Determining variables* – in the model there is an independent variable (financial policies), a moderating variable (budgeting), and a dependent variable (performance of line managers).

2. Establishing causal paths – the causal path coterminous to variable {3} which is performance of line managers are paths {1} to {2} to {3}; and from {1} to {3}.
3. Setting assumptions – for instance all relations are linear.
4. Variables are measured linearly from left to right.



**Figure 4:** Hypothesized model

The paths of the hypothesised model above establish the following relationships:

1. A positive significant relationship between financial policies and budgeting
2. A positive significant relationship between budgeting and performance of line managers
3. A positive significant relationship between financial policies and performance of line managers

The results were as the paths coefficients indicate in Table7.

**Table 7: Coefficients of Relationship**

Paths	Variable	Coefficients
P21	Financial policy	.31
P32	Budgeting	.18
P31	Performance of line managers	.48

Variable 1 (financial policies) is the only exogenous because it does not have any arrows pointing to it. This leaves two endogenous variables in the model, that is, variable 2 (budgeting) and variable 3 (performance of line managers). Each variable is explained by one or two variables.

The paths coefficients were used to decompose correlations in the model into direct and indirect effects corresponding to direct and indirect paths reflected in the model. This procedure is based on the rule that in a linear system, the causal effect of variable 1 to variable 3 is the sum of the values of all the paths from 1 to 3. Performance of line managers was the dependent variable while financial policies as a variable was the independent. The indirect effects are calculated by multiplying the paths coefficients for each path from financial policies to performance of line managers ( $.31 \times .18 = .06$ ). For that matter, 0.06 is the total indirect effect of financial policies on performance of line managers. This is added to the direct effect of 0.48. The outcome is the total cause effect of  $(0.06 + 0.48) = 0.54$ . The resultant implication is that financial policies are a major contributor to performance of line managers in universities. Other factors account for the remaining 0.46.

Line managers are responsible for curriculum, standards, assessment, staff performance, library services, and planning in departments. Given that load, the 54% contribution is a justified percentage. Despite the 54% contribution being significant, there are instances of complaints about the performance of line managers in university departments. This problem may be mitigated by a relevant theory covering financial policies and performance of line managers albeit which does not exist.

It was found that there was no theory that could explain the effect of financial policies on the performance of line managers. This study recommends a new theory: “financial policies enhancing performance of line managers” (FPEPLM). The existence of financial policies, their content, their relevance, and their effective implementation would enhance performance in terms of enabling line managers to effectively participate in the planning, organising, staffing and control functions of the universities. These are the key roles of a line manager. Without financial policies, line managers would be unable to fulfil their roles. For that matter, this theory asserts that *ceteris paribus* the performance of line managers depends on the financial policies of the university.

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# **A Case for Private Sector Participation in Higher Education Development in Africa with Specific Reference to Recovery in a Globalized Economy**

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**Abstract.** This paper notes that while globalization is presenting opportunities for economic growth and development, it is also presenting constraints against the same. Subsequently, the authors argue, there is need to develop (through higher education) the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to harness the opportunities globalization is offering whilst avoiding the challenges that it is posing. However, in Africa, the reach and effectiveness of the public education system are limited in various ways. Therefore, the authors recommend increased involvement of the private sector in the higher education sector as a panacea for dealing with some of the gaps in public higher education.

**Keywords:** Privatization, Globalization, Economic recovery.

## **1 Introduction**

No country rises above the standard and quality of her education system. According to Gbamanja (1977), education is the tool for achieving desirable changes. Oni (2004) notes that a functional curriculum is crucially required for human capacity development, wealth creation, employment generation and value orientation. Education is the pivotal springboard for economic and social development. This means that a country's development is a function of its standard of education. This is because the growth and development of any country is highly dependent on the available human resources that will tackle the country's challenges. Education plays a vital role in promoting socio-economic growth, with a range of positive outcomes like improved health and better livelihoods. UNESCO (2010, 2014) demonstrate that education contributes towards pursuit of the Millennium and Sustainable Development

Goals with each additional year of schooling resulting into a 10% average increase in an individual's earnings, raises average annual GDP growth by 0.3% and ultimately contributes to a more inclusive and productive society.

Access to education has dramatically improved throughout Africa (UNESCO, 2010). An increase of 80% has been observed at the higher education level alone. Despite this increase, however, Africa is still lagging behind the OECD countries' levels. Economic gaps also remain widespread. According to Watkins (2013), only 12% of eligible youths on the continent are likely to receive tertiary education. The issues compound further with the youth bulge and enormous funding gap. All this points to an urgent need to direct attention towards education. There must be concerted plans and investments in education. However, the problem is that the governments of most African countries are already *squeezed* from all ends. They cannot meet the increasing educational needs of their citizens and the private sector has to step in to fill the gaps.

## **2 The Present State of Education in Africa today**

Africa is the world's most youthful continent. Today, nearly 50 percent of Africans are under the age of 15. It is well known that Africa's young people are the future leaders and will be the driving force behind sustainable growth across the continent. The world today has become a skill and knowledge - based global village and; without mincing words, the development of any country is centred on the people's ability to think, create, innovate, invent, transmit and utilize new knowledge that is, the quality of its workforce. It is only highly skilled and trained workforce that can tap from it.

So, what exactly can we say about the position of education now in Africa? Can Africa boast of these? What do we have on our report card? At the higher education level, the continent needs to evolve to provide the right education and training for jobs for today's workforce. There is a severe mismatch still existing between the skills of young African workers and the skills that employers need for today's global workforce. According to UNESCO and World Bank Key Statistics, only 6 percent of young people in Africa are enrolled in higher education institutions compared to the global average of 26 percent. The good news is that universities in many African countries are experiencing a surge in their enrolment. Between 2000 and 2010, higher education enrolment was more than doubled, increasing from 2.3 million to 5.2 million. Overcrowding in lecture halls at some Africa universities is becoming all too common. Statistics show that on the average, there are 50 percent more students per professor in African universities compared to the global average. In 2008, about 223,000

students from Africa were enrolled in tertiary education outside of their home countries, representing 7.5 percent of the total global number of students who study outside of their home country. Private higher education is one of the fastest growing education sectors in Africa. As at 2009, there were around 200 public universities and 468 private higher education institutions on the African continent. Comparatively, there are 1700 public universities and nearly 2500 private universities (4- and 2-year universities) in the U.S. alone. A one-year increase in average tertiary education levels would raise annual GDP growth in Africa by 0.39 percentage points, and eventually yield up to a 12 percent increase in GDP.

Then, what is the quality of education in Africa like? What about funding and producing skilled workforce for 21st century jobs. Realizing the correlation between education and socio-economic development, African countries have gradually increased public funding on education by more than 6 percent each year. Africa allocates 5 percent of total GDP of about \$1.5 trillion to public education expenditure, which is the second highest percentage after North America with a total \$32 trillion GDP per capita and Europe at 5 percent with a total \$24 trillion GDP per capita. African countries have allocated the largest share of government expenditure to education at 18.4 percent. International donors, on average, finance nearly 6 percent of the education resources of African countries. The total amount of Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) committed to Africa's education sector was \$2.6 billion in 2008, reported The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) and Development Assistance Committee (DAC). The largest proportion of private funding for education in Africa is generated from individual households. Households contribute about 25 percent of the total national education expenditure, according to UNESCO figures from 16 countries with available data.

Africa being the world's most youthful continent with about 200 million young people between ages 15 and 24, there is need for quality of secondary, vocational/technical and higher education which is often measured by the performance of workers in the labour market as maintained by UNESCO. More so, Africa's working age population of 15 to 64 years continues to grow at a rapid rate. It is projected that by the year 2040, the world's largest labour force will be in Africa with an estimated working age population of 1 billion. But Africa is facing a severe shortage of highly-skilled African workforce. Young people in Africa make up nearly 40 percent of the working-age population, yet 60 percent are unemployed. On average, it will take a university graduate an average of five years to obtain a job in Africa, the case of Nigeria explains it all. Africa's youth population is better educated than previous generations. Based on current trends, 59 percent of ages 20-24 will have a secondary education in 2030, compared to 42 percent today. Going by the numbers, 137

million young people between ages 20-24 will have a secondary education, and 12 million, a tertiary education.

The big question is: do graduates of African schools possess the skills required for the global market? There is a major gap between the quality of education received and its application to real life and work situations. Researches, innovation, inventions and creativity for African industries and markets have not been sufficiently developed and encouraged by our system. The relevance of the fields of study, the curricula, and the effectiveness of pedagogy for the development needs of African countries and the general quality of programs and graduates remain a big challenge (Ohanyido, 2012).

According to Onyeani (2005), “a people (continent) which regards itself as independent should be able to produce independent thought. Yet, Africans still depend on Europeans, 40 years after "gaining" their independence from their former colonial masters and at a new millennium, to furnish us with books on any subject. Our so-called elites cannot devote enough time to research to duplicate the same research already conducted and articulate it in a language Africans can understand.

According to the United Nations (2016), Africa constitutes the world's poorest region. There is poverty everywhere and the pay of the average man is the lowest in the world.” The certificates obtained from African schools are reduce to paper meal tickets. Emphasis moved from skills to paper qualifications. It is really appalling and disheartening that most Africa graduates cannot defend the credentials they parade around. This story needs not to be told about our home country, Nigeria and what is happening today. The brightest ones with high potentials leave the shores of Africa for more developed countries in search of more qualitative education and greener pasture or work. What a brain drain Africa, the land of plenty living on nothing! “Any theory not backed up with practical is a mere story”. Africa has a lot of human resource potentials that can fix African economic problems. All that is needed is the right program that will help to harness and tap these potentials. But instead of this to be done, we still prefer inviting the westerners to fix them for us”.

### **3 The African Economy**

It was reported that Africa as a continent is coming out of years of economic stagnation and emerging as home of seven of the fastest growing economy in the world. In recent years, African economic growth rate started to outpace that of other emerging markets. But today the story is fast changing because of myriads of problems besieging the region's economy as a result of Cheap

commodities, political uncertainty, epidemics like Ebola and weak banks to the extent that the 'big four' (South Africa, Nigeria, Angola and Kenya) are now affected. The year 2015 was challenging for Africa. Average growth of African economies weakened to 3.6%, down from an average annual 5% enjoyed since 2000. Total financial flows decreased by 12.8% and the tax-GDP ratio tumbled to 17.9%, down from 18.7% in 2014.

Also, according to the African Development Bank (AfDB) report, 'Africa's economic growth remained resilient in 2015 amid a weak global economy, lower commodity prices and adverse weather conditions in some parts of the continent. Real GDP grew by an average of 3.6% in 2015, higher than the global average growth of 3.1% and more than double that of the euro area. At this growth rate, Africa remained the second fastest growing economy in the world (after emerging Asia), and several African countries were among the world's fastest growing countries. There is a forecast by this report that Africa's economic growth will gradually pick up during 2016/17, predicated on a recovery in the world economy and a gradual rise in commodity prices. However, given the vulnerable global economy and the high volatility of commodity prices, this forecast is now uncertain. But today in this 2016, Real Africa GDP is 3.9 and is projected to be 3.7 by 2017.

Africa's growth slowed down but it is expected to strengthen again as Africa has achieved impressive economic growth over the past 15 years. Average growth of real gross domestic product (GDP) more than doubled from just above 2% during the 1980s and 1990s to above 5% between 2001 and 2014. In the past two years, growth has been more moderate with Africa's economies affected by headwinds from the global economy. Average growth of African economies weakened slightly in 2015 to 3.6% (down from 3.7% in 2014), about one percent lower than is expected in the AEO 2015. Excluding Libya, where oil production remained volatile, and Africa's overall growth reached 3.7% in 2015, down from 4.2% in 2014. The AEO macroeconomic outlook for Africa's economy assumes a gradual strengthening of the world economy and a slow recovery of commodity prices.

Against this international backdrop Africa's average economic growth is expected to remain moderate in 2016 (3.7%), but strengthen in 2017 (to 4.5%). However, the given the fragile state of the global economic recovery and the high volatility of commodity prices, this forecast is uncertain'. Now, China's decline in investment and rebalanced growth is depressing commodity prices and producing headwinds for Africa. This has a very big blow on African economy. It means that this macroeconomic headwind for net commodity exporters also will result in Africa's external financial inflows to suffer. To survive this therefore, Africa must shift from resources based economy to an infrastructural development and manufacturing production based economy. To be able to achieve this, manpower development through human resource

development must be invested on because economic transformation hinges on unlocking potential of cities, says the African Economic Outlook 2016.

It is projected that in the next 50 years, Africa will lead other global regions in population growth. Africa's population is young and growing rapidly. Just over 1 billion people live in Africa, half of whom are under the age of 20. Whilst population growth in other regions has slowed down, Africa's has increased by 2.42% per year for the past 30 years. By 2050, the African population is forecast to rise to at least 2.4 billion and will continue to grow to 4.2 billion, four times its current size in the next 100 years. Sustained population growth results from mortality rates falling by more than fertility rates. This upsurge of population growth will lead to urbanization and majority of Africans being urban dwellers, thus Africa having the largest mega cities in the whole world. Africa is larger than China, India, United States, Japan, and most of Europe combined and is becoming the next frontier market.

With rapid growing population, increased urbanization, and has the opportunity to transform into a global economic powerhouse given the right workforce. With this, Africa is now the new frontier of economic activities. In 2012, Africa's foreign direct investment (FDI) inflow grew up to USD 50 billion, with much of the investments going to Africa's extractive sector. Africa is emerging as an attractive investment destination and a key market for goods and services. With a working population of 600 million set to double by 2040, overtaking both China and India, and an improving business environment, Africa is poised to become the world's next emerging economy. To turn its economic gains into sustainable growth and shared prosperity, Africa's public and private sectors must work together to connect the continent's markets, deepen regional integration, and adopt reforms that enhance competitiveness in the global economy (African Development Bank Group: Tracking Africa's Progress in figures, 2014).

#### **4 The Present Global Economic Shift**

The global economic recession of 2000 resulted in countries coming up with economic recovery/austerity policies, reforms and programmes all geared towards cutting down on expenditures and increasing incomes like the G20 of the countries of most advanced economy like USA, China, United Kingdom, Japan, Italy, France, etc. because markets do not correct themselves but rather stimulated by the government of any nation. The world 2030 agenda for Sustainable Development has been facing some challenges in its implementation because of weak global economy which continues to prolong over years now. It should be remembered that global economy went on its



knees in 2015. Prices of commodities fell and financial volatility keeps increasing in major cities of the world with stumbling exchange rates. This left a whole lot of downward pressure on global economy. To address this impact, ASG Lenni Montiel of UN, explained that many countries, “specifically the Low Developed Countries which rely on commodity exports, will be unable to sustain public spending on health, education, and climate change adaptation and mitigation efforts.” We know that the LDCs rely majorly on export of their commodities which averages 16% of GDP from the commodity industry. With this, UN ASG Lenni Montiel asserted that LDCs will not reach sustainable development goal 8, target 8.1, of 7% economic growth per year in GDP. Between 2012 and 2013, global economy was distorted as a result of market manipulations by Asian countries especially India and this led to a shift in global economy, affecting the balance between developed and emerging economies.

Africa’s economic growth continues to lose momentum as a result of this, as it is buffeted by global, regional and internal headwinds. While many countries have embarked on a gradual process of economic diversification, with investments increasingly directed towards the manufacturing sector, African continent remains highly commodity-dependent. Given the low level of global commodity prices, export income in many countries dropped sharply in 2015 and may fall further this year, 2016. Many countries suffer from continued shortfalls in infrastructure such as energy supply and health-care facilities, leading to power shortages in countries like Nigeria and complicating progress towards economic and social developments.

In addition, many parts of the continent have suffered from severe drought, which has reduced crop and livestock yield; and severely brought down agricultural production in affected regions. This pushed up inflation, requires higher imports of staple foods, and further reduced export earnings and put pressure on public finances, as basic foodstuffs are widely subsidized. Security concerns also continue to weigh on many parts of the continent, undermining the economic activity. GDP growth for the continent as a whole slowed to 3 per cent last year, and a further moderation to 2.8 per cent is expected in this 2016. This marks a significant downward revision to forecasts reported in the World Economic Situation and Prospects 2016. While a modest recovery to 3.4 per cent is expected in 2017, growth in Africa will remain well below the average of nearly 6 per cent per annum seen in the years leading up to the global financial crisis.

When viewed in per capita terms, the outlook is particularly bleak, with GDP per capita growth expected to average just 0.4 percent from 2015-2017. The ongoing political turmoil in Libya has pushed the oil-reliant economy into a prolonged and deep recession, which continues to restrain growth and adversely affect the political and economic governance in North Africa. Oil pipeline

destruction activities of the militants in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria have further ground the country's economy. Security concerns like that of Nigeria's Boko Haram and others like Egypt and Tunisia remain elevated across much of the region, with a severe impact on the tourism sectors, although some improvements are emerging. Security issues are becoming increasingly widespread across other African regions as well, dampening confidence across parts of Central, East and West Africa.

Updates as of mid-2016 indicating the downward revision to economic prospects in Southern Africa reflect the deterioration of commodity prices, the severe drought wrought by El Niño, and inflationary pressures from widespread currency depreciation. Severe drought has also swept across Ethiopia and parts of Somalia in East Africa, while parts of North Africa, have also suffered from drought conditions. In West Africa, economic growth in the small economies of Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone is expected to bounce back noticeably in 2016 after the Ebola epidemic. However, the region's larger economies continue to face difficulties posed by low commodity prices. Central Africa is dominated by heavily oil-reliant economies, which can be expected to suffer further export losses in 2016.

With inflationary and currency pressures rising across much of Africa, central banks in Angola, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia have increased their policy rates in recent months. This is in contrast to the moves in Botswana, Cabo Verde, Morocco, Tunisia and the currency unions of Central and West Africa, which have been more closely aligned with monetary policy in the euro area. This widening divergence of rates of return within Africa can be expected to drive shifts in capital flows and further currency pressures in the region this year. Governments require new sources of revenue to respond to mounting fiscal pressures from weak growth, lost commodity-related revenue and rising expenditure to combat weather-related crises.

Several African countries have issued dollar-denominated debt since the global financial crisis. While this has allowed them to borrow at much lower interest rates, it has also exposed them to currency risk. These risks have materialized in countries such as Angola, Ghana, Namibia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, where currencies have lost up to 50 per cent of their value since 2014, doubling debt servicing costs on foreign-currency-denominated debt. In the global economic front, China's and India's economies are evolving while America shrinks. The balance of economic power is shifting seriously. After almost a century of dominance, the US economy has gone down the growth rankings, and its influence over the global economy is decreasing. Economic growth in Europe is also slow and fragile. Yet many non-OECD countries – particularly China and India – are enjoying sustained economic growth. Global economic shifts will have a significant influence over

international politics and governance. They will also have a cascading impact on the other trends shaping our world, such as the growth of the middle class, increasing inequality, and the role and influence of global governance and business in society.

Conspicuously, in 2014, the Chinese economy overtook the United States economy to become the largest in the world, according to one measure (Market Watch, 2014). China now accounts for 16.5% of the global economy when measured in real purchasing-power terms, compared with 16.3% for the US. It was expected in 2015 for India to overtake Japan as the world's third largest economy. China is already competing with other countries to lead the world in environmental sustainability. In 2009 it outpaced the US in terms of clean energy investments and finance for the first time; its total investment reached \$34.6 billion, almost double that of the US's \$18.6 billion while in March 2014 China led the US on clean energy investment for the fourth time in five years.

## **5 Way Forward for Africa's Economic Recovery**

For Africa to survive this present economic crisis, recover from it and sustain its economy, a lot has to be done in the area of policy formulations and manpower development through concerted effects geared towards human resources development and training at all levels offered through education. The policies should be such that will reposition and improve infrastructure, transport, trade relationships, market mix, investments and general quality education across all levels. As contained in his article, *Higher Education in Africa Needs Reforms*, Alex Awiti stated that; "To educate the next generation for a globalized knowledge economy, we must depart from modes of teaching and learning that rely solely on didactic approaches, which only demand regurgitation from students. To educate the next generation for a globalized knowledge economy demands that we embrace new approaches that are consistent with contemporary views of epistemology and learning theory, which treat knowledge as co-constructed by the student and the professor. Such approaches will demand of students, analytical reasoning, critical thinking and problem solving skills as well as reflective practice, innovation and entrepreneurship."

Suffices it to say that, quality education is a vital key to economic development. That being the case, for us to compete favourably as a region with others, we must firstly embrace education as quality education is a strong predictor of the economic growth rate of any nation. Therefore functional and quality education is not just a necessity for survival but a must acquire. The mismatch between the skills graduates acquire and, local and global workforce

demand must be addressed. It is true that there is a remarkable improvement in the pupils/students enrolment across all levels but, it should be note that there is still much to be done as it only improved the literacy rate but did not yield the needed manpower/ human resources result needed for global competitiveness. Africa needs to develop a strong curriculum (especially at the tertiary levels where students are finally prepared the job market) for a knowledge and skill – based economy which will result in huge socio – economic benefits and bridge the unemployment gap as it is estimated that 11 million youths are expected to enter job market each year. If this is the situation now, should we as Africans fold our arms and watch or should we confront and address our challenges as nobody else will do that for us. Are we ready to achieve Sustainable Development especially Goals 4, 5 and 8 and others by 2030? What about the Education for Sustainable Development (which includes as documented by UNESCO:

1. First, "by 2030 ensure all learners acquire knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including among others through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship, and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development".
2. Second to "ensure that people everywhere have the relevant information and awareness for sustainable development and lifestyles in harmony with nature" by 2030.
3. And finally, to "improve education, awareness raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation, adaptation, impact reduction, and early warning" in order to help combat climate change)?

If the answer yes, what should then be done? A close look at these gives us a clear indication that Africa as a continent has a lot resting on its shoulders to be one of the top players in the global economy. In 2007, a Conference of Ministers of Education of the African Union (COMEDAF) meeting was held in Addis Ababa on how to revive Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Africa and it was accepted as the answer to acquiring entrepreneur, technical and vocational skills that will promote African development. Therefore, massive investment in quality education, Teachers training and human capital development should be embarked on. School curricular must be designed in a way to solve our socio – economic problems by enhancing youths' creativity, critical thinking ability, technological skills and other related abilities that will propel them to make their own contributions to African development. Now the big question comes in. Can the government alone do this with the rate of population growth and financial gap and our political system? Of course, the answer is no. The government alone cannot

meet up with the masses needs. Private Sector participation in the provision of quality standard education that is well coordinated and monitored becomes inevitable here.

## **6 Private Sector Participation in Education and Africa's Recovery**

Between 2000 and 2010, Africa was among the six fastest growing economy in the whole world. Africa's population is growing at an alarming rate. The rise in African population will definitely trigger off massive economic development that will come from economic diversification agriculture, manufacturing, tourism, high technological-based industries, banking, telecommunication, extraction, etc. to attract foreign investments in the continent which has already been on the increase in the past ten years. To accomplish this, education and training which has been the continent's major challenge has to be improved on to produce the needed highly skilled and well trained workforce that will help in economic recovery. This means that meeting African needs is a function of high quality education and human capacity building that is in compliant with the 21<sup>st</sup> century global demand over the next decade. But illiteracy is on the high side in Africa. It estimated that 80% of South Africa's public schools are underperforming (South Africa's National Planning Commission).

We know that the story is not different in other African countries like, Nigeria, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda where most of the public school pupils lack the basic skills expected of them. This poor performance across the continent is a matter of great concern to all and sundry. As we all know, the poor performances has its roots from various causes which range from poor and dilapidating infrastructure, inadequate funding, large class sizes, teachers' low salaries, insufficient and inadequate school supplies, incessant teachers' strikes, bureaucratic bottlenecks to non-quality teaching and learning methodology. Also, ESSPIN report pinpointed yet inadequate funding, and incessant teachers' strike to quality of instruction as some of the challenges of public schools. Notably, Africa needs a massive increase in educational capacity development and training. "The demand for educational services in Africa is rising at a faster rate than the governments can supply" (World Bank, 2010). Therefore, for Africa to reach the expected level of development that will culminate into economic recovery, private education participation has to come in to fill in the gap.

The number of private schools across Africa for primary and secondary education continues to rise. In a UNESCO survey of 25 African countries, the proportion of private primary schools increased from 9 percent to almost 10

percent between 2000 and 2008. As at 2009, there were around 200 public universities and 468 private higher education institutions on the African continent. Enrolment in private schools at all levels is fast increasing in throughout Africa continent - primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Does this increase meet the continent's education needs? If more than 30 million primary and 90 million secondary school children are currently out of school system, limited gains over the last 25 years in literacy rate across the continent from 53-60% with rapidly increasing population and funding gap of over US \$1 trillion, it is a clear indication indeed that the governments alone cannot provide the educational needs of the teeming population and take us to the desired economic position in the global map hence, there is an urgent need for rescue from economic crisis by private sector participation to relieve the various governments of the continent that have been badly squeeze to the bones. Parents as we all know, want the very best for their children as education is seen as the road to a better livelihood. Private schools are nearly outnumbering the number of public schools, responding rapidly to global and community needs.

Africans is competing in a global and skill - based job market, therefore improving access to quality education must be our priority to foster sustainable economic development. If 48 million African youths (ages 15-24) are illiterate (UNESCO), do we not need a drastic measure to go low on this number? Already, private schools are making major contributions to economic recovery through education. In recent years, parents and organizations began to question the credibility of public schools and the credentials got from such schools. Going by this, private schools became a choice favourite for parents despite the high fee charged. Do private schools really have an impact on Africa's economic recovery and how? The answer is yes.

The role and benefits of private schools over public schools in emerging economy cannot be overemphasized. There are no bureaucratic delays in private schools hence they make huge investments as at when due and the need arises. They show a comparative advantage in educational achievements over public schools at the same low cost. According to World Bank Study, WDP309, Dec 1995; Public and Private Secondary Education in Developing Countries, for the same cost per pupil, private schools in five participating countries (Colombia, Dominican Republic, Philippines, Tanzania and Thailand) performed 1.2 – 6.7 times better than public schools in terms of achievements in Language and Mathematics. This explains that there is better learning and teaching outcomes in private schools. 21<sup>st</sup> century technology – based teaching and learning is globally making waves now. Private schools with their readiness to invest and build on quality, bring in innovations in the classrooms, develop teaching models, set up virtual classrooms for students to learn even when they are far away from schools, interactive e – learning and teacher - created videos

watched online. Even if the students are miles away, as the world is becoming more global and closer together, they can learn via e – lessons. With this the students can access education from anywhere. Private schools offer more blended and integrated or fused curriculum for globalization taught by closely monitored team of professionals under the supervision of the various ministries and agencies that approved them.

In other words, the private sector does not compromise standard and quality as huge amount of money is invested on infrastructure, supplies, training, etc. If we take the current Nigeria's new Senior Secondary School Curriculum that brought in Trade and Entrepreneurship subjects as an example, more private schools are investing huge amount of money on laboratories, workshops and equipment than public schools. Most private schools in Africa have even gone beyond their country's curriculum and took up other curricula like Cambridge, American curriculum, SAT, Edexcel, International Baccalaureate and the likes to prepare their students for global competitiveness as they cannot afford to fail the parents who are investing much in their children's future. Of course, it is known that over decades, private sector participation in any aspect of any country's economy plays a crucial role of timely rescue in times of crisis as is the case with healthcare, banking, etc. Therefore, private education participation will help immensely in Africa's economic recovery, transformation and sustenance.

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# Social Responsibility of Public and Private Universities in Uganda

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**Abstract.** This paper presents a comparative analysis of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in public and private universities in Uganda. The paper is based on a cross-sectional survey that involved 780 respondents. These included 44 university administrators, 356 staff members and 380 students who were drawn from 22 universities. The findings show that both the public and private universities exhibited CSR albeit to a very low extent. Moreover, involvement in CSR differed significantly across the universities in such a way that it was much lower in public than in private universities. Drawing from the literature and university community partnership models of higher education delivery, a case for the universities' greater involvement with their communities is made after which recommendations towards realization of this goal are highlighted.

**Keywords:** CSR; University Community Partnerships; Engaged learning.

## 1 Introduction

The community engagement component of the university's traditional three-track mandate disposes universities towards in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities (Schneller & Thöni, 2011; Adomssent & Michelsen, 2006). Indeed, the institutions' teaching role produces graduates who benefit society by acting as skilled change agents; through their research role, they generate knowledge and innovations that enhance societal technological and scientific advancement; and their community service role is a form of engagement with and outreach to the outside community (Weiss, 2016). When CSR is perceived this way, it is evident that all universities exhibit it incontrovertibly (Dima &

Resch, 2016; McDonald & Liebenberg, 2006). Universities in Uganda are not an exception.

Uganda's universities produce over 400,000 graduates per annum and their supply in this very case is much greater than the absorptive capacity of the country's economy (Kayinza, 2015; Pletscher, 2015). Their research output has contributed knowledge and innovations for different industries in Uganda, including agriculture (e.g. coronal coffee), food and nutrition (e.g. banana flour), health (e.g. medicines for treating tropical diseases), construction (e.g. lighter yet stronger and material-saving bricks), motor vehicle assembling and engineering (e.g. electric car), and robotics amongst others (Kayongo, 2015; Musiige, 2014; Mulupi, 2014; Kavuma, 2011). According to Ddungu (2015), these institutions have also engaged with their communities through programmes and activities in which their staff members and students teach and learn, respectively, in interaction with the outside community members who may be individuals, groups or institutions and operating either at local, national, regional or international level. From the traditional perspective, there is absolutely nothing wrong with regarding these outputs and activities as expressions of universities' CSR. In fact, it is this type of CSR that qualifies Ugandan universities for government funding (Nkundabanyanga & Okwee, 2011). This is however, not the kind of CSR investigated in this paper.

The CSR on which this paper focuses is the type defined from a generic perspective that applies to all organisations, irrespective of the type of business they do and the industry or sector to which they belong. This type of CSR is defined as any organisation's concern for its own survival, for the community it serves and for the environment in which it operates (Katamba *et al.*, 2014, 2012; Turyakira *et al.*, 2012; Albareda *et al.*, 2006). In this context, CSR is not a requirement or even a role; it is regarded as a form of 'concern for others' expressed as a responsibility to do business right, judiciously while exercising generosity that does not hurt it (Katamba & Nkiko, 2016). Surely, universities can also exhibit this type of CSR as they play their traditional roles (Nasongkhla & Donaldson, 2015). Generally, an organisation exhibits concern for itself by ensuring its economic survival and sustainability; it exhibits concern for community by operating legally (by following its industry regulations), ethically (by doing the right thing or observing the set ethical standards), philanthropically (by giving back to and/or creating opportunities that benefit the community it serves), and by showing concern for environment in which it operates (by being sensitive enough not to damage it) (Mansour *et al.*, 2015; Rochlin *et al.*, 2015; González & Martínez, 2004).

Exhibiting CSR in a generic sense has always been a part of the African culture, but many enterprises first derided it as a joke, a cost and an oxymoron in investment parlance (Katamba & Nkiko, 2016; Lee, 2007). Few universities in Europe and America practiced it mainly through granting scholarships to

excellent but economically disadvantaged students, giving back to community through sharing research findings and innovations, donating to younger universities, promoting human rights, applying fair operating practices, and being sensitive to the environment (Dima & Resch, 2016; Leitao & Silva, 2007). These universities included Harvard University, University of Cambridge, Yale University, University College of London, Imperial College of London, University of Oxford, University of Chicago, Princeton University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and California Institute of Technology (Nejati *et al.*, 2011). It was not until the late 1990s that CSR became almost globally sanctioned and promoted as a best business practice that universities and other organisations that wanted to operate in a sustainable manner needed to integrate in their strategic plans and day-to-day activities (Alzyoud & Bani-Hani, 2015; Asemah *et al.*, 2013).

CSR started to be embraced as a strategic goal after realising that exhibiting it was a social marketing strategy that could enable enterprises to effectively make themselves appealing to and therefore willingly supported by the communities they serve, and that this strategy would promote them in the market while also creating opportunities for them to attract more clients, increase their market share and qualify for tax exemptions granted when an entity engages in charitable work (Rochlin *et al.*, 2015; Palmer, 2012; Mugisa, 2011). Universities could no longer afford to ignore this strategy. As public funding dwindled, they needed to undergo a paradigm shift to become more corporatized and find ways of strengthening their relationship with industry and of increasing their competitiveness and appeal to donors and students who now became their main source of financing (Shawyun *et al.*, 2012; Miller, 2011). Different universities have since the 1990s been embracing this strategy. However, not much research has been conducted to establish the extent to which those in Uganda have exhibited its adoption.

The few studies that have been conducted about CSR in universities in Uganda include that of Kayongo (2014). This study however, investigated awareness and application CSR as a dimension of the Triple Bottom Line and it dealt with only private universities, thereby leaving the case for public universities uncovered. Amina and Turyahebwa's (2015) study covered the participation of some universities in Uganda in community service, but its focus was on this participation as a university role, not as an aspect of CSR. This was also the case with a study conducted by Ddungu (2014). Despite having covered some aspects that universities can use to promote their genetic CSR, Ddungu (2014) approached all the aspects as defining attributes of individual lecturers' participation in community service and how this participation predicted by the dons' evaluation. Therefore, not much as has been covered about how universities in Uganda exhibit CSR in a generic sense and whether this exhibition differs between public and private universities. Accordingly, the

specific objective of this paper is to analyse the extent to which these universities exhibit CSR and whether this extent differs between public and private universities in Uganda.

## **2 Literature Review**

### **2.1 Theoretical Review**

Three theories have so far been developed to explain CSR and how organisations such as universities can follow them to execute their own social responsibilities. These are the corporate social responsibility theory, the triple bottom line model and the stakeholder theory (Brusseau, 2015; Rashid, 2015; Wicks *et al.*, 2004). This paper is however, guided by the Corporate Social Responsibility Theory (CSRT). This theory assumes that every organisation operates in interaction with the surrounding community and the larger world. Therefore, the responsibility of any organisation has is made up of four dimensions. The first is the economic dimension which focuses on the duty to make money. This dimension provides a business version of an organisation and stresses the duty that every organisation for survival (Brusseau, 2015). CSRT states that in this dimension, the organisation strives to raise the economic resources it needs to survive (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). The responsibility requires the organisation to raise and use economic resources to make profits or surplus it needs to grow unceasingly; an organisation that fails to execute this responsibility effectively is doomed to perish (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). For non-profits such as universities, this obligation is executed using public financing, donations, grants and internal income generating activities such as commercial research, tuition and other fees (Brusseau, 2015; Lee, 2007).

The other is the legal dimension, which is an organisation's duty to strictly observe the rules and regulations that govern its internal operations as well as the industry in which it conducts its business (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2008). This dimension regards observance of the governing rules and regulations as a proactive duty, but not as something an organisation can decide to follow or not at its discretion (Garriga & Melé, 2004). The organisation has to accept the regulations in good faith and make all efforts to obey them to their letter and spirit so as to operate in manner that benefits not only itself alone but also society as a whole. The third is the ethical dimension, which focuses on an organisation's duty to do what's right even when this is not required by the law (Omran, 2015; Crane & Matten, 2007). An organisation succeeds at implementing this duty by viewing itself and operating as living citizen that

provides a service that benefits, but not damages society. In a specific sense, this responsibility is exercised by setting and following ethical standards that promote doing the right thing for the good of the organisation, its members, those it serves and society at large (Toukabri *et al.*, 2015; Crane & Matten, 2007). The fourth and last dimension recognised by CSRT is philanthropy. This dimension requires organisations to give back to the community they serve as a way of contributing to improving its welfare as a whole or in terms of its individual members (Brusseau, 2015; Toukabri *et al.*, 2015).

Generally, CSRT suggests that an organisation exhibits generic CSR by functioning as a citizen that sustains itself not only by raising the economic resources it requires to facilitate its business and growth but also by doing so and conducting its business operations in a manner that serves society in a legal, ethical and philanthropic way. This paper investigates how universities in Uganda exhibit this kind of CSR.

## **2.2 Universities' Exhibition of CSR**

The available literature indicates that universities exhibit CSR in different ways. One of these dimensions is the legal component, which universities implement by following the teaching, research and instructional infrastructural guidelines, standards and regulations set by their National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) (Dahlsrud, 2008). These guidelines, standards and regulations, generally referred to as quality assurance standards, include having the required quality of academic staff, required staff-student ratio, all offered academic programmes duly approved by the NCHE, and having all requirements for lecture space and furniture, library space, materials and furniture, and laboratory space, apparatus and chemicals fulfilled according to the NCHE set standards (Brusoni *et al.*, 2014; Burke & Marshall, 2010; Eaton, 2010; Hayward, 2006). A university that exhibits legal CSR strives to plan for and observe all these guidelines, fulfil the standards and abide by the regulations deemed necessary for it to provide the quality of education students need to graduate into productive citizens (Dima *et al.*, 2013; Eaton, 2012).

According to Dahan and Senol (2012), the legal dimension of CSR is also exhibited by observing quality assurance standards that promote provision of quality instruction, research and innovation, appropriate health and safety for university members, and apt intellectual property management. It is irresponsible of any university that attempts to avoid, compromise or violate their NCHE's set standards, guidelines and regulations, since, in so doing, the university falls short of playing its traditional roles of teaching, research and community service effectively, efficiently and to the satisfaction of its service students, employers and society at large (Manock *et al.*, 2013).

The economic dimension of CSR is exhibited by universities by raising required economic resources not in an exploitative manner, but by using a fees and tuition structure that is fair to most students or their sponsors given the economic conditions in their country (Reiser, 2007). Proper implementation of this responsibility involves university management ensuring that any increments in its funding policy do not just maximise net realisable surplus but that they are justifiable from the perspective of improving the quality of provided education, and that all raised funds are transparently and credibly utilised (Chen, 2015; Ahmad, 2012). It is noted that while these observations explain how universities exhibit the legal and economic dimension of CSR, they do so using universities outside Uganda. This leaves the extent to which universities in Uganda play demonstrate these responsibilities still questionable.

Research further reveals that universities demonstrate the ethical dimension of CSR by setting and following ethical standards that promote doing the right thing for their own good and for the good of their members (staff members and students), and those they serve (employers and society at large) (Dahan & Senol, 2012). This effectively boils down to doing what is publicly and managerially regarded as right and avoiding what is publicly and managerially considered wrong (The Council for Industry and Higher Education, 2009). Doing what is right involves university management fulfilling their promises to their employees and students, providing the quality of education that enable students to develop their talents optimally, equip relevant skills and knowledge, and ensuring that students realise value for the money they pay in tuition and other fees (Nasongkhla & Donaldson, 2015; Ahmad, 2012). It also involves lecturers teaching, supervising and evaluating students as scheduled and professionally, conducting their non-teaching duties such as administrative and research activities as expected, and also non-academic staff members performing their jobs efficiently and effectively (Dima *et al.*, 2013). Universities also play ethical by imparting morally acceptable behaviour in their students (Esfijani *et al.*, 2012).

The other dimension of CSR involves a university participating in philanthropy by granting scholarships to students who qualify for university education and those who are talented, but are economically disadvantaged, giving back to community by freely organising community seminars for sharing research findings and innovations that community members can use to improve their welfare, donating to relatively younger universities, organising community sensitisation forums for promoting observance of human rights, and encouraging fair operating practices such as sponsoring staff members for further studies, including PhDs (Dima & Resch, 2016; Katamba & Nkiko, 2016; Leitao & Silva, 2007; Vest, 2006). Universities also play philanthropic by allowing these communities to use their recreational grounds, opening up for free primary and secondary school student visits and inspirational tours,

exhibiting other public acts of generosity such as encouraging students to give something such as positive experiences to the less fortunate members back to their communities (Dima & Resch, 2016; Alzyoud & Bani-Hani, 2015; Asemah *et al.*, 2013; Leitao & Silva, 2007). These institutions also exhibit philanthropy by opening up to their surrounding communities to allow their members to sell goods and services to students and employees (Campbell, 2014). This form of philanthropy creates market for the community, thereby promoting employment opportunities to members of their surrounding communities.

Universities further give back to community through what is increasingly referred to as civic engagement with community involving initiating community service projects such as those which give humanitarian aid to people hit by natural disasters such as hunger, floods, wild fire, and other catastrophes (Manock *et al.*, 2013; Miller, 2011). These institutions also encourage their students to actively engage in curricular activities that increase their learning interaction with communities, thereby increasing students' awareness of the social needs and problems of their communities, teach them grant-writing and grant-making skills, and encourage them to invest in non-profit initiatives such as starting clubs that contribute funds for the needy (Olberding, 2012; Irvin, 2005).

Generally, the cited literature indicates that universities exhibit CSR in different ways classified in four main dimensions, which include the legal, economic, ethical and philanthropic dimensions. The literature is however, cited based on universities outside Uganda. Not much research has been conducted in this area as far as universities in Uganda are concerned. This effectively suggests that the available literature is still devoid of how these universities exhibit CSR in each of these dimensions. This study was conducted to fill this gap.

### 3 Research Methods

The study followed a cross-sectional comparative survey design. Table 1 shows the population and sample.

**Table 1:** Population and Sample

Unit	Population*	Sample**	Actual sample	Response rate (%)
Universities	39	36	22	61.1
Administrators	78	66	44	66.7
Staff	10676	375	356	94.9
Students	140687	384	380	99.0

\* Culled from NCHE (2015) and Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2015).

\*\* Based on Krejcie & Morgan's sample size estimation table.

Table 1 indicates that Uganda had a total of 39 universities at the time when the study was conducted. Thirty six of them were selected as per Krejcie & Morgan's (1970) Sample Determination Table. They were selected using stratified and proportional simple random sampling. Stratified sampling was used to divide the list of all universities in Uganda into two lists. One of the lists was for private universities and the other was for public categories. Proportional simple random sampling was then used to select individual universities from each list. This was intended to not only give each university in each list an equal chance of participating in the study but also to select a proportional number of universities from each list. The list of public universities had seven universities four (57.1%) of which were selected. The list of private universities had 32 universities 18 (56.2%) of which were selected. Therefore, a total of 22 (61.1%) universities were selected. All the universities were selected in central and eastern Uganda.

University administrators, staff members and students were selected to provide data which was required to establish how their respective universities exhibited CSR at the respondents' respective levels. All respondents were selected using convenience sampling because this sampling technique facilitates respondent selection according to their availability, accessibility and willingness to participate in a study (Amin, 2005). The selected university administrators included Vice Chancellor (VCs) and University Secretaries (USs), since these are the officers whose official duties include sanctioning a university's effort to promote CSR. Since each university has one VC and one US, the 39 universities were expected to have 78 of these officials. Both academic and non-academic staff members were selected, since they each were in a position to tell their perspective of how CSR was exhibited in their universities.

Data were collected using self-administered questionnaires, since, by virtue of their occupations, all the respondents were literate enough to read the questionnaire items and respond to them in writing. Before their administration, the questionnaires were tested for validity using the Content Validity Method and for reliability using the Cronbach Alpha method of internal consistency. The validity indices for the administrator, staff and student questionnaire were .911, .905 and .922, respectively. Their Cronbach Alpha coefficients were .866, .876 and .899, respectively. These validity and reliability coefficients were all greater than the 0.7, the minimum acceptable threshold (Amin, 2005). Therefore, the questionnaires were valid and reliable enough to collect accurate and dependable data. The data were analysed using data transformation, the mean comparison with independent T-samples. The arithmetic technique of the data transformation method was applied to develop the global view of how all respondents perceived exhibition of CSR in their universities categorised as public and private universities. The mean comparison technique was used to



determine the perception on average and the independent T-samples test was used to establish the difference in the perception. The analysis was aided by the SPSS program (Version 22).

#### **4 Findings and Discussion**

The objective of this study was to establish the extent to which these universities exhibited CSR and whether this extent differs between public and private universities in Uganda. This objective was met by asking respondents to use a 5-point Likert scale of responses ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) through Disagree (2), Somewhat Agree (3) and Agree (4) to Strongly Agree (5) to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with their universities' exhibition of CSR in terms of its specific indicators that applied at their level. Findings are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Mean scores on Attributes of CSR

Attribute	Min	Max	Public	Private	t	Sig.
<i>Legal</i>						
The university's faculty meet the quality standards in terms of qualifications required by NCHE	1	5	4.36	2.56	8.990	.000
The lecture rooms available in the university meet the space and furniture standards set by NCHE	1	5	2.16	3.88	23.988	.000
The library facilities available to the university meet the quality assurance requirements set by NCHE	1	5	2.14	3.74	18.456	.000
The university's laboratory facilities, if any, meet the quality standards set by NCHE	1	5	3.64	3.90	9.677	.000
The university's lecturer-student ratio is as required by NCHE	1	5	2.26	3.76	40.445	.000
All offered academic programmes duly approved by the NCHE	1	5	4.66	3.64	22.223	.000
Regulations set by the NCHE to guide research are strictly observed by the university	1	5	4.34	3.52	7.932	.000
NCHE standards for intellectual property management are strictly observed at the university	1	5	4.16	3.52	9.867	.000
The university's health and safety conditions meet the standards required by NCHE	1	5	4.45	3.75	7.099	.000
<i>Economic</i>						
The university's fees structure is fair when compared to the income backgrounds of most students	1	5	4.33	3.71	8.765	.000
The increments the university's management makes in the fees policy are justifiable	1	5	1.12	2.42	13.876	.000
The money raised by the university is utilized transparently in a credible manner.	1	5	1.05	2.35	14.456	.000
<i>Ethical</i>						
Ethical standards set by the NCHE for research and innovation are strictly observed by the university.	1	5	4.35	3.57	6.981	.000
The academic programmes offered enable students to develop their talents to their expectations.	1	5	1.52	2.02	50.911	.000
The academic programmes offered enable students to develop skills required in the job market	1	5	1.89	3.96	69.544	.000
The university management fulfils the promises it makes to staff members.	1	5	1.57	1.99	7.329	.000
The university management fulfils the promises it makes to students.	1	5	1.62	1.97	11.009	.000
The university students realise value for the money they pay in tuition and other fees	1	5	2.29	3.59	13.133	.000
The university's lecturers teach scheduled lectures professionally	1	5	2.44	3.64	15.109	.000

Attribute	Min	Max	Public	Private	t	Sig.
The university's lecturers supervise students' research professionally	1	5	2.04	3.74	22.092	.000
The university's lecturers evaluate students professionally, awarding marks justifiably	1	5	2.21	3.21	12.678	.000
The university's lectures conduct their non-teaching duties as scheduled	1	5	3.57	4.37	16.786	.000
The university's non-teaching staff conduct their duties as scheduled	1	5	3.71	4.31	11.098	.000
The university imparts morally acceptable behaviour to its students	1	5	1.97	4.37	42.312	.000
<i>Philanthropic</i>						
The university grants scholarships to students who qualify but are economically disadvantaged	1	5	2.40	1.20	12.888	.000
The university grants scholarships to talented but needy students	1	5	1.27	1.23	6.876	.000
The university sponsors community seminars to share research findings and innovations	1	5	2.44	1.83	10.854	.000
The university donates to other institutions that are in need	1	5	1.63	2.30	8.976	.000
The university sponsors community sensitisation forums for promoting observance of human rights	1	5	1.91	2.22	8.094	.000
The university sponsors its staff members for further training, including PhDs	1	5	3.65	2.35	33.376	.000
The university allows the surrounding community to use its recreational grounds free of charge	1	5	4.08	3.69	9.986	.000
The university is open to free primary and secondary school student visits and inspirational tours.	1	5	4.11	3.79	8.066	.000
The university has programme for sending students to share positive experiences with the community	1	5	1.17	2.37	7.773	.000
University allows members of the surrounding community to transact with its staff and students	1	5	1.20	2.43	6.550	.000
The university has projects by which it gives humanitarian aid to people hit by disasters	1	5	1.10	2.34	8.287	.000
University encourages student activities that enable students to interact with outside communities	1	5	2.09	2.43	6.789	.000
The university encourages students to start clubs that contribute funds for the needy	1	5	1.09	2.08	6.087	.000
Overall CSR Exhibition	1	5	2.56	3.02	16.199	.000

From Table 2, the mean values that are close to '2' and '1' imply that respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed, respectively, and in either case, they revealed a perception that their universities did not exhibit any CSR defined by the corresponding indicators. The mean values close to '3' imply that respondents somewhat agreed, thereby expressing a perception that the extent to which their universities exhibited the corresponding CSR indicators was very low. The mean values close to '4' indicate that universities' extent of exhibiting the corresponding CSR indicators was moderate. Any mean values that were close to '5' indicate a perception that the extent of the universities' exhibition of CSR was high. The minimum and maximum values indicate that respondents' perception of this extent ranged between strongly disagree (Min = 1) and strongly agree (Max = 5). This suggests that there were respondents who felt that their universities did not exhibit any CSR and those who felt that their universities' extent of exhibiting this responsibility was high. The mean values corresponding to the overall CSR exhibition indicate however, that on average, the universities exhibited this responsibility to a very low extent, irrespective of whether they were public (Mean = 2.56) or private (Mean = 3.02). This implies that the universities executed CSR at very suboptimal levels.

The corresponding computed level of significance was less than the conventional .01 level of significance, implying that the corresponding T-value was significant ( $T = 16.199$ ,  $Sig. = .000 < .01$ ). This reveals that despite exhibiting very low CSR, there was a significant difference in the extent to which this responsibility was exhibited by public and private universities. The magnitudes of the mean values indicate that the value corresponding to private universities was relatively larger than that corresponding to public universities. This suggests that the difference was such that on the whole, CSR exhibited by public universities was much lower than that displayed by private universities. The analysis of the mean values corresponding to the specific CSR indicators reveals that private universities exhibited better legal CSR by realising a relatively better lecturer-student ratio (Mean = 3.76) compared to public universities (Mean = 2.26).

The findings also suggest that private universities exhibited ethical CSR more than public universities. In particular, private universities offered academic programmes that moderately enabled students to develop skills required in the job market, but public universities did not (Mean = 3.96 for private universities compared to Mean = 1.89 for public universities). Private universities enabled their students to realise value for the money which they paid in tuition and other fees (Mean = 3.59 for private universities compared to Mean = 2.29 for public universities). Furthermore, private universities' dons taught the scheduled lectures more professionally and without dodging any, except in cases when they were constrained by justifiable causes (Mean = 3.64 for private universities compared to mean = 2.44 for public universities).

Private university lecturers also supervised students' research more professionally and without turning down appointments, except in cases when they were constrained by justifiable causes (Mean = 3.74 for private universities compared to mean = 2.04 for public universities). Their lecturers also evaluated their students and awarded marks more professionally than their counterparts in public universities (Mean = 3.21 for private universities compared to mean = 2.21 for public universities). Similarly, private universities demonstrated more ethical CSR in terms of ensuring that their teaching and non-teaching staff members conducted their duties as scheduled and in terms of imparting morally acceptable behaviour to their students.

Notwithstanding the fact that private universities demonstrated more ethical CSR compared to public universities, the reverse happened as far as most dimensions of the legal form of CSR was concerned. In particular, public universities exhibited better CSR in terms of offering academic programmes duly approved by the UNCHE (Mean = 4.66 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.64 for private universities). Public universities were also better at observing regulations set by the UNCHE to guide research (Mean = 4.34 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.52 for private universities) and at ensuring that UNCHE standards for intellectual property management were strictly observed (Mean = 4.16 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.52 for private universities). Furthermore, public universities were better at meeting the health and safety standards required by UNCHE (Mean = 4.45 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.75 for private universities).

Furthermore, the analysis of the mean values corresponding to the philanthropic dimension of CSR indicate that notwithstanding the significant difference reported in the extent to which public and private universities exhibited this dimension, both categories of the universities did not implement most of its indicators. The magnitudes of the mean values reveal that the only indicators that these universities exhibited this dimension and which public universities performed moderately and relatively better than private universities included sponsoring staff members for further training, including PhDs, which private universities did not do (Mean for public universities = 3.65 compared to Mean = 2.35 for private universities), allowing community members to use their recreational grounds free of charge (Mean = 4.08 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.69 for private universities), and being open to free primary and secondary school student visits and inspirational tours (Mean = 4.11 for public universities compared to Mean = 3.79 for private universities).

The findings indicate that generally, both public and private universities in Uganda exhibit CSR to a very low extent, which points to the need for these universities to improve their execution of this responsibility. In specific terms, public universities are worse than private universities when it comes to exhibiting ethical and economic CSR. The reverse occurs when it comes of

demonstration of legal CSR and philanthropy. Most of the philanthropic CSR is not exhibited by both categories of universities, but this study has not identified the cause of this situation.

The management of both public and private universities should improve implementation of CSR. Management in private universities should focus more on improving legal CSR but without neglecting other dimensions. The management in public universities should emphasise implementation of economic and ethical CSR without ignoring other dimensions. Both categories of universities should enhance their philanthropic efforts.

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## A Discourse on the Values Transmitted in Universities Uganda

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**Abstract.** For a long time, the suitability of the knowledge and values offered in African universities has been a matter of notable controversy, especially in the context of liberalization of university education. This paper reports the findings of a study that was conducted to contribute to discussion on the subject. The study delved into the values transmitted in Universities in Uganda. Data were collected from a sample of 850 respondents who were drawn from faith-based, for-profit and public universities in the country. It was found that material, social/ public, personal and religious values are transmitted to students in the selected universities. This finding is discussed with the conclusion that a value-constrained university arena is a recipe for many counter values and does not promote true university education.

**Keywords:** Philosophy of higher education; Liberalisation; Curriculum reform.

### 1 Introduction

Uganda's education system comprises of three years of early childhood education (ECE), seven years of primary education (level 1), six years of secondary education divided into four years of lower secondary commonly referred to as "ordinary level" and two years of upper secondary school also known as Advance level (levels 2 and 3 respectively), and between two to five years of tertiary education. (Levels 4 to 9) This system has existed since the time of the Castle commission and report 1964 (Universities and other tertiary institutions act 2001 amended in 2006 and 2010)

This article considers levels 7, 8 and 9 or what is commonly referred to as the university level. In the Ugandan education context there has been a mix up

between what most people call university and what they refer to as higher education. Higher education means a post-secondary course of study or programme leading to the award of a certificate, diploma or degree. In terms of the Uganda Higher Education Qualifications Framework (UHEQF) 2016, higher education covers all education and training from Level 4 to Level 9.

There are specific benchmarks set on which graduates from the different levels are measured. The UHEQF (2016) provides bench marks on which higher education outputs are to be measured or the competencies they ought to demonstrate. In this article, competence means the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development. On the other hand a Skill means the ability to acquire, appreciate and apply knowledge to complete tasks and solve problems. (UHEQF 2016pg 3). The UHEQF (2016) provides the following as the standard measure or learning out comes for Uganda's higher education training:

1. Demonstrate basic knowledge of the underlying concepts and principles associated with their area(s) of study and an ability to evaluate and interpret these within the context of that area of study.
2. Demonstrate an ability to present, evaluate and interpret qualitative and quantitative data, in order to develop lines of arguments and make sound judgements in accordance with relevant theories and.
3. Evaluate the appropriateness of different approaches to solving problems related to their area of study and/or work.
4. Communicate the results of their study/work accurately and reliably, and with structured and coherent arguments.
5. Apply their subject related transferable skills in contexts where individuals may have some limited personal responsibility, but the criteria for decisions and the scope of the task are well defined;
6. Undertake further training and develop new skills within a structured and managed environment.
7. Work with others to achieve defined objectives.
8. In addition, they should be able to take up leadership roles in group work.

This article singles out University education as ground for and measure from which we can infer whether Uganda's higher education outputs skills and competencies reflect value knowledge and acquisition. Uganda University education was started by the British colonial government in 1922. Britain like other Colonial powers at the time had a very specific agenda for education systems in Africa. They mainly aimed at educating a few of the population to serve their colonial administration. This para-civilized colonial African administration was meant to help the colonial power to subjugate the so called

resistors, plunder Africa's mineral resource and at times help in the evangelization.

The Word University implies a universal arena in which advanced pedagogy, epistemological midwifery, knowledge networking and knowledge innovations and research do take place. University education in most cases is the pinnacle for academic quest in any educational system. Given the multi faced activities which do take place in a contemporary university, there seem not to be a well set or predetermined definition of a University. We take the following as the explicit objectives of university education and these guide our discussion: teaching and learning; research; and community outreach.

A university under normal circumstances provides an ideal pedagogical and non-pedagogical space and human resources who act as the prime anchors for highest knowledge. On the other hand both the staff and students because of the pivot of their knowledge skew their main activity to teach or discover their own knowledge and skills. This is the teaching or learning pillar of the university. On the other the research pillar can be quantitative or qualitative depending on the paradigm or need. While the community outreach role implies that a university does not operate in a vacuum, it is a store of knowledge resources. The human and knowledge resources in an ideal situation should be skewed to the community it ought to serve. This it does through networks, conferences, workshops, publications and any other means the university community deems would act as a good channel to reach out to society.

In evaluating the effectiveness of university education the three pillars Teaching and Learning, Research and Community outreach provide the ground for bench marking on the usefulness or productivity of universities. This is done in lieu to the type of a university depending on its philosophical orientation and the implied values gotten therein.

Uganda has three types of universities established in lieu to the philosophy of education of their founders. They include:

1. Public/Government owned Universities (PG)
2. Private Moral-Spiritual Universities (PSMU) owned and established by the deferent religious organization in Uganda and abroad
3. Private for- Profit Universities established by private organizations.

### **1.1 The Problem of Values in the University Context**

In this article when we talk of the problem of values we imply that defining, discussing and contextualizing values is not a simple task. Values and value statements are found everywhere in any education institution. From the world of reality, values are everywhere in people's statements and in their deeds because the human person is a social being.

In evaluating or assessing university education's learning outcomes much emphasis is given to the subject or knowledge content. Values on the other hand seem to be relegated to theological or moral conversations. The question or problem of axiology (dialogue on values) is of pivotal concern to philosophers of education. It is problematic because it is not tangible or necessarily experiential but manifested and implied. Values are implicitly and explicitly seen everywhere especially in any university education system. Axiology or the study of values is a very vital component in analysing education (Kneller, 1971; Aiftinca 2004; Lee 2001 and Kigongo 1994). The study of values goes beyond mere speculation about values. It is an extensive domain of philosophy which also deals with ethics (the nature of good and evil), the problem of human conduct and man's ultimate objective or "end" man's relationship with others and nature. Study of Values can also imply the study of peoples private or public principles or standards of behaviour, their judgment of what is the *summum bonum* "the highest good" or what they consider as the most important thing(s) in life. It could also imply the study of their attitude to life and other peoples' lives. A discourse on values in education could also imply a dialogue on the soft skills gotten from university.

In examining the value in the university context we need to be clear. There is a salient difference between values and value education. This difference creates a significant difference between university education and university schooling. Values education can take place at home, as well as in schools, colleges, universities, jails and voluntary youth organizations. Values are defined as an attitudes or stand point. Values in the educational context can be defined as an end towards which the learner or graduate aspires to or that which he/she espouses or that, which remains after the pedagogical and non-pedagogical experience. In this article we loosely refer to the values in the school context as soft skills got from the actual and hidden pedagogy. These values are categorized as:

1. Material values are values, which have an economic utility.
2. Social/public values refer to moral and ethical values, which are practiced or things which are of use to all persons in a particular society or organization.
3. Personal values refer values, which benefit the individual to the exclusion of others, for example, the intellectual and aesthetic values. These could be egoistic or altruistic.
4. Religious values are values which are edified in the spiritual traditions and practices of people.
5. While cultural values are the ones which individuals get or adhere to because of the allegiance to particular cultural or traditional regime.
6. Ethical values on the other hand are a set of principles which model or govern behaviour of a particular society or group of people.

Sub Saharan Africa (SSA), Uganda in particular has experienced a lot of political, economic and social turmoil in the last 30 years of its political independence. A lot of theories and answers to the African political, economic and social crisis have been suggested but the issue of values and the philosophy of values in most cases is not explicitly looked at. The African university was established to transmit certain values. Questions most people ask are: 1) What values does the university transmit today? 2) Why has the African university not transmitted values which would lead to African value renaissance and the implied stability?

Ignoring values transmitted in the different universities would imply ignoring who the university student is (his/her character and his/her world outlook or also known as the ontological view). It may also imply not getting to know why university graduates in spite being schooled behave the way they do in private and public domain.

Under ideal circumstances, values transmitted in a specific educational institution are implied in the mission, vision or purported philosophy of the institution. Unfortunately, missions and visions of different universities are not known by most salient stakeholders (Muwagga 2006). Some critiques of Uganda's education system argue that the salient reason why there is a drift to the institutional philosophy is because most people seem not to know the philosophy behind their educational institutions.

## **1.2 Theoretical Underpinning**

This article is underpinned by the virtue ethical theories such as that of Aristotle (384–322 BC), the Deontological theories for example that of Kant's Categorical imperative and Utilitarianism and Teleological theories such of Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832) and John Stuart Mill (1806–1873) These argue that generally human beings are controlled by either avoiding pain or seeking for pleasure this therefore is the ultimate control and motive for their actions. Aristotle in Book II of the Nicomachean Ethics argues that the man who possesses character excellence does the right thing, at the right time, and in the right way. Bravery, and the correct regulation of one's bodily appetites, are examples of character excellence or virtue. To Aristotle values and the peak of all values namely "virtue" can be taught and should be taught to the young. This is the essence for Private Moral-Spiritual (PSM) Universities insistence to at times compulsory teaching of their values.

On the other hand, deontological ethics or deontology (from Greek *deon*, "obligation and duty") is the normative ethical position that judges the morality of an action based on the action's adherence to a rule or rules. It is sometimes described as "duty-" or "obligation-" or "rule-" based ethics, because rules "bind you to your duty." While Teleological ethics, (teleological from Greek *telos*,

“end”; logos, “science”), theory of morality that derives duty or moral obligation from what is good or desirable as an end to be achieved.

Philosophers believe that when man reaches a super mundane level he reaches a level of self-realization. Philosophers refer to the self as pure Consciousness, pure awareness, atman, or even God. In this man enters himself through meditation and self-examination. In the article context, there is a belief that students should be taught “Reflective Practice” so that they can develop to a level of intellectual maturity, self-awareness and actualization so as to be their own leaders before they can lead others.

In the university study context or pedagogy we allude to two schools of thought namely: the virtue theory of Aristotle and the Spiritual Self- realization theory which are conservative and Kohlberg’s Theory of moral Development, which is a neo-Kantian and therefore liberal.

In the Ugandan context due to the implicit and explicit university philosophies of education, we categorize university education as secular/liberal and conservative or – moralistic. Universities in Uganda are also implicitly categorized as liberal or secular in the loose sense. These are Public universities established by act of parliament. While private universities fall in two stands namely: 1) Private for Profit liberal; 2) Private Denominational/Religious founded and in extreme cases conservative moralistic universities.

In this article we use the lenses of “Philosophy of education” to dialogue on issues of values in university education in Uganda. Philosophy of education is the critical study of education and its problems. The central subject matter of this discipline of philosophy is “education and its methods are those of philosophy. That is: It’s a speculative, prescriptive, and/or analytic to issues of education at the micro and macro levels. It saliently looks at questions in and about pedagogy, education policy, and curriculum, as well as the process of learning among others. We feel these are very important if one wants to understand the issue of values in education. In the contemporary world the school acts as a centre for socialization and value acquisition. In Africa prior to the advent of formal schooling the family and parents were the pivot for value and character formation but today the family has become constrained by the social, economic and political problems therein (Genza, 2008). This implies that the school therefore becomes a focal centre for the value debate and in this article the university.

## **2 Methodology**

A descriptive case study research design was used to generate qualitative and quantitative data. This data were used to describe the prevalent university



conditions, practices, beliefs and attitudes of the different university stakeholders towards the implicit and explicit value stances. The description enables the study to state what is happening and why it is happening. On the other hand, the case study in this context is applied to enable us dialogue on specific university category in detail. The discourse with the students and other stakeholders was guided by the following questions:

1. What values are transmitted or accessed in the different Universities in Uganda?
2. How these values are transmitted or Accessed in Different Universities in Uganda?
3. Do people especially the students know these values and what are they?
4. Do these values if at all they exist emanate from the assumed UHEQF 2016 learning outcomes?

**Table 1:** Population and Sample

Category	Sample	Respondents	Overall %
Higher education Policy makers and regulators	20	15	1.7
University Administrators	30	30	3.53
Academic Staff	120	100	11.76
Students	500	460	54.12
Parents/guardians	120	89	10.47
The community neighbouring the university	60	60	7.06
Total	850	754	88.7

The sample was selected basing on the recommendations of Gay (1996) adapting the studies of Krejcie and Morgan. The sample was drawn from six purposively selected universities in the country. They included two public and four private universities rooted in the three different philosophical orientations, namely, religious/spiritual-moral, public/socio-political and for-profit/commercial. Specifically the study targeted higher education experts, top university administrators, academic staff, students and other stakeholders such as the parents/guardians, non-teaching staff, university service providers and hostel proprietors.

### 3 Findings

#### 3.1 Values Transmitted

The respondents were asked to give their views about the values transmitted in their universities. The responses are summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2: Distribution of Students’ Responses on Values Transmitted (% , N=460)**

Category of University	Values Transmitted				Total
	Material- Economic	Social - public	Personal	Spiritual/ Religious	
Government owned (PG) (A & B)	51	4	42	3	100
Private Moral-Spiritual (PSM) (C, D & E)	5	40	-	55	100
Private for- Profit (PFP) (F)	91	-	9	-	100

Findings in Table 2 imply that PG is high on both material- values and personal values. The reasons cited are most students admitted in public universities are and work within a liberal environment and in most cases. The class and out of class pedagogy is built on a survival for the fittest, mind your business a kind of *laissez-faire* philosophy. Each student and teacher minds his/her business. On the other hand as the name suggests Private for Profit universities (PFP) also their students anchor in material-economic values. The answer to this seems to lie in the reigning philosophy in these institutions namely: “you get what you pay for without money nothing can be got” [

The Private Moral-Spiritual (PSM) Universities (PSM) are more skewed on the need to reform man, use of the mundane knowledge to the realization of the divine. Their salient learning outcome is: To produce a person who is able to demonstrate ability to tame nature including him/her to realize his/her earthly and heavenly end. The findings in Table 2 were also supported with findings from the focus group discussions. One student in one of the public universities revealed:

In our university the values you get are not very much determined by what is given to you by the university, but by what you are or what you allow yourself to be while at the university

This was re-echoed by over 50% of the sampled students in public universities. They revealed that there is a kind of *laissez-faire* attitude as to the values that student’s access. They felt that public universities seem not to mind how students behave so long as they pass examinations, are not in breach of peace and if they are privately sponsored so long as they pay their tuition there is no cause for alarm.

In contrast, students in the Moral-Spiritual Universities revealed that most values prevalent in their universities edify or foster virtues such as integrity, honesty, openness, service above self, respect for oneself and others and social justice. One student revealed and said that:

The issue of values is part and parcel of our everyday life in and outside class.

On the other hand, students in commercial-for-Profit universities are not very comfortable with issues of values. One student in this university revealed that values are not an issue both in and outside class.

### 3.2 Students' Knowledge of Values Transmitted in their Universities

The study sought to ascertain whether the students were aware of the values accessible to them in their respective universities. The study wanted to explore in detail, whether or not the different universities explicitly make known the values transmitted to the specific students in the course of their stay at the university.

**Table 3: Distribution of Students' Responses on Knowledge Transmitted (% , N=460)**

Category of University	Knowledge of Values Transmitted		Total
	"Know"	"Do not know"	
Government owned (PG) (A & B)	49	51	100
Private Moral-Spiritual (PSM) (C, D & E)	83	17	100
Private for- Profit (PFP) (F)	34	66	100

Table 3 shows that most of the students in public universities (PG) did not know the values transmitted to them. On the other hand, students in private moral-spiritual universities (PSMU), 115 (83%) knew or at least had an idea of the values tenable in their universities. While students in private-for-profit universities (PEU/FPU) less than 40 seemed to know the values transmitted from their universities.

### 3.3 Means through which Values are transmitted

It was argued that it is mainly the private moral-spiritual universities (PSMU), which have explicit ways through which the purported values are transmitted or accessed. Out of the private moral-spiritual university (PSMU) academic staff interviewed, 37 (80%), revealed that there was a well laid down philosophy behind any university program. The philosophy guides the character and purpose of the university. The philosophy in turn is directly or indirectly prescribes how values are to be passed on to students. During the focus group discussions and interviews, different university Administrators and academic and non-academic staff revealed at least ten techniques used in the transmission of the different values to the students namely:

1. The nature of the lecturers teaching in the university, as a matter of principle, (though implicitly) have to belong to or must tolerate the faith of the founding body
2. The academic programs are quite often spiced with the theistic doctrine of the founding body. This was very evident in the Catholic and Islamic theistic rooted universities.
3. Before any activity academic or non- academic is began, a prayer is said but within the faith pertinent to the University philosophy, for example the findings indicate that in the Islamic theistic rooted university lecturer as a directive have to greet the students with the Islamic greeting “*Asalaam Aleikum walahamatullai Wabarakatuh*”.
4. Eligibility to student leadership in most of these universities leans on faith.
5. All female students in the Islamic oriented universities are to dress in ways acceptable to the founders’ faith.
6. Most of the literature (journals, magazines, newspapers, text books and other literary work), dominantly lean on the faith of the founding body. This transmits the philosophy of the university.
7. In the Islamic theistic university it was revealed that Arabic and Islamic studies are compulsory for all post graduate students.
8. Academic staff and University managers in the Islamic university revealed that universities girls are made to request for permission before going off campus
9. There was an emphasis of separation of students according to sexes in the Islamic university.

On the other hand, parents, university administrators and academic staff in Catholic value stance revealed that in some of these universities especially those in the Catholic theistic tradition, portraits of saints and other religious icons are evidently placed in vantage places.

### **3.4 Nature of Values transmitted**

There was a general agreement between the different stakeholders in all the universities, that because universities overlap in their ideology and implied philosophical orientation, they transmit similar values. These values include:

1. Universities implicitly cultivate the value of unity and an understanding of social and civic responsibilities. These are mostly expressed when students are encouraged to choose or participate in the choosing of their students’ leaders.
2. Some stakeholders especially the (PSMU) revealed that their students are encouraged to love and care for others and respect for public property. This

on the other hand was a contested in PGU. Almost all interviewed university stakeholders noted that this value is missing in their university students. They argued that whenever students get annoyed or strike they destroy public property.

3. It was also reported that universities do admit international students to enable students appreciate international relations and the benefits of international co-operation. This value was also contested by most Ugandan interviewed students. They argued that international students are the source of inter student violence. They single out students from South Sudan and Kenya. They noted that most of these international students are rude and do use banned drugs. In this article our interest was not to establish the truth or falsity of the above allegations. To us the allegations were indicative of a value challenge or problem
4. It was also reported that university education teaches students to appreciate and understand Uganda's rich cultural heritage including its languages. The students claimed that annual inter university tribal and cultural galas enable students to get to know their cultures and that of others.
5. Staying in students hostels enables university students to develop a sense of self-discipline and self-control.

On the other hand there vices students acquire while at the university. Conversations on issues of vices move hand in hand with dialogues on private and public morality and the implied societal norms. When we talk about vices and values we by implication have to talk about the challenge subjectivity, objectivity and ethical relativity. For values to be judged with lenses of either objectivity or relativity, we have to employ the "philosophical lenses". The philosophical lenses are speculative, critical, and analytical and most often they question but do not provide conclusive debates. Norms are the assumed be what a particular society or group of people consider acceptable conduct or behaviour. Objectivity on the other hand implies general or macro acceptance of a conduct or behaviour. While subjectivity looks at individual or micro acceptability of a certain behaviour or conduct. Relativism or what in this article we shall refer to as ethical relativism is the philosophy that argues that human conduct, behaviour or actions are relative to the norms of one's culture, religion, tribe or race. That is, an action is right or wrong depends on what an individual or a particular society takes as its moral norms or that which it practices. This implies that what is viewed as morally right in one society could be morally wrong in another.

In the Ugandan context and in the context of this article in as much as we may argue that the school or university education is a ground for values we also note that students behaviour, conduct or actions are assumed to emanate from their Cultures, religions, level of education, socio-economic background,

parenting and nature of parents or guardian, education and formal schooling received, nature of teachers, politics. It should be noted that at times stereo types such as gender biases could in extreme cases also dictate the norms and the vices.

The different stakeholders were asked to mention some of what they considered vices students exhibit while at the university. They alleged that over 40% of the University female students in PUPFU do adopt a dress code which as per Ugandan norms is not acceptable because in most cases it's viewed as sexually provocative. Out of the twenty lecturers interviewed, eighty percent complained that some female students sit in such a way as way to expose their underwear which makes many of them uncomfortable.

It was reported that cases of examination malpractice are on the increase. It was also reported that there are lectures who trade "marks for sex", including in the PS-MU.

Stakeholders who reside in areas neighbouring the universities also complained that cases of university students getting involved in prostitution are on the increase. One shop attendant operating a retail shop neighbouring a public university alluded to the fact that the most sought for commodity by university students are condoms. While a nurse in a clinic servicing one university reported that the major medical sought for service by university students are family planning and abortion.

We note that no one has the empirical evidence or the specific statistics about how many students go for abortion or seek for family planning. A small sample cannot make us make conclusive generalisation but at the same time as a case study we have to take note of this challenge given the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (2014) and Ministry of Health (2015) reports which state that HIV/AIDS is on the increase among youths. This could give a justification or a hint to the challenge emanating from the above allegations.

It was also reported that cases of students being caught stealing either their fellow students property or even serious cases such as stealing cars, stabbing and raping fellow students are on the increase in most universities in Uganda.

As noted earlier on in this article that values and the implied human conduct has many sources. It may be hard to pin all the above vices to the university context alone but we cannot ignore the university as a very fertile ground for moral and value deformity among university students.

### **3.5 Discussion and Conclusion**

The study findings reveal that all the interviewed academic staff, university administrators, parents in the study universities plus the NCHE officials

indicates that there is no explicit means to transmit particular values in PU and PFP universities. The findings also reveal that because of lack of a clear framework for value education, value vacuum may lead many students' into vices such as greed, academic fraud, disrespectfulness and sexual promiscuity. The above findings do concur with Genza (2008) and Kasibante and Kiwanuka (2001), who also noted that a constrained educational environment is a recipe for dysfunctional morals among the learners.

The study findings also reveal that there are two main categories of values accessed or transmitted in the different universities in Uganda namely; material/corporeal and spiritual values. The different respondents revealed that whereas Private Moral-Spiritual universities (PSMU) have specific explicit and implicit means through which these values are transmitted, the public/government owned and the Economic/For-Profit universities (PG and C/FP) have none. This alludes to the neo-Kantian liberal. The findings imply that there is an axiological vacuum created by the lack of official explicit values transmitted by the public and For-Profit universities in Uganda this is also reflected elsewhere (Aiftinca 2004; Lee 2001 and Kigongo 1994

The value void makes most of the public university academic and non-academic contexts a recipe for many counter values such as; greed, academic fraud, disrespectfulness and sexual promiscuity, excessive search for corporeal ends and recourse to hedonistic tendencies. The results of this study seem to concur with the findings of Nsereko (1997) Akankwasa (1997) and Akankwasa (2002) who revealed that a constrained axiological stance ipso facto constrained academic and non-academic environments can never facilitate educative education.

The findings also revealed that Public and the For-Profit universities lay too much emphasis on the corporeal nature of the university inputs and outputs. This has led the learner to be treated as a mere jug to be filled with any knowledge so long as it is acceptable to the giver. This has reduced the learner to a level of a "mollusk", that is a being which is not capable of making critical independent decisions. This is well illustrated in the nature of the examination regimes in most of these universities which call for duplication of lecture notes or what the professors says (Akankwasa 1997 and Nsereko-Munakukaama 1997).

This constrained and void value stance could be a recipe for either authentic or inauthentic living. There is a fear that many students have developed a wrong concept of "freedom." In Uganda majority of the students in most cases join universities after leaving in a strict home and school environment. Therefore being admitted in a university means attaining a new world of untold freedom. The entry into an environment of total freedom eludes to what Jean – Paul Sartre called "dreadful freedom" (Stroll and Popkin 1979:436-438). The study findings imply that many students unfortunately find themselves in a

similar situation. There are no bonds, timetables or well dictated laws, no prefects or guides to direct the student in the incoming events. Discussions with students revealed that some students end up into total disarray or moral confusion because of the unbound freedom. This has led many into a state of “freedomism”. This is a tendency of feeling that one can do what he/she wants at any time without any outstanding constraint. This is a result of most university education focusing on the material end of man with dire consequences such as glorifying corruption and thus adopting the philosophy of the “end justifies the mean.” This conclusion concurs with the findings of Guissan (2001) who revealed that the ultimate end of education should be introducing students to the total reality about the mundane and the metaphysical reality. The overemphasis of the material and corporeal reality ignores man’s duality, namely the corporeal and spiritual. Such a revelation runs counter to Kasozi (2002) findings, which indicated that liberalization has elevated the university education in Uganda. The study findings about the public and the For-Profit university education on the other hand, revealed that the current education seems to be pushing man into abstract rationalism (i.e. one without an axiological anchor. The growth of religious based universities/The private spiritual-moral universities (PSMU) also called mission universities has had positive axiological effect on the entire university education in Uganda. The conversation on values in university education, which had been disregarded for most of the post-colonial Uganda, has been rejuvenated.

The blending of academic and spiritual formation of the learner in Private Spiritual universities has led to character formation as a pivot for the rationale of private spiritual university education in Uganda. The findings reveal that the different universities in Uganda have ideal missions and visions which act as pivots for their philosophical orientation but are constrained by dysfunctional university contexts and the values therein. It’s also revealed both the staff and students save those in Private Spiritual-Moral universities do not know their universities philosophy and implied mission and vision. This makes access and transmission of knowledge, values and beliefs constrained, especially in the Public/Government and in the For-Profit universities, where there are no explicit means to make known the university’s philosophy. The lack of knowledge of the university’s philosophy makes the university mission and vision blurred. Uganda’s university education is critiqued for creating a “dysfunctional” graduate. This dysfunctional graduate in most cases has not met the bench marks set by the UHEQF (2016) This concurs with the findings of Kigongo (1998), Nsereko (1997), Akankwasa (1997) and Mamdani (2007) Kigongo (1998) laments that there seems to be very little and nothing elaborate on the subject of values in formal education in Uganda. While Nsereko (1997) reveals that secularization of education in most Sub-Saharan Africa Uganda inclusive constrained access to useful values in any formal schooling university



education inclusive. Akankwasa (1997), on the other hand make similar observations, they note that most universities in Sub-Saharan Africa are in a crisis. They are producing many graduates of dubious quality and ability. While Mamdani (2007) calls the university enterprise in Uganda a market place and the teachers therein in a market for sale. These to him may not be in a good position to as good role models.

The findings and discussion draw us to a conclusion that there is a value vacuum in some universities in Uganda. This may also be true in many other African higher education institutions. The value void makes most of university academic and non-academic contexts constrained. This leads us to ask a question “Is it possible to have a secular university (non-denominational) transmitting non-denominational values/ethics?”

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# Personal Attributes as Determinants of Sport Participation among Undergraduates in Selected Nigerian Universities

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**Abstract.** This paper reports the findings of a study that investigated whether age, gender and marital status would be perceived as would be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities. Data was collected using a self-constructed questionnaire from 2610 undergraduates of University of Nigeria, Nsukka and University of Benin. The findings were that students' personal attributes significantly determine their sport participation. Grounded on these findings, recommendations for the improved participation of undergraduates in sports are discussed.

**Keywords:** Student affairs management; Sports; Co-curricular activities.

## 1 Introduction

Effective performance in any human capacity depends largely upon the personal attributes of the individuals. Excellent performance particularly in sport is a by-product of many personal attributes such as age, gender and marital status (Babatunde, 2001).

Universities throughout the world are centres of sporting activities. Many of those who win medals at international sporting events are either students or fresh graduates. It is understandable that students in universities are mainly youths, an ideal age for developing interest in sport. Sporting activities contribute in maintaining good health among both the young and the old.

Several factors contribute to students' attitude towards sport such as age, gender and marital status. These factors form an important aspect of personal attributes which either enforce or inhibit the extent to which individuals can participate in sporting activities.

The unique role of age in sport participation is incontestable. It is a known fact that there is a certain age noted for excellent sport performance, particularly competitive sport. Competitive sport by its very nature requires a lot of energy, power and agility. This is the more reason why competitive sports have always been identified with youths. It is expected that undergraduates would be more involved in sport as most of them are at their youthful age with varied sport potentialities and skills which if well motivated could produce excellent sport results.

Sport by nature, be it recreational or competitive, involves physical and mental coordination prowess. According to Ikulayo (1986), age has a strong influence on physical performance. The fact that universities admit a large number of youths into various courses at undergraduate level yearly makes the nation's expectation about sport development in Nigerian universities genuine most especially when considering the age of the students and sport potential as evidenced by their post-primary school sport records.

Igbanugo (1986) indicates that most undergraduates are between the age group of 22 – 25. This group is noted for its ability to engage in physical exercises for prolonged period of time. This explains the physiological basis why youths are more engaged in varied physical activities like sport and do excel.

Gender, according to Fadoju (1999), refers to the social roles and expectations that are associated with being male or female which largely influence their lives. Though there are physiological differences between men and women, research shows that the two sexes are more similar than they are different.

However, the roles of men and women are undergoing significant changes both at work, play and in the family. Adeyanju (1999), in support of this view, maintains that despite the fact that many discriminatory practices exist against women involvement in sport, there are those who dare the consequences. They participate, sponsor, encourage and reward sport women. This means, if all cultural barriers hindering the participation of women in sport are removed, it is likely that women will be freed from this deprivation and discrimination. However, Babatunde (2001) is of the view that gender is a strong determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in first generation Nigerian universities. It is further discovered that male students participate in sport more than their female counterparts.

The foregoing discussion supported postulation of hypotheses that: 1) Age would be perceived as a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities; 2) Gender would be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities; and 3) Marital status would be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities.

However, peculiar settings may present a unique picture. It is with this cognizance that this study undertook to verify the respective null hypotheses, taking the case of undergraduate students of the University of Ibadan, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ahmadu Bello University, University of Nigeria, Nsukka and University of Benin.

## 2 Methodology

A descriptive survey research design was utilized. Data was collected from male and female undergraduates from University of Ibadan, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ahmadu Bello University, University of Nigeria, Nsukka and University of Benin. This was done using a questionnaire based on Likert scaling design of Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree with the use of available sampling technique. The questionnaire was constructed by the researcher and validated by experts in the field. The reliability of the questionnaire was established using the test-retest method. This returned a correlation coefficient 0.85, meaning that the instrument was consistent. A total of 3000 questionnaires was administered and out of these 2,610 were correctly filled and returned. The data was analysed using percentages. The hypotheses were tested at the level of confidence alpha = .05 using the chi-square technique.

## 3 Findings and Discussion

Hypothesis one stated that age would not be perceived as a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities. The findings on the hypothesis are summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1:** Distribution of respondents by level of agreement that age determines sports participation

Age (Years)	SA	A	D	SD	Total	% A	% D	Total %	$\chi^2$
15-20	300	380		20	700	26.8	0.77	27.54	125.05
21-25	600	200	100		900	30.65	3.83	34.46	
26-30 above	500	300	120	90	1010	30.65	8.05	33.00	
Total	1400	880	220	110	2610	87.35	12.65	100	

The findings clearly show that age is an important variable which determines the participatory pattern of students in sport. This is in line with Anyanwu's (1999) assertion that age is a major factor in sport participation because

advancement in age decreases one's ability to endure environmental stress, working capacity, physical fitness, strength, endurance and oxygen up-take. In related study, Babatunde (2001) also finds that there is a strong connection between the age of students and their desire to take part in school sport as it is evident that most athletes in Nigerian universities are often between 21 – 25 years. In justifying the role of age in recreational activities, Ahmed (2016) found that age is a critical factor in the participatory pattern of students in sports at tertiary institutions in Nigeria. It was observed that students between 18-30years were observed to participate more in school sports, either competitive or recreation.

Hypothesis 2 stated that gender would not be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities. The findings are summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Distribution of respondents by level of agreement that gender determines sports participation

Respondents	SA	A	D	SD	Total	X <sup>2</sup>
Male	1,000	200	--	410	1600	225.45
Female	800	100	100	--	1000	
Total	1,800	300	100	410	2,600	

The above table provides empirical information concerning issue of gender and sport participation in selected Nigerian universities. Going through the table, it is observed that the calculated X<sup>2</sup> value of 225.45 at df 3 and 0.05 level of significance is greater than the X<sup>2</sup> table value of 7.815. This had made the researchers to reject the hypothesis that gender would not be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities.

The findings which show that gender significantly determines sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities corroborates the findings of Honeybourne, Hill and Moors (1996), Akinsanmi (1997), Orunanoka (1997), and Babatunde (2001) that gender has a significant bearing with sport participation as against Adeyanju's (1999) postulation that despite the fact that many discriminatory practices exist against women involvement in sport, there are those who dare the consequences. Babatunde. (2012) reported that gender significantly accounts for disparity in sports participation among students in Nigerian Universities.

Hypothesis 3 stated that marital status would not be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities. The findings on the hypothesis are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3:** Distribution of respondents by level of agreement that marital status determines sports participation

Categories	Count	%	$\chi^2$	Agreement/ Disagreement	Remark
SA	305	11.7			
A	1519	58.2	416.1	84.2	
D	678	26.0			5
SD	107	4.1		15.8	
Total	2610	100		100	

From the table above, the chi-square  $\chi^2$  is 416.6 as against  $\chi^2$  table value of 7.815, 3df at 0.05 level of significance allows the researchers to reject the hypothesis that marital status would not be a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities.

Babatunde (2001) finds that marital status significantly dictates the zest of the students in participating in sport. Most of the students, if not all, who get involved in the school sport, particularly competitive sport, are predominantly unmarried.

#### 4 Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions and recommendations are made:

1. Age is identified as a significant variable determining students' sport involvement in selected Nigerian universities.
2. Gender is found to significantly determine sport participation among undergraduates in selected Nigerian universities as more male students than female students get involved in sport at tertiary institutions.
3. Marital status is also perceived by the students as a significant determinant of sport participation among undergraduates in selected universities in Nigeria.
4. There is need for empirical research on marital status and sport participation in order to establish the reasons why married individuals shun sport. This will help university sport administrators in their efforts to address the constraints facing this group of students.
5. More research is also imperative to educate athletes on how to manage themselves so as to prevent rapid ageing resulting from careless lifestyle and its attendant effects. This will keep them long in active sporting activities, without undue "wear out" that may lead to poor performance.
6. Age-long taboos forbidding female students from participating in sport should be de-emphasized to encourage better female participation in sport by

making them realize that sport participation by women has no adverse implication on their femininity and body chemistry.

7. For a successful development of sport among undergraduates, the efforts of the university authorities should be directed at strategies capable of motivating the students towards sport participation such as provision of accommodation for students on campus, provision of necessary equipment, facilities and maintaining these properly. Availability of these will provide the needed incentive that will motivate students to participate in sporting activities.

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# **Application of the Technological, Pedagogical, and Content Knowledge Framework in a Positivist Study on the Use of ICT in Pedagogy by Teachers of Mathematical Disciplines at Makerere University: A Conceptual Paper**

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**Abstract.** ICT provides an array of powerful tools that induce transformation from a teacher-centred to a student-focused and interactive knowledge environment. The use of ICT in pedagogy opens up opportunities for learning because it enables learners to access, extend, transform and share ideas and information in multi-modal communication styles and formats. Therefore, all efforts to enhance it should be expended. One way of enhancing the use of ICT in pedagogy is to isolate the factors that underpin it. It is with this understanding that, basing on the Technological, Pedagogical, and Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework, this paper proposes a positivist study to examine the extent to which knowledge relates with the use of ICT in pedagogy among teachers of mathematical disciplines at Makerere University.

**Keywords:** Mathematical disciplines; Positivism; TPACK.

## **1 Background**

### **1.1 Historical Perspective**

Majumdar (2006) asserts that ICTs like computers, web 2.0 technologies, Internet, email, and video conferencing provide an array of powerful tools that have induced the transformation of isolated teacher-centred and text-bound classrooms into rich student focused interactive knowledge environments. Majumdar expounds that the use of ICT in pedagogy opens up opportunities for learning because it enables learners to access, extend, transform and share ideas and information in multi-modal communication styles and format.

ICT helps the learner to share learning resources and spaces, promote learner centred and collaborative learning principles and enhance critical thinking, creative thinking and problem solving skills. Inevitably, all this requires teachers to be more ICT savvy so that they are able to effectively and meaningfully use ICT in pedagogy. Summing up, we can safely say that the use of ICT in pedagogy has a positive impact on the teaching and learning process.

Accordingly, several scholars have devoted their time and effort to the study of use of ICT in pedagogy. While some studies (e.g. Jung, 2005; Nicholson & Sanber, 2007; Steketee, 2005) dealt with approaches that can be employed when integrating ICT in pedagogy and the pertinent challenges, other studies (e.g. Gill & Dalgarno, 2010; Gill, Dalgarno & Carlson, 2015; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Taylor, 2004) looked at how teachers developed their understanding of the use of ICT in pedagogy.

Several studies (e.g. Alharbi & Drew, 2014; Bennison & Goos, 2010; Fathema, Shannon & Ross, 2015; Khechine, Lakhali, Pascot & Bytha, 2014; Pierce & Ball, 2009; Smarkola, 2007) sought to establish determinants of the use of ICT in pedagogy. However, as suggested by the above studies, there has been a bias towards the developed world, such as the USA (e.g. Bennison & Goos, 2010; Fathema et al., 2015; Pierce & Ball, 2009); Canada (e.g. Khechine et al., 2014); and Australia (e.g. Alharbi & Drew, 2014; Gill & Dalgarno, 2010; Gill et al., 2015). This contextual gap calls for further research on the use of ICT in pedagogy in the developing world. It is therefore upon such insights that this study proposes to examine the extent to which teachers' knowledge relates with the use of ICT in pedagogy using the teachers of mathematical disciplines in Makerere University.

## 1.2 Theoretical Perspective

The purpose of this study is to relate the use of ICT in pedagogy to knowledge and is underpinned by the Technological, Pedagogical, and Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework. The TPACK framework proposed by Mishra and Koehler (2006), postulates that, in order to integrate technology into their teaching, teachers need knowledge, which falls in three major domains, namely content knowledge (CK), pedagogical knowledge (PK) and technological knowledge (TK). Mishra and Koehler defined CK as the "knowledge about the actual subject matter that is to be taught" (p. 1026) and PK as the "knowledge about the processes and practices or methods of teaching and learning and how it encompasses... overall educational purposes, values, and aims" (p. 1026).

They defined TK as the teacher's "knowledge about standard technologies, such as books, chalk and blackboard, and more advanced technologies, such as the Internet and digital video" (p. 1027). The interaction between the three primary knowledge domains, CK, PK and TK gives rise to three secondary

knowledge domains namely pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), technological content knowledge (TCK) and technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK). These combinations of knowledge, according to TPACK, enhance the use of ICT in pedagogy by teachers. Mishra and Koehler defined PCK as the “knowledge of pedagogy that is applicable to the teaching of specific content” (p. 1027).

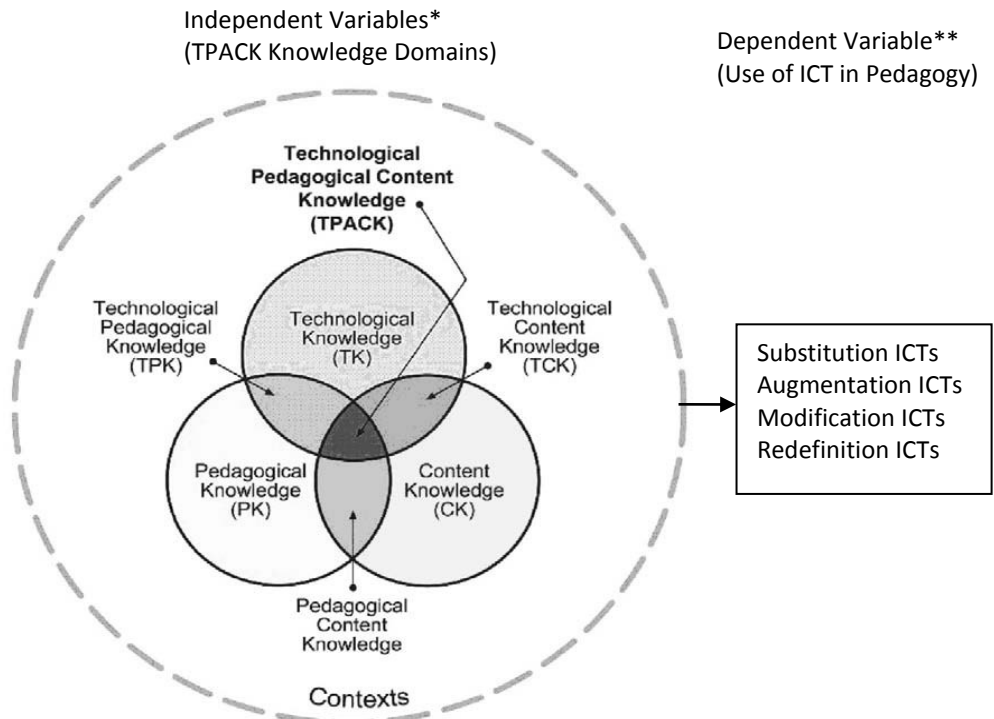
Mishra and Koehler defined TCK as the “knowledge about the manner in which technology and content are reciprocally related” (p. 1028); and TPK as the “knowledge of the existence, components, and capabilities of various technologies as they are used in teaching and learning settings, and conversely, knowing how teaching might change as the result of using particular technologies” (p. 1028). When PCK, TCK and TPK knowledge domains interact, they form a triad, technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK), which, according to TPACK, is the ideal combination of knowledge needed by a teacher in order to use ICT in pedagogy. The seminal article (Mishra & Koehler, 2006) defined TPACK as “an emergent form of knowledge that goes beyond all the three components (content, pedagogy, and technology)” (p. 1028).

In summary, TPACK suggests seven knowledge domains namely; CK, PK, TK, PCK, TPK, TCK, TPACK as major determinants of the use of ICT in pedagogy by teachers. These abbreviations feature so much in the remaining part of the paper that the reader is implored to refer to this section when in need of a reminder on what particular abbreviation stands for. TPACK is adopted for this study because in the first position, researchers like Abbitt (2011) contended that “the degree to which [the] perceived TPACK contributes to the demonstrated ability of a... teacher to effectively plan for instructional uses of technology is largely unclear” (p. 297).

Secondly, many past studies in regard to determining user acceptance and the intention to use ICT in pedagogy have focused on other frameworks or models. Such popular frameworks include the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) of Davis (1989) (e.g. see Alharbi & Drew, 2014; Fathema et al., 2015) and Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT) of Rogers (2003) (e.g. see Bakkabulindi, 2012). The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) of Venkatesh, Morris, Davis and Davis (2003) has also been used (e.g. see Khechine et al., 2014) to explain the factors that determine the use of ICT in different disciplines, including pedagogy. Since teaching is a process that calls for specialized knowledge, the study proposed in this conceptual paper will base on the TPACK framework to examine the extent to which knowledge relates with the use of ICT in pedagogy by teachers of mathematical disciplines at Makerere University.

### 1.3 Conceptual Perspective

On the basis of the TPACK framework (reviewed in subsection 1.2), Figure 1 provides a framework relating the seven knowledge domains of TPACK to the use of ICT in pedagogy (UIP). The dependent variable, has been conceptualized as the use of substitution (S), augmentation (A), modification (M) and redefinition (R ) ICTs, that is, using the SAMR model of using ICT (Puentedura, 2010, cited in Lubega, Mugisha, & Muyinda, 2014). On the other hand, knowledge domains are conceptualized as CK, PK, TK; PCK, TPK, TCK; and TPACK (Mishra & Koehler, 2006).



**Figure 1:** Conceptual framework relating the seven knowledge domains of TPACK and the use of ICT in pedagogy

Source: Adapted from \*Mishra and Koehler (2006) and \*\* Lubega et al. (2014) and Puentedura, 2010)

## 2 Research Problem

Although the advantages of using ICT in pedagogy stand out, the academic staff of Makerere University have not fully utilized its ICT facilities (e.g. see

Bakkabulindi, 2012; Omaswa, 2014). For example, Bakkabulindi (2012) in a study of how perception related to the use of ICT in Makerere University, found that the use of ICT by academic staff was low. The Task Force on job evaluation, re-organization of the staff structure and funding of Makerere University (Omaswa, 2014) reported finding that, despite e-learning being a powerful tool for strengthening teaching and learning capabilities, the University had not fully utilized its potential.

If such a problem of under-utilization of ICT in pedagogy among academic staff persists, there will be a decline in the University's academic standards. Unveiling the correlates of the use of ICT in pedagogy at Makerere University is thus very urgent. Such correlates can be manipulated to enhance the use of ICT in pedagogy at the University. Basing on the TPACK framework (reviewed in subsection 1.2), it is proposed in this paper that knowledge is an explanatory correlate for the use of ICT in pedagogy among the teachers. The domains of knowledge of interest in the proposed study are, CK, PK, TK; PCK, TPK, TCK; and TPACK.

### **3 Objectives and Significance**

The main objective of this study is to examine the extent to which knowledge relates with the use of ICT in pedagogy among teachers of mathematical disciplines at Makerere University. The specific objectives of the study are to establish the relationship between CK, PK, TK; PCK, TPK, TCK; and TPACK, each with the use of ICT in pedagogy.

The study will help the Management of the University in enacting and/ or amending pertinent policies in order to see to it that the application of ICT in pedagogy by the entire academic staff is maximized, hence minimizing on the wastage arising from under-utilization of ICT resources. The study findings will also be used by the principals of colleges, deans of schools and chairpersons of departments of mathematical disciplines to improve on the teachers' awareness of the extent to which knowledge is relevant to the use of ICT in pedagogy. Finally, the study findings will augment the knowledge body by contributing to the literature on how knowledge relates to the use of ICT in pedagogy.

### **4 Related Literature**

Since the inception of the TPACK framework in 2006, several researchers have invested time and effort to employ the framework to guide their studies. Particularly, some researches have made seminal contributions to TPACK,

while others assessed teachers and/ or students on how much TPACK they possessed. Others dealt with the development of TPACK among teachers and/ or students. Yet others developed and tested survey instruments to measure TPACK, beside those that reviewed literature on TPACK.

#### **4.1 Seminal Papers on TPACK**

Papers (e.g. Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Shulman, 1986) that have made original contributions to the development of the TPACK framework are available. As pointed out earlier (subsection 1.3), the TPACK framework (Mishra & Kohler, 2006) suggests that a teacher's use of ICT in pedagogy, is contingent upon the teacher's knowledge, which knowledge has major domains, namely CK, PK, TK; PCK, TPK, TCK; and TPACK. While the main proponents of TPACK were Mishra and Koehler, their independent variable (IV) was borrowed from Shulman (1986), a seminal article that articulated the importance of knowledge (K) to a teacher. Shulman stressed the importance of CK and PK to the teacher. He gave seminal definitions to the two variables.

In particular, he defined CK as "the amount and organization of knowledge per se in the mind of the teacher" (p. 9). Shulman also gave a seminal definition to PK as the knowledge of how to manage a classroom, organize activities, allocate time and turns, structure assignments, ascribe praise and blame, formulate the levels of their questions, plan lessons, and judge general student understanding. Noting that that CK and PK were inseparable, Shulman proposed another major domain in TPACK, namely "pedagogical content knowledge" (PCK). He gave a seminal definition to it as, "pedagogical knowledge, which goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge for teaching" (p. 9).

Another major contribution of Shulman (1986) to TPACK was to call for the development of the framework. In particular, Shulman noted that:

Although we often present propositions [e.g. on what knowledge a teacher needs in order to use ICT in pedagogy] one at a time, we recognize that they are better understood if they are organized in some coherent form, lodged in a conceptual or theoretical framework.... (pp. 10 – 11).

With such insights, Mishra and Koehler (2006) came up with the theoretical framework, TPACK, to build on Shulman's PCK by including the knowledge of technology (TK) that teachers require in the teaching and learning process. The details of TPACK are already given in section 1.3.

#### **4.2 Papers on Assessing TPACK Teachers and/or Students Possess**

Efforts to examine and/ or assess the extent to which teachers and/ or students possess TPACK have been made by several researchers. For example,



Archambault and Crippen (2009) examined a national sample of 596 K-12 online teachers from 25 different states in the United States and measured their knowledge with respect to the three primary knowledge domains as described by the TPACK framework namely; CK, PK, TK and their combinations. They collected data using a self-created survey instrument whose validity and reliability they had ensured. By using descriptive measures, they found that knowledge ratings were highest among the domains of CK, PK and PCK which implied that these responding online teachers had felt very good about their knowledge related to these domains but were less confident when it came to TK. Using Pearson's product-moment correlation, they found that all the domains and their combinations had high relationships, which finding was "calling into question the distinctiveness of the domains" (Archambault & Crippen, 2009, p. 71).

#### **4.3 Papers on the Development of TPACK by Teachers and/ or Students**

There are several papers on the development of TPACK by teachers and/ or students that can be cited. For example, one study (Alayyar, Fisser & Voogt, 2012) was concerned with developing TPACK in pre-service teachers through working in design teams in the science teacher preparation program at the Public Authority of Applied Education and Training in Kuwait. They separated the participants into two design teams whereby they ensured that one team was only coached by ICT, pedagogy, and content experts while the other was offered a blended condition by which they had access to an online portal with different tutorials and examples as well as the opportunity to meet with different experts whenever they wanted.

They collected pre-test and post-test design data from 78 pre-service teachers through a TPACK survey, attitude to ICT and ICT skill surveys, ICT skill test, team logbook, interview and TPACK reflection questions. Using descriptive statistics and t tests, they found that the self-reported TPACK, the score of attitudes towards ICT, and ICT skills increased in both groups. They also found that the participants under the blended support condition reported a higher increase in the participants' TK, TPK, their attitude toward ICT as a tool for instruction and productivity, and ICT enjoyment. This suggested that participants perceived the blended condition for supporting design teams as a more desirable method for enhancing their development of TPACK.

#### **4.4 Papers on the Development and Testing of Instruments to Measure TPACK**

Several researchers have developed and tested instruments to measure TPACK. For example, Chai, Ng, Li, Hong and Koh (2013) attempted to validate a

TPACK efficacy instrument. They constructed the instrument by adapting parts of earlier instruments. They made adjustments to the adapted items “to reflect the current practices which emphasize the use of ICT for content learning in authentic, intentional, collaboration and active learning environment” (Chai, Ng et al., 2013, p. 45). They subjected their re-crafted questionnaire containing 36 items to expert review by two professors who had published on TPACK. They then administered the questionnaire which they had translated into Chinese on an Asian group of 550 pre-service teachers from China (n = 193), Hong Kong (n = 52), Singapore (n = 210) and Taiwan (n = 95). Using confirmatory factor analysis, they identified the seven factors underlying the TPACK framework which suggested that the instrument was valid for measuring all the knowledge domains of the pre-service teachers' TPACK.

#### **4.5 Literature Reviews on TPACK**

Reviews of literature on TPACK have been carried out, including that of the first two authors (Batiibwe & Bakkabulindi, 2016a, b) of this paper. Among those literature reviews, Chai, Koh and Tsai (2013) reviewed literature on TPACK with the aim of consolidating the collective emerging trends, findings, and issues generated in TPACK research, and to identify gaps. They identified literature by first exploring the Web of Science, Scopus, Education Research Complete and ERIC databases which yielded 74 journal articles. Their review indicated that TPACK was a burgeoning area of research with more applications in the North American region. They brought out the fact that studies that had been conducted had employed varied research methods and they had yielded positive results in enhancing teachers' capability to integrate ICT in pedagogy. However, there were “still many potential gaps that the TPACK framework could be employed to facilitate deeper change in education” (p. 31). In particular, they, among others, called for “cross-fertilisation of TPACK with other theoretical frameworks [e.g. Innovation Diffusion Theory, IDT] related to the study of technology integration” (p. 31).

### **5 Hypotheses**

Following the literature review (section 4), it becomes apparent that although attention has been given to TPACK in the scholarly world, it has been in other matters than relating TPACK to the use of ICT in pedagogy. Some scholars (e.g. Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Shulman, 1986) have made original contributions to the development of the TPACK framework. Efforts to assess the extent to which teachers and/ or students possessed TPACK have been made by several researchers (e.g. Archambault & Crippen, 2009). Other

researchers (e.g. Alayyar et al., 2012) were concerned with the development of TPACK among teachers and/ or students.

Yet others (e.g. Chai, Ng et al., 2013) developed TPACK instruments, and tested them for validity and reliability. Other efforts (e.g. Chai, Koh & Tsai, 2013) were towards reviewing literature on TPACK. The cited studies also suggest a bias in favour of the developed world, with the dominance of North America (Chai, Koh & Tsai, 2013). Studies on the TPACK framework have not yet paid adequate attention to subject matter domains such as Mathematics (Lubke, 2013). Further, the studies on TPACK have dwelt more prominently on pre-service teachers, than in-service teachers (Lubke, 2013), and less so those in Higher Education (Jordan & Dihl, 2012). The proposed study comes in handy to narrow these gaps by quantitatively examining the relevance of the TPACK framework in explaining the use of ICT in pedagogy (UIP) by teachers of mathematical disciplines in Makerere University. Basing on the conceptual framework (Figure 1), the following hypotheses were generated:

- H1: CK positively relates to UIP.
- H2: PK positively relates to UIP.
- H3: TK positively relates to UIP.
- H4: PCK positively relates to UIP.
- H5: TPK positively relates to UIP.
- H6: TCK positively relates to UIP.
- H7: TPACK positively relates to UIP.

## **6 Methodology**

### **6.1 Paradigm and Design**

The proposed study will take the positivist paradigm in that it will be based on variables measured with numbers and analysed with statistical procedures. In particular, the study will be a correlational and cross-sectional survey design. It will be a survey involving a large number of respondents for purposes of generalization. The study will be cross-sectional to the effect that data will be collected from all respondents once and for all to minimize time and costs that could be involved. The study will be correlational because it will involve testing hypotheses to establish the relationship between UIP and the knowledge domains, as suggested by the TPACK framework namely; CK, PK, TK; and their combinations.

### **6.2 Data Collection Instrument**

Data will be collected from teachers of mathematical disciplines at Makerere University. A self-administered questionnaire (SAQ) developed basing on

instruments already used by other scholars (Table 1) will be used to collect the data. The adaptation of the instruments is based on the fact that their reliabilities and validities have been initially taken for granted. With reference to Table 1, the dependent variable (DV), the use of ICT in pedagogy (UIP), has four constructs namely the use of substitution (S), augmentation (A), modification (M), and redefinition (R) ICTs, each of which has a number of items adapted from an earlier instrument. The independent variable (IV), knowledge, has seven constructs as suggested by the TPACK framework each with a number of items adapted from reliable instruments.

### 6.3 Data Management

Whereas the reliabilities of the constructs are already guaranteed by earlier studies as illustrated in Table 1 and their validities implied (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), after the collection of data, the reliabilities of the constructs will be retested using Cronbach Alpha method provided by SPSS. Similarly, the validities of multi-item constructs will be tested using Factor Analysis. This retesting will be done because as Tavakol and Dennick observe, differences in samples call for retesting the instruments. To test the hypotheses (section 5) in the study, a regression model of the DV on the seven knowledge domains of the TPACK framework, that is,  $UIP = f(CK, PK, TK, PCK, TPK, TCK, TPACK)$  will be fitted. SPSS will be used to facilitate the analysis.

**Table 1:** Variables in the Instrument

Variable	Construct	Items adapted	Source of instrument, total number of items therein; and their reliability ( $\alpha$ value)
Use of ICT in pedagogy (DV)	S	12	Lubega et al. (2014), 13 items *
	A	9	Lubega et al. (2014), 16 items *
	M	5	Lubega et al. (2014), 10 items *
	R	5	Lubega et al. (2014), 6 items *
Knowledge (IV)	CK	3	Schmidt, Baran, Thompson, Mishra, Koehler & Shin (2009), 3 items ( $\alpha = 0.85$ )
	PK	7	Schmidt et al. (2009), 7 items ( $\alpha = 0.84$ )
	TK	7	Schmidt et al. (2009), 7 items ( $\alpha = 0.82$ )
	PCK	5	Chai, Ng et al. (2013), 5 items ( $\alpha = 0.92$ )
	TPK	4	Chai, Chin, Koh & Tan (2013), 4 items ( $\alpha = 0.90$ )
	TCK	4	Chai, Ng et al. (2013), 5 items ( $\alpha = 0.92$ )
	TPACK	6	Chai, Ng et al. (2013), 6 items ( $\alpha = 0.92$ )

\* No alpha reported

## 7 Conclusion

The “new” positivist look at how TPACK concepts can be used to explain the use of ICT in pedagogy, as suggested in this paper, is expected to trigger more studies of the same genre. This study and the ones to follow will go a long way in answering Abbitt (2001) who asked, “how much knowledge of technology, pedagogy, content or within blended domains such as TPK, TCK, TPACK... is sufficient for a... teacher” (p. 297) to effectively use ICT in pedagogy?

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## Utilisation of ICTs as Teaching Aids in Two Higher Education Institutions in Lagos

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**Abstract.** Modern information and communication technologies (ICTs) are recognised as having enormous potential for improving quality in higher education delivery and, subsequently, contributing to production of graduates who are suited to the needs of the contemporary labour market. This recognition has formed the basis for investment in the development of ICT capacity in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Nigeria. After years of this investment, this study investigated the reach and utilisation of ICT facilities in HEIs in the country. The findings were that availability of ICT facilities, notably mobile phones and the internet, is widespread. However, these have not been mainstreamed into teaching and learning processes. This is blamed on gaps in funding and training. Recommendations for the better deployment of ICT as an aid in teaching are made.

**Keywords:** ICT; Teaching and learning; Curriculum innovation.

### 1 Introduction

ICT has been described as a powerful tool that enables educational change and reform (Blurton, 1999). While we recognize that the use of instructional technology in the higher education teaching and learning processes is still in its infancy in Nigeria, ICT instructional use is vital to the progress and development of faculty and students alike. HEIs, especially those in the west, have adopted ICT as a means to impart upon students the knowledge and skills demanded by 21st century educational advancement (UNESCO, 2002). The role of ICT in the teaching and learning process is not in doubt. The widespread availability of ICTs has led to the globalization process and continues to have a large influence on social, economic, political and cultural structures around the world. Today's world is interconnected and the value of this interconnectivity

cannot be overemphasized. The ICT capabilities of a nation to some extent determine its performance in all ramifications especially in global socio-political activities, education, health and socio-cultural playing field of the 21st century. These technologies have been incorporated in the daily activities of the Western World including the educational sector. These same technologies have however found expression in the developing countries.

In Nigeria, ICT is an experiment in progress. The importance of ICTs in education can be described as a basic tool to achieving a better standard in our academic community. ICT enhances improved access to learning, developed higher education and establishing a viable learning environment (Kaino, 2006). ICTs are increasingly utilized by higher education institutions worldwide. They are emerging as a part of on-campus delivery as well as open and distance learning modalities. UNESCO actions in this area focus on assisting Member States to develop robust policies in ICTs and higher education. (UNESCO 2010)

In furtherance, ICTs in higher education are being used for developing course material; delivering and sharing content; communication between learners, teachers and the outside world; creation and delivery of presentations and lectures; academic research; administrative support, student enrolment. Higher education institutions in developing countries are on the whole making the most of computers and software available to them even though challenges including insufficient telephone and telecommunication infrastructures, lack of training resources for teachers, and lack of skilled and experienced information technology specialists to assist with development, maintenance and support of ICT usage in higher education institutions (HEIs) remain. ICT in our higher institutions today are being used for administration and instruction through the use of portals to enable students to apply for admission and to guide them in the dissemination of information (Imouokhome, Omwangbe & Ifediora, 2007)

Felicity 2006 notes that ICTs are thought to bring a greater flexibility to everyday activities. One can shop, work and learn from the comfort of one's own home. This is an attribute especially important to the issues explored in this research because it may enable education to begin immediately, rather than being dependent on the construction of school buildings. Although, it has its pitfalls; ICTs could offer greater access to more information. In terms of providing more information, the internet is an example of how people can now access, almost instantaneously information from the other side of the world. In terms of greater access ICTs could remove the need to travel to another location in order to learn or work, or on the contrary, mobile technology allows the work place to move more easily. Whilst this concept may just be a luxury in the developed world, in the developing world, it may be more essential. For example, in a war zone, mobility is restricted, often prohibiting people from

going to work or school, this could be circumvented by bringing the work to the people.

The rapid growth of ICTs has challenged the traditional method of teaching and changed the educational landscape globally. The teaching method is now divided into two different ways of thinking on education, one is traditional and other one is ICT method. Most of the teachers and experts in some developing and developed nations have explored new methods of teaching and believe that modern methods or the ICT method is better than the traditional method of teaching. The traditional role of teaching focuses on the teacher as organizers of learning activity, providers of information and experts of knowledge. The teacher carries too much of responsibility for teaching in the classroom to make sure everything they are teaching is understood by the students or we can say there is a typical way to control class where the teacher teaches using blackboard, explains concepts, asks students to copy and makes sure that students are paying attention. (Rawandale et al., 2013). The traditional way also focuses on inculcating discipline among students and building their character. The emergence and the growth of ICTs has challenged the teachers' way of thinking and changed the educational landscape globally. Use of ICT in teaching develops higher order skills such as collaborating across time and place and solving complex real world problems (Bottino, 2003; Mason, 2000; Lim & Hang, 2003). It improves the students' perception and understanding of the world. Thus, ICT can be used to prepare the workforce for the information society and the new global economy (Kozma, 2005). There are at least two fundamental reasons that justify the use of ICT. The first is that university education has a responsibility to ensure the future graduates. The second reason is that ICT may contribute to more and better learning (Francesc, 2005).

It is now widely accepted that the new method (ICT) is the best way to obtain attention of the new generation of students and make them interested in subjects. The ICT method also helps the students get actively involved through hand on activities rather than teaching them by traditional method. The role of teacher has changed now. According to the new role, a teacher is now treated as an advisor, manager and facilitator of learning and also as a developer of skills. The use of ICT method develops the student teacher relationship, where the teacher acts as an observer; standing back to let learning happen and lets the students solve problems. In this case, the teacher is responsive to students' cognitive needs and development.

The ICT is used in modern teaching to promote interaction, support creativity, active learning, high order thinking etc. While we recognize that the use of instructional technology in the higher education teaching and learning processes is still in its infancy in Nigeria, ICT instructional use is vital to the progress and development of faculty and students alike. Higher education institutions, especially those in the west, have adopted ICT as a means to impart

upon students the knowledge and skills demanded by 21st century educational advancement (UNESCO, 2002a). According to UNESCO (2002b), ICT now permeates the education environment and underpins the very success of 21st century education. ICT also adds value to the processes of learning and to the organization and management of learning institutions. Technologies are a driving force behind much of the development and innovation in both developed and developing countries. As such, all countries must seek to benefit from technological developments. To be able to do so, professionals (including faculty) have to be educated with sound ICT backgrounds, independent of specific computer platforms or software environments, to meet the required competencies of the ever-changing global environment.

When ICT in education does not achieve expected goals or when it introduces complicated educational reforms, students and teachers can lose focus on the essentials and become distracted by the rapidly changing technologies themselves. This result is likely when students and teachers have not been able to acquire a full understanding of the technologies, the role ICT plays and where, how and what technology to use. When the meaning of ICT and its unlimited potential in the educational arena are understood, rapidly changing technologies are not seen as overwhelming, but as enablers of greater critical thinking and problem solving in education (Iloanusi & Osuagwu, 2009). The use of ICT in the educational system is remarkable especially among the teachers, this is what gave birth to multi-dimensional learning approach through distance learning education which has been adopted in many schools in the developed and developing countries to cater for the distance waged and unwaged students (Bartololic-Zlomislic & Bates, 1998). The advantages of ICT is shown in different angles and has encouraged the learning process, it has also enable access to learning by all while creating a conducive environment, encouraging viable knowledge delivery and quick answers to many questions bothering the teachers and the students.( Kaino, 2006). ICT can also be operated through the term called:

Isaac (2007) defined e-education as entailing more than developing computer literacy. He stated that it is the ability to apply ICTs, access, analyse, evaluate, integrate, present, and communicate information; create knowledge and information by adapting, applying, designing, inventing, and authoring information; and function in a knowledge society by using appropriate technology and mastering communication and collaboration skills.

Lenhart and Madden (2005) referred to young people as the ‘generation Google’ or digital natives because Young people use technology not just for communication and consuming information, but also for creating and sharing knowledge. Greenhill, 2008 also noted that Internet-based service are becoming an important part of many aspects of users’ lives cutting across socialising, study and work. Obviously ICT skills can impact on employment opportunities

in the software and hardware industries (ILO, 2001; Expert Group on Future Skill Needs, 2008). However, as Bradbrook (2008) indicate, there are many other ways in which ICT can increase the employability of young people:

1. Development of softer skills such as networking, collaboration and problem-solving (these skills can also be developed by gaming);
2. Through use of social and cultural tools for sharing information and experiences through peer-to-peer networking and communities of interest, especially for isolated rural young people;
3. Engendering greater social diversity in schools by enabling communication and cooperation through virtual and real linkages with other schools in different geographic and socio-economic environments;
4. Supporting disadvantaged members of minority groups, particularly those with concealable stigmatised identities;
5. Through provision of confidential support and advice; this is especially important for challenges such as health, bullying and crime; and
6. Through supporting political activities.

ICT skills are not only required for jobs in the ICT sector. The demand for them cuts across sectors and job types. ICT skills are increasingly important in sectors such as agriculture, construction, education, and service industries. In many labour markets, ICT-related occupations represent an important slice of economic activity (Lopez-Bassols, 2002; Van Welsum & Vickery, 2005). The diffusion of ICTs across all economic sectors is placing new demands on workers' skills. The changing skill set is both expanding employment opportunities and imposing new demands on disadvantaged groups. In today's job market, basic ICT skills are considered essential for people entering the workforce and for those trying to grow. Governments consider an ICT skilled workforce a strategic asset that spurs economic growth, promotes competitiveness, and improves business productivity. A nation's economic well-being depends "on both the effective use of ICT for businesses and industrial processes and on the knowledge, competencies, and skills of current and new employees" (European Commission, 2004, p. 2).

As Nigeria is striving hard to play a leadership role in Africa, there is an urgent need to pay attention to the improvement of teaching and learning particularly in HEIs. The youth disproportionately suffer from the malaise of unemployment. The scale of the problem is immense, holding back economic growth while stifling the aspirations of people recently entering the workforce. The causes of this situation are multifaceted and manifest differently in each region. Noting that ICT competency offers advantages in the area of youth employment, this study set out to investigate the deployment of these technologies in teaching at two HEIs in Lagos. The study undertook to respond to the following research questions:

1. To what extent are ICT facilities available for teaching in Nigeria Higher institutions?
2. To what extent are students exposed to ICT facilities?
3. What ICT facilities do students use most?

The study adopted a survey design. Data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire was distributed to a random sample of 120 students who were drawn from two HEIs in Lagos. The data obtained were analysed using frequency counts, percentages, means and standard deviation.

## 2 Findings

### 2.1 Availability of ICT Facilities

The findings on the availability of ICT facilities in the HEIs are summarised in Table 1.

**Table 1:** ICT Facilities available in Nigeria Tertiary Institutions (% , N = 120)

	Agree	Disagree	Total	X	St.d
My school has a computer laboratory	87.5	12.5	100	1.12	0.332
Internet facilities are available for use at my school	68.3	31.7	100	1.32	0.467
I learn through the use of computer projector at my school	45.0	55	100	1.55	0.500
Teaching with the aid of ICT facilities is more common in my school than any other teaching method	32.5	67.5	100	1.67	0.470
My faculty has internet facilities for teaching	55.8	44.2	100	1.44	0.499
My department has internet facilities for teaching	39.2	60.8	100	1.61	0.490
Weighted average : 1.32					

Table 1 shows that 87.5% of the participants reported that they have a computer laboratory in their school, of which 68.3% testify that internet is available for use at their school. A little above average (55%) of the participants confirmed use of computer projectors for learning in their institution. Up to 67.5% of the participants “disagreed” that teaching with the aid of ICT facilities is more common in their school than any other teaching method, of which 55.8% attested to the fact that their faculty has internet facilities for teaching.

## 2.2 Exposure to ICT Facilities

The findings on students' exposure to ICT facilities are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2:** Exposure of students to ICT facilities (% , N = 120)

	Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never	Total	X	St.D
I always access the internet	74.2	20.0	4.2	1.7	100	1.33	.640
I get information from the internet	81.7	15.8	1.7	0.8	100	1.22	.505
I communicate with friends through the internet	70.8	21.7	5.0	2.5	100	1.39	.702
I use internet for educational purposes	71.7	20.0	6.7	1.7	100	1.38	.688
I use ICT facilities for sports	11.7	18.3	50.0	20.0	100	2.78	.900
I chat on the internet	65.8	20.0	5.0	9.2	100	1.58	.950
I find it easier to express my discomfort using ICT facilities	45.8	26.7	17.5	10.0	100	1.92	1.017
Weighted average : 1.22							

Table 2 shows that most (74.2%) of the participants have access to the internet. The participants indicated that they "often" use ICT facilities. Majority (81.7%) of the respondents reported that they get information from the internet. However, 70.8% used the internet to communicate with their friends and 71.7% used it for educational purposes. Only a few (11.7%) of the respondents reported using ICT for sports. Some (45.8%) reported that they used ICT facilities often to express their discomfort to their friends.

## 2.3 Utilisation of ICT Facilities

Table 3 shows the findings on the ICT facilities that the respondent used most frequently.

**Table 3:** Most frequently used ICT facilities (% , N = 120)

	Yes	No	Total	X	St.D
A desktop computer	45	55	100	1.55	.500
A laptop	70.8	29.2	100	1.29	.456
A mobile phone	91.7	8.3	100	1.08	.278
An I-pad	18.3	81.7	100	1.82	.389
A palmtop	9.2	90.8	100	1.91	.290
A projector	9.2	90.8	100		

Table 3 shows that mobile phones were the most commonly used ICT facilities with 91.7% of the participants reporting that they used them. These were followed by laptops and desktop computers.

### **3 Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations**

Ololube, Ubogu & Egbezor (2007) identified poor ICT penetration and usage among Nigerian higher education practitioners, inadequacy of basic ICT infrastructures; lack of electricity to power the ICT materials and poor telecommunication facilities. This lack of access to much needed infrastructure is as a result of insufficient funds. Similarly, Ogunleye (2007) stated that poor power supply, lack of technical support, lack of computer laboratory/ ICT resource room were the major factor affecting the effective usage of ICT facilities in Schools.

The study of Yusuf, Afolabi and Loto (2013) analysed the constraints to effective utilization of ICT to teaching in Nigerian HEIs and reiterated that there have been a number of factors affecting the utilisation of ICT in education across the country. Such factors include inadequate funding to support the purchase of the ICT facilities, lack of training in the use of ICT facilities, teaching personnel's lack of motivation and the need among teachers to adopt ICT as teaching tools. Inadequate computer trained and certified teachers, poor funding, irregular power supply, cost of equipment and lack of relevant software and recommended that adequate funds must be provided to initiate, develop, promote, review and implement ICT policies in the educational sector to bring about an improvement in ICT utilisation.

The result of the findings revealed that, even though there is availability of ICT facilities in HEIs, the use of ICT as a means of teaching remains low. The research revealed that participants mainly use ICT to get information for their studies and some other activities but not as learning aids in class (cf. Table 2). This finding rhymes well with Castel (2000) and Yusuf, Afolabi, and Loto, (2013) among others. Among the ICT facilities that the participants used, mobile phones were the commonest. An absence of ICT instructional materials, ineffective policy implementation and a lack of other resources (infrastructures) to aid teaching and learning are responsible for shortcomings in the effective implementation of ICT in education. The study further revealed that experience makes it easier to employ and exhibit greater proficiency when using ICT instructional materials in the teaching and learning process. It was, therefore, recommended that:

1. Teachers should be given adequate training on the use of ICT for effective teaching in Nigerian higher institution.
2. ICT should be made a priority and be made available at all levels of Nigerian education system.



3. The university management should collaborate with ICT organizations and manufacturers of ICT aids that have investments within the country.
4. Computer laboratories should be made available and well equipped while teachers should interact more with ICT resources towards skills acquisition.
5. The Government should spend more on ICT as teaching aids in the classroom while lecturers in university should encourage e-lectures for students.

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# Academic Staff Competence Development as a Gap in Quality Assurance in Universities in Uganda

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**Abstract.** Over the last three decades, higher education institutions (HEIs) in Uganda have accepted an unprecedentedly high number of students. However, as this trend has improved access and equity, it has also affected aspects of quality assurance in higher education delivery. Subsequently, attention is being paid to development of structures for quality assurance. However, despite commonplace understanding that quality in university education depends on the quality of the academic staff, universities are paying little attention to the professional competence of the latter. This paper discusses this anomaly with the conclusion that it threatens quality, especially in today's digital era. Therefore, "analysis of quality in every single task" (QUEST) approaches are recommended for the universities.

**Keywords:** Quality assurance; Competence development; Academic staff.

## 1 Introduction

Universities in Uganda have over the last three decades experienced an upsurge of student numbers and programmes amidst scarce resources. Such a predicament of massification, according to Rüländ (2013), can be seen as an opportunity and as a tremendous challenge. The quoted scholar envisions it an opportunity since this stance will allow higher education to feature more prominently in education policy-making. It is, on the other hand, a challenge because it remains unclear as to where qualified lecturers can be found to teach these students. In the ambit of the foregoing "challenge", a survey on strategies to increase PhD production in African universities by Lee (2013) registered "setting high expectations and clear guidelines for performance" as priorities by the institutions. The said survey was conducted at the universities of Cape Town, Pretoria, Rhodes and the Western Cape (all in South Africa); the

Universities of Ibadan and Obafemi Awolowo in Nigeria (all in West Africa), the University of Nairobi in Kenya and Makerere University in Uganda (all in East Africa).

Anecdotally, much emphasis is put on adequacy of the physical facilities needed by the university, academic programmes, library services, administrative structure and staff/student ratio, among other things. Little or no attention is put on the professional competence of the teaching staff that serve in these universities. This leaves one to doubt the quality of teaching and research provided thus questioning the quality of graduates these universities produce (Kasule and Neema-Abooki, 2009). It is imperative to add heretofore that the uncertainty on the quality of teaching and research is in amity with the doubt on the competencies related to open learning, and the relationships between informal learning and credentialing.

Moreover, the perennial call of the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) is that every university educator must be given the opportunity to improve academically. Suffice to state that the NCHE was established for regulating and guiding the establishment and management of institutions of higher learning, regulating the quality of higher education, equating of qualifications, and advising government on higher education issues (Kasozi, 2006). The NCHE recognize that knowledge and wisdom are acquired through observation, research and learning, it also requires each institution to inform annually of the mechanisms it has put in place for staff development and the number of beneficiaries in each discipline/ programme.

Nevertheless, universities have always been concerned with systems of quality improvement as regards, among others, teaching and learning. To this effect, Adegbasen (2011) calls for deliberate, evidence-based strategies and processes of satisfying quality norms and criteria from the point of view of processes, environment and product. According to him “quality control” is one of the strategies establishing *quality assurance (QA)*. Meanwhile QA is perceived not only as a combination of planned and systematic activities implemented in an education system so as to fulfil quality requirement for education in line with acceptable standard (Sanga, 2012; Kihwelo, 2013), but also as a systematic measurement associated with feedback loop that confer error prevention (Kihwelo, 2013).

Accordingly, this paper regards QA in higher education as a systematic process of assessing and verifying inputs, outputs and outcomes against standardized benchmarks of quality so as to maintain and enhance quality, ensure greater accountability and facilitate harmonization of standards across academic programmes, institutions and systems (UNESCO, June 2013). Moreover, in the perception of van Brank (2014), a *QA strategy* should generally include two basic areas; namely: how to address errors (quality – related events), and how to improve practice before an error occurs (continuous

quality improvement). Within the same perspective, Makerere University Self-Assessment Report (2013) states that the purpose of the quality assurance policy should be to enhance the effectiveness of the University's activities focusing on its contribution to and alignment with the University's Strategic Goals and to match with the international standards against verifiable processes and outcomes. Equidistantly, the Report subscribes that effectiveness and clarity of standards are measures of quality of an institution.

In consonance, Cheng (2013) views *education quality* as the character of an input, process and output of the education system that satisfy both internal and external stakeholders by meeting their explicit and implicit expectation. Adegbesan (2011) defines *quality of education* as the various components of face-to-face teaching like the infrastructure and basic amenities, social and geographical environmental professional competence of the teaching, administrative and finance, staff, appropriateness and relevance of the curriculum, teaching-learning materials, teaching, and learning processes, community support to the institution, performance evaluation of the teacher, students, and system that are looked at as a whole. Without prejudice to the foregoing Shahid and Wahab (2015) single out curriculum design, quality of the faculty, quality of research, available technological infrastructure, administrative policies, and accreditation regime as the key factors that influence the quality of higher education. While Jarvis (2014) holds that higher education providers bear a responsibility of assuring quality and quality assurance in order to establish and sustain effective institutional QA systems and processes which yield reliable information for internal planning and improvement of external audit, Yirdaw (2016) is categorical that quality education is considered as one of the major elements that guarantee sustainable economic and social development at the national and regional levels of a given economy.

Meanwhile, *quality* is defined by van der Bank (2014), as absolute (given and considered as a highest standard), relative concept (quality can be measured in terms of certain specifications), process (for service to achieve quality, certain processes have to conform to procedural requirements), and a culture (recognizes the importance of an organizational view of quality as a process of transformation). More still, the celebrated author states that various definitions of quality are classified into five categories in Higher Education, namely: exceptional, perception or consistency, fitness for purpose, value for money, and transformation. As for Kihwelo (2013), the term "quality" is an amalgam of two concepts. The first is the essential character with which something is identified or described. The second is in reference to the superiority or rank of a particular merchandise.

Suffice to emphasize that trained and skilled human resource is one of the most critical economic requirements confronting institutions of higher learning

in developing countries like Uganda. For, university education is expected to produce the highest level of human resources of the country and to ensure continuation of research programmes and flow of ideas for economic and social development (Kasule and Neema-Abooki, 2009). Anecdotally, most universities are understaffed, and even the available full-time academic staff spends most of the time moonlighting in several other institutions. This divided-loyalty of service impacts negatively on the delivery of quality education and commitment to the realization of the university's *Vision* and *Mission*.

Whereas the vision is futuristic, the mission defines what ought to be done here and now. While Shahzad, Zia, Aslam, Syed and Bajwa (2013) qualify both vision and mission to be the starting point for strategy formulation. David, David and David (2014) – besides subscribing that the former provides strategic direction to the organisation – do conceive complementarity on the twin-terms; holding that both vision and mission do inherently emphasize customer orientation and excellence and at once do initiate and sustain competition which is a key underpinning for quality. Mooney (2013) summarizes that society has strived for quality since ancient human civilization.

Since quality has become a matter of major importance for higher education institutions generally (Inglis, 2005), quality of university education is increasingly becoming a subject of concern. The job market is getting tighter and even a degree from a reputable university no longer guarantees employment despite the graduate's expertise in a given area. Students, their families, employers, and the government want assurance that the students will get good and quality education. For, what will render an iota of fulfilment to students themselves as well as their parents and / or guardians is the knowledge and competence in "job-creating", rather than in job-seeking" (Kasule and Neema-Abooki, 2009).

This paper calls higher education systems to borrow strategies from organisations which operate under the most competitive environment. A case in point is the business sector that has embraced the concept of competence development of employees. Such a concept ought to be regarded as incumbent even upon the academic staff in universities.

Competence development means an individual's competence and proficiency development throughout the working career. In one's own work, competence development can refer to updating, expanding, deepening or completely redirecting one's potential. The objective of competence development is the comprehensive development of the work community and organisation. Competence development is part of the strategic operations planning of an organisation, and the direction and objectives of the development stem from the strategic objectives of the organization. The significance and importance of

competence development must be recognised and acknowledged throughout the organisation, top management included (Economit, nd).

The competence movement is spreading across different sectors of management but anecdotal evidence reveals that little or nothing has been done to extend the motion in the education sector, especially in the Sub Saharan African region. It is therefore paramount to explore ways of integrating competence-based education in training institutions. Without indulging into such a treatise, this paper suffices to highlight with Everhart (2014) that the structure for competency based learning comes from creating, managing, and aligning sets of competencies to learning resources, assessments, and rubrics, with analytics to track performance. Focusing on outcomes empowers faculty and academic leaders to:

1. Develop robust sets of learning outcomes and competencies
2. Reorient curricular design to start with learning outcomes rather than starting with time/term structures
3. Build high-quality sharable resources, assessments, and rubrics designed to support learning outcomes
4. Foster authentic assessment that includes demonstrated mastery of competencies
5. Effectively identify risk in students' progress toward learning achievements and provide appropriate interventions
6. Support transparent analysis of learning outcomes at every level of the institution
7. Achieve short-term and long-term academic performance improvements focused on outcomes rather than inputs (Everhart, 2014).

The paper heretofore calls institutions of high learning in Uganda to give attention to the foregoing, among others, if quality and competence are to be maintained as *sine qua non* tenets for development and sustainability.

## **2 Ugandan Higher Education in a Digital Age**

In pre-colonial Africa, University education was considered a public good and therefore was exclusively provided for by the Government. Today majority of the governments in developing countries are under great pressure to restrain public spending on higher education. The structural adjustment programs favoured by the IMF and World Bank emphasize reduction in public expenditure, largely because of budget deficits and external debts. This state of affairs has prompted many countries to search for alternative sources in the

provision of Higher Education other than the public treasury” (Kishore, 2008, cited in Rabwoni, 2010).

At the time of Independence, Uganda inherited and continued with the colonial approach to university education. Karen (2008), as quoted in Rabwoni (2010), argues that the students then acquired quality education that was facilitated by the suitable learning environment, well trained and committed personnel, sufficient learning materials, reasonable student teacher ratio and general stability in the country. For decades, Makerere University which was the only university in Uganda enrolled fewer than three thousand students, all on full government scholarships. This trend changed in 1992 when for the first time government liberalized the education system thereby making a major shift from the decade’s old colonial approach. Ten times the usual number of students was admitted, with only a small percentage being government sponsored (Rabwoni, 2010).

Askance with the foregoing, a craze of private universities is currently the order of the day in Uganda. Yet, anecdotal evidence has somewhat portrayed that the increase in the demand for university education and the mushrooming of private university-level institutions has raised eyebrows in regard to quality issues.

In a bid to safeguard the public good, and to secure the future of higher education, public universities in Uganda, according to Rabwoni (2010), have embarked on partnerships with the private sector. The collaboration of the two bodies has seen the thriving of the academic world. Moreover, in the last several years the interpretation of stakeholder involvement has changed as programmes have focused not just on individual institutions, but the broader communities and the society. In respect to the fore going argument Makerere University has established a linkage with the community through the Makerere University Private Sector Forum (MUPSF).

The foregoing author elucidates that the Forum is regarded as a new vehicle for promoting value addition to the University products in addressing the needs of the private sector. As a central 'hub' for practical support and information dissemination, it encourages and facilitates the University by linking it up with the private sector in socio-economic development, and by initiating demand driven joint research and practice to influence development policy and curriculum review, technology innovations, and projects at national and regional levels.

Waruru (2013) heightens that universities must end the blame game and start engaging the business sector to explore areas of cooperation and establish viable linkages that could result in both parties gaining from a symbiotic relationship. He further subscribes that universities could benefit from joint research with the private sector, which gesture could in turn help institutions fine-tune curricula to meet job market requirements. This scholar calls the



private sector to award consultancies to universities and urges the latter to share *research findings* with the private sector and to establish an industrial relations department within their structures.

Talking about enhancement of research, Rüländ (2013) observes that quality higher education can only emerge when the research dimension in universities is improved. Aarts and Greijn (2010) agitate for embedding higher education and research within international knowledge networks, while catering for local needs. In this digital age, higher education in Uganda therefore ought to more and more imbibe in the need of organizing education in such a way that learning globally contributes to the capacity to address needs locally. The co-authors subscribe that the importance of international collaboration in higher education and research should always be seen at play. According to Rüländ (2013), after years of neglect, the importance of higher education and research for societal development has been rediscovered in Africa. Uganda would not afford to be an exception to this truism. The quoted scholar goes on to observe that underfunding has however left many African universities with inadequate infrastructure and some of their best talent working overseas. Furthermore, the ageing academic staff structure is posing considerable challenges in many places. Simultaneously, due to demographic developments and improvements in schooling, the demand for quality higher education provision is exploding. This has led to a situation where institutions such as the University of Ghana and Makerere University have 90% of student enrolment at the undergraduate level (Ruland, 2013).

The paper therefore, perceiving that the phenomenon of best-talent-working-overseas has aggravated brain drain in Uganda, reiterates with Rüländ (2013) that the pressure on universities resulting from massification is incessantly on the increase. And of course, this is *per se* a presupposition to the dire need for academic quality and competence development.

In a move to facilitate towards access to higher education, major reforms are looming for student loan schemes in East Africa as governments seek to raise enrolments and ease the fees burden on parents. According to Nganga (2013), Uganda is in the process of setting up a loan fund for students. If passed, the bill will oblige loan beneficiaries to start repaying a year after completing their courses – even if they do not get a job. Beneficiaries will reportedly have to work for the government until their student loan is fully repaid. While the Finance Minister, has said that Uganda will charge minimal interest on the loans, details are yet to emerge. Kenya charges 4% interest on student loans. Revealed so far is that once approved, student loans in Uganda will be paid directly to universities to cover tuition fee expenses for students. With the US\$1.9 million seed capital, Uganda hopes to initially cater for at least 1,000 students (Nganga, 2013).

In an equidistant stance, distance and open learning programmes are being offered. At Makerere, for example, there is a School of Distance and Life-Long Learning (SoDLL). Kigotho (2013) quips that while Makerere University is running several external degree programmes in education, business, and sciences from its School of Distance and Lifelong Learning, Kampala International University, a private institution, has established one of the largest open and distance learning programmes in East Africa. Its College of Education, Open, Distance and e-Learning has crafted more than 20 undergraduate and postgraduate degrees and diplomas that are taught through printed media modules and limited e-learning. The increasing demand for access to higher education in East African countries has therefore opened opportunities for universities to develop robust distance education programmes. In Kenya, although Kenyatta and Nairobi Universities are ahead of other local universities in distance education, several others – including Moi, Mount Kenya and Maseno – also have advanced distance education programmes. Meanwhile, the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) has established learning nodes in Kenya at Egerton University in Nakuru and KCA University in Nairobi. OUT has started learning operations at Kibungo in Rwanda and plans are under way to open study sites in Burundi and Uganda. Accordingly, open and distance learning – owing to its flexibility – has great potential as an effective tool for provision of education in developing countries like Uganda.

This paper resonates with the mind of Rüländ (2013) that universities should more and more be enabled to become 'engines of development'. This model sees the university as one of the core institutions in national development. And, in the same words of Cloete, Maassen and Moja (2013), the underlying assumption is that “the university is the only institution in society that can provide an adequate foundation for the complexities of the emerging knowledge economy”. The status quo will engender Ugandan higher education (HE) to greater heights in the ideal of credentialing. It is therefore imperative to strengthen the more strategic role of academic quality in the environment of educational development for sustainability in the digital age. To this effect, research on open education, open education practices, and open education resources should be advanced. A further study on *Credentialing in Ugandan Higher Education Institutions* would provide an overview of the credentialing system and practices including the state of play of policies related to the recognition of prior learning in Ugandan Universities.

### 3 Academic Competence in Uganda's Context

Competence assessment, in terms of learning and teaching, is a fundamental stance that no university should overlook. According to Makerere University Self-Assessment Report (2013), there should as well be self-assessment conducted in order to measure the performance of the University in its core functions of Teaching and Learning, Research and Knowledge Transfer Partnerships. Imperative to highlight, Makerere University in particular based its personal assessment on national, regional and international benchmark metrics. Regarding the international perspective, the University incorporated performance indicators from the Organisation of Economic Corporation for Development (OECD) as published in European Universities Association Quality Assurance: A Reference System for Indicators and Evaluation Procedures.

The foregoing notwithstanding, this paper holds that in as much as it is important to borrow from elsewhere whatever is good and beneficial, a notion whatsoever becomes ideal and fruitful depending on the extent to which it is rendered relevant to the local situation. This is *de facto* a call to the Ugandan Universities to equate their processes of teaching and learning to the needs of the local environ. Implied also is that academic staff must adequately pass on both practical and theoretical competence to students in the various fields of work. They ought to continuously keep abreast with the teaching, learning and research demands in a university (Kasule and Neema-Abooki, 2009), particularly as open learning transforms curriculum design worldwide.

While competence in general refers to attributes, knowledge, skills, abilities, or other characteristics that contribute to successful job performance (Nazri and Barrick, nd). Kasule (2006) outlines four types of competences requisite with teaching and learning in universities. These are: Technical Competence, Knowledge competence, Professional Competency, Functional Competence, Behavioural, and Ethical.

Without prejudice to the need to define and explicate on each of the foregoing, this paper singles out and construes that *Ethical Competence* as it were envelops all professional competencies since while ethics studies human conduct with an advocacy to maximizing the good and minimizing the evil, “the 21<sup>st</sup> century is governed by a new watchword: interdependence. And as ethical rules of the past acquire a new and urgent prominence in the present, we are challenged as individuals, organisations, and society, to become ethically competent in an interdependent world. Emphasis herewith is laid by the *Competence Rule* which states that competency requires the ability to properly identify the problem to be addressed, the knowledge and experience to complete the assignment competently, and recognition of, and compliance with,

laws and regulations that apply to the appraiser or to the assignment (Novotny, 2012).

Ethical competence is therefore closely associated with the concept of emotional competence, which determines how well we handle ourselves and each other. While the latter is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work, the former is a learned capability based on ethical intelligence that results in smooth harmonious and peaceful relationships at every level in society. Like emotional competence, ethical competence is difficult to measure but its presence or absence in an individual, organisation, or society, is readily observable (Berghofer, nd.).

The lack of satisfactory level of ethical competence as well as professional competence among some academic staff in universities can be deduced from the fact that some are involved in scandals. Anecdotal evidence postulates unbecoming behaviour from some teaching staff in universities. This has resulted into disgruntlement by the clientele. The unbecoming behaviour range from absenteeism from duty, delay or non-feedback to the students about their course works, subjective assessment, sexual harassment, using abusive language, coming late for lectures, to giving marks to students in exchange for sex or money. Such are constantly cited as rampant in most universities; despite the fact that some lecturers in various universities in the country, and probably elsewhere in the world, go unidentified. This host of behaviour cannot permit quality teaching/learning to take place in a university. Implied heretofore is that employees should have unquestionable character; more so university lecturers who are supposed to be models of the students they teach. Kasule and Neema-Abooki, (2009) underscore herewith that each academic staff should endeavour to prove themselves as a reservoir of knowledge and skills which must be nurtured and developed for the teaching and learning of a nation.

This paper heightens that effectiveness and efficiency in universities, like elsewhere in organisations, presuppose a high sense of duty and responsibility towards the entire populace. It catapults the understanding of Berghofer (n. d.) that “the Ethical Competence Framework” incorporates three dimensions of competence, beginning with the personal and moving through social competence to global competence. By including the last dimension, recognition is given to the new imperative of life in the 21<sup>st</sup> century; namely, that the ultimate determinant of success for humanity is our ability to create a harmonious sustainable global civilization on a finite planet”.

Adjacently Becket and Brookes (2005) perceive that interest in quality of higher education has increased because of the need for greater accountability to accompany the significant increase in the size of the student population and the students’ greater expectations. Not only the students but, this paper adds, the entire citizenry and indeed the global society.

## 4 Conclusion

Issues of quality assurance and quality enhancement have acquired a major focus of attention in all spheres of life, education inclusive. It is important to note that higher education is gaining in importance due to the growing need for knowledge and skills in this globalized and knowledge-based economy. Moreover, in most developing countries, education systems are also changing in response to paradigmatic shifts from command to market systems of economic organisation. In these circumstances, achieving competitiveness will require a level of efficiency and effectiveness that, in turn, require analysis of quality in every single task (QUEST).

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## Work-Life Balance among Academic Staff of the University of Lagos

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**Abstract.** Work-life balance is associated with the maintenance of stability in *both* one's professional and personal life. It is key to the welfare and, subsequently, job satisfaction and productivity of employees. It is against this understanding that this study surveyed the way academic staff of the University of Lagos perceive and pursue work-life balance at the University. The findings were that the academic staffs understand work-life balance and its importance. However, the University has no policy on the same and the respondents reported a poor work-life balance that is tilted towards work roles. The implications of these findings are discussed after which recommendations for improvement are propounded.

**Keywords:** HRM, Job Satisfaction, Work-life Balance.

### 1 Introduction

A commentator has opined that 73 percent of teachers reported that they often find their work quite stressful. Consequently, they are more likely to leave their work emotionally and physically exhausted and, often, they take work home. Any teacher that fails to strike a balance between work and private life risks becoming burned out (<http://education.cu-portland.edu/blog/educator-tips/five-tips-for-teacher-work-life-balance/>). In the modern business environment, people interact with each other from different locations at different times. Employers can communicate with their staff at any time so they can obtain staff services as they require. Likewise, staff interact with their personal relations during working hours. Work-life balance demands having time for oneself on a daily basis whilst it is ensured that this does not affect one's performance in the workplace.

Organisations are beginning to understand the importance of work-life balance and as such resources are being expended in a bid to encourage staff to balance work and non-work roles so as to enhance productivity. Also, in an attempt to increase the level of job quality and reduce the incidence of error in the workplace, organisations need to ensure that their staffs have a level of balance between work and social life that is deemed to be satisfactory.

There are several stress building factors that influence the performance of staff in universities. And it is with this cognizance that this study focuses on ways of improving the work-life balance and, subsequently, job satisfaction of academic staff of the University of Lagos. This was based on the understanding that, currently, academic staffs of the University of Lagos are stressed on the job, a problem that could affect their job satisfaction.

## 2 Related Literature

According to Lockwood (2003) there are three main factors influencing work-life balance in organisations. These are: increase in competition in the global business environment; growing interest in family values; and the emergence of an aging workforce. This study uses the work-life balance framework developed by the New Zealand government in 2014. This framework focuses on three distinctive areas: 1) assessment of work-life balance and its needs; 2) effective evaluation of work-life balance; and 3) review of work-life balance and implementing it as a strategic approach to achieving success. In a bid to improve staff job satisfaction at the University of Lagos, this study aims to focus on an effective framework that helps support and drive the development of programmes that will encourage the maintenance of stability in the lives of staff.

Life in itself is a balancing act and it is logical to imply that most people are seeking ways to balance their work-life. Work-life balance has several attributes. This has made it difficult to coin a definition for this concept and as such various experts and scholars have different views and perception of the things that constitute it. In this study, there are terms used in work-life balance that would be described in various ways as defined by various experts (Lockwood, 2003; Reddy, 2012; Kumari, 2012):

1. Work-family Conflict: This is regarded as the push and pull effect experienced between work and family responsibilities.
2. Work-Life Balance: From an employee's perspective, work-life balance is the act of managing work responsibilities and personal obligations. However, from an organisation's perspective, it is the act of establishing a business cultured environment that is supportive towards staff focusing on their jobs.

3. **Work-Life Programs:** This is a term used when an organisation offers their staffs the opportunities of addressing work related and personal issues.
4. **Work-Life Culture:** This is a scenario where the culture of an organisation respects its staffs' family responsibilities and also encourages the staffs to attend to both these responsibilities and the demands of their work.
5. **Work-Life Initiative:** This involves an organisation creating policies that guide the behaviour of staff with the view of getting the jobs done whilst giving them opportunities to address their personal issues.

One of the objectives of human resources departments is to ensure balance between the work and personal life of staff. In an attempt to combine both personal and work-life, both positive and negative impacts arise. Staffs do not offer their full concentrations at work, thereby, reducing their performance on the job due to personal reasons. Likewise, in their personal life, staffs are anxious about their job roles and responsibilities and as a result they cannot excel in their work-life (Lockwood, 2003). Therefore, it is important to maintain a satisfactory balance between work and personal life.

For the purpose of this study, work-life balance can be described as the balance between work-life and personal life. Reddy (2012) suggests that work-life balance is described as the relationship attained between work that an individual is being paid for and the lives individuals live outside of their paid employment. A state of equilibrium can be reached between these two phases based on the needs and expectations of the individual. The intensity and stress of an individual's job can affect one's work-life balance. According to Yayday (2013), work-life balance can help increase the satisfaction got from carrying out job duties. As the number of working hours increase, the work-life balance is affected.

The performances of organisations are particularly influenced by the work-life balance of staff. This is owing to the fact that staffs face challenges and stress related issues that affect their performance on the job, thereby negatively influencing the overall performance of the company. According to Lubna (2013), the association of staff with their families during working hours affects the performance of staff on their job roles and responsibilities. Lubna insinuates that singular communication between staff and their families during working hours can cause stress on individual staff, which affects the quality of job done on a daily basis. It can also reduce the level of concentration of the staff thereby affecting the level of efficiency on the job. This hints that there is a link between work-life balance and the motivation of staff in an organisation. It is important for an organisation to help staff to strike a suitable and satisfactory balance between their work and personal life so as to achieve a satisfactory level of performance at work.

In scenarios where staff are asked to work longer hours, the issue of work-life balance arises even more than before (Ojo, Falola & Mordi, 2014). Therefore, organisations are increasing the benefits and perks to staff so as to increase their motivation to work and achieve sterling performance. The Nigerian university sector is one that involves staff working extra hours (Ojo et.al, 2014a). Staff who decide to work longer hours are usually seen as diligent and competent in their duties irrespective of whether significant value is added during this period of extra work. Due to this, staff work longer hours in the Nigerian university sector because of incentives offered and the basic consideration for promotion during performance appraisal (Yaday, 2013). It is worth mentioning that the effectiveness of staffs' performance could reduce due to increase in working hours.

According to Lockwood (2003), an individual should be reasonable enough to work for reasonable hours so as to equally balance one's work-life. However, workaholics work for extra odd hours which are regarded as a work-life that is not balanced due to the fact that individuals do not realise the standards and rules regarding how much time and energy should be dissipated on professional work. This results into a struggle between work-life and personal life.

In order to achieve work-life balance, an individual needs to consider the time spent on their work and non-work roles (SSC, 2014). For an individual whose social needs are extremely demanding, working extra odd hours might be detrimental to their social life. However, an individual who does not have a demanding social life but works extra hours might not experience serious challenges in this regard. In recent times, staff of organisations are working extra hours so as to fulfil the requirements of the company they work for and in return the organisation rewards them with monetary incentives (SSC, 2014). These extra-long work hours have benefited staff through the benefits and bonuses given by the organisation to the staff. These bonuses have helped the staff to meet their needs at the time it is needed the most. However, Reddy (2012) argues that on the other hand, these scenarios have negatively affected the family lives of staff. The extra-long working hours have caused a lot of imbalance in the work and social life of the employees. Therefore, it follows some logical assumptions that the family life of staff have been affected as a result of the blend and merger of the professional and personal life.

Lubna (2013) also notes that some staff work during holidays and their off-work hours. Despite the fact that these staff are being rewarded for these in which case it helps the staff financially, it is worth mentioning that there is no replacement of the satisfaction gained when one spends quality time with family or loved ones.

Prior to technological advancement in the global business environment today, life was not as fast paced and connected with every personal and business update. Today, technology has evolved and created various means of

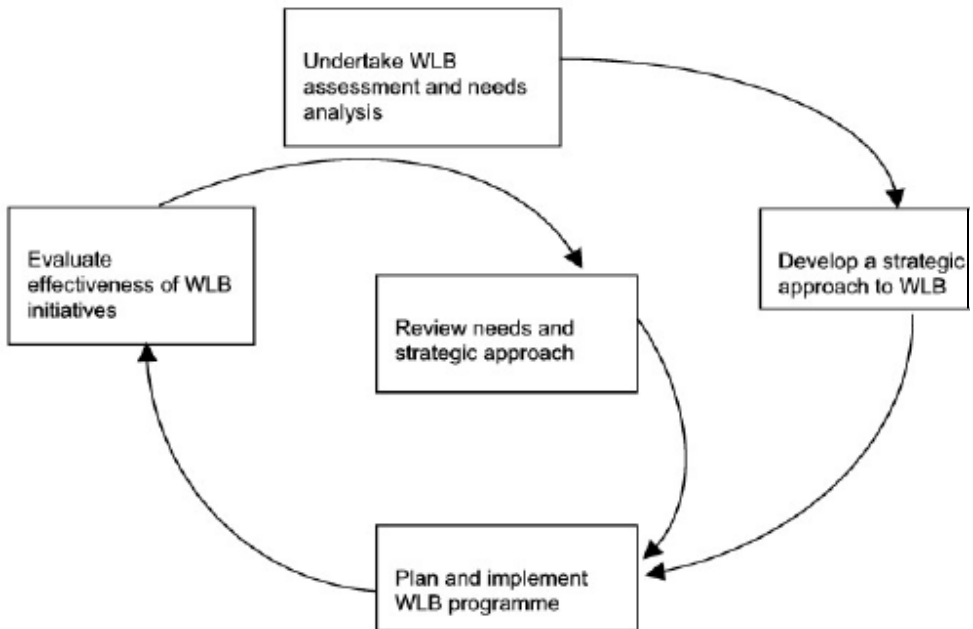
communication and as such interaction with one another has become easy. According to Kumari (2012), technological devices have helped individuals stay in contact with each other for the entire day. Viewing this from the perspective of overcoming communication barriers definitely proves to be useful. However, this has made individuals deal with so many issues simultaneously through which the maintenance of balance between the different things in their work and personal lives is difficult.

Organisations require staff to provide quality service to their customers, resolve customer complaints and offer innovative solutions to customers' needs. Likewise family members demand to remain in constant communication with the individuals performing the job duties of organisations with the aim of seeking solutions to their problems at the time of need (SSC, 2014). Viewing both scenarios, each perspective is significant in its own right and it is right to say that they overlap each other. At times, an individual's work-life might rule over the personal life, which can be detrimental to the social life of the individual. Likewise, if the social life of the individual encroaches into the work-life, it could affect the performance of the individual, which could become an issue at the individual's workplace. In a nut shell, both the social and work-life should be balanced so as to achieve success in both areas of life (Lockwood, 2013).

Organisations have corporate goals which are to be achieved by staff through the delivery of quality and efficient service. Still, when organisations do not achieve their desired results, staff might be required to work extra time. On the other hand, staff are constantly in touch with their families and loved ones during working hours in which their attention span is reduced and diverted to different things when carrying out job duties. This can cause major problems for the organisation.

Kumari (2012) suggests that an effective synergy between an individual's personal and work-life can yield positive results on performance. Likewise, if a staff receives bad news from his or her social life, it can negatively affect his/her performance by creating stress and unnecessary tension in the workplace. Therefore, it is important that a satisfactory balance is struck between an individual's work and social life so as to achieve overall satisfaction on the job and non-work roles.

Institutions are beginning to realise that it is not right to dedicate all one's life to an organisation whilst neglecting his or her personal life (Ojo, Salau and Falola, 2014b). Therefore, organisations help staff strike a balance between work and social life thereby improving and developing the employee's relations at the workplace. This is logical because an employee who is stable socially has the potential to be stable at the workplace. Also, staff would be more motivated to work and fully utilize their skills and capabilities in a bid to add value to the organisation (Yaday, 2013).



**Figure 1** Work-Life Balance Framework

Source: SSC (2014)

Figure 1 shows the strategic approach to work-life balance in an organisation. The framework depicted in Figure 1 focuses on three distinctive areas:

1. The assessment of work-life balance and its needs in an organisation
2. The effective evaluation of work-life balance
3. The review of work-life balance and implementing it as a strategic approach to achieving success.

In the quest to developing healthy sound innovative minds for staff, organisations are beginning to offer various facilities to staff such as vacations, benefits and rewards so as to ensure a healthy and significant time is being spent with their families – in which case would eventually be beneficial to the overall performance of the company (Lockwood, 2013).

### **3 Methodology**

The study followed a case study design. Data were collected using interviews. A random sample of 26 respondents were selected to participate in the research process. These included associate professors (7), professors (3) while the other sixteen (16) included senior lecturers, lecturers, assistant lecturers and assistant

lecturers. During the interview process, the researcher seized the opportunity to ask questions regarding the nature of the work-life balance of the academic staff and how it affects the satisfaction each individual derives from their job. All the interview questions asked were structured prior to the interview process. The interview focused on four areas related to work-life balance: 1) General issues on Work-life; 2) Work-life balance; 3) challenges; and 4) Policies. The interview questions were structured along these thematic areas so as to enable the researcher to focus on issues that surround the work-life balance of the respondents. The validity of the research instrument implemented in this research was scrutinized by the experts on human resources management. The reliability of research instrument was achieved through test retest method using Person Product Moment Correlation statistic. This returned a correlation coefficient of 0.72 meaning that the instrument was reliable. The data were analysed using content analysis, through which themes were systematically identified from the responses elicited from the respondents.

## **4 Findings**

### **4.1 Knowledge of and Policies on Work-Life Balance**

Five (5) lecturers stated that work-life balance is the balance between one's life at work and the time spent on social activities. Fifteen (15) lecturers stated that the achievement of work-life balance in the university system is difficult due to the number of working hours expended on the job. However, for definition purposes, they all acknowledged that work-life balance is the balance between work and personal life.

All twenty six (26) lecturers interviewed stated that they are not aware of any work-life balance policy presently in place to help lecturers with their work and personal life. The only notable policy is the encouragement given to lecturers to always go an annual leave as long as there are colleagues to assist to teach their courses when they are away on leave.

### **4.2 Hours Spent at Work**

Eleven (11) lecturers stated that they work an average of twelve (12) hours a day due to their basic job functions. Three (3) lecturers interviewed stated that they resume work at 7.30am and close at 9.00pm which is an average of 13.5 hours worked. All lecturers interviewed seemed not to be happy about the working hours currently expended on jobs on a daily basis. It was stated by five (5) lecturers that they live very far from their workplaces and are usually tired

when they get to work in the morning. They further stated that they get an average of five (5) hours sleep every day and they tend not to be quite productive at work the next day.

#### **4.3 Attitude towards Job and Incidence of Work-Related Pressure**

Thirteen (13) lecturers interviewed stated that they liked their jobs. However, they further stated that they are willing to learn new things by doing other jobs outside of what they presently do. Seven (7) stated that they do not like their jobs because they are bored and tired of repetitions. They further stated that their level of productivity is low and they tend to avoid committing blunders on the job. Three (3) lecturers stated that they were indifferent as to whether they like the job or not.

All twenty six (26) lecturers stated that they face work pressures every day at work. Seventeen (17) lecturers interviewed who happened to be cohort advisers stated that they face pressures every day in addressing students' problem on examination results and broad mark sheets. They seemed to complain about unrealistic targets set by the University which increases the pressure to perform. It was also stated that this pressure affects their lives outside work.

#### **4.4 Work Motivation**

Ten (10) lecturers stated that they are not currently motivated on their jobs. It was gathered that they have not been promoted as at when due. They stated that this has affected their performance as they do not fully commit themselves to the job anymore. Six (6) lecturers stated that they were motivated to do more because they are promoted as at when due. However, they stated that they find themselves working longer hours than their contemporaries in other universities.

#### **4.5 Holidays and Sick Leave**

All twenty six (26) lecturers interviewed stated that they are all entitled to forty two (42) working days of annual leave. However, it was stated by nineteen (19) lecturers that it is sometimes difficult to go on leave because most Head of Departments are reluctant to approving lecturers leave due to overwhelming requirements on the job. It was gathered from all lecturers that the university grants sick leave to lecturers as the case may require.



#### **4.6 Opportunities for Promotion**

Ten (10) lecturers interviewed lamented that they have not been promoted as at when due. They further suggested that this is affecting their performance on the job and their level of motivation has reduced. All other lecturers interviewed stated that most lecturers are promoted in a space of 3 to 4 years. It was further revealed that these promotions are not usually objective in nature.

#### **4.7 Rotation of Job Functions and Supervisory Support**

Twenty (20) lecturers interviewed stated that they are tired of doing the same job every day. They stated that they would be excited to perform other job roles within the university. Other lecturers interviewed stated that they have been rotated to teach other courses within their departments during the course of their job in the university.

Twenty one (21) lecturers interviewed stated that their bosses are not usually appreciative of their performance on the job. They further stated that this in itself has reduced their morale and has made them feel less of themselves. It was also gathered that they constantly experience pressures at work. Five lecturers (5) interviewed stated that their bosses sometimes appreciated them. However, it would be better if the line managers did that more often.

#### **4.8 Quality Time Spent on Social Activities**

Twenty (22) lecturers stated that they do not spend quality time on social activities. It was stated that they spend most of their time at work, It was further gathered that they sometimes come to work during weekends for marking and grading assignments and sometime to prepare instructional materials in which no incentives or extra pay are given towards this.

All twenty six (26) lecturers interviewed stated that they seldom spend time with their families. It was further gathered that the only have weekends to spend quality time with their families. However, it was stated that they are sometimes required to come to work during weekends which encroaches into their personal life.

A total of twenty one (21) lecturers interviewed stated that they work an extra of four hours outside their normal working hours. It was also gathered that they are not paid for the extra hours dissipated on the job. It was further stated that most times, the extra hours expended on the job are not always seen to produce any value to the organisation because the lecturers are seen to be less productive at the time. Five (5) lecturers stated that they work an average of two extra hours. They also corroborated the view that no extra pay is given for extra hours spent on the job.

## 5 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Baral (2010) has argued that employees output are often diminished when they are bored by doing routine jobs. It was found that most lecturers are tired of performing the same job functions. This could result into reduced quality of service and increased error rate. University of Lagos should introduce a course rotation policy within the various areas of competency so as to enable lecturers to be more up-to-date in their jobs. This is supported by Joshi (2007). Lecturers would not be bored on new course roles as they would be more motivated to learn new things. This may enhance job satisfaction.

It was seen that the university sets unrealistic targets for the lecturers hence pressurising the respondents. Therefore, it is imperative that the University sets realistic targets. As Bailyn, Drago and Kochan (2001) argued, if the pressure of employees is not effectively managed at work, it would affect their family life outside work. This in-turn would be detrimental to their performance on the job at University of Lagos. Therefore it is important that the university helps their lecturers strike a balance between their work and life outside work.

Banerjee (2007) opined that organisations should endeavour to reward and promote their staffs when due. This is apposite in the University so as to ensure performance and increase in motivation. This also helps in achieving satisfaction on the job. The “publish or perish” maxim can be reviewed because many lecturers devote more time to publishing papers and less time to teaching. Conversely, many lecturers that devote more time to teaching almost have little time left for publishing. Either way, this creates stress on the lecturers.

Barnett and Hyde (2001) support the need for employees to take vacations. They argued that it is bad manpower planning that makes it difficult to find replacement for anybody on a job function. In the present study, it was seen that most heads of departments are often reluctant to approving lecturers’ annual leave. The administration department of the university should enforce the right to annual leave (cf. Beatty, 1996). The management of the University should also encourage head of departments to allow their lecturers go on leave when due so as to reduce the pressure and tension the lecturers face at work. The usage of annual leave by lecturers makes them relax with their families and reduce the work pressure built in them. They eventually return to work refreshed and ready to fully utilize their skills (Beauregard, 2006).

Heads of departments should learn to appreciate their subordinates. This will help in boosting their morale, motivation and performance. In this regard, the findings of the present study are at variance with those of Bellavia and Frone (2005) who observe that feelings of being appreciated at work enhances job satisfaction and motivation.

The university should encourage lecturers to have time for social activities and also encourage them to stabilise their work-life with their social life so as to

improve on their performance (Bhargava and Baral, 2009). Buddhapriya (2009) opines that leisure time with family members is a crucial obligation that must be built into work life. This supports the view that lecturers of the university should reduce the extra hours spent on the job so as to create time for personal life. During the day, lecturers reach a point whereby they tend not be productive anymore. This leads to reduction in job satisfaction. We have seen instances when lecturers collapsed in their offices and there is need to forestall this possibility from happening again the future.

A work-life balance policy should be developed to guide lecturers on how to strike a satisfactory balance between the time they spend at work and the time they spend on non-work roles. Butler et al. (2005) have argued for a work-life balance policy that will be enforceable throughout the organisation. This would help to enhance the quality of service delivery at the University.

The implementation of an ideal work-life balance programme would be extremely useful to the enhancement of job satisfaction in University of Lagos. The results got from the interviews showed that University of Lagos lecturers are presently not achieving job satisfaction and this is affecting the quality of their teaching and research. The benefits of this programme will accrue to the lecturers, students and the University (employer) and they will include increased productivity; higher job satisfaction, commitment and retention; improved quality of teaching and research; and reduced costs due to redundancy and health issues.

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