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Aims and Scope

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

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Editorial

Touching on teaching and learning; funding; entrepreneurship; special needs education; educational innovation and development; special needs education; adult and lifelong education; and student politics, this issue of MAJOHE is as diverse as the field of higher education.

Under teaching and learning, Barifaijo and Ssentamu delve into the controversial subject of faculty teaching courses that are outside their main areas of expertise. Drawing on data elicited from HEIs in Uganda, these authors attempt to respond to a series of questions relating to the subject that they derive from the literature. In the process, they touch on relevant concerns for quality assurance before propounding recommendations for better teaching and learning in higher education. Luhamya, Bakkabulindi and Muyinda review six theories of integration of ICT into teaching and learning, making specific reference to higher education. Moving from this theoretical perspective, they highlight areas requiring further research.

In the area of funding, Omosidi, Atolagbe and Lawal report on the pattern of financing Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria while Kyaligonza discusses gaps in the implementation of the nascent higher education student loan scheme in Uganda. It is of particular interest that they both discuss suggestions for the better funding of HEIs on the continent.

Olaseni and Olawale delve into entrepreneurial awareness and skills among technical education students in Tai Solarin University of Education. Yet readers may be interested to note that although these authors focus specifically on the experience of this category of students, lines of similarity exist between their work and that of Banjo, Oluwatoyin and Kabiru and that of Ojo-Ajibare. These lines should be part of future work on entrepreneurship education—whether it be on theory, policy or practice.

Otyola, Kibanja and Mugagga report on the experience of visually impaired students, a significantly underreported part of higher education. Interestingly, they report the existence of a range of support services for the special needs students (including financial aid and affirmative action in access to meals, on-campus accommodation, scholastic materials, and buddy support). However, they also note constraining pedagogical limitations but towards whose alleviation they articulate some recommendations.

Under innovation and development, Oyelade constructs Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa's Philosophy of Education as a champion and change agent in Nigeria's education system.

Oduwaiye et al. delve into stress and academic performance in Kwara State. They report significant relationships between the two after which they recommend strategies for helping the students to deal with the various kinds of stress that they face.

Finally, Mugume and Luescher report on the influence of national political parties on student politics at Makerere University, a nexus that should be of interest to the students, leaders of HEIs and political parties alike. Scrutinising the same from the theoretical point of view of Schmitter and Streeck's Framework, the authors make suggestions towards the better understanding of student politics in Africa's emerging democracies.

Editor

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Intellectual Curiosity or Deception? An Investigation into the Practice of Teaching outside Area of Expertise in Uganda

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Abstract. Teaching outside one's area of expertise is increasingly common in higher education institutions (HEIs). Yet institutions and scholars are treating the subject as a taboo. Debate on the subject has been kept hush-hush—citing potential jeopardy to the institutions' image. In this paper, the authors explore the reasons for the trend. The authors adopted Carl Rogers' Theory to answer four questions: 1) What drives academicians to teach outside their area of primary expertise? 2) What are the implications of teaching outside one's area of expertise? 3) What is the performance of those teaching outside their expertise? 4) What strategies are in place to regulate the practice? Data was collected from two HEIs in Uganda. This was done using interviews, students' evaluations and teaching time-tables. Staff job descriptions and profiles were also analysed. It was concluded that the practice is not affecting quality. Regardless, the paper urges HEIs to be judicious in allowing the practice.

Keywords: Teaching and learning; Quality assurance; Professionalism.

1 Introduction

This paper assesses the implications of teaching outside one's area of expertise. It sought to establish what drives individuals to want to teach courses in which they have no expertise. The researchers were intrigued by claims that some academics taught outside their areas of expertise yet institutions have rigorously laboured to attract and hire staff to teach on specific programmes because of their expertise. We note that HEIs are no longer enclaves of small groups of privileged students that dominated universities in the past. We are now dealing with mass institutions where lecturers or facilitators are engrossed in the Aristotelian approach to teaching (Cranton, 2002). Although the authors' major objective was to explore the expertise of those teaching in higher education

institutions and their engagement, they bring out diversity challenges such as background, quality and age of students; size of classes, social and educational background; and psychological factors that may require peculiar skills. In this connection, Huston (2009) has argued that while there are many individuals who engage in teaching, there will always be those remembered for their great teaching and others will be forgotten or remembered for being muddled. So, whether you are remembered for good works or muddled work, it is important to understand why this happens.

We shall systematically highlight how, when and why such practice takes place by attempting to respond to a number of puzzling questions: Do people teach what they did not study out of intellectual curiosity or deception? The second puzzle that remained unresolved in literature was: What really matters - content expertise or masterly of teaching methods? Perhaps this is what sometimes confuses leaders in HEIs while hiring and engaging academicians. So then, is it the qualification (e.g., Masters, PhD)? Is it the research experience (number of research reports, publications and books written)? Is it the pedagogical and andragogical training (evidence or certificates attained)? Is it the area of expertise? Or does a combination of all the above matter? These are heavy-laden questions that call for immediate answers if institutions are to uphold quality, integrity and excellence. The third puzzle that may sound obvious is intended to mitigate potential questions from the readers of this article: Does the area of expertise matter if one can do a good job at what they do? But in this regard there is also a pertinent question: Who determines a good job in teaching? It has been observed that more often than not, that those who do a bad job at teaching get away with it because there is not much accountability other than students' evaluations; which many times are subjective – depending on the personality of the facilitator and the motivation of the learners (Huston, 2009).

1.1 Theoretical Underpinning

Carl Rogers and others have developed the theory of facilitative learning. The basic premise of this theory is that learning will occur by the educator acting as a facilitator, that is by establishing an atmosphere in which learners feel comfortable to consider new ideas and are not threatened by external factors (Laird, 1985). Other characteristics of this theory include; a belief that human beings have a natural eagerness to learn and that there is some resistance to and unpleasant consequences of giving up what is currently held to be true. The most significant learning involves changing the concept of oneself that requires self-learning, creativity and high motivation. Facilitative teachers are less protective of their constructs and beliefs than other teachers; more able to listen to learners, especially to their feelings; inclined to pay as much attention to

their relationship with learners as to the content of the course; apt to accept feedback, both positive and negative and to use it as constructive insight for themselves and their behaviour. Hence, it is argued that only when one is knowledgeable, prepared and confident, that he or she will be quite receptive of any feedback from the students. Therefore, one could have content expertise without confidence to impart knowledge. Conversely, one may lack content expertise but have superior delivery skills that make him or her shine beyond expectation. The worst scenario, however, could be where one lacks both the content (expertise) and the skill to deliver; which might be disastrous not only for the individual facilitator, but to the students and to the institution as a whole.

1.2 Conceptual Underpinning

This section first introduces the two major terms that guide this discussion, and these are: content expert and content novice. A 'content expert' is someone who has extensive specialized knowledge about a given topic. On the other hand, a 'content novice' is someone who has little or no specialized knowledge of a given topic. Even a seasoned instructor could be a content novice in certain classes. Hence, the concern of this discussion is about a content novice. Huston (2009) found that content novices prepared well in time before they stepped in class, and possibly this was why most got away with it and instead truly earn students' respect. This might sound like a no-brainer, but Huston (2009) found that when people teach outside their expertise, they are pressed for time and they read things their students have not read. After all, they want to bring new ideas to class. Does this sound logical? Possibly yes. Those who take the angle of intellectual curiosity, for example, will definitely invest hours and hours researching for the right materials on the area they want to get acquainted with; one, for self-learning, and two, to impress students they will interact with in the learning environment. However, Huston (2009) cautions that this is a dangerous strategy, especially if the learners are widely read and might be in superior position to judge the content being taught. On the contrary, lecturers who are deceptive for various selfish gain, will certainly lose credibility with their students, especially when they exhibit unfamiliarity with what they attempt to teach.

The most fundamental fact, according to Huston (2009), is that although university lecturers have a duty to educate students, they are not teachers, no matter how great the teaching focus of our institutions is. The job advertisements are precise and usually indicate specific skills required in the 'person specifications' section for a particular discipline. Expertise required in one discipline will be different from another discipline. There are areas of specialization required for each discipline, in addition to the various levels

(e.g., a Master's degree, a doctorate or a professional level of attainment). However, a qualification in university teaching may not be required (Brookfield, 2005) unlike at the lower levels of education. This may serve to explain why a university lecturer teaches without prior classroom training and gets away with it.

1.3 Context

Essentially, there has been unprecedented demand for higher education in Uganda, much like in other parts of the world (Kasozi, 2006), in the last two decades. This trend has led to increased student enrolment, and consequently, the government continues to grapple with the challenge of equity and access, amidst diminishing national budgetary allocations for public universities. In order to respond to these challenges, institutions have had to develop more marketable academic programmes, some of which lack experts, while others are oversubscribed, consequently undesirably affecting the lecturer-student ratios and student-space/computer ratios, among others. Further, performance-related pay in these institutions has forced many academicians to teach what they can lay their hands on in order to earn workload, regardless of whether they have expertise or not. This development has not only negatively impacted on the quality of teaching but also the quality of graduates (Kasozi, 2006).

Whereas we cannot decry the availability of superior experienced teaching staff in Ugandan universities, serious challenges have been registered regarding equitable and competitive salaries for staff in these universities (Barifaijo et al, 2015). Further, internal competition has led these universities to adopt the Results-Oriented-Management (ROM) approach that gave birth to the work-load policy, which aimed at achieving 'performance-related pay' in many of Uganda's HEIs. For example, one must teach specified minimum hours; depending on one's status (principal, dean or head) or rank (professor, associate professor, senior lecturer, lecturer or teaching assistant), regardless of other engagements such as research, consultancy and community-related activities. Conversely, competition for qualified staff has loomed high in these institutions, which has left public institutions especially, considerably depleted of highly trained staff as a result of uncompetitive compensation (Barifaijo et al., 2015). Consequently, institutionalization of performance-related pay policies and practices were seen to limit the number of qualified staff amidst the increased demand for 'value for money' by various stakeholders; and demand for quality teaching and learning processes that has become a challenging one. Little wonder, therefore, that some staff have ended up teaching courses outside their expertise, thereby exacerbating the quality of delivery and consequently the quality of graduates from HEIs in Uganda.

2 Methodology

Makerere University and Uganda Management Institute were sampled from the five public higher education institutions. This choice was a deliberate effort to establish the said problems in highly differentiated institution like Uganda Management Institute, that deals purely with graduate programmes and Makerere University with a continuum of programmes right from undergraduate to doctoral and research programmes. Kothari (2004) supports this choice because it brings out clearly the management-related challenges. Academic staff in Makerere purposively selected, specifically in trying to compare those teaching undergraduate courses and graduate courses. At the same time, participants at UMI were randomly selected considering that all programmes at were a higher level (postgraduate, Master's and PhD). At the same time, Makerere University being largely dominated by undergraduate programmes gave us a clearer picture on which facilitators teach which level and why. The study used a qualitative approach augmented by the ethnographic method as recommended by Kothari (2004). Data was collected through interviews with lecturers and students from the two institutions. Documents such as students' evaluations, time-tables and staff job descriptions and profiles were reviewed, analysed and interpreted and personal files for staff were accessed and analysed. Participant-as-observer was used to complement other data sources.

3 Findings and Discussion

Teaching outside one's expertise has existed since the 18th century as propounded in Jacotot's philosophy. But those were days when there was no higher education philosophy and terms such as quality and specialization had not emerged. Although this discussion slightly departs from Jacotot's thinking, in terms of the current beliefs, it borrows much that explains the current practice or why people do what they do, and why they excel in doing what they are not supposed to be doing.

We must say that the findings were extremely conflicting but interesting; and the results were quite mixed but intriguing. The first impression we got, which is actually supported in the existing literature was that what compels people to teach on the edge of their expertise was to try out something new and of importance – possibly the most interesting and positive finding. Secondly, other reasons were to enable individuals gain insight and become relevant; and thirdly, and probably most controversial, was individuals' inherent competition to "be equal to" or "be better than" their colleagues. Perhaps what was found to

be the root cause of teaching outside one's expertise, but being downplayed and most times swept under the carpet by institutions, was the issue of unrealistic policies of what comprised workload. We actually found that what was considered "workload" was "teaching load" – especially given the diverse roles and mandates of these institutions.

3.1 Why do Individuals Teach outside their Expertise?

There was no consensus about why individuals teach what they did not study. There was also no serious contestation on the matter. There is a whole continuum of reasons including: *mere interest; curiosity; to prove one's worth; to remain relevant; to respond to institutional pressures; to help out friends; to obey the supervisor's rules, etc.* The findings and discussion in this article were majorly guided by the educational theory and practice of Joseph Jacotot who advanced possibilities of excelling in teaching a subject one did not even know in the first place. For Jacotot, teaching is not really a matter of expertise, but of determination. It is not about transmitting knowledge to the student, but holding students accountable to the material that they are working on. We endeavoured to explore whether what happened in these institutions could be explained by Jacotot's philosophy of the 18th century. We found that the majority of the academic staff had actually "tried something new" or taught the whole curriculum for that matter, covering a whole range of topics, and this varied from individual to individual, and from institution to institution.

Although one of the institutions encouraged this practice, citing cases of mediocrity on the part of those who remained in their comfort zones, others did not believe in one individual being good in everything.

A key informant from one of the institutions defended teaching outside expertise thus:

> "We actually encourage staff to diversify if they have to cope with the changing demands of society, especially our learners, the market – nationally and internationally. If we limited these young brains to only what they studied, we shall be doing a disservice to them and denying them opportunities ahead of them. What matters in my view, is how do we exploit full potential of these young people? How do we get the best out of them? How do we encourage them to move forward? Let us plan for them through training and development in order to institute a succession plan for current and future success."

Although Kasozi (2006) cautions institutions to stick to what was learned in universities in order to avoid curriculum drift, the above excerpt counteracts Kasozi's reasoning. According to Kasozi (2006) still, staff should be limited on the number of courses one can be responsible for in order to avoid work

overload. Although this last aspect sounds logical, we doubt that work overload is contributed by different courses one teaches.

Some of the most interesting but rare findings on why individuals teach outside their areas of specialization were: making positive interactions with other professionals in other departments; broadening their curriculum vitae; and remaining relevant and competitive, both nationally and internationally. In support of this finding, Nilson)2007) and McKeachie and Marilla (2006) found that many firms wanted consultants who are multidisciplinary to take on numerous tasks and solve problems with one 'brain' – one head – and one location. This was supported by many respondents who argued that being multi-disciplinary increases one's opportunities and leverages one to higher advantages and sometimes expands one's repertoire that makes one stand out to potential superior consultancies. This argument was supported by Hsien-Hui & Emily (2013) (2013) who explain how the need to respond to the global economic, environmental and social changes, has increased momentum to create awareness about diverse thinking among all professions by teaching interdisciplinary courses to heighten the thinking of students in higher education. We argue that this cannot be done unless the teachers themselves have diversified in their approach.

Still on the question of why people teach outside their areas of expertise, below as some of the responses:

> "..my enthusiasm was borne out of frustrations arising from workload deficit…after teaching for six (6) months, I realized that I have a deficit of 120 hours and I had to think very fast how I was to reverse this record…I started by moving around different departments, requesting for teaching slots as well as materials…at the beginning it was indeed a challenge because those notes (slides) were just summaries...for some time I was not comfortable with questions from students because I wasn't sure of the answers. I had to come up with a better strategy, for example going to the library, access materials on the internet and also consult my superiors...now I consider myself an expert."

Another one had this to say:

> "..my head of department was traveling and asked me to step in for him…because I was not very comfortable, I consulted on a number of areas which included; content, scope, instructional methodology, teaching materials and how best I could engage students maximally...my wish was to keep the students vibrant, motivated and alert…the first time I taught what I had never learnt…I believe I made an impact and that's when I realized that I could actually do a better job not only in my area, but elsewhere…I was very anxious and wanted to know how I was evaluated at the end of the module. I actually found that I had exceeded my own expectation."

Although this was not intended curiosity, the task was approached with zeal, willingness and enthusiasm. This finding confirms Huston's (2009) finding, that although scholars argue that one can be comfortable where they are content experts, an instructor's level of prior teaching experience does not necessarily translate into comfort levels. However, she cautions those who want to venture to do a truly good job to do adequate preparation and ensure engagement with students.

3.2 Implications of Teaching outside Area of Expertise

Surprisingly, although it was premised that those teaching outside their expertise would affect academic standards of these institutions, we found that some of the personalities considered to possess less experience and content knowledge in these institutions actually had the best evaluations by students. This might sound a "no-brainer", but consistently (i.e. from 2012 to 2014), these personalities considered to possess less experience, scored 85 -100% in all the classes. The same personalities were found to have exceeded institutions' expectations in terms of teaching load. The same personalities have not only met their targets but have been rewarded financially, through performance-related pay for going over and above their set targets.

This finding was also augmented by Bain (2004) especially with the advent of the internet which provides many sources of information. Bain found that the more one reads, the more information one acquires, although, he was quite sceptical about ability and competence in delivery. For example, research by Barifaijo et al. (2015) found that the aspect of workload computation had largely led many academic staff into teaching outside their areas of expertise/ specialisation. This clearly was deception driven by institutional requirements.

Explaining the issue of workload, one head of department gave the example of the modular system where if a lecturer missed his or her slot of teaching, the students would miss the topic. The issue was structural because of the nature of the programmes. The problem was increased by clients who demanded "value for money". He, however, that the institution had pronounced itself on those who taught outside their expertise because "we do not encourage deception".

Although, some empirical evidence showed that some academicians had performed better in disciplines they never studied in college than the subject specialists, Smith and Mistry (2009) argued that determination of whether one performed well depended on numerous factors. For example, although some of the facilitators perceived to be deceptive had the best evaluations by students, Huston (2009) cautions against relying on such to determine quality. Therefore, we are inclined to agree with Huston, especially after interacting with the students on their reasons for evaluating lecturers positively or negatively.

Students revealed that most did not bother to judge the quality and comprehensiveness of content from an analytical perspective. In one of the responses, a student remarked:

> "Quality and comprehensiveness? Who cares? Seriously that is not for me to judge! The institution should take care of that…I pay to be taught and I expect to find knowledgeable teachers at this institution…or else I would not be here...I am sure you do not require us to challenge our teachers…You expect us to have time to read after here…but, where is the time?...we believe that the notes from class suffice.."

On a question about decisions made to evaluate their teachers/facilitators, the students argued that the fact that the evaluations coincided with the end of module tests meant that students were overwhelmed by,

> "…anxiety, uncertainty, rage, panic and most times we do not think straight on that day...it all depends on what comes first.....if the teacher has been generous, humorous, kind and not taking us beyond the recommended time, students will always evaluate them highly...and those that have been harsh and mean with marks… students will definitely evaluate them poorly even if is dissatisfaction with the previous module -no matter their current performance, first impression matters."

This subjectivity in students' evaluation was also affirmed by Race (2007), who on the contrary, found that what we believe to be important for the students may actually not be what they value. He found that whereas many prepare lots of notes for the students, to some, at evaluation, their decisions are determined by different parameters altogether. Therefore, researchers (e.g., Brookfield, 2005; Svinicki, 1999) found that students value flexible study time and group discussions which give them a chance to assess their ability and potential. On the other hand, Demeroutiet al (2001) found that, surprisingly, most university students did not know their role and this was blamed on teacher-centred method of teaching. The researchers encouraged participatory teaching so the learning could make more sense. Indeed, Race (2007) found that participation was higher when supported by use of visual aid, role plays, demonstration, and video clips which make the structure of the knowledge clearer. We also found that students learn with greater understanding when they share ideas through conversation, debate, and negotiation.

However, content novices were found to use mostly the lecture method which was limiting in nature. Although we attributed this limitation to content novices, some content experts found it difficult to organize a class activity that can translate into learning. He asserted that being a content expert may actually not make you a better teacher. He explained how to be a better teacher one must possess both content and methodological expertise – which attributes are

rarely found in many teachers. In fact, we observed specific cases where lecturers really struggled, especially at the beginning of a module, where the facilitator lacked the ability to introduce the content appropriately, failed to define concepts, was unable to link the subject to any model or theories, no visible discipline-related frameworks and principles.

During our observation, most content novices did not have references and believed reading notes to students. However, we also found that it was not only the content novices who encountered this dilemma, but some of the content experts sometimes failed to involve the learners. However, it is observed that although both may experience this situation, those with expertise will always find a way to rectify this situation. Effective teaching may not be a matter of what one studied at college and may not to a large extent affect one's delivery methods, it is important that one gets more acquainted with the materials – at least to sound smarter than the students.

Some lecturers taught outside their areas of expertise because they had been asked to, especially when they were new and the head of department assigned them teaching slots. Some respondents explained how some opportunities come to those who can do something unusual or peculiar. For example, in an interview with one of the respondents the following was noted:

> "...a certain company was looking for a consultant in "process reengineering" and there was some good money…I had to accept, revise my curriculum vitae and I thereafter read about it….I must say, I understood better than when my professor taught me in first year at university…. I must say I excelled in doing the work and thereafter I started teaching it. I taught it perfectly well and was highly evaluated by my students…"

This means therefore that some courses are cornerstones and actually some are an amalgam of the most compelling ideas and practices from various fields (McKeachie & Marilla, 2006). On the other hand, new areas generate new areas of research that can actually expand the knowledge base in order to develop one's teaching competence, as another lecturer claimed:

> "…with all these materials around, how can I fail to teach any subject related to my area? Only mathematical subjects such as quantitative methods, financial management, etc…otherwise it is possible to teach anything…"

We found that most lecturers who taught outside their comfort zone were enjoying what they did. Therefore, taking the first step of a new subject-matter, teach from a non-expert standpoint, and become creative, select what to read and give assignments to students can sometimes be exciting (Gappa, Austin & Trice, 2007). They, however, caution that although this new experience was exciting, it can sometimes cause stress and anxiety, because, it is a burden to

prepare a new course in an area in which one has not significantly researched as observed by a respondent:

> "Actually, I now know that I can do better where I did not originally have expertise. However, it is real hard work because you need to first and foremost understand the conceptualization...I believe that's what is important…reading to understand so we can make students understand..."

Another respondent said:

> "I am just interested in the subject…I never got a chance to study it but when I began reading on my own, I picked interest and when I offered to teach it, I realized I was doing a good job…possibly better than on those courses where I had more experience.?

Visibly, one could read the motivation, zeal and so much enthusiasm which we interpreted to be intellectual curiosity. Huston (2009) found that although such people are genuine, they require mentoring and training to perfect their work. Research has found that actually, some content novices have brought excitement and motivation to students, because, many times, this interaction between what students know, the new information they encounter, and the activities they engage in as they learn, brings realistic expectations (Orrell, 2011).

3.3 Performance of People Teaching outside their Expertise

Contrary to the findings of Gappa, Austin and Trice (2007), Huston (2009) reiterate how occasionally non-experts do bring strengths to the classroom if they have the motivation and enthusiasm. We actually found that these lecturers expend extra time in preparation and, many a time, have realistic expectations of their students. Huston (2009) argues that their conscience will compel them to focus on concrete explanations of problems and phenomena. Hence, this awareness will guide content novices to plan and manage their time, course content, and in the end are respected by the students (Nilson, 2007).

We found a number of students at graduate level who were motivated to learn and can construct their own understanding through work experience, interactions with content and also reflection. This finding collaborates with, for example Orrell (2011), Race (2007) and Mulryan-Kyne (2010) who found that superior content expertise brings out the best from the learners and provides them opportunities to connect with the lecturer's content in a variety of meaningful ways, especially through the usage of cooperative learning, interactive lectures, engaging assignments, hands-on field experiences, and other active learning strategies, that are often used by experienced lecturers.

Students do not come to a lecturer's class as blank slates. They use what they already know about a topic to interpret new information.

When students cannot relate new material to what they already know, they tend to memorize—learning for the test—rather than developing real understanding of the content. Another superior method used by experienced or content experts, according to Svinicki (1999), is utilization of students' experiences, preconceptions, or misconceptions by using pre-tests, background knowledge probes, and written or oral activities designed to reveal students' thinking about the topic. This is usually done at the beginning of a new course or module to level the ground. The lack of this approach especially due to lack of experience or content expertise has let many students to become passive learners as they are not often given the opportunity to express themselves or share their own views. This was reflected in the way students were not able to tell between authentic and façade in the content imparted.

Through our participant-observer technique, students' evaluations, and yearly performance appraisals, there were inconsistencies on what exactly constitutes content expertise and whether this expertise translates into superior teaching. For example, Donovan, Bransford and Pelegrino (1999) argued that although content expertise of the subject matter was the most important factor in delivering a quality education, they doubted whether professors with doctorates and a long list of publications in their field would be the best teachers and if they were superior in preparing the best graduates.

Unless teachers know how to engage their students in the lessons they have prepared, expertise in the subject matter counts for very little. Therefore, Lang (2008) explains clearly how teachers or lecturers alike can never possess uniform abilities. He argues that how there will always be a few teachers who are naturals and indeed good at whatever they touch on and there are those who, regardless of the training acquired, may never change. Teachers grow in self-confidence as they experience success in delivery, just as they lose confidence in the face of repeated failure or if immediate feedback from the learners is not favourable (Brookfield, 1995).

Although education has always been awash with new ideas about learning and teaching, Huston (2009) believes that probably this was why everyone feels they can teach anything. Therefore, theories of learning, whether explicit or tacit, informed by study or intuition, well-considered or not, play a role in the choices lecturers make concerning their teaching (Donovan, Bransford & Pelegrino, 1999).Therefore, we note, that the major trend in understanding how students learn has been a movement away from the behaviourist model to a cognitive view of learning.

Similarly, Ganster and Rosen (2013) caution managers of higher education institutions to be more conscious about educational quality assurance through talent identification and attraction, in order to achieve the best results.

On the performance of those who teach outside their expertise, one official in charge of academic affairs had this to say:

> "This is deception indeed, because we have very clear recruitment procedures where all key stakeholders are involved. For example departments identify gaps and a specific content expert cannot be found in the institution, we encourage them to recommend experts from sister institutions and we hire them on part-time basis (associate consultants). We strongly discourage this quandary and even demand for teaching time tables, to be published, first, for transparency and second, for ironing out such malpractices of people teaching what they are not supposed to teach. Actually we have summoned those suspected to engage in such malpractices…..we have adequate staffing in terms of numbers and specialization. If this practice is still continuing, then we need to double our vigilance through module leaders, course managers, head of departments and deans.

Concerns about quality of delivery aside, research output, and service to community were found to have suffered the same fate. The most alarming situation was where the teaching function has actually overshadowed other mandates of higher education institutions. Bain (2004), for example, cautions institutions on research output. He advises institutions to find ways of balancing the three mandates of teaching/training, research and service to community/consultancy.

3.4 Strategies to Regulate Teaching outside Area of Expertise

We must say that although we went out with an assumption that the practice of teaching outside one's expertise was a form of deception, some did not perceive it that way. Actually, some institutions perceived those who confine themselves to what they studied as mediocre. However, citing the legal provisions, for example the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE), Kasozi (2006), believes that this was a timely and purposive strategy to uphold the country's long-standing high standards of education. He also argues that for purposes of accountability and quality, every individual must belong to some discipline and be a professional in what they specialized in.

However, both institutions investigated were found to have very clear guidelines in place in terms of who they engage on programmes and why. For example, one of the institutions had very clear guidelines regarding who teaches what. One of the strategies was that of rigorous attraction and procurement of the right talent, training them, and deploying them in the right places. The second strategy was pedagogical training that is always organized for the new staff. The third strategy was that of target setting by individuals

and identification individual gaps which the institution endeavours to close whenever opportunities and resources allow. The fourth strategy was that of tracer studies that are intended to strengthen quality in terms of skills development. The fifth strategy was the quality assurance unit's role in the collection of data, analysing it and disseminating it – regarding the quality of teaching, available and required resources and coordinating and following up of recommendations by students through their evaluations. The sixth strategy, and possibly the most central aspect for this discussion, is the requirement to publish teaching time-tables for the entire semester which must be accessed the officer responsible for programmes, the teaching and learning.

However, although institutions preach quality teaching and argue how it matters, not all actors in higher education consider it a priority, understand and recognize what constitutes quality teaching, or are willing and able to play a role in ensuring it takes place in their institutions. Consequently, while institutions play the key role in fostering quality teaching, national regulations rarely require or prompt academics to be trained in pedagogy or to upgrade their educational competences over their professional lifespan (IMHE, September 2012). This, we believe is a big loophole, given that many institutions, including major research universities, are challenged by the increasing diversity of students that has resulted from the increasing share of young people enrolling in higher education along with more mature students. At the same time, institutions are coming under greater public pressure to demonstrate that they are preparing their graduates for the labour market and to show what value students will get in return for the cost of their education – whether paid for by the student or the taxpayer. So, shouldn't we pay special attention on who teaches what, when and where?

4 Conclusions

There are three major reasons that influence academicians to teach outside their areas of expertise. These include the personal, philosophical and institutional. However, although both empirical evidence and literature have found no harm in one attempting something new, there are both positive and negative implications. The issue in question is rarely discussed because of the risks associated with it. The first possibility about those who teach outside their expertise is that individuals are either unaware of their actual expertise or are ignorant; and the second one is that of being dishonest. This is a tricky situation, especially when heads of institutions are not willing to openly discuss the matter, given that even students (who are the major key stakeholders) are a captive audience, which actually frightens them off.

Yet, some individuals have found teaching outside their expertise quite seductive, because most individuals find this to be the best opportunity to show off high levels of knowledge or competence. On the other hand, it is a crucial step in developing motivation to learn in those with enthusiasm and zeal. The personalities who have excelled in teaching outside their expertise more often have been driven by enthusiasm to show something that is beyond the students' reach, although not so far beyond it that they will despair. Interestingly, individuals who have succeeded have made the interaction extremely exciting and have made the learning environment memorable. This move, from 'knowing that you don't know' to 'knowing that you know' is what most learning and hence teaching is all about and what creates a sense of achievement.

Another possibility is that the person who knows that she/he knows may not know how she or he knows; or cannot express it. It should be noted that there are individuals who are afraid to express their expertise (even if they had it), for fear of inadequate exposition that might jeopardize their fragile knowledge, and if done, it might become hardened. Many even feel obliged to live up to their exposition and limit that insight and creativity which goes beyond words – which is quite unfortunate. Clearly therefore, we have to get people to realize what they do not know, if necessary. But fascinating though it is, the inarticulate expertise of not knowing that one knows is a dead end from the learning and teaching point of view. Hence, the only open position, with potential for development, is that of knowing what one knows. Much of what we know, we know that we know. Less obvious to most people, however, is that there are things we do not know that we do not know. Consequently, it can be very disastrous to proceed and deliver where we do not have expertise and yet we do not know that we do not know. Hence, problem acknowledgement is critical in this aspect.

Curiosity or deception aside, there have been drivers that have forced individuals into teaching what they never studied. Visibly, market-driven programmes and performance-based pay have exacerbated this practice. Although scholars acknowledge that teaching is not a matter of what one learnt in school or not to a large extent, it can lead to undesirable effects. Individuals have been found to teach effectively in areas they do not have expertise. This has been attributed to; intellectual curiosity, self-actualization, and a need for achievement.

To a large extent, whether teaching out of curiosity or deception, the practice has been driven by, structural factors, institutional-related factors and lack of differentiation within institutions.

5 Recommendations

Instead of higher education managers continuing to condemn those who teach outside their areas of expertise, they should instead encourage academicians to develop a critical stance in reading, thinking and methodological approach to exhibit more knowledge than the students. If this practice is to be curbed, institutions should address unrealistic demands of work-load requirements. If individuals teaching out of curiosity have to continue, they should be encouraged to go an extra mile in order to add value to their students' learning. Institutions should endeavour to train new teaching staff in pedagogical and andragogical methods to perfect their work. However, this attempt requires commitment, ethical behaviour, and continuous practice. The best approach is to look closely at teaching as facilitation and as coaching to better understand these two roles and why they are vital in teaching for understanding and transferring of knowledge, and how both content experts and novices can muddle the game if not well prepared. Those who teach outside their area of expertise need to search for more information, practice critical reading and thinking, determination, zeal and motivation. This seems to be what matters to turn one into an expert.

The training should be thought about seriously; and whether in small seminars or large lectures, students ought to be guided to actively process information and test their understanding rather than simply listen and take notes. Therefore, since facilitative teaching rests on the common belief that learners can develop understanding (even in large lecture courses) they should be asked to continually question and rethink their answers in the light of feedback in order to understand. Hence, content expertise, methodological emancipation, adequate preparations, continuous monitoring and evaluation, a positive attitude and academic grounding, combined together, will lead to superior facilitation.

Research should be prioritized or at least be balanced with the teaching so that this teaching or workload phenomenon does not deplete the essence of the mandates of higher education institutions.

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Integration of ICT in Teaching and Learning: A Review of Theories

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Abstract. The integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL) brings about powerful learning environments and helps students to deal with knowledge in active, self-directed and constructive ways. Thus, all avenues to foster it should be explored. One such avenue is to isolate the factors underpinning IITL. In deriving these factors, several theories can be considered. This paper reviews six of these theories, namely, Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), and the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework. The review is chronological. Though the paper may be of interest to researchers working on innovation adoption, it arose as part of a study on higher education.

Keywords: ICT; Pedagogy; Innovation adoption.

1 Introduction

Ghavifekr and Rosdy (2015) view ICT as a short hand for computers, software, networks, satellite links and related systems that allow people to access and share information and knowledge in a variety of forms. Hughes (2013) defines integration of technology in teaching and learning (IITL) as the use by teachers and/ or students of digital ICTs that support the constructivist teaching and learning process.

The significance of IITL is well captured by authors. For instance, Aktaruzzaman, Shamim and Clement (2011) assert that when used appropriately, different ICTs help in expanding access to education to the increasingly digital workplace through information distribution, learning management systems and managing of educational services and make them

affordable and available anytime and anywhere. For example, they argue that opportunities are now open to individuals and groups who were previously constrained from attending traditional universities to access higher education and other forms of adult learning through online modes of learning such as e-learning, blended learning among others.

Coleman, Gibson, Cotten, Howell-Moroney and Stringer (2016) contend that the appropriate use of ICT in teaching transforms the learning environment from teacher-centred to learner-centred. They stress that this shifting of emphasis from teaching to learning creates a more interactive and engaging learning environment for teachers and learners thus changing the role of the teacher from knowledge transmitter to that of a facilitator, knowledge navigator and a co-learner. Keengwe, Onchwari and Wachira (2008) assert that the application of multi-media technologies (i.e., those that combine text, graphics, video, animation and audio) in teaching and learning ensures a very productive, interesting, motivating, interactive and quality delivery of classroom instruction while addressing diverse learners' needs.

2 Purpose and Method

Given the importance of IITL, one goal of research on IITL is to identify its factors, which may in turn be manipulated to positively influence IITL. In deriving the factors of IITL, several theories can be considered. Of these theories, this paper reviews six, with a view to isolating gaps for future research. The six theories are the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), and the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework. The review is chronological. In order to achieve this objective, we sourced for the seminal article for a given theory, which we used to introduce the theory. Then we sought at least one recent literature (or indeed, theoretical) review and/ or meta-analysis on the theory to use it to give the trend of past researches on the theory and the gaps left for future studies.

3 Theories of IITL

3.1 Theory of Reasoned Action

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) developed the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) shown in Figure 1. According to Figure 1, the TRA model has actual behaviour

(AB) as its main variable. Ajzen and Fishbein defined AB as an individual's observable response in a given situation with respect to a given target. As per Figure 1, AB is postulated to be determined by behavioural intention (BI), which Ajzen and Fishbein defined as the cognitive representation of an individual's readiness to perform intended behaviour. TRA theorises that BI in turn, is jointly determined by the individual's attitude toward the behaviour (ATB) in question and the pertinent subjective norm (SN). According to Ajzen and Fishbein, ATB is the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question, while SN is the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour.

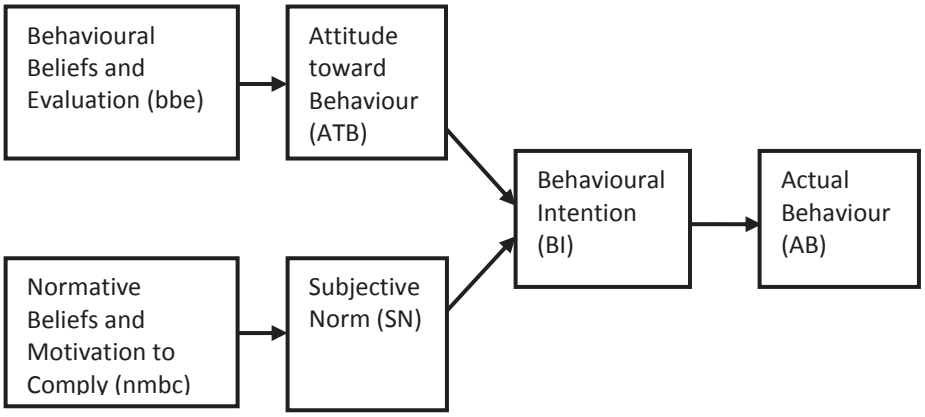

Figure 1: The Theory of Reasoned Action
Source: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), page 17, Figure 1.2

According to Figure 1, ATB is influenced by behavioural beliefs and evaluation (bbe). Behavioural beliefs (bb) are the individual subjective probability that performing the target behaviour will result in consequences, and evaluation (e) is a rating of the desirability of the outcome (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Ajzen and Fishbein asserted that individuals are rational decision makers who constantly calculate and evaluate the relevant behavioural beliefs (bb) in the process of determining their ATB. As per Figure 1, TRA theorises that SN is influenced by normative beliefs and motivation to comply (nbmc). Normative beliefs (nb) are the likelihood that important individuals or group approve or disapprove of performing a given behaviour, and motivation to comply (mc) is the extent to which the individual wants to comply with the wishes of the referent other (Ajzen, 1991).

Theoretical reviews on the TRA model such that of Otieno, Liyala, Odongo and Abeka (2016) are available. Otieno et al. carried out a theoretical review to compare the TRA model with other theories and/ or models. The other theories/

models included the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), the Technology Organisation Environment (TOE), the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT). However, although Otieno et al. claimed to have used the qualitative approach in their review they never specified the procedure in selecting the studies for review and how they went about the analysis.

Nevertheless in terms of findings, Otieno et al. revealed that most of the studies they reviewed on the TRA model had been on consumer adoption across disciplines and cases including dieting, using condoms, consuming engineered foods rather than in innovation technology. In addition, they also noted that while theories such as TAM, TOE and UTAUT had been employed over the years in understanding users' adoption behaviour in technology related studies, the TRA model had received less attention, a gap that needs to be addressed. Yet, according to them, social psychology based theories such as TRA, do have a better platform in studying adoption of new innovation technology.

Apart from the theoretical reviews (e.g. Otieno et al., 2016) on the TRA model, other researchers have conducted meta-analyses on the model. For example, Sheppard, Hartwick and Warshaw (1988) conducted a meta-analytic review on the effectiveness of the TRA model in research and to assess the degree to which research utilizing the TRA model had gone beyond the intended conditions of the model. Sheppard et al. used online searches to obtain empirical studies that had been published in the *Journal of Consumer Research*, the *Journal of Marketing*, the *Journal Advances in Consumer Research*, the *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* and the *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*.

They hence reported that their review had suggested that,

> more than half of the research to [that] date that ha[d] utilised the [TRA] model ha[d] investigated activities for which the model was not originally intended.... However, to [their] surprise, the model [had] performed extremely well in the prediction of... [such] activities.... Thus,... the... [TRA] model ha[d] strong predictive utility.... (p. 338).

In conclusion, they lauded the TRA model and called upon researchers to continue using it in their researches for purposes of refining it. In their own words, they observed that,

> In 1975, Fishbein and Ajzen placed a compelling and coherent structure on the field of attitudes, which was in disarray before their work. That accomplishment should mark the starting point for important empirical and theoretical work in the field, not its end. In particular, appropriate modification of the original... model should be investigated further (p. 340).

3.2 Technology Acceptance Model

The Technological Acceptance Model (TAM) in Figure 2, developed by Davis (1989), has actual system use (ASU) as the main variable. Davis defined ASU as an individual's observable usage of a particular system (e.g. technology). Figure 2 suggests that ASU is a direct function of behavioural intention to use (BIU) a technology, which Davis defined as the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not to perform some specific future behaviour. BIU is in turn, a function of attitude toward using (ATU) and perceived usefulness (PU).

ATU is an individual's positive or negative feeling about performing the target behaviour (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989), while PU is the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance (Davis, 1989). According to Figure 2, PU is influenced by perceived ease of use (PEU), which Davis defined as the degree to which a person believes that using a particular technology would be free from effort. Figure 2 further suggests that ATU is determined jointly by PU and PEU.

According to Figure 2, TAM theorises that in turn, each of PU and PEU is influenced by external variables (e.g. system characteristics, development process, and training). However, other explanatory variables notwithstanding, the proponents of TAM (e.g. Davis, 1989) posit that PU and PEU are the two fundamental determinants of ASU. They argue that if users find a technology useful (i.e. having PU) and easy to use (i.e. having PEU), then they develop a positive attitude toward using (ATU) this technology. All these will eventually lead to the behavioural intention to use (BIU) the technology and finally the actual use of the technology (ASU).

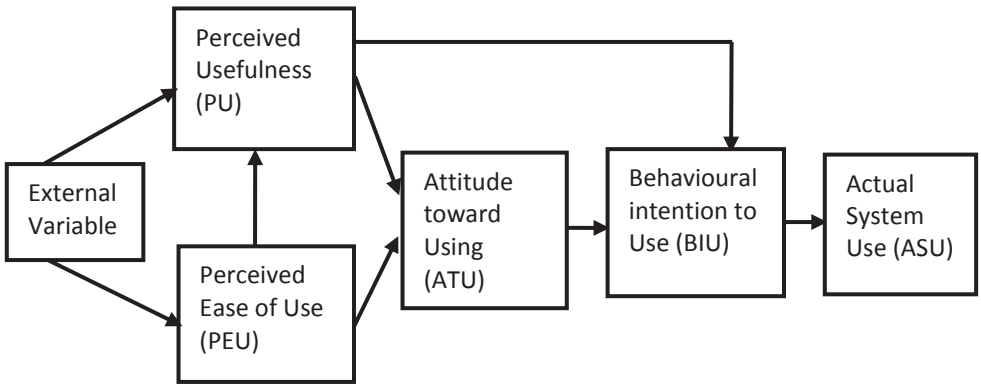

Figure 2: The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)
Source: Davis et al. (1989), page 985, Figure 2.

Several researchers have carried out literature reviews on the TAM model. For example, Chuttur's (2009) review provided a historical overview of the TAM in the information system (IS) literature from 1985 to 2007, by focusing on its evolution, applications, extensions, limitations and criticisms. However, he never revealed how he selected the papers for the review, and how he went about the analysis. In terms of findings however, Chuttur reported that the TAM model had indeed been very popular for explaining and predicting system use. However, most of the studies he reviewed had the weakness of only concentrating on self-reported data as opposed to observed measures, which was a gap for future studies.

Also, according to Chuttur (2009) most of the studies he reviewed had focused only on voluntary environments with little consideration for mandatory settings thus leaving a gap to be filled by future researchers on TAM by extending to mandatory settings. He also found out that several studies on the TAM had made use of students as participants, yet according to him, the results obtained from such studies could not be generalised to the real world because students may have peculiar motivations in performing a given behaviour (e.g. use of ICT) such as the need to obtain good grades and rewards among others. Furthermore, Chuttur established that most of the studies he reviewed had been conducted in the US, and UK and very few in other parts of the world particularly in Africa, hence a contextual gap that needed attention by future researchers on the TAM.

Apart from those who reviewed literature on the TAM, researchers have conducted meta-analytic reviews on the model. For example, King and He (2006) conducted a meta-analytic review of 88 published articles to examine to effectiveness and robustness of the TAM in research. Using online search and the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI), they obtained empirical papers on the model. In terms of findings, King and He established that the TAM had been widely used in information system (IS) studies.

According to King and He (2006), both perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEU) had been relevant measures that could be used in a variety of contexts. They also revealed that the correlation between PU and behavioural intention to use (BIU) different technologies had been stronger than that of PEU to BIU; and that both PU and PEU had jointly explained about 50% of the variance in BIU. However, they noted that while TAM correlations had been strong, they had had considerable variability suggesting that moderator variables if added could help to explain the effects.

3.3 Technology-Organisation-Environment Framework

Tornatzky and Fleischer (1990) developed the Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework shown in Figure 3. The TOE framework

(Figure 3) theorises that technological adoption decision making, the main variable, is influenced by three principal contexts namely; the technological, organizational and environmental.

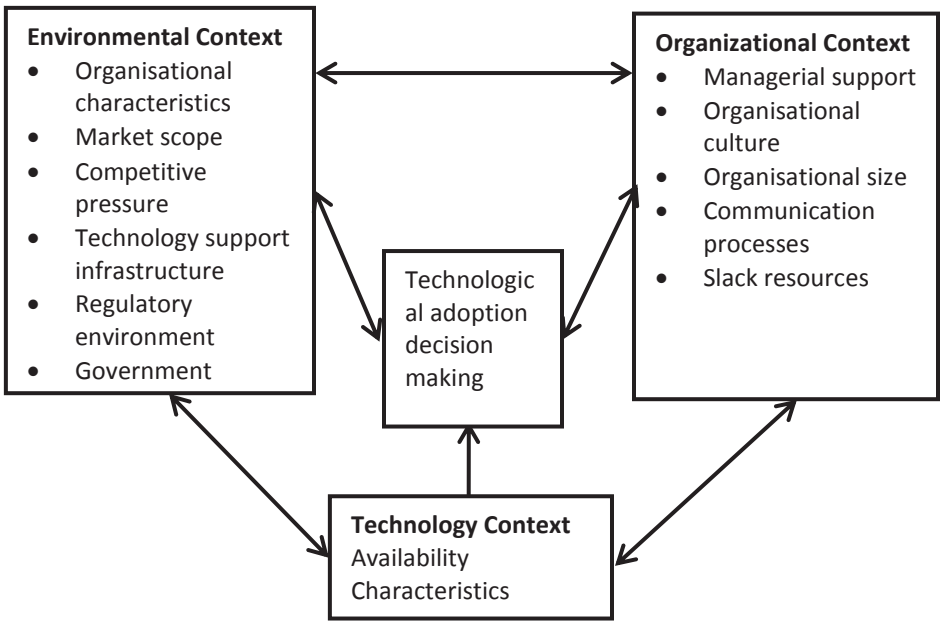

Figure 3: Technology-Organisation-Environment (TOE) framework
Source: Tornatzky & Fleischer (1990), page 32, Figure 3-1.

Tornatzky and Fleischer (1990) defined the technological context as the internal and external technologies that are relevant to the organisation and according to them, may include both equipment as well as processes. Tornatzky and Fleischer observed that adoption of an innovation depends on the pool of technologies inside and outside an organisation as well as the perceived characteristics (e.g. relative advantage, compatibility, complex, triability, and observability) of the innovation. The organizational context are the characteristics and resources of the organization such as managerial support, organisational culture and size, communication processes, and the amount of slack resources an organisation has (Tornatzky & Fleischer, 1990).

The environmental context as Figure 3 suggests, is the setting in which the organisation conducts its business. According to the TOE framework the environmental context includes the organisation itself, market scope, competitive pressure, technology support infrastructure and regulatory environment. Several researchers have reviewed literature on the TOE framework. For example, Baker (2012) reviewed studies that had used the TOE

framework, noting the type of innovation that was being adopted in each study. He also suggested directions for future research with the TOE framework. He summarised his review as follows:

> To this point the majority of theoretical development that has taken place related to the TOE framework has been limited to enumerating the different factors that are relevant in various adoption contexts. No new constructs have been added to the framework. Little theoretical synthesis has occurred. Scant critique has been offered. Thus, the TOE framework has evolved very little since its original development (p. 237).

As to why there has hardly been any development for the TOE framework, Baker (2012) suggested three reasons, of which we give two here. First, he contended, "the TOE framework has been described as a 'generic' theory" (p. 237), giving researchers "the freedom to vary the factors or measures for each new research context" (p. 237), making the TOE framework highly adaptable. "Thus, scholars have little need to adjust or refine the theory itself" (p. 237). Second, according to Baker, the TOE framework has seen relatively little evolution because it is aligned with other theories of innovation, particularly Rogers' Innovation Diffusion Theory (Rogers, 2003) - rather than offering a competing explanation to them. He ended by calling upon researchers, "to craft a refined version of the TOE framework that is at the same time parsimonious and broadly applicable" (p. 243).

3.4 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as shown in Figure 4, was developed by Ajzen (1991), and has actual behaviour (AB) as the main variable. Ajzen defined AB as an individual's observable response in a given situation with respect to a given target. According to Figure 4, TPB theorises that AB is predicted by both behavioural intention (BI) and perceived behavioural control (PBC). Ajzen defined BI as an indication of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour and PBC as the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour.

As per Figure 4, BI is in turn, determined by the attitude toward the behaviour (ATB) in question, the pertinent subjective norm (SN) and PBC. Note that ATB and SN are already defined in section 3 of this paper. According to Figure 4, TPB theorises that ATB is influenced by behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations (bboe). SN is influenced by normative beliefs and motivation to comply (nbmc). Note that bboe and nbmc are already defined in section 3 of this paper.

Further, according to Figure 4, TPB model posits that PBC is determined by control beliefs and perceived facilitation (cbpf). Ajzen (1991) defined control

beliefs (cb) as a perception of the availability of skills, resources and opportunities; and perceived facilitation (pf) as the individual's assessment of the importance of those resources to the achievement of outcomes. Ajzen (1991) observed that TPB (Figure 4) extended TRA (Figure 1) by incorporating PBC as a set of factors that affect BI and AB.

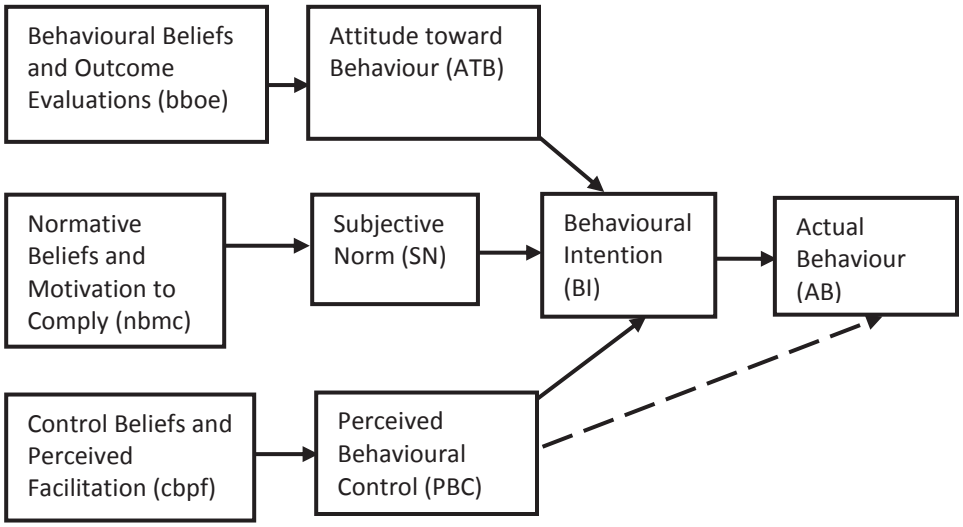

Figure 4: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)
Source: Ajzen (1991), page 182, Figure 1.

Researchers have conducted meta-analytic reviews on the TPB model. For instance, Notani's (1998) meta-analysis examined the role of perceived behavioural control (PBC) in predicting behavioural intention (BI) and actual behaviour (AB). Notani also assessed the robustness of the TPB model. Notani used a search of ABI Inform, Psychological Abstracts, Psychlit databases, and references in published articles, thus obtaining 36 articles. In terms of findings, Notani reported that the TPB model had "performed well, with perceived behavioural control [PBC] serving as an antecedent to both behavioural intention [BI] and [actual] behaviour [AB]" (p. 247). He also revealed that, PBC "is a stronger predictor of [actual] behaviour [AB] when it (a) is operationalised as a global (vs. belief-based) measure; (b) is conceptualised to reflect control over factors primarily internal (vs. external) to an individual, and (c) is used for nonstudent (vs. student) samples and familiar (vs. unfamiliar) behaviour" (p. 247).

3.5 Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

Venkatesh, Moris, Davis and Davis (2003) developed the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) shown in Figure 5. The UTAUT (Figure 5) has use behaviour (UB) as the main variable, which Venkatesh et al. defined as the degree to which a person accepts and uses a new technology. According to Figure 5, UB is a function of behavioural intention (BI) and facilitating conditions (FC). BI is a measure of the strength of one's intention to perform a specific behaviour (Davis et al., 1989), while FC is the degree to which an individual believes that organisational and technical infrastructure required for the support of the technology exists (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

BI is in turn, as illustrated in Figure 5, determined by performance expectancy (PE), effort expectancy (EE) and social influence (SI). Venkatesh et al. defined PE as the degree to which an individual believes that using the technology will help him or her to attain gains in job performance; EE as the degree of ease associated with the use of the technology; and SI as the degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe that he or she should use the technology.

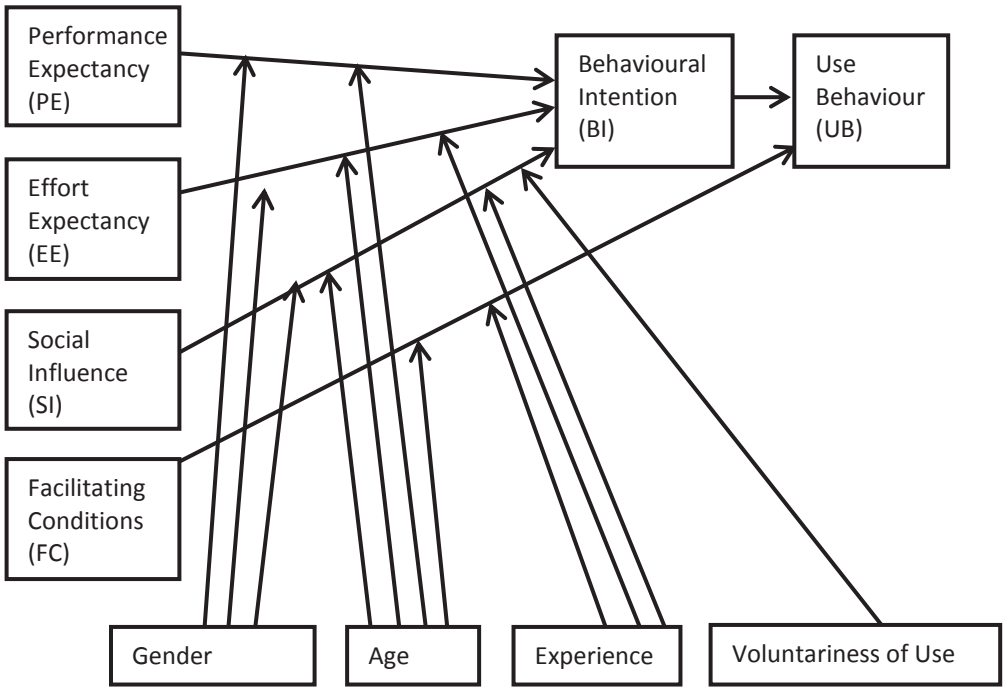

Figure 5: The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) Model
Source: Venkatesh et al. (2003), page 447, Figure 3.

According to Figure 5, the influence of PE on BI is moderated by gender and age while that of EE on BI is moderated by gender, age and experience of the individual. Experience is the expertise one has as a result of using a particular technology. The influence of SI on BI is moderated by gender, age, experience and voluntariness of use. Voluntariness of use is the degree to which an individual perceives the use of the technology as being based on free will (Venkatesh et al., 2003). As per Figure 5, the direct influence of FC on UB is moderated by age and experience of an individual user of the technology in question.

In developing the UTAUT, Venkatesh et al. based on eight technology acceptance theories or models, which included TRA, TAM and TPB which have already been reviewed in (sections 3 through 5 of) this paper. Several researchers have conducted meta-analyses on the UTAUT framework. For example, Dwivedi, Rana, Chen and Williams (2011) conducted a meta-analytic review of 43 empirical studies on the UTAUT framework that they got from the Web of Science database. Hence, Dwivedi et al. reported that PE had shown the strongest correlation with BI followed by SI, EE and FC throughout the studies they reviewed.

In addition, they revealed that only eight out of the 43 studies had studied the relationships between BI and use behaviour (UB) while the remaining 35 only examined how four UTAUT constructs (PE, EE, SI & FC) related to BI. Such findings suggest that most researches on UTAUT had not used the dependent variable (UB) as the model (Figure 5) requires. Instead they had used BI which is just a moderating variable in the UTAUT model. This is a glaring gap that warrants attention by future researchers. They identified another gap to the effect that most empirical studies they reviewed on the UTAUT model had been more of quantitative than qualitative and mixed approaches.

3.6 Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge Framework

Mishra and Koehler (2006) developed the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPACK) framework depicted in Figure 6.

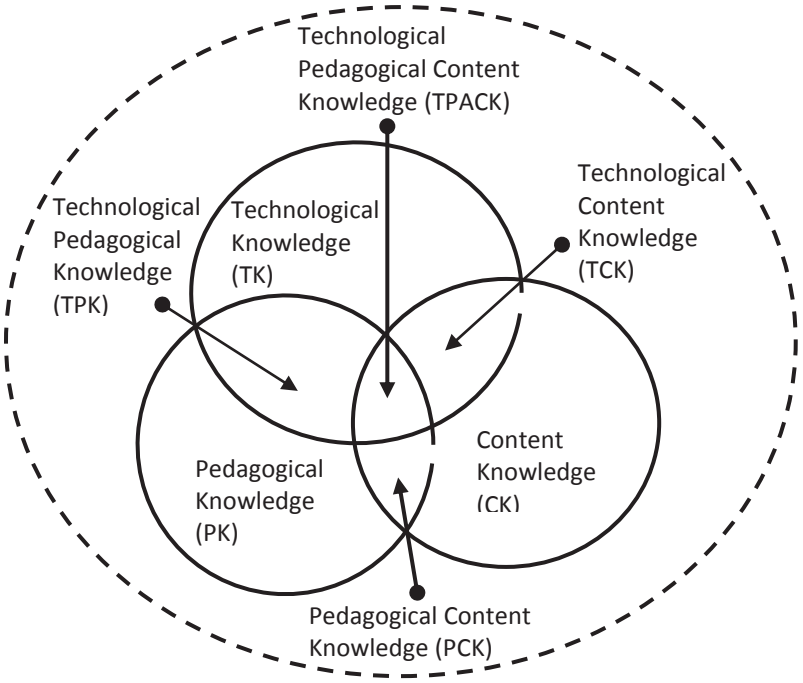

Figure 6: The TPACK framework
Source: Mishra & Koehler (2006), page 1025, Figure 4.

According to the TPACK framework (Figure 6), Mishra and Koehler posit that a teacher depends on three domains of knowledge for effective integration of ICT into teaching and learning (IITL). The domains are content knowledge (CK), pedagogical knowledge (PK) and technological knowledge (TK). Mishra and Kohler (2006) defined CK as knowledge about the actual subject matter that is to be learned or taught. Mishra and Koehler observed that a teacher must know and understand the subject that he/ she teaches, including knowledge of central facts, concepts, theories, and procedures if the teacher is to integrate technology in teaching.

Mishra and Koehler (2006) defined PK as the deep knowledge about the processes or methods of teaching and learning (e.g. values and aims, classroom management, lesson planning, and student evaluation). They argued that a teacher with deep PK is likely to integrate technology in his or her teaching considering how students can best learn in a given classroom context and nature of learners. Mishra and Kohler defined TK as knowledge about standard technologies, such as books, chalkboard, and more advanced technologies such as the Internet and digital video and how to operate those technologies. They asserted that a teacher with TK has good knowledge of operating system and

computer hardware, the ability to use standard sets of software tools (e.g. word processors, spreadsheets, browsers, e-mail) and how to install and remove peripheral devices, install and remove programmes, create and archive documents among others.

Mishra and Kohler (2006) as Figure 6 suggests, observed that the interaction of these three knowledge domains; CK, PK and TK gives rise to three paired knowledge domains namely pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), technological content knowledge (TCK) and technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK). Mishra and Kohler defined PCK as the knowledge of pedagogy that is applicable to the teaching of specific content such as knowing what teaching approaches fit content, and likewise, knowing how elements of the content can be arranged for better teaching. Mishra and Koehler defined TCK as the knowledge about the manner in which technology and content are reciprocally related. They further asserted that a teacher needs to know not just the subject matter he/ she teaches but also the manner in which the subject matter can be changed by the application of technology.

Mishra and Kohler (2006) defined TPK as 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 technology. According to Figure 6, TPACK is the intersection of all the three bodies of knowledge (CK, PK & TK). Mishra and Kohler argued that the development of TPACK by teachers is central for effective teaching with technology because understanding TPACK is above and beyond understanding technology, content, or pedagogy in isolation, but rather how these forms of knowledge interact with each other.

Researchers have systematically reviewed literature on the TPACK framework. For example, Wu (2013) reviewed 24 empirical studies on the framework to help educators and researchers in understanding the "current" TPACK research progress and choosing appropriate topics for further investigation. Having sourced the papers published between 2002 and 2011 from the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) database, Wu reported that TPACK research had received increased attention from researchers and educators during the decade before the study. In addition, he found out that only two out of 24 TPACK studies he reviewed had been published between 2002 and 2006 while 22 had been published between 2007 and 2011.

Wu finally raised gaps in the studies he had reviewed to the effect that pre-service teachers had dominated TPACK researches. For example, while 54.2 % of the studies had involved pre-service teachers, only 20.8% had involved in-service teachers and 8% university faculty, suggesting further research could focus on in-serve teachers' TPACK. He further indicated that the most frequently research methods used in the TPACK studies published between 2002 and 2011 had been quantitative (45.8%) followed by the qualitative

(41.7%) and the mixed method ones (12.5%) although such percentages might have resulted from the to small sample of 24 papers he had reviewed. However, Wu noted that between 2002 and 2006 only qualitative research methods had been used in the TPACK studies he had reviewed.

4 Conclusion

When used appropriately, ICTs help in expanding access to education through faster information distribution and availability anytime and anywhere (Aktaruzzaman et al., 2011). Given the importance of the integration of ICT in teaching and learning (IITL), one goal of research thereof is to identify its factors, which may in turn be manipulated to positively influence IITL. While in deriving the factors of IITL, several theories can be considered, this paper has reviewed six of them, and isolated gaps for future research. It is our hope that this review will hence trigger more researchers in the area of IITL in particular, and the use of innovations in general.

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Allocation Pattern in the Financing of Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria

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Abstract. This study investigated the allocation pattern in the financing of colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria with special regard to the adequacy of the funding. The sample consisted of eight out of the twelve colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in the country. A research instrument titled "Financial Allocation Questionnaire" was used to collect data. The findings showed that there is general under-funding of these colleges within the period considered. Even in the face of inflation and staff and students expansion, there was little or no increase in the colleges' annual capital grants and monthly subventions. Grounded on these findings, recommendations towards the better funding of the colleges are made.

Keywords: Financial management; Funding; Islamic Studies.

1 Introduction

The fourth National Development Plan (1981-1985) stated that: ''education has continued to play a crucial role in our economic development and social transformation process. Successive Governments, in recognition of this role, have accorded it a high priority in the structure of resource allocation'' (FRN, 2004).

To implement this policy, the federal and state governments are annually making some remarkable increase in the proportion of overall budget allocated to education with a view to increasing the possibilities of mobilizing enough resources for educational institutions. In view of this, laudable policies are drawn up in establishing educational institutions, such as Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in various northern states of the Nigeria for the training of required middle level manpower in Islamic Legal Education in particular and

for social, economic and political development in general. Some of these institutions are College of Arabic and Islamic Legal Studies, Ilorin established in 1992, Aminu Kano College of Legal and Islamic Studies, Kano, established in 1974, A.D. Rufai College of Legal and Islamic studies , Missau, Bauchi state established, 1975, Justice Fati Abubakar College of Arts and Legal and Islamic Studies, Minna, Niger state established in 1990 among others.

The burden of financing the colleges rests on the proprietors, solely the state governments. But the Government of the concerned states have limited resources to cater for the institutions' needs. Generally, the resources available to the government in Nigeria are dwindling (Abdulkareem, 1999). As a result of this situation, the financial allocations to the college have continued to be inadequate. For Instance, In Kwara State College of Arabic and Islamic Legal Studies, Ilorin, the percentage of state financial allocations were 43.45% in 2010, 62.85% in 2011, 63.74% in 2012, 74.01% in 2013 and 63.59% in 2014. These figures revealed an annual increase in the percentage of allocation from the state, except for year 2013. Despite the increase, the state government did not meet up the required estimates of the institution between 2010 and 2014. This situation was the same in most of the colleges. Hence, the institutions are compelled to source for extra funds for their needs.

In sourcing for funds, the colleges resorted to enrolling many students and even degree programmes which are beyond their primary assignments of producing middle level manpower for the country in Arabic and Islamic Legal Studies. The choice of these alternatives was intended to supplement the inadequate monthly subventions from the governments. The increase in enrolments and the running of degree programmes meant that resources (money, men and materials) will have to be employed for use. It is based on this background that this research work was carried out to bring to the limelight the allocation pattern of financing in the colleges.

1.1 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study were:

1. To determine the estimates and actual amount of recurrent expenditure in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014.
2. To determine the estimates and actual amount of capital expenditure in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014.
3. To determine the cost per student in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014
4. To determine the utilization pattern of fund allocated to Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014
5. To determine how much was the internally generated revenue by Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014.

1.2 Related Literature

Introduction of western education in Nigeria dates back to 1842 when the Wesleyan Methodist Society opened a Christian Missionary Station in Badagry near Lagos. The sources of fund then were contributions from the native believers, and donations from organizations abroad. Nwankwo (1981) revealed that the missionaries brought education and dominated its funding and control up till 1970 when the state Governments took over the funding of education. Onabamiro (1982) observed that government funding for formal education was first made in 1887 when the government in Lagos gave a grant of 200 pounds to each of the three Christian Societies.

However, out of the hundred and fifty schools in the southern Nigeria in 1911 that had a link with government financial benefit, ninety one were funded by the missionaries while the remaining fifty-nine enjoyed government subvention fully. During this period, there were 3,984 pupils in the government partially funded schools; according to the report of the director of education of 5th July 1913. With this initial government contribution to the missionary education, the colonial government felt that ‘’he who played the piper must dictate the tune’’. As a result, by 1882, the first educational ordinance was passed regularizing the school system and laying down conditions for grant-in-aid.

The 1882 ordinance was followed by the 1887 education ordinance and later the 1916 education ordinance all with gradual improvement in the financial involvement of the government in education vis-à-vis the missionary efforts. The education ordinance of 1926 was the result of the efforts of the Phelps Stokes’ report and 1925 memorandum. The ordinance aimed at checking the proliferation of poor quality schools by improving government financial aids to education. Although, the period between 1926 and 1929 was one of the relative financial prosperity. Omosidi (2007) citing Adaralegbe opined that ‘’ the 1925 education code regulations in terms of grant-in-aid were never fully effective because of the great economic depression which began in Nigeria in 1930”.

There was a rapid increase in education budget from 1955. This increase was necessitated by the introduction of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) project by some regional governments and the proliferation and expansion of facilities in public schools. According to Ojo (1983), allocations to education became the simplest largest item in the budgets of the former regional government between 1955 and 1966. Furthermore, Ojo (1983) summarized the development in the funding of education from the mid-fifties and the mid-sixties as follows;

From the mid-fifties to the mid-sixties, the Nigeria government aggregate expenditure on education increase at a faster rate than Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and over all government expenditure. The annual compound growth

rates of expenditure on education during the 1960-66, for example, averaged about 15 percent. And from 1955 to 1963, recurrent expenditure on education increase at an annual growth rate of 15.5 percent while the rate of increase in overall expenditure was 10.5 percent (pp.22-23).

There was a gradual development of education finance in Nigeria until 1970 when the government took over responsibility of all schools from the missionaries both in funding and control. As a result of this, the National Policy on Education (NPE) was published in 1981, revised in 1985 and also revised 2004. The policy spelt out in clear terms the stand of the Nigeria government on education financing. NPE (2004) stated that:

Education in Nigeria is no more a private enterprise, but the huge government venture that has witnessed a progressive evolution of government's complete and dynamic intervention and active participation. The Federal Government of Nigeria has adopted education as an instrument par excellence for effecting National Development. It is only natural then that government should clarify the philosophy and objectives that underline its current massive investment in education and spell out in clear unequivocal terms the policies that guide government educational efforts (p.5)

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the investigator in this collection and analysis of data.

1. What are the estimates and actual amount of recurrent expenditure in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014?
2. What are the estimates and actual amount of capital expenditure in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014?
3. What is the cost per student in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014?
4. What is the utilization pattern of fund allocation to Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014?
5. How much was the internally generated revenue by Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014?

2 Methodology

This is a longitudinal study spanning a period of five years from 2009/2010 to 2013/2014. The five years period was selected because it was felt that the time span would give a clearer, wider and more reliable overview of the situation. The population for the study consisted of all the twelve Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Northern Nigeria. These comprises of three zones (that is,

North Central, North East, and North West). However, eight colleges were purposively selected for the study. These were colleges of legal and Islamic studies, Ilorin, Kano, Minna, Bauchi, Jigawa, Yola, Kebbi and Maiduguri. They have also been in existence for more than ten years, therefore suitable for a longitudinal study such as this. Hence their selection as the population sample.

The collection of data was done through the use of a questionnaire titled Financial Allocation Questionnaire (FAQ), which is consisted of information on estimates generated revenue and donations from international agencies. The questionnaire was validated through face and content validities. A test-retest reliability co-efficient of 0.76 was obtained. The data collected were analysed descriptively.

3 Findings and Discussion

3.1 Estimates and Actual Amount of Recurrent Expenditure

The findings on the estimates and actual amount of recurrent expenditure in the Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies (2010 to 2014) are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Estimated and Actual Recurrent Expenditure (2010 to 2014)

	2010			2011			2012			2013			2014			Total		
	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c
CAILS, Ilorin	20	17.9	89.5	60.91	52.39	86.01	72.9	60.68	83.24	77.6	63.57	81.92	80.97	63.57	78.51	312.38	258.11	82.63
SILS, Kano	31.65	29.44	93.02	80.6	71.51	88.72	82.75	78.28	94.6	83.3	78.78	94.57	84.7	78.78	93.01	363	336.79	92.78
CAILS, Missau	19.88	16.69	83.95	59.27	46.79	78.94	62.74	48.97	78.05	67.47	59.69	88.47	75.69	59.69	78.86	285.05	231.83	81.33
CILS, Minna	22.69	21.69	95.59	66.4	62.69	94.41	67.65	64.95	96.01	68.78	65.96	95.9	70.96	65.96	92.95	296.48	281.25	94.86
CILS, Ringim	10.96	8.93	81.48	35.69	33.7	94.42	38.12	37.68	98.85	40	39.18	97.95	42.78	39.18	91.58	167.55	158.67	94.7
CILS, Yola	11.7	11.69	99.91	34.35	32.23	93.83	41.69	39.91	95.73	47.97	48.47	101.04	52.94	48.47	91.56	188.65	180.77	95.82
CAILS, Yauri	18.44	17.93	97.23	54.92	52.89	96.3	55.13	53.91	97.79	56.22	54.68	97.26	58.26	54.68	93.86	242.97	234.09	96.35
CILS, Maiduguri	28.21	26.46	93.8	98.37	95.67	97.26	101.37	96.26	94.96	104.17	96.2	92.35	107.32	96.2	89.64	439.44	410.79	93.48
Total	163.53	150.73	92.17	490.51	447.87	91.31	522.35	480.64	92.01	545.51	506.53	92.85	573.62	506.53	88.3	2295.52	2092.3	91.15

Key: **a.** College Estimate; **b**. Amount allocated; **c**. Percentage amount allocated

Source: Bursary Department of each institution.

Table 1 shows the financial request of each of the institutions and government allocation on recurrent expenditure in the last five years (2010-2014). Also, from the table, the total estimated recurrent expenditure in the colleges under this study between 2010 and 2014 was 2.3 billion compared to the governments approved allocation on recurrent expenditure of N2.1 billion in the same period.

This shows that each state government under this study was able to meet 90.58% each of the institution's request. It was discovered that all the institutions under this study were under funded by 9.42% when all the sources are considered. Despite that the various state governments in this study met 90.58% of the recurrent expenditure requested, there was no institution however that had all her financial request met. This position showed that recurrent expenditure was the major priority of most of the state governments under this study. This finding confirmed the view of Lawal (1989) that Ogun State government contributed only 74% of the average revenue required by secondary schools in Ogun state between 1981 and 1986.

3.2 Estimates and Actual Amount of Capital Expenditure

The findings on the estimates and actual amount of capital expenditure in the Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies (2010 to 2014) are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Estimated and Actual Capital Expenditure (2010 to 2014)

	2010			2011			2012			2013			2014			Total		
	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c	a	b	c
CAILS, Ilorin	22.09	35	1.58	22.59	.09	.4	28.58	4	13.99	26.23	15	57.19	29.69	6.8	22.9	129.17	26.24	20.31
SILS, Kano	15.89	-	-	17.59	-	-	26.12	19.35	74.08	18.2	5.88	32.31	35.48	21.69	61.13	113.28	46.84	41.35
CAILS, Missau	15.69	-	-	17.13	-	-	19.01	-	-	1.96	-	-	19.99	6.76	33.82	91.42	6.76	7.39
CILS, Minna	28.64	25	87.29	20.61	17	82.48	25.67	-	-	30.15	-	-	75.26	55	73.08	180.32	97	53.79
CILS, Ringim	19.98	1.50	7.51	16.75	2	11.94	17.4	-	-	20.71	-	-	22.82	15.78	69.15	97.65	17.8	18.23
CILS, Yola	11.7	11.69	99.91	34.35	32.23	93.83	41.69	39.91	95.73	47.97	48.47	101.04	52.94	48.47	91.56	188.65	180.77	95.82
CAILS, Yauri	18.69	2.75	14.71	20.12	-	-	22.58	-	-	23.3	11.75	50.43	25.66	-	-	110.35	14.5	13.14
CILS, Maiduguri	17.95	2.7	15.04	19.5	1.5	7.69	21.54	3.7	17.18	22.44	2	8.91	24.5	7	28.57	105.93	16.9	15.95
Total	154.7	36.3	23.46	147.6	29.59	20.03	178.5	30.55	17.11	180.1	34.63	19.22	257	113	43.97	917.8	242.5	26.43

Key: **a.** College Estimate; **b**. Amount allocated; **c**. Percentage amount allocated

Source: Bursary Department of each institution

Table 2 revealed the financial request of the institutions and government subventions on capital expenditure in the last five years (2010-2014). On the average, the total amount estimated on capital expenditure in the colleges between 2010 and 2014 was 917.8 million compared to the government subventions of 242.3 million on capital expenditure between 2010 and 2014. This amount shows that each of the state government in this study was able to meet only 26.43% of the requests of the institutions. This indicated that much attention was not given to capital expenditure compared to recurrent expenditure. It shows that capital projects in most of the colleges were either abandoned or new ones were not executed.

The implication of this was that the institutions were expected to generate fund internally to complement the government efforts. Also complementing each state government efforts was the Federal Government Allocation through the Education Trust Fund (ETF). However, the requests on capital expenditure in each of the colleges under this study between 2010 and 2014 were not met. All the colleges were under funded by 74.57% meaning that only 26.43% of the financial needs were met on capital expenditure through Federal Government allocation (ETF), and internally generated fund. This position was affirmed by Ajayi (1998) who studied the effective financing of private secondary schools in Ekiti state. This study revealed that only 1.1% of the fund allocated was spent on capital project.

3.3 Unit Costs

The findings on the costs per student in the Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014 are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Unit Cost per student (2010 and 2014)

	Expenditures	Government recurrent expenditure	Government capital expenditure	Students enrolment	Unit cost per college	Unit cost per student
CAILS, Ilorin	282,664,823	256,424,823	26,240,000	5,166	32,619.98	6,524
SILS, Kano	383,151,278	336,309,778	46,481,500	10,236	22,093	4,418
CAILS, Missau	232,582,104	225,821,104	6,761,000	3,951	27,229	5,445
CILS, Minna	377,833,720	280,833,720	97,000,000	5,746	67,670	13,534
CILS, Ringim	176,267,691	158,470,131	17,797,560	7,265	25,226	5,045
CILS, Yola	187,491,649	170,997,649	1,650,000	4,666	41,582	8,316
CAILS, Yauri	237,891,532	233,391,532	14,500,000	4,019	36,549	7,309
CILS, Maiduguri	458,810,731	411,910,731	16,900,000	10,492	19,139	3,827
Total	2,231,699,528	2,074,159,468	242,540,060	51,141	272,109	54,422

Source: Bursary Department of each institution

Table 3 shows the total expenditure, student enrolment, unit cost per college and cost per student in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in five years (2009/2010 to 2013/2014). The total expenditure from 2009/2010 to 2013/2014 was divided by the total number of students in the same period to obtain the unit cost per college. This figure was later divided by the number of years to obtain unit cost per student in each institution.

On the average N 6,802.76 was spent on every student in Colleges of Legal and Islamic studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014. This implied that the unit cost in most of the college was high. Education is a social service in any nation; therefore every citizen in a country must have free access to education. Longe (1981) discovered that the average unit cost per student per year varies between N159.36 and N236.28 in rural schools and between N120.00 and N378.71 in urban areas.

3.4 Pattern of Utilising Funds Allocated

Table 4 shows the pattern of utilising the funds allocated to the colleges during the period studied.

Table 4: Utilization Pattern of Funds Allocated to the Colleges (2010 to 2014)

Institution	Salaries & allowances		Staff training		Staff seminars/ conferences		Publications		Supervision/ attachment allowances		Utilities		Capital expenditure		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
CAILS, Ilorin	214.62	75.93	12.54	4.44	9.4	3.33	4.02	1.42	8.36	2.96	7.47	2.64	26.24	9.28356625	282.65	100
SILS, Kano	308.06	80.40	14.13	3.69	3.53	0.92	1.71	0.45	6.36	1.66	2.53	0.66	46.84	12.2246581	383.16	100
CAILS, Missau	194.21	83.50	10.54	4.53	5.81	2.50	3.45	1.48	5.41	2.33	6.41	2.76	6.76	2.90640182	232.59	100
CILS, Minna	261.48	69.20	6.97	1.84	4.85	1.28	2.85	0.75	3.68	0.97	1.03	0.27	97	25.6708834	377.86	100
CILS, Ringim	148.23	84.09	3.65	2.07	1.53	0.87	1.35	0.77	2.78	1.58	0.92	0.52	17.81	10.103818	176.27	100
CILS, Yola	164.47	87.72	1.41	0.75	1.88	1.00	1.76	0.94	1.15	0.61	0.32	0.17	16.5	8.80046936	187.49	100
CAILS, Yauri	192.79	81.05	14.84	6.24	4.63	1.95	2.95	1.24	7.29	3.06	0.88	0.37	14.5	6.09551034	237.88	100
CILS, Maiduguri	406.56	88.61	18.03	3.93	6.43	1.40	2.44	0.53	7.26	1.58	1.2	0.26	16.9	3.68336167	458.82	100

Source: Bursary Department of each institution

Table 4 shows the utilization pattern of fund allocated to Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria in the period between 2010 and 2014. The total financial allocation for all the selected colleges in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014 was N2.3 billion. Salaries and allowances consumed N1.9 billion representing 81.42%. This remaining 18.58 was not adequate for maintenance or construction of new capital project in the colleges. No wonder in most of the colleges both academic and non-academic staff personally paid for their higher degree programmes with little or no assistance from the colleges.

This shows that each colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria spent an average of over 80% of her total financial allocation on staff salaries and allowances between 2010 and 2014. This position revealed that all the institutions were under funded by 20% when all sources are considered. This was confirmed by the study of Ipaye (2002) which revealed that teachers' tertiary institutions were funded by less than 20% of what could have met their needs. Polytechnic and universities were funded less than 35% and 65% respectively. Similarly, Afolabi (2004) also revealed that tertiary institutions in Kwara State were funded by 63%. Therefore, there was a great variation between the amount needed to run the colleges effectively and what was disbursed to them between 2010 and 2014.

3.5 Internally Generated Revenue

Table 5 shows the revenue the colleges generated between 2010 and 2014.

Table 5: Internally Generated Revenue (2010 to 2014)

Institution	Students fees		Sports		Examination fees		Admission forms		Agricultural products		Rent from college property		Others		Total	
	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%	Amount	%
CAILS, Ilorin	9,437,700	71	1,473,685	11	1,019,183	8	1,398,623	10	-		10,000	0.07	-		13,375,191	100
SILS, Kano	12,697,432	41	6,391,241	21	2,961,231	10	4,939,523	16	-		-		3,783,297	12	31,042,718	100
CAILS, Missau	7,780,230	47	2,861,931	17	1,861,931	11	2,539,200	15	1,500,000	9	-		-		16,493,061	100
CILS, Minna	6,196,924	64	1,610,222	17	1,012,500	10	882,000	9	-		-		-		9,701,646	100
CILS, Ringim	10,816,000	41	3,864,000	15	2,220,000	8	1,984,000	8	2,700,000	10.2	-		4,750,000	18	26,334,000	100
CILS, Yola	5,000,000	57	1,782,000	20	986,000	11	987,400	11	-		-		-		8,755,400	100
CAILS, Yauri	6,296,984	53	2,482,000	21	2,681,246	22	480,000	4	-		-		-		11,940,230	100
CILS, Maiduguri	14,980,000	60	1,094,000	4	2,500,000	10	3,486,963	14	2,864,861	11.4	-		-		24,925,644	100
Total	73,205,270	51	21,559,079	15	15,242,091	11	16,697,709	12	7,064,861	4.9	10,000	0.01	8,533,297	5.9	142,312,307	100

Source: Bursary Department of each institution

Table 5 shows the revenue generated internally in Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014. On the whole, the total internally generated revenue in Colleges of Legal and Islamic studies in Nigeria between 2010 and 2014 stood at N142.6m. From this, students' tuition fees alone amounted to N73.5m. This implies that students' tuition fees formed 51.56% of the revenue generated during the study period. The implication of this was that burden was placed on students in payment of tuition fees. This trend has resulted in over-enrolment of many students and commencement of degree programmes which are beyond the colleges' capacity especially with little or inadequate financial allocation to cater for the over-population. This result confirmed to the finding of Afolabi (2004) which revealed that the major source of fund in Kwara state owned tertiary institutions is tuition fees.

4 Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that there is a general under-funding of the Colleges of Legal and Islamic Studies in Nigeria under the period considered. Even in the face of inflation in the country and the general increase in the number of staff and students in these colleges, there was little or no increase in the annual capital expenditures and monthly subventions. The colleges under this study would seem to be grossly under-financed when compared to other institutions in the country. On the basis of these findings, the following suggestions are made.

1. Improvement on the pattern of financial resources to these colleges is essential to enhance adequate funds and improve the existing status of financing the institutions.
2. There must be in-depth study of present allocation system to these institutions to cater for existing needs and demands
3. The management of these institutions should look at the possibility of working relationship with the proprietors of Islamiyyah schools to serve as feeder schools to colleges. This in turn may boost the IGR of these institutions.
4. There is the need to reduce per unit cost of student by increasing students' enrolment and ensuring that the quality of teaching is not lowered. This measure can also be achieved through the introduction of new programmes in the colleges.
5. Finally, further investigations should be carried out on the modalities for financing these colleges at state and national level so as to assist educational planners and authorities of these institutions in managing their resources effectively.

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Gaps in the Implementation of Uganda's Students' Loan Scheme

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Abstract. This study was conducted to examine the performance of the student loan scheme in Uganda. Making reference to related literature, views of selected stakeholders, and the performance of government's earlier lending programmes, the study identifies gaps in the performance of the scheme. These are in the areas of application procedures; disbursement; and structures for recovery. To enhance the reach of the loan scheme, it is recommended that government decentralises some of its operations to district level. It is recommended that the loan application forms be stationed at Advanced Level Secondary Schools to ease access. It is also recommended that the Higher Education Students Financing Board (HESFB) sensitises the general public about the law .governing the university education loan scheme.

Keywords: Student loan schemes; Funding; Higher education reform.

1 Introduction

Loan schemes for Higher Education students now exist in many developed and developing countries. Examples of student loan programmes which are financed from public funds or backed by government guarantees, are found in Japan, Scandinavian countries and the U.S.A., where the idea of students borrowing from government funds to finance Higher Education dates from the 1940s and 1950s (Woodhall, 2004). According to World Bank (2010) and Nyahende (2013), the first developing country to establish a student loan programme was Colombia in 1953, and it was later followed by many other student loan programmes in the Asian, Pacific and Caribbean region. A study of students' loan programmes found official loan programmes that are run by government agencies or agencies backed by government guarantees in more than thirty countries (World Bank, 2010). Loan schemes are also being

operated in African countries such as Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania South Africa, Ghana and Rwanda (Shen & Ziderman, 2008). According to Johnstone (2004a) the population explosion, the higher cost of university education and the general poverty of the population in most African countries compelled some African countries to establish loan schemes for higher education students.

In Uganda, the government established a loan scheme for university and tertiary students in 2014. By establishing the loan scheme the government wanted to ensure equitable access of Ugandans to higher education, which majority of the qualifying post-secondary school students cannot afford; ensure regional balance for disadvantaged areas; and support programmes which are critical for social, economic and technological development of the country (HESFB, 2014).

2 Related Literature

The key strategy to increase access to higher education in many countries has been to implement a student loans scheme as a means of sharing the costs involved in the expansion of higher education (Hong & Chae, 2011). In this sense, they argue, student loans transfer higher education costs from a significant reliance on governments and taxpayers to parents and students, based on the rationale that greater equity in access to higher education is achieved through the user-pay system. Barr (2002), agree that when students and parents assume the costs of higher education through tuition fees, the government can spend the excess funding resulting from this shift in cost burden on financial aid to needy students. In this way, student loans have the potential to reform financial efficiency and accessibility of higher education. Hong and Chae (2011) contend that the phrase "aid to needy students" appears to be a more plausible and acceptable basis for student loans than the potentially discriminatory pronouncements by some Education Ministry officials who seem to be rooting for students doing science courses.

The World Bank (2010) gives clear clues on why South Korea, which was at a comparable level of economic development with Uganda a mere five or so decades ago, has practically reached for the sky while Uganda remains in a state of backwardness. In this case Ishengoma (2004) and Nyahende (2013) comment that in several instances, good policy has proved easier formulated than implemented in African countries. Field (2009), points to the growing body of evidence that the borrowers who struggle the most with student loan debt aren't necessarily those with the largest balances. Instead, borrowers who don't complete their degrees often find it challenging to repay their loans -even

if they're relatively small - likely because they didn't earn the credential that would give them an earnings boost in the labour market.

Johnstone (2004b) contends that at the core of the student loan concept is the belief that students who will benefit so much from the privilege of higher education can reasonably be expected to make a modest contribution toward its considerable costs. And student loans make a contribution toward equity by insulating this contribution from both the affluence and the attitudes of their parents. Ziderman (2004) and Woodhall (2002) agree that government-sponsored student loan schemes are in place in some 50 countries around the world, serving a combination of objectives including: revenue diversification or income generation, university system expansion, equity, or the targeted enhancement of participation by the poor, specialized manpower needs; and the financial benefit of students generally, expressing their greater time preference for present money.

Student loans programs around the world have compiled an impressive record of failures, including notable African examples in Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria. Akwap (2015) adds that a number of newer and lesser known programs such as those in Uganda and Burkina Faso are also looking like failures, at least on the criterion of disbursement and cost recovery. Merisotis & Gilleland (2000) and Meagan (2004) contend that at the present time, only the South African loan programme appears to be successful with success defined as the twofold ability to expand accessibility by putting critical funds into the hands of students, and to generate a cost recovery that shifts some of the costs of this financial assistance to the students themselves. Dynarski (2014) opines that the revitalized and supposedly reformed loans programs in Ghana and Kenya are promising, although somewhat less than successful as of 2003. In Uganda, the students were required to produce collateral in form of land titles -most likely of their parents- as a guarantee they would repay the loan. The government expected all the students who borrow the money to repay them after three to five years, after a beneficiary has graduated. The loans are interest-free, and if one fails to get a job, the repayment would be deferred to when they get a job.

More than one-quarter of student loan borrowers have debt, but nothing to show for it. About 28% of Americans with student debt didn't complete the educational program for which they took on the loans, according to the 2016 National Financial Capability Study published Tuesday by the Financial Industry Regulatory Authority. The most striking single example of institutional cost-sharing in Sub-Saharan Africa is probably in the adoption by Uganda's Makerere University of an aggressive policy of dual track tuition. As reported by Sawyerr (2002) and Court (2000), the admission of more than 70 percent of Makerere's students as fee-paying while allowing the government and the university still to be able to claim that Uganda and Makerere provide

higher education free of charge (to the very fortunate 20-30 percent) has significantly improved the revenue position and thus both the capacity and the quality of Makerere. According to the World Bank (2000), Makerere University moved from the brink of collapse to the point where it aspires to become one of East Africa's preeminent intellectual and capacity-building resources, as it was in the 1960s.

Less aggressively (and somewhat less successfully financially), other East African universities in Kenya (Oketch, 2003), Tanzania (Ishengoma, 2001), and Ethiopia have also turned to variations on the theme of dual track tuition, opening their doors to students whose examination scores fall below the "cut off" for the highly selective tuition fee-free slots, but who are still able to do university-level work—and whose parents can and will gladly pay for them to do so. (A slightly different kind of dual track fee policy has been adopted in Nigeria, where the politically visible and volatile national universities have been kept tuition-free, while the regional state universities have been allowed to charge tuition (Ishengoma, 2002).

3 Uganda's Historical Context

Uganda experienced a military *coup d'état* on 25th January 1971 and the army commander Major General Amin took power and plunged the country into political social and economic chaos. He chased Asians who dominated commerce and industry. The production of cash crops such as coffee, cotton, Tea, Tobacco declined considerably as Ugandans resorted to subsistence agriculture. The production of copper ceased and the vibrant tourism sector also collapsed as tourists could not come to a country engulfed in murder, terror and state-inspired violence. When the military government was toppled by Tanzanian Army and Ugandan exiles in April 1979, the country was left broken and the economy ruined. The only institution of Higher Learning Makerere University suffered greatly from underfunding, crumbling infrastructure, lack of books, stationery, laboratory equipment and the loss of manpower as some members of staff had been murdered or had fled to exile. The post- Amin governments were engaged in a bitter civil war in central Uganda and failed to revive Uganda's economy and Makerere University.

The National Resistance Movement under Yoweri Museveni came to power in 1986 and like the previous post-Amin governments embraced the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank's Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). According to Mamdani (2007), the government vigorously adopted de-regulation, divestiture, liberalisation and cost-sharing in Higher Education Institutions. Private entrepreneurs, Non-Government

Organisations and Religious bodies were encouraged and permitted to open up private schools and universities because of big government budgetary deficits, population explosion, mushrooming of universities and the exponential demand for higher education (Kajubi, 1992). Presently, there are 10 Public universities and almost 35 private universities (NCHE, 2016) and since most students are from peasant families who cannot afford university fees and costs, the government was compelled to start the loan scheme in 2014. It should be noted, however, that the plan to establish a higher education student loan scheme dates back to 1992 when *The Government White Paper (*1992) recommended that a system of study loans be established to extend educational loans to students who were unable to raise the necessary finances for their university education. Such loans, stated *the Government White Paper (1992)*, would be interest free and payable when students completed their studies and found gainful employment in government or the private sector. However, this plan did not materialise until mid-2013 when the Government of Uganda announced the introduction of the student loan scheme for university students that was to be implemented with effect from the financial year 2013/2014.

4 The Higher Education Students Financing Board

The Higher Education Students Financing Board (HESFB) was established by the Higher Education Students Financing Act, 2014, to manage the Students' Loan Scheme. This gives the Board legal powers for disbursement, management and recovery of student loans. The Board receives funds from the Government of Uganda to be used for financing qualified Ugandan Students who are pursuing studies in universities and other tertiary institutions in Uganda. Pursuant to Section 20 (1) of the Act, the scheme is for Ugandan undergraduate students seeking to pursue Higher Education in accredited public and private institutions of higher learning recognized by the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE). According to *the Uganda Students' Higher Education Financing Policy (2012*), the following are the key objectives of the policy:

1. Increase equitable access to Higher Education in Uganda;
2. Support highly qualified students who may not afford higher education.
3. Ensure regional balance in Higher Education services in Uganda
4. Develop and support courses which are critical to national development and ensure quality education in institutions of higher learning through quality assurance and supervision.

According to HESFB (2014) it was announced that student loan eligibility would no longer be automatic, with means-testing introduced, and that food and accommodation would be charged at a cost. It is required for students to have two guarantors who at any given moment in time may be in the know of the whereabouts of the beneficiaries. The terms and conditions were stipulated thus;

1. The Higher Education Students' Financing Board is meant for Ugandan scholars only, pursuing higher education in recognized Public and Private Institutions of Higher Learning.
2. Initially the Loan shall cover Tuition, Functional fees, Research fees and Aids and appliances for PWDS only.
3. The Loan will attract Interest determined by the Minister of Education and Sports in consultation with the Minister in charge of finance.
4. A student who has received the loan shall start re-paying the loan at least one (1) year after completing his/her course

There are stipulated procedures and formalities before granting/releasing the academic transcript and degree certificate to the graduates and it was assumed that Parents' Associations were to help students in identifying employment opportunities locally and internationally. Those with prospective employment outside the country would equally be facilitated to take on the prospects through meeting the cost of the air ticket and also given some pocket money. The Association would get involved in implementation of projects and proposals that would end up providing viable employment prospects for some of the students on graduation. The ideas were rosy and theoretical by Ugandan standards.

Initially, to qualify for the loan, the student was supposed to have studied sciences at Advanced Level and attained two, or more principal passes. Above all, the applicant was supposed to be poor and that the ministry would track the applicant's status right from primary school to establish if that person's has a life of financial hardship. The board awarded the loans to 1,201 students to pursue 26 programmes under nine major disciplines. The minister promised that more money would be injected in the scheme. The Students Loan Scheme should also benefit arts students to balance our education needs. By 2015, 12 universities were participating in the scheme.

Student loans are expensive to collect, partly because of the need to maintain current records and frequently to "chase after" the borrowers, but also because the amounts are generally small to begin with, making the administrative and servicing costs, even if done professionally and with good technology, expensive on a per-dollar-of- loan basis. When these conditions are considered in a Sub Saharan African context—with a poor culture of credit, uneven postal and telephone services, generally inefficient governmental bureaucracies, and

unevenly enforced official machinery for keeping track of people (such as taxpayer or pension contribution numbers required of all employees)—it is little wonder that regular repayments are the exception and that borrowers are frequently lost altogether to the systems (Bakkabulindi, 2005; Blair, 1998). Against this background, this study was conducted to examine the performance of the scheme in its formative stage. Drawing from the literature and experiences of other countries/ loan schemes, the performance is considered from a comparative perspective, with the view to identify areas for and ways of improving it.

5 Gaps in the Implementation of the Loan Schemes

It was found that Engineering courses received the highest number of beneficiaries placed at 349 students. They are followed by Science Education (291), Human Medicine (210), and Agriculture (98), among others. Petroleum and Geo-science engineering received the least number of students at 27. Of these, 18 are male and nine are female. Kampala International University had the highest number of students (372), Makerere University had 220, Kyambogo University had 150, Ndejje University had 137 while Busitema University had 99. Out of the 1,683 applicants for the loans, 1,325 (78.7 per cent) were approved, of which 298 (22.5 per cent) were female. MUST (77), Gulu (42), UCU (39), UMU (32), Nkumba (14), IUIU (11), and Bugema University (8). According to the findings, there were fewer female student beneficiaries in all the study programmes. For instance; in Animal science, female students constituted 11 percent. An official from the HESFB said the board was very gender-sensitive in awarding the loans albeit the figures obtained revealed a different picture. When interviewed he, he showed his frustration thus;

"We tried to even lower the marks for female students but we got fewer applications. Even if you try and go out to convince females to apply, they did not come and I don't know why. We wonder why girls shun the scheme and yet as future politicians, they will accuse government and society for being gender insensitive. It is an incomprehensible situation"

The funds come from the national annual budget and the budget is aid-driven and government departments survive on supplementary budgets and budget cuts are common. The loan fund caters for tuition and research and there are many needs for the university students such as accommodation, transport, stationary and personal effects. Inflation where money loses value all the time and the students are the ultimate losers because the fund revolves. The return of the money a student took originally at the same value may make little economic meaning and the interest rate will not help students either. Loan Recovery is not

very easy because of unemployment. With unemployment students would look for greener pastures abroad and dodge repayment. Lack of insurance cover for the loans in case of death, disability, wastage and desertion. There is lack of medical and comprehensive insurance in Uganda.

The scheme headquarters in Kampala is far from many students in the countryside. Without a good strategy, the student loan scheme may not help Uganda: To implement a good policy in a society staggering under the heavy weight of corruption, incompetence and sectarianism is a tall order. The Shillings 5 billion set aside by government in 2012 to start the loan scheme was a drop in the ocean. With too many students chasing too little money, claims of sectarianism in the allocation of loans emerged. Many credit schemes by government have failed due to corruption among its implementers and failure by most recipients to repay the money partly because of the mind-set where Ugandans believe that credit schemes by government is government hand-out or mere political benevolence and no repayment is required. Uganda lacks the technical team appointed to put in place a proper mechanism for disbursement and recovery of the loans comprising competent individuals knowledgeable in the complex aspects such as customer relationship management, systems design and application, capture of borrowers' data and electronic content management.

Some 113 students withdrew from the students' loan scheme citing various reasons, a report from the loans board has indicated. The HESFB (2015) report confirms that an assessment of loans awarded to semester one students of the academic year 2014/15 continued to confirm the number. The report shows that some 11 students were admitted on government merit scholarships; six had applied more than twice, four were continuing students while 18 could not raise their own funds for meals and accommodation. One student reportedly provided falsified information, while 49 benefited from other scholarships, one failed to join university due to illness, three opted for other universities, and one student abandoned the programme due to a crowded class. Nangonzi (2015) reveals that the funds meant for the 113 withdrawn students are still being kept by the board.

6 Conclusions

Students have already received loans since the academic year 2014/2015. This may have added modestly to enrolment in higher learning institutions in Uganda. The number of students granted loans had increased hence poses a challenge to HESFB to recover loans granted to beneficiaries since 2014 so as to bridge the gap between government subvention and the increasing funds requirements.

Student loans beneficiaries are willing to repay back the loans after completion of their studies. HESFB did a lot to ensure recovery of students' loans given out since 2014 through review of strategies for HESFB loan repayment and recovery which includes, enhancement of public awareness in respect of loan repayment, publishing names of untraced loan beneficiaries, follow-up on job vacancies advertised in print media and enforcing loan repayment in the mind-set of students beneficiaries and their employers,

These are families where a child has had education from a good primary school through to the secondary and because of the good education background these students end up with better passes and this scenario leaves no opportunity for those from poorer family backgrounds to be taken under the Government Sponsorship Scheme. In a nutshell, the Loan Scheme is a necessary development for keeping a balance in the economy so that the students from the poorer families are also catered for.

There is general poverty in the economy where a good number of the parents who sponsor their children part with value, for example selling of assets like land. Much of these assets would be put to better use and development instead of being sold off which leaves families poorer. A student in a Loan Scheme arrangement would study with certainly that he/she will complete his/her studies. Unlike the situation today when a number try and fall by the way side. Also the students who qualify for admission but fail to raise the funds will have chance to do their university studies without a big hurdle.

7 Recommendations

HESFB should institute a sound financial management system including setting appropriate interest rates to cover inflation, thus maintaining the capital value of the loan fund and covering administrative costs. This should be done in additional to the awareness campaign on obligation to repay which is proved to be done in this study, as it resulted into a big proportional of respondents being willing to repay back the loans. Other measures to ensure effective recovery by HESFB includes adequate legal frameworks to ensure that loan recovery is legally enforceable and effective loan collection machinery, using either commercial banks or engagement of debts collectors to ensure high rates of repayment and to minimize default. Guidelines and criteria for granting loans should be improved to include the assessment of economic status of students' loans applicants, because the economic status will determine their ability to repay back the loans. Students must have the willingness and ability to repay back the loans for a successful students' loans finance in Uganda. Therefore things like collateral security should be considered during loans application.

Students' enrolment decision making has been also affected by political factors, economic factors, cultural factors, family influence and school impact which are not part of this study. Therefore these factors needs to be considered for a successful students' loans financing for example economic downturn and increased unemployment have led to the increase in students' enrolment. In Uganda, the plan to establish a higher education student loan scheme dates back to the early 1990s. In the *Government White Paper* of 1992, it was recommended that a system of study loans be established to extend educational loans to students who were unable to raise the necessary finances for their university education (Uganda Government, 1992). Such loans, states the Government White Paper, would be interest free and payable when a student completes his/her studies and finds gainful employment.

A student loan program should be designed to collect (according to the present value of the reasonably-expected repayments discounted at the government's borrowing rate) something reasonably close to the amounts lent-less losses from defaults and other purposefully designed subsidies or repayment forgiveness features. Student loan program must be equipped with legal authority to collect, technology to maintain accurate records, collectors who can track borrowers and verify financial conditions, advisors and repayment counsellors in the universities, and the ability to enlist both the government's tax-collecting authority and employers in the collection of repayments. An income contingent repayment mode should not be employed unless incomes can be reasonable verified. If income contingency is politically necessary, it should not be the "default" repayment obligation, but rather an optional means of payment that requires the borrower to demonstrate that he/she can discharge the repayments by paying a percentage of earnings from a single employer that represents the a dominant earnings stream.

Mechanisms need to be added to the repayment process, especially if the repayment mode is a conventional, fixed schedule mode, to accommodate borrowers whose earnings are low, either temporarily or permanently. In short, a conventional loan needs the same kind of genuine low earnings protection that is presumed to follow by definition from an income contingent form of repayment obligation.

A loan program needs to have a collection agency that is viewed as professional, incorruptible and technically expert. Universities and other eligible tertiary level institutions must be enlisted as partners in the program, especially in impressing upon the student recipients that loans are legally enforceable obligations that must not be taken lightly or used in excess, and in keeping track of the borrower's whereabouts, at least during the in-school years.

The private sector and industry should also be encouraged to sponsor and bond students for students for their organisations. This can supplement

government effort to support as may students in Higher Education Institutions as possible.

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Entrepreneurial Awareness and Skills in Mechanical Technology among Technical Education Students in Tai Solarin University of Education

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Abstract. This study assessed entrepreneurial awareness and skills in Mechanical Technology among Technical Education Students in Tai Solarin University of Education. Research questions focusing on the students' level of entrepreneurial awareness and the facilities available for inculcating skills in Mechanical Technology guided the study. A 38-item self-developed questionnaire entitled "Assessment of Entrepreneurial Awareness Questionnaire" (AEAQ) was used to collect data from 22 respondents. The questionnaire was validated by three experts and its reliability coefficient was established at .89 using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient method. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics. The study applauded the management of the University for providing an enabling environment for Mechanical Technology students to acquire entrepreneurial skills. The study recommended, among others, that the students embrace this opportunity that the University is giving them.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; Curriculum innovation; STEM.

1 Introduction

Mechanical Technology is an integration of two different areas of specialization in Technical Education. It is a combination of both Automobile Technology and Metalwork Technology. Automobile Technology equips recipients with knowledge and skills in automobile maintenance, repairs and troubleshooting while Metalwork Technology equips recipients with skills and knowledge in forming, cutting, joining and machining among others. Since there are similarities in Automobile Technology and Metalwork Technology, some institutions of higher learning offering Technical Education prefer the integration of these areas for convenience sake.

Elisha, (2014) stated that Mechanical Technology is an integral part of Technical Education, which was introduced into the Nigerian education system because of the awareness of its importance and opportunities for jobs creation.

Technical Education according to Lemo and Olakotan (2016) has a component of five different areas of specializations namely: Automobile Technology, Building Technology, Electrical/Electronic Technology, Metalwork Technology and Woodwork Technology and that each student is expected to specialize in one of these areas after having an all-round knowledge of all the components of the programme. Uwaifo (2009) posited that Technical Education is the training of technically oriented personnel who are to be the initiators, facilitators and implementers of technological development of a nation. This view of Technical Education relates its recipients to initiators which is one of the major characteristics of an entrepreneur.

An entrepreneur according to Lidimma (2012) is a giver of employment, provider of infrastructures and valuable services to the community. Aminu (2009) posited that the success of an entrepreneur is dependent on his determination, leadership quality, creativity, self-nurturing, self-discipline, energetic, future oriented among other notable characteristics.

Entrepreneurship is of paramount importance to our society. Entrepreneurs contribute to economic welfare as they increase the innovative capacity of the economy. Timmons and Spinelli (2004) refer to entrepreneurship as a way of thinking, reasoning and acting that is opportunity- based, holistic in approach and leadership balanced. Entrepreneurship results in the creation, enhancement, realization and renewal of value not just for the owners, but for participants and stakeholders.

Entrepreneurship however, in the context of this study as used by Nwoye (2011) is the process of identifying, developing and bringing a vision to life. The vision may be an innovative idea, an opportunity, or simply a better way to do something.

Dyke, Fischer and Rueber, (1992) provides an entrepreneurial framework on which this present study rests. Dyke et al posited that human capital entrepreneurial characteristics like their education level, work experience, start-up experience, training and skills and technical know-how determine whether an entrepreneur possesses the appropriate abilities, the possession of which in turn affects his or her decision to start up the business and also its success.

Since Technical Education can boast of five different areas of specialization, it of utmost importance to assess the students' entrepreneurship awareness and the skills possessed in order to correlate the findings of this study to the goals of VTE in general.

Assessment is expressing opinions using degrees or descriptive feedback. It can be carried out occasionally or regularly, during or after the activity. Assessment serves several purposes. It gives information about the knowledge,

skills and attitude students have acquired. Assessment on the other hand determines merit, worth and significance of a programme. This means that, it provides objective means of monitoring the progress of an individual in a programme. Academic Exchange Quarterly, (AEQ) (2009) stated that assessment is the process of documenting, usually in measurable terms, knowledge, skill attributes and believes. Assessment can focus on facilities, or the educational system as a whole.

On the other hand, facilities are required in all Technical and Vocational Institutions to enable easy passage of knowledge and skills to students. These facilities are both human and material. Human facilities as used in this study are lecturers (Automobile and Metalwork), and technologists while material facilities are workshop, tools, machines, consumables, and other equipment provided in the TVE institutions for the purpose of enhancing teaching and learning processes towards attainment of entrepreneurship state.

Elisha (2014) avowed that despite the high expectation of the society of mechanical technology graduates to achieve self-reliance, their performance is on the decline. He noted that some of the problems being faced in this area are high cost of tools and equipment needed for setting up metal workshops, hence, a high percentage of metal workshops operate on obsolete tools and equipment, inadequately trained technical instructors, inadequate funds for consumables, and workshop facilities. Afeti (2007) stated that, the quality of training in TVE institutions in Nigeria is low with undue emphasis on theory and certification rather than on skills acquisition and proficiency testing. He further noted that inadequate instructor training, obsolete training equipment and lack of instructional materials are some of the factors that combine to reduce the effectiveness of training in meeting the required knowledge and skill objectives. Similarly, Oputa (2008) pointed out that functional facilities enable schools and society to achieve their educational goals. Therefore, assessment of entrepreneurship awareness and skills in mechanical technology among technical education students may be inconclusive if facilities needed for the passage of entrepreneurial skills are jettisoned. Hence, this study becomes significant.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

The assertion that if the purpose of a thing is unknown, abuse is inevitable necessitates this study. This premise spurred the researchers to carefully observe Mechanical Technology graduates who seems not to understand the components of entrepreneurship in Technical Education and similarly do not know the stuff they are made of. Hence, they pursue after white collar jobs that are not readily available neglecting their call to entrepreneurship which mechanical technology in Technical Education programme offers.

1.2 Purpose of Study

This study assessed entrepreneurial awareness and skills in mechanical technology among technical education students in Tai Solarin University of Education. Specifically, the study sought to determine:

1. Students' levels of entrepreneurial awareness in Mechanical Technology
2. Skills expected by Technical Education students for entrepreneurship in Mechanical Technology
3. Facilities available for inculcating entrepreneurial skills in Mechanical Technology

1.3 Research Questions

1. What are the students' levels of entrepreneurial awareness in Mechanical Technology?
2. What are the skills expected by Technical Education students for entrepreneurship in Mechanical Technology?
3. What are the facilities available for inculcating entrepreneurial skills in Mechanical Technology?

2 Methodology

2.1 Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey research design. According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) a survey is a method of data collection using questionnaire or interviews to collect data from a sample that has been selected to represent a population to which the findings of the data analysis can be generalized. Hence the questionnaire on assessment of entrepreneurial awareness and skills among technical education students in Tai Solarin University of education was used to collect data from the population for analyses. The design was considered suitable for the study since it sought the opinions of Technical Education students and no variable was manipulated.

2.2 Population

The population of the study was all the 22 final year Technical Education students of Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode. All of them were involved in the study because the number was small and manageable.

2.3 Instrument

Assessment of Entrepreneurial Awareness Questionnaire (AEAQ) containing 38 items was developed and used for the study. The scaling responses for the instrument was based on adapted Likert Scale ratings namely: Strongly Agreed (SA) – 5, Agreed (A) – 4, Undecided (U) – 3, Disagreed (D) – 2 and Strongly Disagreed (SD)-1. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Cronbach Alpha coefficient and a coefficient of 0.89 was obtained.

2.4 Data Collection

The instruments were personally administered on the respondents by the researchers. Due to adequate monitoring and guidance of the instrument, the whole 22 copies distributed were recovered.

2.5 Analysis

The data collected were statistically analysed using descriptive statistics of means and standard deviation as appropriate. A mean of 3.50 and above was considered positive and agreed upon, while a mean rating of less than 3.50 was regarded as negative and disagreed upon.

3 Results

3.1 Level of Entrepreneurial Awareness in Mechanical Technology

The findings on the students' level of entrepreneurial awareness in Mechanical Technology are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean Scores on level of Entrepreneurial Awareness in Mechanical Technology

Attribute	Mean	SD	Remark
Establishment of small and medium scale automobile repair workshop	4.64	.58	Agree
Establishment of small and medium scale machine shop	4.38	1.07	Agree
Establishment of small and medium scale wheel alignment and balancing enterprise	4.43	.99	Agree
Establishment of a driving school	4.06	1.09	Agree
Establishment of small and medium scale welding and fabrication workshop	4.15	1.14	Agree
Establishment of small and medium scale foundry enterprise	4.24	1.13	Agree
Establishment of vocational training centre	4.00	1.18	Agree

The data presented in Table 1 revealed that all the 7 items had a mean range of 4.00 to 4.64. This indicated that the respondents agreed on all the 7 items on entrepreneurial awareness in Mechanical Technology because their means were above the cut-off point of 3.50. The standard deviation of the items also ranged from .58 to 1.14. This showed that the respondents were close to one another in their responses.

3.2 Skills Expected for Entrepreneurship in Mechanical Technology

Table 2 shows the skills expected for entrepreneurship in Mechanical Technology.

Table 2: Mean Scores on skills expected for entrepreneurship

Skills	X	SD	Remarks
Pedagogical skills in Mechanical Technology	4.15	1.14	Agree
Automobile maintenance, troubleshooting and repairs	3.55	1.31	Agree
Metal machining skills	3.59	1.53	Agree
Metal fitting skills	3.89	1.05	Agree
Metal forging skills	3.71	1.28	Agree
Metal welding and fabrication skills	3.88	.98	Agree
Wheel alignment and balancing skills	3.55	1.31	Agree
Automobile driving skills	3.71	1.28	Agree

The data presented in Table 2 revealed that all the 8 items had a mean range of 3.55 to 4.15. This indicated that the respondents agreed on all the 8 items as skills expected by Technical Education students for entrepreneurship in Mechanical Technology because their means were above the cut-off point of 3.50. The standard deviation of the items also ranged from .98 to 1.31. This showed that the respondents were close to one another in their responses.

3.3 Facilities Available for Inculcating Entrepreneurial Skills

The findings on the facilities available for inculcating entrepreneurial skills in the students are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Rating of facilities for inculcating entrepreneurial skills

Item	X	SD	Remarks
Automobile Technology Lecturers	3.78	1.23	Agree
Metalwork Technology Lecturers	3.66	1.28	Agree
Automobile Technologists	3.89	1.14	Agree
Metalwork Technologists	3.55	1.31	Agree
Live vehicle	3.71	1.28	Agree
Dead Vehicle	3.89	1.14	Agree
Lathe Machine	3.73	1.16	Agree
Milling Machine	3.73	1.16	Agree
Shaping Machine	3.81	1.22	Agree
Power Hacksaw	3.78	1.27	Agree
Wheel Balancing/Alignment Machine	4.15	1.14	Agree
On-board Diagnostic Equipment	4.24	1.13	Agree
Welding Machine (Arc)	3.59	1.25	Agree
Oxy-acetylene welding Equipment	3.66	1.28	Agree
Furnaces	3.83	1.11	Agree
Workbenches and Vices	3.89	1.14	Agree
Sets of Spanners	3.73	1.16	Agree
Sets of files	3.84	1.21	Agree
Sets of hammers	3.81	1.22	Agree
Tools for various purposes	3.78	1.27	Agree
Surface planner	3.89	1.05	Agree
Pillar drilling machine	3.55	1.31	Agree
Grinding machine	3.59	1.53	Agree

The data presented in Table 3 revealed that all the 23 items (items 16 to 38) had a mean range of 3.55 to 4.24. This indicated that the respondents agreed on all the 23 items as facilities available for inculcating entrepreneurship skills in Mechanical Technology because their means were above the cut-off point of 3.50. The standard deviation of the items also ranged from 1.11 to 1.53. This showed that the respondents were close to one another in their responses.

4 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

Tables 1, 2 and 3 presented the data analysis for the study. Elisha (2014), corroborated the findings of this study, as he noted that Mechanical Technology is an integral part of Technical Education, which was introduced into the Nigerian education system because of the awareness of its importance and opportunities for jobs creation. Similarly, the findings of this study was also buttressed by Uwaifo (2009) who posited that Technical Education is the

training of technically oriented personnel who are to be the initiators, facilitators and implementers of technological development of a nation.

The propositions of Elisha (2014), Oputa (2008) and Afeti (2007) were all in consonance with the findings of this study. Elisha (2014) averred that despite the high expectation of the society of mechanical technology graduates to achieve self-reliance, their performance is on the decline. He noted that some of the problems being faced in this area are high cost of tools and equipment needed for setting up metal workshops, hence, a high percentage of metal workshops operate on obsolete tools and equipment, inadequately trained technical instructors, inadequate funds for consumables, and workshop facilities.

Consequently, Oputa (2008) pointed out that functional facilities enable schools and society to achieve their educational goals, while Afeti (2007) stated that, the quality of training in TVE institutions in Nigeria is low with undue emphasis on theory and certification rather than on skills acquisition and proficiency testing. He further noted that inadequate instructor training, obsolete training equipment and lack of instructional materials are some of the factors that combine to reduce the effectiveness of training in meeting the required knowledge and skill objectives.

Hence, the researcher is of the opinion that where adequate facilities are provided, prompt vocational guidance and orientation are initiated, mechanical technology students would avail themselves of the opportunity of being equipped with requisite entrepreneurial skills needed for self-reliance and employment in the global market.

In spite of the enormous potentials in Mechanical Technology aspect of the Technical Education programme, there is need to arouse the curiosity and interest of students to entrepreneurship opportunities posed by the course. **S**imilarly, there is need to applaud the management of Tai Solarin University of Education who provided an enabling environment for acquisition of skills in Mechanical Technology in the University. Therefore, with this applauded gesture, Mechanical Technology students of the University must avail themselves of the available opportunity provided by Tai Solarin University of Education for the acquisition of entrepreneurship skills in Mechanical Technology.

Based on the findings of this study, the study therefore puts the following recommendations forward:

1. Mechanical Technology students of the University must embrace the provided opportunity of the institution and acquire requisite entrepreneurial skills needed for self-reliance.
2. Prompt vocational guidance should be given to students early to be acquitted with necessary entrepreneurship skills in Mechanical Technology.

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Challenges Faced by Visually Impaired Students at Makerere and Kyambogo Universities

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Abstract. This study aimed at investigating the challenges faced by visually impaired students in Makerere and Kyambogo Universities. The study followed a cross-sectional survey design and involved 200 respondents (50 visually impaired students, 50 lecturers, 50 university administrators and 50 students who were not visually impaired). Data was collected using questionnaires, interviews and document review. The findings revealed that the visually impaired students receive bursaries and allowances from government and non-government organizations; meals, accommodation and scholastic materials from their universities; extra time during examinations; oral examinations; and buddy support. However, constraining limitations in the methods of instruction and assessment used and the instructional materials provided were noted. On the basis of these findings, recommendations towards the better education of the visually impaired students are made.

Keywords: Visual impairment; Inclusive education; Special needs education.

1 Introduction

There is an increasing number of visually impaired students in public Universities in Uganda. These students attend mainstream lectures (inclusive education) and are examined on the same subject content with their peers. Inclusion of blind and low vision children in mainstream education is beneficial not only to the blind/low vision child but to all other students in schools because it enhances social integration (Anne, 2004). It helps change the negative attitude and misconceptions people have of the blind and low vision and it is an opportunity to prepare them for their future roles in society. Blind and low vision children interact with other children in regular school settings—playing and sharing things and ideas. It helps them to appreciate each other's strengths and limitations. They learn the norms and values of the community in

which they are and this prepares them for the world outside of school. Students who have been with them in schools will know their potential and will give them chance to participate in social functions and other programmes.

Furthermore, inclusion will promote healthy competition amongst students who are blind or low vision and regular students. When blind/ low vision children perform well in class, this will motivate the regular students to strive to work harder for they will think that if the blind/ low vision child can do well they can do the same. The Ministry of Education and Sports considers issues of special needs education to be cross-cutting (Musasizi, 2009), so it is the development funding attached to the different departments which is expected to cater for children with special needs. There is no special curriculum designed for children with special needs.

At Kyambogo University, the Faculty of Special Needs Education has a ramp and can be accessed by persons using crutches or wheelchairs. However, most buildings, including the Senate Building, are inaccessible for people with disabilities. Every year, government provides sponsorship at university level to 4,000 students under the merit government sponsorship scheme, of which 64 are students with special needs who include sportsmen/women, physically handicapped and visually impaired. These special students are distributed through all the public universities which include Makerere, Kyambogo, Mbarara, Gulu and Busitema Universities. However, the visually impaired students are mainly admitted to Makerere and Kyambogo Universities.

These students face a lot of challenges. Apart from this consideration given to these few; many visually impaired students are admitted on private scheme in these two public universities. These seem to face more challenges in their studies that affect their academic achievement.

Many studies have discussed the difficulties that face the handicapped in the educational environment. Hodges and Keller (1999) made a study aimed at recognizing the extent to which students perceive the process of inclusion of handicapped students in the university. The results indicated that there were many problems that faced the visually impaired students, especially in the area of transport and developing social relationships with their peers.

Hougann (1999) conducted a study aimed at identifying the challenges faced by visually handicapped students in higher education institutions. The results indicated many problems. For example the absence of counselling services, few Braille printed books, lack of visual readers, the difficulty of adjustment with university life, teachers' neglect of their special needs, and the problem of taking exams and transport in were the most important.

Fuller et al. (2004) also studied obstacles that faced the handicapped at university. The results of the study indicated there were many obstacles such as the fast rate of the teachers' speech during the lectures, as well as difficulty in participating in the discussion and answering the questions. Also some lectures

resented allowing disabled students to tape the lectures, and it was hard to access the educational centres. There was a lack of suitable computer programs.

Masaedeh's (1995) study aimed at identifying the problems of handicapped students in Jordanian universities. The results indicated that the most obvious problems were those which were related to the services. In addition, there were many concerns about the future of disabled students, and their psychological, social and health issues. On the other hand, the study did not show any significant differences due to the gender of the disabled grade level type of disability.

Ibrahim (2001) studied the problems of visually handicapped students in the University of Jordan. The results of the study revealed the existence of problems such as using the library, transport, difficulties in teachers' understanding about their needs. The study did not show any significant differences due to the handicapped gender, the degree of disability, level of education. He further asserts that it is because of several reasons which included lack of interaction between special needs and regular students, teachers do not have sufficient skills in teaching techniques required to handle the inclusive programme. Therefore, in order for inclusive programme to take place successfully, it requires a regular classroom that is sensitive and attended to the students' needs and abilities.

From his findings, he identifies the following problems; Itinerant and classroom teachers feel lack of training about inclusive education and still need that training. Itinerant teachers have difficulty in some lessons; some normal students treat the visually impaired badly. Facilities in regular schools such as classrooms, educational tools, are still not appropriate. Some teachers do not support inclusive education and some parents are not communicative. Introduction of itinerant teachers to classroom teachers are not facilitated well. Age factor is a problem for itinerant teachers in learning or studying new things (Bob, 2002).

Bob (2002) states that, the visually handicapped born blind may have restricted concept development because of lack of vision. This is because vision plays an important role in environmental input. What children see, they assimilate and integrate in the brain. Another way of visual impairments typically slow development is by making it harder for children to learn from experience without their parents or teachers doing anything out of the ordinal, to teach them. This is called accidental learning.

Apart from early identification, inadequate trained teachers are also a factor that militates against effective inclusion. Teachers need to be equipped with skills in screening, identification and management of children who are blind and low vision. The above challenges cannot be addressed if the resources allocated to inclusion are too limited. Presently Government has procured a bus and a Braille printing press for children who are blind and have low vision.

However, inclusion will be only a slogan if there are inadequate resources for inclusion programmes. Inclusion is not a matter of placing children who are blind and low vision in regular schools but providing adequate resources in the form of funds for itinerant teaching service, teaching/learning materials, making schools more accessible and inclusive. Aside from allocation of resources, societal negative attitude however can also contribute to the exclusion of children who are blind and have low vision. Most people tend to see blind and low vision as liabilities and do not treat them with respect or give them their right due in society.

The UNESCO Bulletin on special education (1994) observed that the blind and partially sighted children have greater problems in learning, communicating and interacting in an ordinary school than their sighted classmates. This is because children do not receive adequate educational and developmental help during their pre-school years, neither their parents nor regular classroom teachers are equipped to give them special assistance they require in the school situation. Therefore in this study we answer the following questions;

1. What are the challenges faced by visually impaired students in Makerere and Kyambogo Universities?
2. What remedies have been put in place to solve the challenges faced by visually impaired students at Makerere and Kyambogo Universities?

2 Methodology

The research adopted the cross sectional survey design. We employed self-administered questionnaires, which were administered to lecturers, university administrators and non-visually impaired students. The visually impaired students were interviewed. The sample was 200, comprised of 50 visually impaired students, 50 lecturers, 50 University administrators and 50 non-visually impaired students. The visually impaired students were identified using the snowball method while the lecturers, university administrators and non-visually impaired students were identified using random sampling.

3 Results

The challenges identified by the respondents are summarised in Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Table 1: Challenges cited by Visually Impaired Students

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
Long distance from home to University	2	4
Late coming	2	4
Lack of tuition	3	6
Lack of writing materials	2	4
Lack of special needs lecturer	1	2
Hand outs are given in print form	2	4
Socialization	2	4
Inaccessibility to lecture rooms	2	4
Writing problems	2	4
Usually at typing notes	2	4
Poor movement	2	4
Text books	3	6
Isolated	3	6
Movement that is pot holes around the university	3	6
Non cooperative staff	3	6
Competition with other students	2	4
Deprived attention/no attention	2	4
Dictation	1	2
Lack of equipment	3	6
Negative attitude	2	4
Reading problems	3	6
Usually under looked	3	6
Total	50	100

Table 1 shows that visually impaired students are faced by a lot challenges in achieving their academic goals: 6% are faced with reading problems, lack of equipment, isolation, lack of text books, movement problems and tuition fees. Some of these students face challenges like materials, movement and mobility problems, negative attitudes, academic competition with other students, and deprived attention in the lecture rooms due to noise from non-disabled students.

Table 2: Challenges cited by Lecturers

Challenges	Frequency	Percent
Lack of knowledge of Braille	13	26.0
Noise from Braille machines	10	20.0
Quite Slow	8	16.0
Over reliance on buddies	7	14.0
Illustration on chalk board	3	6.0
Few writing materials	5	10.0
Failure to interpret Braille language		
Total	50	100

Table 2 shows that several challenges are faced by visually impaired students according to lecturers 26% lack knowledge of Braille, 20% of noise made by Braille, 16% are quite slow, 14% rely on buddies, 10% have few writing materials, 8% fail to interpret and Braille language and 6% fail to see or observe illustrations on chalkboard. Most lecturers who handle visually impaired are less trained in teaching and handling of these students. The methods of teaching that they use such as lecture methods and dictation of notes to students do not favour the proper teaching and learning of the students. These teachers do not understand Braille instruction which is used by visually impaired students. So they end up examining and assessing them using inappropriate methods that make the study not to perform well. The way these students write their responses is also a challenge in that some of them use Braille which is not transcribed into normal English language. So some lectures have to look for transcribers of Braille which sometimes is very difficult. What if the transcriber is not efficient is also another problem which may make these students to actually acquire well academically.

Table 3: Challenges by University Administrators

Challenges faced	Frequency	Percent
Problems with registration	11	22.0
Lack of staff trained in Braille	13	26.0
Receiving help from guides during exams	08	16.0
Too slow when writing exams	04	8.0
Isolation	10	20.0
Lack of staff to handle blind	04	8.0
Total	50	100

According to the University administrators, there are a number of challenges faced by visually students at University 26% lack staff which is trained in Braille, 22% of the visually impaired students find problems while registering, 20% of these students are usually isolated, 16% receive help from their helpers or guides, while 8% lack administrative staff to handle issues of disability and are also too slow while writing exams. Lack of training of university administrators in issues of disability on challenges faced by the visually impaired students. Most of them do not understand the Brailing language used by the blind. They also find problems with registering or feeding their marks into the university systems.

Table 4: Challenges cited by Non-Visually impaired students

Challenge	Frequency	Percent
Lack of Brailed text books	11	22.0
Mobility problem	13	26.0
Lack of hand outs	7	14.0
Dictation- they are slow	5	10.0
Difficulty in writing course works	4	8.0
Poor spellings	2	4.0
Lack of machines like laptops, computers and Braille machines	3	6.0
Examination time is not enough	3	6.0
Lack of accommodation	2	4.0
Total	50	100

Table 4 shows that non-visually impaired students find that 26% of the visually impaired students have challenges with their movement, 22% lack of brailed text books,14% of all hand outs are given in typed print which does not favour the blind students, 10% are show while brailing dictated notes by the lecturers, 8% find difficulty in writing course work, 6% lack machine such as laptops, Braille, computers and also examination time or duration is inadequate for proper completion, 4% of the visually impaired students lack accommodation and have poor spellings while writing examinations, course works or notes.

In summary the visually impaired students face the following challenges; general lack of training in the use of Braille instruction, lack of Braille machines and their materials, slow in writing during lectures and during exams and problems in their mobility around the university.

3.1 Proposed Remedies

The government through acts of parliament can enact laws and policies such as disability acts to emphasize the provision of education to disabled children from early childhood development, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

There should be proper representation in parliament and councils by persons with disabilities so that at parliament and local councils there should be a representative for each form of disability including the blind people so that they can legislate and formulate laws to aid in the teaching and education of the visually handicapped.

Creation of a sister ministry handling people with disabilities is a necessity so that issues of visually impaired can be handled separately. Also in this ministry there should be a condition that the specialists in issues of disability should be the first priority to be employed. This is due to the understanding of policies and being knowledgeable on matters of disability.

There should be influence in enacting disability friendly legislation in acts of parliament e.g. Local Council Act 1997; UNISE Act, Traffic and Road Safety Act. It is expected that these should gradually have a positive impact on the quality of life and education of people with disabilities, visually handicapped inclusive.

There should be establishment of more special schools at primary, secondary and at university level where inclusive education can be designed in such a ways that curricular are designed for particular forms of disability.

There should be adequate training for special teachers and in service training for current teachers in the mainstream schools to cater for the educational development of persons with disability.

There should be structural and other adaptations of all educational institutions to the needs of persons with disabilities and promotion of specialized institutions that facilitate research and development of their education.

An operational policy framework is one of the strategies in which the challenges of inclusion can be addressed. A framework will specifically outline the issues and the resources needed for effective inclusion. The framework on special needs education (supported by save the children Sweden) which is presently being developed will go a long way to address the outlined issues.

Assessment centres are ideal for early clinical identification, diagnosis, appropriate intervention and placement for the blind and low vision children. This centre should have medical and educational personnel. Medical personnel will assess students for refractive error and functional vision assessment. The students will then be referred to the educational team for appropriate intervention and placement.

Trained teachers are a powerful resource in the achievement of quality and relevant education. To handle children who are blind and low vision, teachers must be specifically and adequately trained to handle such children. The training programme on special needs education in the Ugandan universities should be made more detailed. Such trained teachers however must be remunerated to motivate them to put more effort in their work.

It is obvious that the above outlined strategies cannot be achieved without adequate allocation of resources. There is however, the need to make schools more inclusive with the availability of accessible schools, support services teaching and learning materials. The education department should endeavour to allocate a portion of its budget to inclusive education. Donors and non-governmental organizations can also contribute by providing appropriate resources for facilitating successful inclusion.

However, if all the resources are in place and all the required interventions done and society's attitude towards the blind and low vision is negative, the resources put in place will be a waste. If communities, trained teachers,

students and other members of society do not appreciate the blind/low vision, empathize with them and give the opportunities to unearth their potentials, the resources put into inclusion will be wasted. Any programme should also pay attention to community and family awareness and participation to yield positive results.

More sponsorship for the Visually Impaired should be extended to other government aided universities such as Gulu, Busitema, Mbarara and Muni universities. Also private universities should begin admitting theses students though their maintenance and requirements are very costly.

The researcher also recommends that since there are special primary and secondary schools for the visually impaired there should also establish higher institutions of learning for these people at both college and university level.

The government of Uganda should also set up stringent policies and laws to guide the education of the visually impaired at institutions of higher learning especially visually impaired.

There should be proper and adequate training of the staff and administrators who hand these visually impaired students in the institutions they attend.

5 Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

The challenges are organized in form of those faced by the visually impaired students themselves, the lecturers, university administration and the non-visually impaired students. These students have a number of challenges around the university environments which they face during lectures, accessibility, movement, daily living skills and socially which eventually affect their academic achievements such as lack of Braille machines, textbooks in Braille form and slates. Socially they are faced by a number of challenges such as being under looked by their fellow students and lecturers as non-achievers and hence getting isolated by these people. Some of the fellow students have negative attitudes towards them making it difficult to render any help or assistance to them. This is supported by many studies especially by Hodges and Keller (1999) who did a study on difficulties faced by the handicapped in the educational environment. He discovered that they were many problems faced by visually impaired students such as lack of transport and developing a social relationship with their peers. Hougann (1987) also looked at a study of identifying problems faced by the visually handicapped in higher education institution. The results indicated different problems in form of absence of counselling services, few or non-Braille printed books, lack of visual readers, difficulty in adjusting to university life and teachers neglecting the special needs of the visually impaired students.

During lectures they find problems in attention during dictation of notes, reading problems and writing problems since they use Braille machines which make a lot of noise for other students. This could be the reason why they admit very few for particular courses so that their noise during notes taking can be limited. In terms of mobility and orientation around the university they find it difficult in accessing some of the lecture rooms, offices and places of convenience. They move long distances in case they are on private sponsorship and eventually reach late for their lectures which affects their academic achievement greatly. There is also a challenge of not being assessed well or appropriately. Some of these visually impaired students are not taught by specialised needs teachers who know how to handle them. They sit for their exams in Braille form which require interpretation by a knowledgeable person in Braille communication or language. This purely happens in some departments in Kyambogo University but for Makerere University most of the lecturers who teach these students are not trained in Braille and there are no special needs teachers.

Most lecturers who teach or attend to visually impaired students are faced by a number of challenges mostly in communicating. Most of them are not trained as special needs teachers, not trained in Braille language and even interpreting Braille instruction. During teaching lesson, the visually impaired students are quite slow while writing / taking notes and their Braille machines also make a lot of noise for both the students and interrupt with the lecturers' dictations. These students most times cannot see or observe illustrations and examples written on the chalkboards. With all these challenges these kind of students are affected academic and that is the reason most of them perform moderate or below average. This is in line with the study done by Fuller et al. (2004) who studied the obstacles faced handicapped at Universities. The results indicated that there were many obstacles such as fast rate of teachers' speech during the lectures as well as difficulty in participating in discussions and answering the questions. Also some lecturers resented allowing disabled students to tape the lectures and it was hard to access the educational centres.

Challenges faced by impaired students in the views of university administrators include difficulty during registration which at times is on internet or online which they cannot access. They find them socially isolated and there is lack of trained staff in special needs to handle these students. They find them too slow while writing their exams and lack of staff to interpret the written answers in Braille language. This is supported by the study by Fuller et al (2004) which states that there is lack of suitable computer programmes in universities which can be used by visually impaired students.

Non-visually impaired students stated that lack of Braille text books to be read by visually impaired students is the main challenge faced by these students. Then there is mobility problem around the campus.

They also have problems during dictation of notes in lectures and poor spelling written by them since they cannot see what correct spellings are written on the chalkboard by the lecturer. There is inadequate supply of writing and reading equipment such as Braille machines, laptops and computers. Time given to the visually impaired students is not adequate or enough for these students to complete their written exams. There is the negative aspect of inclusive education to the non-visually impaired students. This is reflected during lecture time when their Braille machines make a lot of noise and disrupt the proper learning of their peers. This is supported by Fletcher (2010) who stated that while there is evidence of positive effects of inclusion of students with disabilities opponents of this idea maintain that there is less evidence of the overall benefits of inclusion of the classmates of the students with disabilities.

Secondly visually impaired students face a number of challenges in the course of pursuing their academic goals. They get challenges in mobility around the university like poor accessibility to the lecture rooms, late coming and over reliance on guides. When it comes to the learning process, they face a number of challenges such as writing and reading problems, lack of Braille knowledge, slow in dictation, failure to see illustrations on chalkboard, inadequate time given for sitting examinations, etc.

In terms of socialization these students face challenges of isolation, negative attitude, non-cooperative staff/students, and poorly trained tutors / or lecturers in Special Needs Education. In terms of provision to aid their learning processes, they lack scholastic materials and general equipment and materials for their proper learning.

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Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa's Philosophy of Education

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Abstract. As the first indigenous Nigerian professor of Education and as a highly influential Nigerian Minister of Education, Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa is distinguished and honoured in Nigeria and elsewhere as a thought leader in the area of education. It is with this understanding that this study traced his philosophy of education with the view to highlight the underpinnings, meanings and significance of his views and actions. Using logical, linguistic, critical, and expository analyses, the study concluded that his worldview and work typify a philosophy of cultural reconstruction. The philosophy stresses continuous cultural reconstruction of society through education—for sustainable development of the society. It is argued that the philosophy has implications for education and development in Nigeria. Therefore, it is recommended for the country and similar countries.

Keywords: Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa; Philosophy; Reform.

1 Introduction

This paper examines Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa's thoughts on education. These thoughts are found in his speeches, publications and actions at various times, at various stages of his life/ career. He was born in 1923 in Lagos, Nigeria and was the first Nigerian to be appointed professor of Education (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:15). Moreover he had many landmark achievements during his work experience in various areas of life.

His speeches, publications and actions indicate his thoughts about education and life generally. These are what would be analysed in this paper as his philosophy of education. This is important because Fafunwa although a Nigerian has demonstrated a lot of thoughtfulness about education. His thoughts have not been given serious attention, as it should be, like the thoughts

of some other renowned thinkers. Only a few people have focused on his thoughts in education (see for instance Aladejana & Alao, 1992).

As would be found out in the course of the analysis of his thoughts it would be realised that he has very profound thoughts about education. This qualifies him for attention in terms of analysis of his philosophy of education. This paper would therefore examine his thoughts in his early years (up to the end of his Ph.D. degree studies); his thoughts during his early work days; his thoughts as university lecturer; as minister of education in Nigeria; and subsequently, in order to analyse into some details, his philosophy of education.

The method adopted featured logical, linguistic, critical, and expository analysis of his thoughts as found in his speeches, publications and actions. It is hoped that the analysis will help to clarify Fafunwa's ideas on education and the implications of these ideas for education generally, and for education in Nigeria in particular.

2 Fafunwa's Work and Philosophy of Education

2.1 Early Years and Thoughts about Education and Life

Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa (popularly known as Babs Fafunwa) was born in 1923 in Lagos, Nigeria. His parents engaged in farming and petty trading for livelihood. He was part of their life and livelihood experience as he had to farm and trade with them (Fafunwa, 1991:6; see also Aladejana & Alao, 1992:20). Thus he had hectic elementary school days. His parents were not rich. However he was lucky to attend secondary school in 1937; it was on the invitation of an uncle, Pa William Kudehinbu Fafunwa (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:3, 4). In those days in Nigeria attendance of primary and secondary schools was not automatic. Thus only very few children attended elementary and secondary schools. At the secondary school (C.M.S. Grammar School) he performed well in his studies and behaved well to the extent that he was made the class captain in his final year (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:4). To achieve secondary education at that time was like achieving final education because there was no university in Nigeria then. The first university (the university college Ibadan was established in 1948). He worked for three years after his secondary school (1944 – 1947) in the Nigerian Railways at Lagos as a clerk and he saved virtually all the salary he earned, to be able to travel to the United States of America to pursue a university degree. In 1947 he gained admission into Bethune-Cookman College, Daytona, Florida, in the United States of America and travelled to commence his studies. He finished his Bachelor's degree studies in Education in 1951 and proceeded through the support of a philanthropist (Mrs Louise Lawrence Meigs) to pursue his Master's degree in New York University in

1951. He immediately proceeded to do his Doctorate degree studies after completing his Master's degree in the same university through doing some part time work, before he was finally appointed as Assistant Nigerian Liaison Officer for the Nigerian and Sierra Leonean students at the British Embassy and Nigerian office based in Washington D.C. He completed his PhD degree studies in Education in 1955.

It follows that Fafunwa had hectic time pursing his studies right from primary school up till his final studies in the university. This is to indicate that Fafunwa never had his education under easy circumstances. He struggled throughout. He always had it in his mind that education is a way to achievement in life, so he was always undaunted going through the constant obstacles that featured virtually throughout his days as pupil and student at the elementary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions.

His objective was to secure education and thereby be free from want and become an achiever. His thought is that education could make one free oneself from the servitude level of colonial dependency to the level of independent citizen of a sovereign nation (Fafunwa, 1991a: 46, 48). So he thought education must be pursued as an instrument of freedom (Fafunwa, 1991a: 46, 48), social progress (cultural progress) (Fafunwa, 1991a: 46, 48), and economic progress (Fafunwa, 1991a: 46, 48).

It would not only be a viable instrument of freedom from the shackles of colonialism but also a viable instrument of progress after colonialism would have been conquered and independence attained. Thus at independence it would help in political progress, social and cultural progress and economic progress. It is the thoughts of Fafunwa in these regards, and the demonstration of the genuineness of his thoughts in his life endeavours that constitute his philosophy of life and particularly his philosophy of education.

2.2 Early Experience and Thoughts about Civil Responsibility

After graduating in 1955 with a Ph.D. degree in education, Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa came back to Nigeria with his wife and child. He first worked in a secondary school, Ahmadiyya College, Agege, Lagos, for one year (January – December, 1956) as a senior tutor and vice principal. During the period he initiated the teaching of civics in the curriculum of the school, to assert the need to teach civil responsibilities in the schools, which at that time was not part of the subjects taught in the secondary schools (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:10, 11).

2.3 ESSO West Africa and Thoughts on *Practical* Education

Fafunwa worked in An Oil Company and Demonstrated that Education should De-emphasise Certification and Emphasise Practical Achievement of School

Leavers. In 1957 Fafunwa worked in ESSO West Africa Limited (an international oil company) in Lagos, where he was appointed as Employee-Public Relations Manager. During his tenure at the company (1957 - 1961), he initiated the employment of Nigerians at management level to convince himself and demonstrate to the colonial masters that Nigerians could hold managerial positions creditably if given the opportunity. The Nigerians he helped to get employment in the foreign company performed creditably to the satisfaction of the foreigners.

He also employed some people who failed school certificate examination in the foreign company, although these people demonstrated good disposition to hard work and learning. The people also performed creditably to the satisfaction of the foreign company (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:11, 12). Fafunwa was pleased that he used this position to demonstrate that failure in examination is not failure in life (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:11, 12). At that time schooling in Nigeria was examination oriented to the extent that the process of schooling largely involved passing examination, such that education could not be thought of without passing examination.

Fafunwa thus started initiating the thought that schooling and indeed education could be thought of without examination, in the sense that practical achievement matters more than examination certification. Indeed there are a lot of people who have lofty qualifications in various areas of educational specialisation, yet who in their various employments in the society have not positively impacted on the socio-economic milieu for the progress of the society. Whereas there are some with little education who have brought about positive change in the Nigerian society. Fafunwa had had that thought before Nigeria's independence and had pursued the demonstration of the thought when he had the opportunity to do so at ESSO Oil Company.

It follows that the thoughts of Fafunwa about education that places more emphasis on achievement than on examination is good. He thought about it, he demonstrated it when he had the opportunity in the pre-independence Nigeria and he was confirmed to be right.

2.4 University of Nigeria and Ideas about Education in Nigeria

In post-independence Nigeria after working in ESSO for some years (1957 - 1961) he sought appointment at the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, and got it in June 1961. The university was founded in 1960 almost immediately after independence, he was appointed (as a Senior Lecturer) in the Department of Education along with some other Nigerians and two foreigners (John Hanson and J. P. D. de Turville). John Hanson who was the head of Department left the university in 1962, and Fafunwa subsequently became the head of Department. He became a Professor in 1965 (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:15). He was thus the

first Nigerian to be appointed Professor of education (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:15). In the same year (1965) he was appointed Dean of Education.

As Dean of Education he initiated a lot of ideas in the process of education (along with his team of lecturers in the Faculty of Education). Some of them are: The Faculty was the first to start Bachelor of Education degree programmes wherein the subject matter (teaching subjects) is taught along with pedagogical content (courses like educational psychology, philosophy, methodology and so forth). Before this time professional teachers who finished from the first university established in Nigeria (University College Ibadan, established in 1948) would pursue either B. A. or B.Sc. degrees programmes and then pursue Postgraduate Diploma in Education (usually a nine-month course of studies) in addition to the Bachelor's degree.

In subsequent years (1962 and afterwards) many other Nigerian universities started following the practice of the Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka under the leadership of Professor Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa. Moreover it was during his leadership in the Faculty of Education that the Faculty initiated the Nigeria Certificate in Education Courses (NCE) (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:15, 16). The programme of studies was initiated to serve as the minimum professional qualification for teachers in Nigeria (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:15, 16). But after a few years the NCE courses which started as a university of Nigeria, Nsukka, initiative became College of Education studies pursued outside university arrangement in various Colleges of Education.

It would be interesting to think that what Nigeria now has today as Colleges of Education were initiated first in Nigeria as Nigeria Certificate in Education Courses in the Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria Nsukka, under the leadership of Fafunwa. Moreover the long vacation courses for Grade II teachers for their professional development were initiated first by Fafunwa in the Faculty of Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN) (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:16).

2.5 University of Ife and Ideas for Reform

In 1967 Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa moved to the University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University, Ife) as a result of the civil war in Nigeria. He also started the Faculty of Education there and was the first Dean of Education. He replicated all his new ideas in Nsukka at Ife and added the emphasis of mother-tongue education for primary school children. He had the Mother-Tongue Primary Education Project whereby he demonstrated that when a child learns largely through his native language he would learn better and achieve more than when he learns largely through a foreign language (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:78-93; Hallmarks of Labour, 2017).

2.6 Minister of Education (1989-1993)

Fafunwa was appointed Minister of Education in 1989 in Nigeria and he also initiated a lot of new ideas in the Nigerian system of education. These were at the Primary, Secondary and University levels.

2.6.1 Primary Level

He thought that education should be free and a right of every citizen for enlightenment and progress in intelligence and functionality; although he could not pursue its implementation because of certain constraints of the military government under which he served as minister (Fafunwa, 1991b). In an address he delivered to the 6th Annual Congress of the Nigerian Academy of Education in 1991 he stated that he wanted *Education for all by the year 2000* to the extent that he proposed the idea of "each one teach one relative or fund the education of one relative" (see also Aladejana & Alao 1992: 176).

In addition, Fafunwa would want the details of the features of *Education for All* as deliberated upon in the International Council on Education *on Teaching,* in Lagos, Nigeria on 22-26 July 1991 to influence Nigerian education. Among the details are;

1. Universalizing access and promoting equity
2. Recognition of individual differences in learners
3. Relevance should be reflected in the school curricular, materials and methods (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:178, 179).

Finally Fafunwa thought that primary education should feature the following contents even before he became minister of education:

1. Reading and Writing in Child's Mother-tongue, English and French.
2. Arithmetical and Mathematical Processes.
3. Basic Science.
4. Civics and Social Studies.
5. Vocational Education.
6. Physical Education (Fafunwa, 1967; Aladejana & Alao, 1992).

2.6.2 Secondary Level

He thought that education should pursue development of intelligence, arts disposition, science disposition, vocational disposition and cultural development. Moreover he thought that education should pursue moral development (Fafunwa, 1991a; see also Fafunwa, 1967:25, 26).

2.6.3 University Level

He thought that education should pursue research for the exploration of the natural and social environment towards the natural and social development of

the society (Fafunwa 1991a; see also Fafunwa 1961:4-5). He also thought that at this level, education should pursue the development of the culture of the society by exploring the culture of the society towards the promotion of what is good in the culture and rejection of what is bad in the culture (Fafunwa 1991a; see also Fafunwa 1961:4-5).

He states that the developed nations that are at the vanguard of development today learn through their various cultures (Fafunwa 1991a; see also Fafunwa 1967:25-26, 146). Thus he insists that Nigeria should not abandon its culture in the bid to make educational and societal progress, rather it should look through its culture, pick the good aspects of the culture and reject the bad aspects. By the same token Nigeria should use the good aspects of other people's culture and reject the bad aspects of other people's cultures (Fafunwa 1991a; see also Fafunwa 1961:4-5).

The culture of nonchalant disposition to bad happenings in the society encourages the continuation of bad happenings and the deterioration of the socio-political milieu. This is what Paulo Freire regards as the culture of silence (Freire, 1972:97-150). Such culture helps no nation. Unfortunately such culture features at various times in Nigeria with its attendant discouragement of development in the socio-political milieu (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:122; see also Fafunwa, 1961:4-5). Fafunwa thought that such culture should not be allowed and it was in this regard that he (in his capacity as minister of education) allowed the Academic Staff Union of Nigerian Universities (ASUU) to regroup, conduct itself democratically, and pursue its academic mandate of teaching, research and community service, in ways that would impact on the progress of the Nigerian society (Aladejana & Alao, 1992:122; see also Fafunwa, 1967:146).

2.6.4 Mass Education

Fafunwa considers education to be so important in the reconstructionism of the culture of the society to the extent that, as minister of education, he suggested that each educated person should teach an uneducated person or fund the education of an uneducated person. He felt that by so doing the whole society would be educated within a short space of time (Fafunwa, 1991b). This idea was accepted in later years by the Nigerian government as part of its strategies for achieving mass education (see FRN, 1998:36; 2004:26; 2013:43) although it is not pursued realistically.

It is in connection with the foregoing thoughts and actions of Fafunwa in various spheres of life that Fafunwa's philosophy of education can be regarded as philosophy of cultural reconstructionism. The philosophy considers education to be central to human development, and considers the teacher to be at the centre of that process. In addition it considers culture of the people as an

important ingredient of man's life which needs to be continuously reconstructed for the development of man and the society. The education sector of the society needs to act on the society in a centripetal manner so that the society can develop along the line of genuine education and culture (Counts 1932; Counts 1934:70-73; Fafunwa, 1991b; Fafunwa 1961:4, 5).

2.6.6 Thoughts after Tenure as Minister of Education

After his tenure as minister of education, Fafunwa still thought of education in terms of education for cultural reconstructionism, as can be seen from his speeches, publications and actions in his subsequent areas of responsibilities (Hallmarks of Labour, 2017).

3 Conclusion

Aliu Babatunde Fafunwa's philosophy of education has been analysed and it is seen to feature philosophy of cultural reconstructionism. This is a modern philosophy of education that places emphasis on constant reconstruction of man's culture for the development of man and his society. It places emphasis on education and particularly on the teacher as the initiator of that cultural reconstruction. It appears to be of great importance to explore our culture regularly for the purpose of reconstruction and subsequent development of man and the society. However other people's cultures also need to be explored by our education for reconstruction and utilisation in our society for the development of the society (Counts, 1932:17-18; Counts, 1934:70-73).

Fafunwa has been found to think in the line of cultural reconstructionism since his early work days at the Nigerian Railways, up till his work days as a Ph.D. degree holder in Ahmadiyya College; Esso; and in the University of Nigeria, Nsukka; and University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University, Ife). Further he retained his thought of cultural reconstructionism as minister of education and even afterwards. His thoughts and actions in the various fields of endeavours show his conviction about the philosophy of cultural reconstructionism as a viable philosophy of life and of education.

4 Recommendations

The philosophy of cultural reconstructionism lays emphasis on exploration of culture for cultural reconstruction. It also asserts that education is the instrument that can help to achieve the desired exploration and cultural reconstruction and consequently the development of the society. It can be found

that the more education a people has the more developed the people appear to be. For instance the developed nations (like United States of America, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Japan, and Russia) insist on granting free education to their citizens up to the end of secondary school education. The education includes general education, functional and vocational education. This makes the citizens to be more enlightened and the societies to engage in more constant reconstruction of their cultures.

On the contrary, the developing nations like Nigeria, and many other African nations grant free education that does not go as far as the end of secondary school education. By so doing the developing nations like Nigeria are not helping so much in the exploration of culture for cultural reconstruction and consequently in the development of the society.

It is therefore recommended that as Fafunwa suggests (Fafunwa, 1991b) the Nigerian society should grant free education to a greater number of people. In this regard the end of senior secondary school education (as it is in the developed nations mentioned above) should be the end of free education; not the end of junior secondary school education. Moreover at that level, the education should feature general education, functional education, and vocational education.

Finally at the tertiary level of education, the students and teachers should be granted a lot of freedom to conduct research in all areas of education for the exploration of the culture of the society towards the reconstruction of the culture and the society for the development of man and the society. This is to suggest that freedom should be granted to conduct research into other people's cultures too; so that whatever is good in the various cultures could be used for the development of the society.

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Effects of Managerial Skills required in Entrepreneurship among Undergraduates in Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract. Nigeria must pay attention to the growth of entrepreneurship in order to move out of the disturbingly high level of unemployment and poverty. Therefore, entrepreneurship education is one of the most promising strategies for rescuing the country from the burden of poverty and youth unemployment. Taking cognizance of this fact, this study examined the effects of the managerial skills among university undergraduates of Agriculture in Oyo State, Nigeria. Following a survey research design, data was collected from a sample of 120 respondents. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics. The findings were that there is no significant difference in the mean responses of males and females on the managerial skills required for entrepreneurship. It is recommended that government changes the way it perceives entrepreneurial activities; reduces the administrative burden on entrepreneurs; and provides adequate funds to Universities to enable them to establish and equip entrepreneurial development centres.

Keywords: BTVET; Agriculture; Curriculum innovation.

1 Introduction

Management theory and strategy research urge us to consider the entrepreneurial and creative dimensions of management even in situations where small and medium entrepreneurs are confronted with fierce and dynamic competition, complex and turbulent business environments, demanding and powerful customers, and limited resources. It is not easy for small and medium entrepreneurs to find or develop a promising strategic path of organizational development when the ordinary business seems to attract almost all the available forces of the firm. Nevertheless, innovative potential and flexibility due to low formal complexity of the organization, closeness to the customer,

independence from outside control and the deep impact of the owner on the business are typical attributes of small business firms.

There has been a great deal of attention paid to the subject of entrepreneurship as a means of sustaining the economies of nations. This has stemmed primarily from the findings of economic analysts that small firms contribute considerably to economic growth and development. Moreover, many men and women have chosen entrepreneurial careers because doing so seems to offer them greater economic and psychological rewards than does the large company route (Zahra & George, 2002).

Entrepreneurship education helps to develop a pool of potential entrepreneurs who are well equipped with skills to manage small and medium scale industries (Amesi, 2011). It involves the acquisition of skills, ideas and managerial abilities necessary for self-reliance. Agbaeze (2007) recognized entrepreneurship as that which is associated with different kinds of activities relating to the establishment and operation of a business enterprise. These activities may include identification to exploit for profit, promotion and establishment of a business enterprise. Others are distribution of goods and services; organization and management of the human and material resources for the attainment of the objectives of the enterprise; risk bearing; and innovation. Besides, entrepreneurship education has also been viewed as a learning process that imbibes in the learners traits and competencies such as team spirit, leadership, problem-solving, negotiation skills, self-direction and self-management, unlike the traditional stereotype education, which places less attention on skills and practical needs of the world of work (Soskice, 2013).

Those with a managerial outlook are often in a great position to succeed as entrepreneurs, except for two big misconceptions that lead to massive problems. Many managers believe that if a business is not working, the solution lies in hiring more employees. They throw extra bodies at the problem, but this may only aggravate the situation because it could fail to address the underlying root cause of the difficulty or lack of profitability. Another mistaken belief that is common to this mind-set is that the route to success is through growth, not profit growth but overall structural growth of the enterprise itself. Once again, bigger is not necessarily better unless and until the fundamentals are sound and efficient. Growing larger to fix the problems of a small business only generates a much bigger company with problems that are expanded, magnified, and much more expensive to remedy. The most misstep common to the managerial attitude is that the entrepreneur wants to be the boss, even if that means sacrificing the talent or potential of employees. To give orders and be in charge requires no great skill or aptitude, but to be a leader, one who knows how to inspire and train others to rise to greater heights, is a rare quality. Managers who become leaders succeed because they accept the challenge and responsibility of ensuring that others under their wings also succeed and

flourish. By getting the most out of employees, managers themselves are able to delegate aspects of their businesses to others and set higher goals. Those who say they cannot find good employees usually mean they lack what it takes to attract or create good employees and as a consequence they also lack what it takes to succeed as an entrepreneur. But those who not only manage but also lead can rise to the next level and become owners/leaders, one step closer to the real definition of an entrepreneur.

It is with cognizance of the foregoing that this study undertook to assess the relative effects of managerial skills that exist between University undergraduates' lecturers and entrepreneurs in the field of Agriculture in Oyo State, Nigeria. The study attempted to respond to one major research question: what are the managerial skills required by the University Undergraduates of Agriculture? And it was hypothesised that "there is no significant difference in the mean response of male and female respondents on the needed managerial skills among University undergraduates of Agriculture".

Methodology

The study employed a descriptive and analytic survey research design. This was done to establish how University undergraduates of Agriculture connect and sort information from numerous sources and use it to make decisions and to arrange and distribute work among members of their work group with the view to accomplish the organization's goals. Simple random sampling was used to select a sample of 120 respondents who included university lecturers and entrepreneurs in the Faculty of Agriculture. Data was collected using a self-administered semi-structured questionnaire. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics. The hypothesis was tested at the level of confidence alpha = .05 using a Student-t test.

Findings and Discussion

The findings on the respondents' view of the managerial skills undergraduates require are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents by managerial skills required by undergraduates (%, N = 120)

Managerial Skills	VHR	HR	R	NR		Mean	SD
Ability to compel and encourage employees	49	32	18	1	100	3.29	0.793
Ability to clarify and solve problems for others	43	38	17	2	100	3.23	0.786
Ability to coordinate effectively	43	39	18		100	3.26	0.739
Ability to use natural skills	43	33	24		100	3.18	0.799
Ability to perform and manage daily activities of the business	47	33	20		100	3.27	0.775
Ability to enforce written rules and procedures	48	30	23		100	3.25	0.802
Ability to manage multiple business	46	33	20	1	100	3.23	0.807
Ability to take strong decisions	46	33	20	1	100	3.23	0.807
Ability to delegate positions of authority	37	43	20		100	3.17	0.737
Ability to get people to perform operations willingly	37	38	25	1	100	3.10	0.803
Ability to maintain resources for optimum production	45	34	20	1	100	3.22	0.825
Weighted mean = 3.22							

KEY: Very highly required (VHR); Highly required (HR); Required (R); Not required (NR) Standard Deviation (SD)

Table 1 shows the respondents response to managerial skills required by the University Undergraduates of Agriculture. The result revealed a weighted mean score of 3.22 out of the maximum 4.00, which is higher than the standard average mean of 2.50. This implies that respondents agreed that University undergraduates of agriculture need to have high level of managerial skills. The results of the hypothesis test are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Mean difference in perception of managerial skills of undergraduates require

Variables	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Df	t	P-value
Male	69	35.17	7.13	118	-0.476	0.635*
Female	51	35.8	7.22			

* Not significant at P<.05

Table 2 shows that there was no significant difference in the mean response of male and female respondents on the needed managerial skills of University undergraduates of Agriculture (P > .05). Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected.

These findings indicated that University undergraduates of Agriculture need to have high level of managerial skills. The result may be due to the fact the University undergraduates of Agriculture do not have the skills for planning, organizing, coordinating, controlling, budgeting and staffing. This result contradicts the work of Schneider (2007) who argues that there is a function

which is necessary to set up a farm, the function of entrepreneurs to take other persons' risks of income. Taking and managing risks is a function that has to be executed not only in times of the start-up of a farm but later on, during the running of the farm enterprise established, as well.

Based on the findings of the study and data analysis relating to relative effects of managerial skills required and its significance in entrepreneurship education among University undergraduates of Agriculture in Oyo State. It was concluded that University undergraduates of agriculture need to have high level of managerial skills. Therefore, the following recommendations are made:

1. Government at all level needs to have a positive perception of entrepreneurial activities; reduce the administrative burden on entrepreneurs, and coordinate among their agencies to ensure that the necessary resources are directed to where they are mostly needed. In doing so, friendly legislation that can support small and medium entrepreneurial should be formulated and implemented.
2 The intending entrepreneurs should endeavour to inculcate the habit of planning, organizing, coordinating, directing, staffing, controlling and budgeting in relating to managerial skills in entrepreneurship education.

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Stress Level and Academic Performance of University Students in Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract. This study examined the relationship between level of stress and students' academic performance in Universities in Kwara State, Nigeria. The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. Proportional stratified random sampling was used to select 300 students for the study. A "Students' Stress Level Questionnaire (SSLQ)" and "Students' Academic Performance proforma (SAPP)" was used to collect data. The instruments were validated by experts in educational management and counselling and a test-re-test reliability procedure was used to determine their reliability. Descriptive statistics were used to answer the research questions while Pearson product-moment correlation statistic was used to test the research hypotheses stated. The findings were that a significant relationship exists between the stress level and academic performance of the students. There is also a significant relationship between level of personal stress, interpersonal stress, environmental stress, achievement stress and academic performance. Therefore, it was recommended that the universities organize stress management seminars and workshops in collaboration with the Counselling and Human Development department. It is also recommended that university administrators make the learning environment conducive to boost academic performance and reduce stress.

Keywords: Stress; Academic performance; Student affairs.

1 Introduction

The increasing awareness of the existence of stress and its adverse effects on Nigerian citizens has aroused the interest of professional bodies and educationists. Stress has been identified as a problem in many work places which leads to absenteeism, low morale and poor academic performance among students. Stress is a state of tension that occurs when there are demands and

pressures that task an individual's ability to adjust. Although higher education is often regarded as a period of fun and few responsibilities, the reality is that learning in higher institutions in Nigeria can be very stressful. Among students, stress results from the challenge of adjusting to transactions in change. For instance, resumption and vacation from school and returning to school or staying home after breaks may cause stress as students adapt to changes in routine. The fact remains that tertiary education students need to adjust to the demands of living more independent without the assistance of parents or families in managing their time (Hayble, 2002).

Tertiary education has become increasingly complex, the students are faced with more academic programmes which are to be covered within a short period. Stress can create positive or negative feelings. When effectively handled, stress can help to compel one to greater action which can lead to higher achievement while negative feelings can lead to some health related problems, such as headache, stomach upset, insomnia, high blood pressure and even stroke (Shield, 1995).

Stressors in this study are the challenges encountered by university students which are perceived to generate stress. Stress level is the extent to which students experience tensions, worries, pressures and anxiety in the process of pursuing their academic activities in the universities.

1.1 Related Literature

The phenomenon of stress continues to receive increasing attention from various fields such as medicine, counselling, psychologists and educational managers. Different researchers have defined stress in different ways. Dwyer and Cumming (2001) described stress as the demands made on people to which they respond and which affect their physical, psychological and behavioural characteristics, while Oniye (2001) viewed it from a psychological and physiological perspectives. Students react to higher education in various ways. To some students, higher education is stressful because it is an abrupt change from secondary school level. Students in higher educational institutions are viewed as leaders of tomorrow. They have academic success as their major goal. For this goal to be achieved, it requires dedication, sacrifice, self-discipline, motivation and cordial relationship between students and lecturers. Students at this level are saddled with a lot of responsibilities and challenges (Imonikebe, 2009) which may sometimes result in stress. To some, even separation from home is a source of stress.

Stress touches almost every segment of life. It can be seen as a major contributor to sickness. It is dangerous to both mental and physical health and can lead to a total breakdown of an individual's system. Stress is known to be causative agents to some dominant psychological problems such as loss of

appetite, memory loss, absent-mindedness, depression, frustration, nervousness and blood pressure which are common in Nigeria (Adewole, 2006). The daily hazard experienced by Nigerian students has been aggravated by the present situation of the country which includes, insensitivity to the plight of these hazard by the government, instability in government, strikes, frequent changes in government policies, transportation problem and government inability to maintain law and order leading to insecurity of lives and properties (Oladimeji, 2007).

Vermut and Steensman (2005), Malachpines and Keinan (2007) also defined stress as discrepancy between environmental demands (stressors) and individual capacities to fulfil the demands. Also, Campbell (2006) described stress as the adverse reaction people have to excessive pressure or other types of demands placed on them. It occurs when an individual is confronted by a situation that they perceive as overwhelming and cannot cope with.

Agolla and Ongori (2009) found that most students in the higher institutions of learning are experiencing stress in their daily academic activities. Nakalema and Ssenyonga (2013) observed that for many students, university life is a major transition because they are free to decide what to do without undue influence of their parents. They have a responsibility to struggle to meet the expectations of their parents which include expectations related to their academic performance (Smith & Renk, 2007).

Researchers such as Woun (2003), Ongori (2007), Erkutlu and Chafra 2006) identified the following as stressors, too many assignments, competition with other students, academic failures, lack of 'pocket money', poor relationship with other students or lecturers, family or problems at home, accommodation and overcrowded lecture halls. When students are faced with these stressors, they become disorganized, disoriented and find it extremely difficult to cope. However, majority of students claimed that course load is the source of the stress which in turn affects their Grade Point Average (Talib and Zai-ur-Rehman, 2012). Also some students report that the prospect of having to sit for examinations is stressful because of the pressure to revise all the learned material within a given period of time (Mani, 2010). Baldwin, Wilkinson and Bradley (2009) emphasized that student-workers experience greater stress during mid-term and final examination periods of the academic year than during any other time. This arises from absenteeism from class due to the demand to be at work. Malach-Pines and Keinan (2007), Ongori (2007) Ongori and Agolla (2009) identified stress symptoms as lack of energy, taking over the counter medication, high blood pressure, feeling depressed, increase in appetite, restlessness, tensions and anxieties among others. They discovered that the major causes of stress among students are academic workload, inadequate resources, low motivation and poor performance in academic work, over-crowded lecture halls and uncertainty of getting jobs after graduation from the

university. It was discovered by Macan, Shahani, Dipboye and Philips (1990), Baldwin, Wilkinson and Barkley (2000) and Robetham (2008) that coping strategies be used by students when experiencing academic stress. Some resort to avoidant coping, drug abuse, denial and behavioural disengagement while others cope actively through acceptance, planning and positively reframing and taking the necessary steps to overcome the academic stress. Other forms of coping mechanisms used by students include sports, music, hanging out with friends, sleeping (Shaikh, 2004).

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate relationship between level of stress experienced by students in Universities in Kwara State and their academic performance. The study also examines the influence of different types of stress on the respondents' academic performance. Specifically, the purpose of the study is to:

1. examine the level of stress among university students in Kwara State; and
2. examine the sources of stress among students of universities in Kwara State.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study.

1. What is level of stress among University students in Kwara State?
2. What is the level of academic performance of University students in Kwara State?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

HO_1There is no significant relationship between level of stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

HO_2There is no significant relationship between level of personal stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

HO_3There is no significant relationship between level of environmental stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

HO_4There is no significant relationship between level of achievement stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

2 Methodology

The research design employed in this study is descriptive survey. The population of this study consists of all the University students in Kwara State. There are four universities in Kwara State, Nigeria, namely, University of Ilorin, Kwara State University Malete, Al-Hikmah University Adewole, Ilorin and Landmark University, Omu Aran. They are federal, state and private universities respectively. The target population was 300 level students in the selected Universities. The decision to choose 300 level students was due to the fact that they have gone through series of academic stress and rigours as they are nearing point of graduation.

Proportional sampling technique was used to select the respondents. Thus 141 respondents were selected from University of Ilorin, 99 from Kwara State University Malete, 24 from Al-Hikmah University, Ilorin and 36 from Landmark University Omu Aran.

Two research instruments titled "Students' Stress Level Questionnaire" (SSLQ) and "Students Academic Performance Proforma" (SAPP) were used to obtain relevant data from the respondents. The instruments were validated using content validity. The test-re-test reliability procedure was used to determine the reliability of the instrument Pearson product-moment correlation statistic was used to determine the co-efficient of the instruments and this yielded 0.64 and 0.87 respectively. In analysing the data, descriptive statistics, rank order and Pearson product-moment statistic were used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Level of stress among University students

The findings on the level of stress among the students are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Level of stress among university students

Stress Level	Frequency	%
High	284	94.7
Low	16	5.3
Total	300	100

Out of the 300 respondents, 284 (94.7%) experienced high level of stress, while 16 (5.3%) experienced low level of stress. A high level of stress may disturb or thwart the effort of a person from reaching or achieving his goal (Oladipupo,

2007). High level of stress can lead to poor academic performance, examination malpractice and fear of failure (Abdulahi, 1999).

3.2 Students' Academic Performance

The findings on the students' level of Academic Performance of are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of students by performance

Grade Point	Ilorin	KWASU	Al-Hikmah	Landmark	Total	%	Academic Level
5.00-4.50	3	3	0	0	6	21	High
4.49-3.50	33	18	1	6	58		
3.49-2.50	90	34	3	4	131	44	Moderate
2.49-1.50	66	37	0	2	105		
1.49-1.00	0	0	0	0	0	35	Low
Total	192	92	4	12	300	100	

Table 2 shows the level of academic performance of University students in Kwara State. The result shows that students from the universities with grade points between 5.00-3.50 can be said to have attained a high academic level of performance and this is 21% of the respondents. Students who have grade points between 3.49-2.50 are classified to have moderate academic performance and this is 44% of the respondents. A total of 105 (35%) of the respondents attain low academic level of performance. The result shows that despite the high level of stress among students (respondents) as shown in table 1, quite a number of the students still maintain a moderate academic performance. This means that the students are managing their stress effectively.

3.3 Testing of Hypotheses

HO_1: There is no significant relationship between level of stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

Table 3: Level of stress and Academic Performance

Variable	No.	Mean	SD	df	Cal. r	Critical r	Decision
Stress Level	300	54.46	6.30	298	0.32*	0.19	HO rejected
Academic Performance	300	13.91	2.89				

* Significant < 0.05

Table 3 shows the result of correlation analysis of level of stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State. The calculated r of 0.32 is

greater than the critical r of 0.19 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that stress has a significant relationship with academic performance of university students in Kwara State, Nigeria. Stressful conditions like inability to pay school fees, meet deadlines in submitting assignments, inability to comprehend what has been taught, unemployment after school, power failure and inadequate financial support are all sources of stress which can affect academic performance (Erkutlu and Chafra 2006).

HO_2: There is no significant relationship between level of personal stress and academic performance of university students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

Table 4: Level of Personal Stress and Academic Performance

Variable	No.	Mean	SD	df	Cal. r	Critical r	Decision
Personal stress	300	17.41	2.67	298	0.27*	0.19	HO rejected
Academic Performance	300	13.91	2.89				

* Significant < 0.05

Table 4 shows that correlation analysis of the level of personal stress and academic performance of University students in Kwara State. The calculate r of 0.27 is greater than the critical r of 0.19 at 0.05 level of significance. Hence the null hypothesis is rejected. Alao (2003) confirmed that pressures and worries within an individual such as sickness, inability to do things by oneself and financial problem are personal stress that affects academic performance.

HO_3: There is no significant relationship between level of environmental stress and academic performance of university students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

Table 5: Level of Environmental Stress and Academic Performance

Variable	No.	Mean	SD	df	Cal. r	Critical r	Decision
Environmental Stress	300	13.29	2.65	298	0.23*	0.19	HO rejected
Academic Performance	300	13.91	2.89				

* Significant < 0.05

As shown in Table 5, the calculated r of 0.23 is greater than the critical r of 0.19 at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This implies that there is a relationship between level of environmental stress and academic performance of university students in Kwara State. The university surroundings contribute in a large extent to level of stress. Environmental stress

is a form of discomfort experienced within the area an individual lives or studies. Dirty environment, noise, water and air pollution, traffic congestion or unavailability of proper transport system are sources of environmental stress. When these are prevalent on university campus they can affect academic performance.

HO_4: There is no significant relationship between level of achievement stress and academic performance of university students in Kwara State, Nigeria.

Table 6: Level of Achievement stress and Academic Performance

Variable	No.	Mean	SD	df	Cal. r	Critical r	Decision
Achievement Stress	300	14.67	2.88	298	0.49*	0.19	HO rejected
Academic Performance	300	13.91	2.89				

* Significant < 0.05

As shown in table 6, the calculated r of 0.49 is greater than the critical r of 0.19 at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. This implies that there is a relationship between level of achievement stress and academic performance of university students in Kwara State. According to Chafra (2006) Awino and Agolla (2008) academic stress such as too many assignments, academic failures, overcrowded classrooms and even poor relationship with other students could influence academic achievement as these stressors usually lower students' Grade Point Averages. A good student whose Grade Point is likely to be 4.50-5.00 may drop to 3.50 or even below. Achievement stress is the wide spread "invisible disability", it is rarely detected but generally get worse as students progress through school activities.

4 Conclusion and Recommendations

The study has shown that a significant relationship exist between stress level and academic performance of university students in Kwara State. The university students in Kwara State have moderate academic performance as a result of high influence of stress personally, in their environment and also in their achievement, which manifest in the achievement of their academic goal. The ultimate goal of any institution is to graduate students who would be useful to themselves and contribute meaningfully to the socio-economic development of their society through adequate learning and character development. This goal can only be achieved through concerted efforts of students, staff and the university administration to reduce the level of stress experienced by the

students to its barest minimum. Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made.

1. Orientation programmes, seminars and workshops should be organized by the universities in collaboration with the counselling and human development centres to enlighten the students on the stressor that they are likely to experience in the course of their academic pursuit. Effect of these stressors on the students should be emphasized.
2. There should be an increased government involvement in initiating effective programmes that could improve academic achievement like good libraries including e-learning centres. Internet facilities should be made available at anywhere on campus. University administrators should make learning environment conducive by providing necessary infrastructures like good toilets, enough and always available transport system, good hostel accommodation and regular water supply and electricity.
3. Academic planning office should concentrate on appropriate school calendar so that academic programmes are not choking especially semester examinations. Examination halls should be well-spaced to avoid over-crowdedness which can aid examination malpractice.
4. Administrators at all levels should introduce coping strategies which would help students to overcome whatever stress they might experience. As ability to cope with this stress is what will help them to achieve success in their academics.

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Adult and Lifelong Learning: Implications for Sustainable Development and Employment Creation

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Abstract. This study was carried out to ascertain the extent to which lifelong learning and continuing education enhanced workers' professional competence; sustainable development; and employment creation. It adopted a descriptive design. A purposive, multistage, random sampling procedure was used to select 200 (116 males and 84 females) students of the Distance Learning Institute (DLI), University of Lagos. Data was collected using a questionnaire and an interview schedule. The results showed that majority of the respondents affirmed that lifelong learning and continuing education enhanced both the intellectual growth and industrial intelligence of employed workers. Some 96.5 percent of the respondents asserted that the possession of a university degree certificate is desirable for sub-degree holders or holders of associate degrees to gain competitive advantage in access to social and economic resource including employment creation. It is recommended that the National Universities Commission (NUC) urges institutions providing continuing education programmes to complete its accreditation processes in order to establish excellent academic standards.

Keywords: Lifelong learning; ODL; Quality assurance.

1 Introduction

Besides individuals initial secondary school education to secure entry-level (first) job or employment in the labour market, each person especially the adult desire lifelong learning or continuing education in one hand to stimulate or enhance intelligence, ingenuity, cleverness, growth potentials, creative and productive capacity for sustainable development (continuous improvement in learning) job and employment creation. More importantly, knowledge explosion in the re-design of jobs integrated with robotics which has hitherto replaced human labour coupled with emerging trends in the application of

industrial technology at the workplace to manufacturing processes make lifelong learning and continuing education or learning by discovery (heuristic education or problem-solving education) imperative for adults to continue in learning and consistently renewing knowledge, skills and attitudes throughout lifetime.

Whereas lifelong learning refers to pattern of, regular way or orderly sequence of total lifetime learning activities and experiences while continuing education though a more complex concept provides the opportunity, willingness, willpower, stimulus, curiosity, right mental set, ability and determination to learn. Application of heuristic approach to learning is consistent with Ippoliti (2015), Obidiegwu and Ojo-Ajibare (2009) affirmation of same for stimulating the potential power or creative ability of youth and adults to learning through a variety of means which include library search, laboratory experiments and workshop practicals. It means that despite characteristic human difficulties and challenges, youth and adults are required to develop the power of self-expression, learn purposefully and usefully in a lifetime. One can gather from here and naturally too, that in human development or growth process, lifelong learning and continuing education are positioned at the disposal of both new entrants into the job market and those who are already in employment to navigate through a variety of career options and job clusters to enable individuals cope satisfyingly with present and future jobs within organizations. This explains the role of lifelong learning and continuing education in career exploration, career preparation, income earning and investment promotion. Based on this premise, continuing education is seen as the aspect of education which deals with constant verification, renewal and reconstruction of knowledge for promoting lifelong learning, investment in social and economic ventures for employment creation or regeneration.

In another sense, the need to improve human capital formation, that is, for individuals to maintain currency or professionalism in the practice of one's profession or career and remain employable make continuing education indispensable to adult lifelong learning and acquisition of requisite knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs). Professionalism here implies that people are imbued with the behaviour, skills or qualities often demonstrated by professional experts and practitioners to promote expert knowledge, expertise or know-how of a discipline or field of endeavour. This is concerned with strict adherence to and compliance with professional ethics, oath of allegiance, loyalty and obedience taken through induction ceremonies, initiation, principles, doctrines and practice of professions as prescribed, established or bonded by law, legislation, convention and Act of parliament of professional bodies or association such as in education, accounting, law, agriculture, health professions and others. In this context, continuing education is concerned with fostering the acquisition, conservation, refinement, distribution and

dissemination of knowledge among youth and adults for a lifetime. The learning experience (experiential knowledge) is systematic, sequential, planned, organized, coordinated, unhindered while it brightens and expands the scope of knowledge, thus leading individuals from lower to higher levels of educational attainment.

Perhaps, it is for this reason that many institutions established Open and Distance Learning Education Programmes while others changed the nomenclature of academic programmes to reflect the global trend of education and cater or provide for the learning needs of workers, that is enable workers enrol in post-secondary school learning activities and programmes for personal enrichment and employment creation. Whereas in America, Cornell University and University of Wisconsin, Madison through their respective university-based continuing education courses for lifelong learning established agricultural extension service programmes to train farmers on modern methods and techniques of farming. Some scholars (Rogers, 2005; Schugurensky, 1907) argued succinctly that:

> Old and dead-end skills which are obsolete for today's labour market needs must give way to new knowledge… farmers need to attend seminars or retrain on new farming methods.

While in England, in addition to providing career enhancement and Open University degree to various categories of workers in education, law, accounting, business, health-care and related professions, the University of London and the University of Leeds through university-based training and development education offered training and development programmes to employees of agricultural and allied professions at Sheffield Research Institute and Corby Steel Works on the use of the by-products of coal and oil for the production of fertilizer and animal fees. The role of continuing education in lending intelligibility to lifelong learning, career advancement and development as well as job mobility through open and distance learning programmes was described in this way:

> …that about 30.6 percent of holders of sub-degree qualification needed extra credit hours in open and distance learning programmes to qualify or fit them for present and future jobs (Dench, Perryman and Giles, 1998; Storey and Sisson, 1993).

It can be deduced from the foregoing discussion that in twofold perspectives, continuing education combines or links theory with practice (i.e. learning runs concurrently or simultaneously with working or employment creation). Again, it can be inferred from the information given above that continuing education was planned by institutions as evening, part-time and weekend programme to accommodate the schedule of working students. Learning takes place outside

the working hours usually as evening programmes. It is adult education in the sense that the clientele are youth and adults who of necessity must pass through the rigour of career exploration, professionalism, education and training, combine work with study as well as apply knowledge to the production of goods and services. It concerns involvement in continuous learning from lower to higher level of educational attainment from simple to complex form of knowledge to ascend the peak of the career ladder. Thus, continuing education becomes an inescapable or inevitable process of lifelong learning for indigent impoverished and pauperized students to prolong their employment or tenure within organizations. In other words, individuals with this dual identity benefit from both on-going learning and on-the-job experiences. The learning experience is put to use immediately, it is not banking education as proposed or propagated by Illich (1976) that is, de-schooling society.

In contemporary times, available facts reveal that knowledge economy (using knowledge to generate tangible and intangible benefits or values) remains one of the most rational, pragmatic and innovative intellectual process of encouraging individuals (especially adult and workers) to acquire relevant knowledge, skills and abilities for self-development, career growth and sustainable development. This is done by advising or helping workers to invest more in continuing education through Open and Distance Learning or correspondence and online education programmes. Knowledge economy in this context depicts a labour force which is characterized by computer literacy, well-trained and skilled in handling data, developing algorithms (formulas, instructions) and simulated models. In other words, knowledge economy requires that an adult engages himself in self-directed learning activity and in some programmes of education for personal enrichment and employment creation. Knowledge economy is described simply by some scholars (Amidon, Fornica and Mercier-Laurent, 2005; Drucker, 1969) in this form:

> Knowledge (knowledgeable) worker or adult works with his or her head, not hands, and produces ideas, knowledge and information.

The question arises like this naturally; why is emphasis placed on knowledge economy? Answer to this question is not farfetched however, two major reasons stand out. First, it should be noted that past financial mismanagement of the economy coupled with reduced government funding of public education culminated in rationalization of university academic programmes by both local and foreign institutions. Cutting down academic programmes which are characterized by low competitiveness, low students' enrolment and lower employment or job prospect means cost-cutting for government but a shift of the financial burden for education from government to students and their parents. In another aspect, it should be acknowledged that growing poverty and increasing inequity in the distribution of income together with ongoing

economic crisis have inadvertently promoted some educational reforms with consequences for increased users (students) fees. In recognition of the competitiveness in the labour market and the demand by employers for educated, trained and skilled labour force, it can be inferred from the two points presented above that rationalization of academic programmes including change of nomenclature of academic programmes by institutions have placed continuing education at a strategic or vantage position to cater for the educational needs of adult (workers) and that of underserved people. Based on this highlight, this paper examined the concepts of continuing education and lifelong learning, sustainable development and employment creation.

1.1 Conception of Continuing Education and Lifelong Learning

In this context, continuing education is seen as an impetus or stimulus which results in increased learning activity to achieve the goals of lifelong learning. Conceptually, continuing education is a complement to lifelong learning, that is, by implication continuing education is an integral part of lifelong learning. This clarification is important to avoid some conceptual or ideological contradictions because of the interdependent application of the two concepts.

In the general body of knowledge, continuing education seems to defy a definite form or structure of definition because it is adaptable to diverse human learning needs and situations. It is rather amorphous or nebulous, that is, lacking in form or expression. Whereas some American and European scholars (Rogers, 2005; Keep and Mayhew, 1998) looked at continuing education from the perspective of Chautauqua Sunday School Literacy model with all the attributes of post-initial education, out-of-school education (education conducted outside the formal school system), remedial education, part-time school or evening-school serving certain categories of clientele. With this outlook, it seems delusive to classify or describe adult literacy or basic education and remedial education as continuing education. It could be argued that until someone undertaking remedial education programme at a level not lesser than secondary school remedy his or her deficiency and proceeds to a higher level of educational or career attainment, such learning experience may not qualify to be described as continuing education. Moving about in cyclic learning activity like in remedial education or coaching classes may also not be described as continuing education.

A critical look at this issue revealed that Egunyomi (2015) and Akinpelu (2002) distilled continuing education from a compendium of terms and ideas similar to adult education. With the reflection, these researchers argued that continuing education has common characteristics with adult education in that it is a systematic, sequential, planned and organized body of knowledge. In this prescriptive rather than descriptive approach, the word “sequential” means that

the learning experience, materials, syllabus or curriculum, everything is arranged and presented in sequence, step by step or order of importance, illustrating different level of, and hierarchy of learning achievement and outcome. Further from this, the experts cited above contended that continuing education is both recurrent and lifelong education because continuing and recurrent education implies carrying forward the education that youth and adults received before. While it is noted that lifelong learning is a much more all-inclusive and all-embracing concept. In addition to the view presented here, it is apt for one to say that as an educational endeavour, it is recurrent education because the learning that takes place, keeps on re-occurring or appearing several times (recurring from time to time) in semester and sessions with great reflections leading to higher levels of learning difficulties and improvement of knowledge over time. Continuing education is both lifelong and inclusive education in that it covers a wide variety of disciplines and an array of practitioners in the field while the learning experience hinges on for a lifetime.

Continuing education is also interrelated with non-formal education including extra-mural studies. Both of them have common characteristics with organized lecture taking place outside of the formal school system. This mode of learning by its flexibility encourages holders of sub-degree qualifications with felt-need to register for extra credit to earn university degrees. It has also enhanced professionalization of some professions such as Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN), Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria (CIBN), Association of Certified Chartered Accountants (ACCA), Institute of Chartered Secretaries of Nigeria (ICSN) and others. Practitioners in these different fields after undergoing rigorous course of study, passed prescribed qualifying examinations are certified, inducted and or licensed to carry out professional and private practice while at the same time, offering consultancy services. It is a systematic, planned and organized body of educational efforts provided by a variety of interested agencies outside of the formal school system for youth and adults in order to ascend to the top of their educational and career ladders in their lifetime. More importantly, it is an integral and necessary part of adult education which places more emphasis on postsecondary school education programmes to increase career options available to individuals. Based on the current ideas and facts obtained from both local and international institutions, it is obvious that both in form and structure, continuing education is interdependently related to adult education, a recurrent and lifelong learning as well as non-formal education.

1.2 Sustainable Development

Sustainable development implies the ability of a thing, system, person or idea to start from a small beginning, continue to grow in size, evolve, enlarge in scope

or expand in dimensional area, volume and endure under difficult or painful situation for a long time without causing rupture, fracture, buckle, damage, disruption, dysfunction or impairment to existing developmental process and management structure or system. In specific terms, it also denotes the ability of a person or individual's expansion or enlargement in scope of knowledge, under-standing, wisdom, reasoning and development of intellectual capacity and continuity in learning for a life time (lifelong learning) and remains resilient to discouragement even when subjected to difficulty or stress at yield point.

It can be gathered from this background information that sustainable development is concerned with persistence, firmness and resolute or purposeful commitment to personal, social and economic development of the environment without impeding the growth of present and future generations.

However, the United Nations (1995:149-150) attempt at making further clarification states that sustainable development is concerned with the capacity to meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. It is important in this context to reiterate that the ability or effort to meet the needs of the present age should not in any form hamper, thwart, disrupt, undermine, forestall, frustrate, hinder or destroy the developmental ability or process of future generations to meet their own needs. This marks a paradigm shift from the culture of silence (Freire, 1972), complacency, waste, culture of survival instinct or the throwaway culture. It should be noted that in this era, change is inevitable and indispensable to the way of thinking and doing things whereby the old order is replaced by science and technology and vigorous pursuit and application of knowledge. In a more profound way, sustainable development places a burden of proof on individuals or group of persons alike to develop an ever-increasing propensity towards the renewing of strength, energy, knowledge, wisdom and understanding through insightful thought, scientific discoveries, and lifelong learning without weary.

The insight provided above is consistent with Lynn and Gurel-Attay (2014) and Brundtland (1987) commission identified nine elements of development which comprise education, employment and conditions of work, health, food consumption and nutrition, housing, social security, clothing, recreation and human freedom. It can be inferred from these nine components that sustainable development is associated with the educative process, that is, education especially continuing education and lifelong learning is indispensable to the development of human capital (knowledge, skills and abilities) (KSAs) for work and employment creation with man being the change-agent and clientele. As it is, sustainable development places premium on education for the development of human knowledge, intellect, skills and abilities with continuing education fostering and increasing individual's career options, job mobility and advancement to make work become more meaningful. Changes in employment

patterns and workplace processes evolve rapidly and these changes exercise a great deal of impact on the topography of relevant knowledge and skills, and on the capacity of individuals particularly adults to participate in learning and work. All these changes put together have made continuing education essentially suited to sustained long term resource management efficiency and human capital development.

1.3 Lifelong Learning, Continuing Education, Sustainable Development and Employment Creation

One of the major landmarks of the industrial revolution that took place in England in the 18th and 19th centuries is the transition from hand (manual) production to machine production of goods and rendering of services. The import of this innovation is that one, human knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) need to be developed and adaptable to meet lifetime needs of industrial and technological age for educated, trained and skilled labour force. It is important too, that human energy, ingenuity, cleverness and expertise for mass production of goods, that is, produce goods and services in great and sufficient quantities and quality to meet present needs and that of the foreseeable future generations without undermining the integrity, stability and beauty of natural biotic systems. Effort to achieve this sustainable development goal agenda began with Cornell University offering university-based lifelong and continuing education to teachers in the Department of Geology to expand their foundations of knowledge and stay up-to-date, that is, keep the teachers abreast of new developments in their profession. This novel idea attracted the attention of the University of Wisconsin-Madison with the founding in 1919 the School for Social Research which was devoted to the study of adult education programmes especially agriculture and extension services. Some scholars (Robert, Jnr. 2002 & Rosen, 2012) captioned the mood of university teachers and students on the dimension of the new education system in this way that:

> University teachers and students believed that the value of education had risen due to economic recession … with lifelong and continuing education enhancing the growth rate in the number of workers registered for part-time continuing education programmes due to the opportunity available to them which enabled employed workers (working students) to combine work with personal and career development.

Further enquiry revealed that by 1976, the University of Florida had created its own division of continuing education with an initial intake of about 1,500 students, majority of who were workers. The art of training teachers on how to impart knowledge to other people especially in engineering disciplines (geology and mining) through university-based extension programmes as

illustrated above demonstrates an important aspect of human capital development for sustainable development and employment creation.

In Europe for instance, the Universities of London and Cambridge alongside with the University of Manchester were among the pioneer institutions of learning that have consistently encouraged employment creation and sustainable development through continuing professional development education. Discernible trends suggest that many of these institutions established different forms of post-secondary school learning assistance centres located within the domain of each university's college or school of continuing education, school of continuing legal education, school of continuing medical education, community education and lifelong education to meet industrial requirements. While the broad areas in continuing professional development education of the University of London include accounting, accounting and finance, accounting with law, agricultural economics, applied education, leadership and management, demography and health, development and economics. The University of Manchester offers a range of subjects in professional continuing development education programmes in management and research skills, health and public sector management, computer science, teaching, training and distance learning programmes. Statistical release by the institution shows that about 18,500 community pharmacists benefitted from University of Manchester continuing professional development education in pharmacy. Keith (2002) described the trend in the establishment of universities' continuing professional development education programmes for adults thus:

> Courses were customized to meet industrial requirements, increase career options, job mobility and reduce labour turnover among adult industrial workers (Keith, 2002).

The idea of customized courses, made-to-order, non-residential academic programmes probably informed the setting up in 1946 the Department of Extra-Mural Studies and Continuing Education Unit of the University of Ibadan, Nigeria under the auspices of the Oxford University Extra-Mural Delegacy.

1.4 Adult and Lifelong Learning in Nigeria

It is a matter of logic, conscientiousness and insightful thought that continuing education has been used to promote lifelong learning for meeting both the educational and career advancement needs of youth and adults who combined productive work with professional development that is schooling. This view is consistent with Omolewa (1985) assertion that continuing education is a desirable extension of educational response to trends in societies' demand for education which is relevant to work and professional development. One fact that is deducible from the above is that continuing education has continually

been used to break the cycle of repeated examination failures which restrained many youth and adults from transiting from high school to college or university. Effort by prospective candidates to obtain mandatory results to meet university admission requirements induced many of the students with deficient results to enrol in learning-assistance centres popularly referred to as coaching centres where students are prepared to write the General Certificate Examination (GCE) 'Ordinary' or 'Advanced' level papers. This is exemplified by 1948 list of provisional admission of students into extra-mural and continuing education programmes of the University of Ibadan presented by Omolewa (1985:79) as inherited from the Oxford University Extra-Mural Delegacy. As exemplified by the attendance records, about one hundred and forty-one (141 persons) students mostly workers drawn from different occupational backgrounds such as clerical work, teaching, agricultural extension services, technical works, civil service and land surveying to mention but a few were offered admission.

Although the University of Ibadan Extra-Mural Studies and Continuing education started continuing education programmes in Nigeria with the students inherited from the Oxford University Extra-Mural Delegacy, nonetheless, other private providers outside the purview of university extension classes quickly took advantage of the trend to provide remedial and continuing education programmes through correspondence, open and distance learning for the benefit of youth and adults seeking to write London University Matriculation and Intermediate degree examinations and Senior Cambridge School Certificate Examinations. These include Wolsey Hall and Rapid Results College, University of London with its registered Satellite Study Centre (Exams Success and Correspondence College) located at 10-12, Labinjo Avenue, Off Shipeolu Street, Palm Grove area of Lagos. Some of the courses offered include economics, accounting, law, banking and finance, commerce, store keeping, salesmanship and marketing, secretarial studies, public administration, industrial relations and personnel management and other disciplines.

As stated above, many private and public institutions took a clue from University of Ibadan Extra-Mural Studies and Continuing education programmes to provide post-secondary school evening classes and remedial education for the teeming youth and adults who desired remediation of examination results. Among the most prominent forerunners of these programme providers were Dotun Oyewole Continuing Education Centre, Abeokuta in Ogun State, Jubril Martins Continuing Education Centre, Surulere, Lagos, Premier College and Continuing Education Centre, Jibowu, Yaba Lagos. Others include Nigeria Peoples' High School and Continuing Education Centre, Kadara Street, Ebute-Metta Lagos, DAVOC Institute of Hotel Management and Catering Services, Ketu Lagos and Obokun General

Certificate of Education (GCE) and Continuing Education Centre, Ilesha, Oshun State.

While these learning-assistance centres and continuing education centres lasted, teaching and learning was conducted in the evenings and part-time usually during weekends. Saturday part-time classes were always participative laboratory practical teaching and experiments in science subjects such as Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Agric. Science. The laboratory practicals were always conducted in collaboration with invited University of Lagos teachers in each subject area to enhance students' learning achievement.

Effort by government to reduce the rate of failure among high school graduates and facilitate youth and adults' admission to colleges and universities led to the establishment of higher school programmes (HSC) in schools through which students were prepared to write GCE "Advanced" level papers. Some of such schools included Federal School of Arts and Science (FSAS), Victoria Island, Lagos, Federal School of Arts and Science, Ondo in Ondo State. Others were Loyola College, Ibadan, Christ High School, Ado-Ekiti in Ekiti State, Aquinas College, Akure in Ondo State, Adeola Odutola College, Ijebu-Ode and Saint Gregory's College, Obalende, Lagos. The concentration of Nigerian evening schools, higher school programmes including some universities' extra-mural classes on remedial education (Genera Certificate of Examination, GCE) attests to the fact that Nigerian evening schools were not initially designed to meet the same requirements as that of their British counterparts which aimed to promote life-long learning with teaching directly related to professional development and employment creation.

1.5 Lifelong Professional Development Programmes and Employment Creation

It is now an acceptable fact that Nigerian evening schools including continuing education programmes of some universities have for too long been geared towards remedial education (examination) instead of enhancing life-long learning, professional development and employment creation. For instance, investigations conducted by this writer revealed that University of Ife (now Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife) recruited local secondary school tutors to teach English, Mathematics, Science, Social Science and Arts subjects to GCE and Royal Society of Arts (RSA) candidates at Oduduwa College, Ile-Ife. Similarly, University of Nigeria, Nsukka and the University of Benin conducted extra-mural studies at both Nsukka and Benin for about 500 candidates who registered for different subjects at Nsukka and Benin Extra-Mural Study Centres (Omolewa, 1981).

However, in its quest to make university education relevant to the industrial and manpower needs of the Nigerian labour market, promote intellectualism,

lifelong learning and professional development among workers through continual training and retraining of individuals, the University of Lagos through correspondence and distance learning approaches (Correspondence and Open Studies Unit, COSU), in 1973 introduced evening classes in Law, Business Administration and Political Science. Excerpt from Omolewa (2006) report also shows that by 1983, the university expanded the scope of its academic and professional development (continuing education) programmes to conform with global trends and advances in Open Studies and Distance Learning (DSDL). The expansion of programmes led to a change of nomenclature from COSU to Correspondence and Open Studies Institute (COSIT) while Accounting, Education, Management, Banking and Finance were included in its programme of study. With the integration of its programmes in 1997 to other programmes especially professional programmes being conducted by the Council of Registered Engineers of Nigeria (COREN) and National Business and Technical Examination Board (NABTEB), COSIT was transformed to Distance Learning Institute (DLI). With this feat, University of Lagos expanded further the frontiers of knowledge, thus making university education more accessible to youth and adults in engineering and technical-related practices through pursuance of global advances and innovation in Open Studies and Distance Learning techniques.

By this feat too, the University of Lagos has couched a niche for itself in human capital development, that is, inculcating the values of education, training and the dignity of labour into people with the stock of knowledge, talents, skills, abilities, experience, intelligence, creativeness, judgment and wisdom (manpower training and development education), thus fitting individuals for industry and employment creation. Recognition of the importance of the "Human Factor" or manpower training and development education is fundamental to economic activity, competitiveness, re-construction of knowledge, training and re-training of individuals to acquire new skills for sustainable development and employment creation. Consequent upon rapidly evolving employment and workplace processes, development of human capital is essential to acquiring relevant knowledge and skills, as well as renewing the capacity of individuals young and old, men and women especially holders of sub-degree qualifications and certificates. Acceptance of Total Quality Management (TQM) with the philosophy of continuous improvement as both the global and national imperative poses formidable challenges to adults who must combine extroversion with rational thinking and analytical skills to cope convincingly with increasing complex problems of present and future job. In essence, formal programmes of education, training and professional development such as being provided by DLI, University of Lagos for individuals (adults) with COREN and NABTEB recognized qualifications and

certificates should be viewed as investment in developing the ability of these categories of people and helping them to realize their potentials.

Recent survey conducted by this writer indicates that holders of sub-degree qualification and certificates Nigerian Certificate of Education (NCE), Ordinary National Diploma (OND) and Higher National Diploma (HND) abound in great numbers in Nigeria labour market seeking non-existent white-collar jobs. Although there is no accurate statistical data about the numerical strength of these group of persons, nonetheless, it is estimated that they numbered up to about 2.32 million on a national scale. It is also assumed that in addition to sub-degree qualifications, many of these individuals possess other professional qualifications and certificates recognized by COREN and NABTEB such as NABTEB Advanced-Level Certificate in Building and Construction Management, Electrical Installation Work, Institute of Chartered Accountants of Nigeria (ICAN) and other disciplines. In pursuance of the principles and practice of lifelong and continuing education as sated inter-alia in the National Policy on Education:

> …to provide in-service, on-the-job, vocational and professional training for different categories of workers and professionals in order to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities (NPE, 2004:16).

Since the possession of a university degree seems to be the benchmark for measuring educational achievement and for gaining competitive advantage in accessing economic and social benefits, it is important for these holders of sub-degree qualifications and certificates to seek further education through continuing education programmes to boost self-development and employment creation. Recent investigation on youth unemployment and under-employment of graduates show that many of these individuals are widespread. While the centre of academic activities for these people is the Distance Learning Institute (DLI), some of them are located in different faculties such as Education, Engineering, Accounting and Business Administration, Environmental Studies, Works and Physical Planning and maintenance section of the university. In terms of relevance of curriculum to the needs of the students, the study adopted the University of Lagos Distance Learning Institute prospectus for Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB) for Direct Entry Admissions of undergraduate programmes.

1.6 Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following research questions;

1. Does lifelong learning (continuing education) enhance workers' (working students) intellectual ability and productive capacity for sustainable development and employment creation?

2. Does the possession of a university degree through lifelong learning and continuing education programme enhance university graduates' competitive advantage better than that of sub-degree title holders in employment creation and access to economic and social resources?
3. Does open distance learning approach have competitive advantage over traditional methods of teaching and learning, and information dissemination in continuing education programme?
4. What are the major problems undermining efficiency and effectiveness of continuing education programmes?

2 Methodology

2.1 Research Design

The study employed the descriptive survey research design. This design is suitable for systematic collection of data in a sparsely populated and distantly located population of study. It is also suitable in determining the extent or degree of relationship between two or more intervening variables and use the results of such relationship to make valid predictions.

2.2 Sample

A total of 200 (116 males and 84 females) respondents of intact classes (groups) of students located in Distance Learning Institute (DLI), four faculties as well as Works and Physical Planning Department of the University of Lagos whose questionnaires were properly filled and returned constituted the sample of the study. A purposive multistage sampling procedure was adopted in selecting and administering questionnaire to the respondents used as sample for the study. Data collection on part-time students from Distance Learning Institute (DLI) and other faculties are indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of participants

Programme	Count			
Data Collection Centres (Faculties)	Male	Female	Total	%
Distance Learning Institute (DLI)	73	60	133	66.5
Business Administration	12	05	17	8.5
Education	21	10	31	15.5
Engineering	3	2	5	2.5
Environmental Studies	3	1	4	2.0
Works and Planning	4	6	10	5.0
Total	116	84	200	100%

2.3 Instrumentation

Questionnaire and interview schedules were the primary research instruments used in collecting data for this study. The questionnaire was a thirty-six (36) item instrument adapted from COREN, NABTEB and Nigerian Institute of Bankers (NIB) integrated curriculum. It was tagged Lifelong Learning, Sustainable Development and Employment Creation Assessment Scale (LLSDECAS). It was a reflection of the social, economic, educational and cultural conditions of the study environment (DLI, University of Lagos) using lifelong learning and continuing education to predict employed workers' behaviour modification, social, economic, cultural and intellectual development.

The instrument was divided into two sections: "A" and "B". Section A focused on demographic variables (age, sex, initial educational and professional qualifications, occupation or career, present employment, social and economic status of parents) and of the respondents. While Section B was a twenty-two (22) item instrument (Social, Economic and Self-Development Assessment Reference Scale (SESDARS) used to gather information on various aspects of DLI, COREN, NABTEB and NIB integrated curriculum. The instrument was also used to gather data on critical areas such as acquisition and application of logic and imaginative thinking, analytical and problem-solving skills as well as research skills. The researcher adopted four point Likert rating scale in designing the questionnaire. The numerical values of the descriptor performance ranged from "excellence" through "poor" and weighted as follows: Excellent = 4, Good = 3, Average = 2 and Poor = 1.

2.4 Interview Schedule

The questionnaire was supplemented with interview schedule. The interview schedule was based on the premise that one of the most sensitive, reliable and plausible methods of feeling the pulse of individuals to obtain information pertinent to human activities in the natural setting such as issue that concerned employed workers' involvement in continuing education and the development of intellectual ability as well as productive capacity for sustainable development and employment creation is to let the participants or respondents assess themselves by having a face-to-face dialogue with them on: relevance of curriculum to academic discipline, industrial intelligence and needs of the labour market, ability of workers (working students) to combine work with education that is, workers' ability to adopt coping and adaptive strategies (trainee readiness, creativity, resourcefulness, industry, persistence, perseverance and perspiration) to cope with the rigours of work and schooling. At the same time, imbibe good study habit, turning in assignments and term

papers, writing examinations, plan independent study, conduct library search and research work. Others include availability of teaching equipment and resources such as lectures, teaching methods and techniques and use of laboratory. This was validated after which Kuder-Richardson formula $2_1(Kr_{21})$ was used to test for it reliability. It yielded a reliability co-efficient of 0.78.

2.5 Data Collection

Questionnaires and interview as the primary instruments of data collection were administered directly on the respondents by the researcher supported by four research assistants.

Questionnaires were used to collect information from continuing education tutors, coordinators, facilitators, curriculum developers, examination officers and programme monitoring officers in each faculty and Distance Learning Institute. Interview and other self-report measures (projective techniques and self-disclosure were used extensively to gather information about respondents' personality traits such as self-esteem image, mental and emotional ability, readiness and willingness to learn, self-determination, willingness to accept responsibility, values, interests and needs. Reports on these measures were largely obtained from respondents during interactive sessions, group discussions, in-class and recreation centres and playing grounds. In all, 116 (58%) male and 84 (42%) female participants were interviewed.

2.6 Data Analysis

The data collected for the study were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages.

3 Findings and Discussion

The responses of respondents to research question 1, about 187(93.5%) of the students concurred that lifelong learning and continuing education enhanced both the intellectual growth and productive capacity of employed workers (students) for sustainable development and employment creation. While 9(4.5%) asserted that lifelong learning and continuing education improved general intelligence and management skills of employed workers.

On research question 2, the results show that some 193(96.5%) of the respondents admitted that the possession of a university degree is desirable for persons with sub-degree qualifications to gain competitive advantage in access to economic and social resources as well as employment opportunities. At the same time, about 7(3.5%) affirmed that new technology and cybernation have

also increased the demand on lifelong learning and continuing education for the enhancement of employed workers' professional and self-development.

Some 184(92%) of the respondents agreed that open distance learning is amenable to a variety of uses and application in teaching and learning, and information dissemination in that it promotes rational and reflective thinking and development of problem-solving skills. Similarly, another group of about 13(6.5%) of the respondents argued that open distance learning facilitates generation of new ideas, transfer of learning, feedback and knowledge of results, retention, discovery learning or learning by insight and improved task performance.

Some 191(95.5%) of the respondents confirmed that the recruitment of unqualified tutors, facilitators and instructors teaching at learning-assistance or continuing education centres is highest and most noticeable among the problems plaguing efficiency and effectiveness of continuing education programmes. This group of respondents also attributed high rates of failure among students and inefficient programmes' evaluation to instructors' poor teaching styles and technique, and overcrowded lecture halls and classroom. About 9(4.5%) of the respondents ascribed poor learning achievement in continuing education programmes to inadequate amenities and infrastructural facilities characterized by dilapidated buildings with falling-off roofs, doors and window sills and sashes.

The results of this study show that there is congruence between intellectual growth, higher or increased productive capacity and lifelong learning and continuing education. That is, the application of new knowledge (new ideas, renewed mental ability, imaginative thinking, analytical skills, creative ability and competence by employed workers to the production of goods and services) is a function of continual or continuous learning and improvement of knowledge. This is consistent with the results that 95.5 percent of the respondents affirmed that lifelong learning and continuing education facilitated intellectual growth and productive capacity. Again, the result is amply supported by Kalineman (2003) that individuals especially persons with associate degree or sub-degree should exercise the willingness, interest and problem-solving attitude towards the development of a learning culture evidenced by increased number of employed workers undertaking further education. Such individuals should also apply position analysis questionnaire technique to consistently assess personal development for continuous improvement. Thus, it can be inferred from the results that lifelong learning and continuing education lent intelligibility to both intellectual growth and productive capacity of employed workers for sustainable development, investment promotion and employment creation.

One of the highlights of this study is the fact that some 96.5 percent of the respondents acknowledged that the possession of a university degree by sub-

degree holders (NCE, OND, HND) and other professional qualifications and certificates recognized by COREN and NABTEB) is beneficial to gaining competitive advantage in access to social and economic resources including employment opportunities. This point is supported by Oke (2017) and Becker (1993) assertions that the "human factor" that is, the stock of knowledge is fundamental to economic activity, competitiveness and prosperity. The point being emphasized here is that the development of human knowledge, mental ability, skills and understanding is essential or critical to accepting new ideas, openness to innovation and inventions to break new grounds and move forward. Emergent discoveries in science and technology together with the application of industrial technology to the production of goods especially the use of robotics in the production of knock-down-components, and services including cybernetics have made lifelong learning and continuing education indispensable to employed workers (adults) professional and self-development. In short, lifelong learning and continuing education is not only to enable employed workers do their present and future jobs within the organization, it is the key to unlock the doors of career options and advancement as well as job mobility.

This result revealed that open and distance learning offers unique and great advantages over other methods of teaching and learning, and information dissemination. In terms of application, about 92 percent of the respondents that participated in this study agreed that this method is flexible to use and unique in information and resource sharing. This fact is also corroborated by the findings of some scholars (Oke, 2017; Storey & Sission, 1993) that open and distance learning is unique at allowing many students to be connected to the learning centre sharing information and resources at different places or locations and at the same time without impeding the source of knowledge. It is innovative in the provision of wider training and development opportunities for employed adults. It promotes personal improvement and career enhancement ranging from Open University degree to funding assistance in professional development.

The results show further that recruitment of unqualified tutors and facilitators has added other debilitating effects which undermined teaching and learning. According to most (95.5%) of the students, ineffectiveness of teachers' teaching styles and techniques is exacerbated by uncontrollable class-sizes, poorly ventilated and overcrowded lecture halls, obsolete equipment, and tools overburdened with usage. Similarly, some 4.5 percent of the respondents adduced students' poor performance to inadequate amenities and inefficient programmes' evaluation procedures which required constant review.

4 Conclusion and Recommendations

Lifelong learning and continuing education is now recognized as an essential human need because of increased globalization of economic activities, growing

competition among industrialized and industrializing nations of the world for educated and skilled manpower in the labour market. The workplace and employment patterns evolve much more rapidly, therefore, with increasing change in technological advancement, lifelong learning and continuing education is required to increase the general intelligence of larger numbers of young workers between the teenage years and early adulthood who left school to enter employment, thus lead them to better and intelligent citizenship. Lifelong and continuing education is also required to increase workers' industrial intelligence and skills, thereby leading to advancement or preparation in another line of work, that is career option, job mobility and reduction in labour turnover.

Empirical evidence supports the fact that lifelong learning and continuing education shall continue to enhance employed workers' self-development and professional competence, therefore, the National Universities Commission (NUC) should ensure compliance of non-university-based providers of continuing education programmes with NUC's programmes accreditation processes.

State Ministries of Education and the Nigerian Education Research and Development Council (NERDC) should also ensure compliance of proprietors and coordinators of learning-assistance (continuing education) centres with registration procedures, separate remedial programmes from continuing education programmes to set and enforce standard.

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Student Politics at Makerere University in the Lens of Schmitter and Streeck's Framework: Student Leaders and Political Parties

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Abstract. While the influence of political parties on student politics has been a topic of investigation for a long time, little research has been done in relation to Africa's young democracies and the re-emergence of multi-party politics in these countries. It is with this understanding that this study assesses a theoretical framework adapted from Schmitter and Streeck (1999) to explain the nature of the relationship between student politics and political parties in Uganda. The paper highlights need for changes to the Schmitter and Streeck framework to ensure better analysis of the relationship. The study finds that the recruitment of student cadres seems the most important function of party-political involvement in student politics, while student leaders gain goods and services as part of the benefits of their association with political parties. Additionally, while student leaders are influential in the weaker parties, there is still an element of party control over the leaders, particularly when student leaders expect to pursue a political career upon graduation. Finally, reflecting on the analysis, conceptual changes are proposed to the framework for a more critical analysis of student politics.

Keywords: Student politics; Democratisation; Activism.

1 Introduction

Student interest representation in higher education has historically been informal, and mostly by means of protests and direct access to university leaders; the formalisation has meant institutionalising such student participation mainly in existing structures of university governance as one of the latest popular reforms internationally to student politics in institutions of higher

learning (Munene, 2003). Numerous progressive scholars have advocated for the inclusion of student leaders in institutional decision-making, while outlining various reasons for such inclusion (Luescher-Mamashela, 2013; Olsen, 2007). The international trend in the promotion of democratic governance, in addition to a more recent shift in institutional management to managerialism in the late 1990s and 2000s has in many ways been instrumental for the inclusion of students in some aspects of university governance, such as quality assurance (Luescher-Mamashela, 2010; Luescher-Mamashela & Mugume, 2014; Nkata, 2004: 9).

Data for this paper was generated through in-depth interviews with three types of main actors involved in the relationship between student leaders and political parties at Makerere University (MAK). They include: four student leaders who were elected members of the guild cabinet of the 2013-2014 academic year; the dean of students of the institution; eight party leaders (two per party), who were mainly responsible for working with the youth from the Democratic Party (DP), Forum for Democratic Change (FDC), National Resistance Movement (NRM) and Uganda Peoples' Congress (UPC). The data was categorised into main themes and concepts by means of a process of broad brush and fine brush coding, which was informed by a theoretical framework (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Neuman, 1997: 421).

The presentation of data and discussion begins with a brief insight into the relationship between multi-party politics and student leadership. The second section introduces Schmitter and Streeck's (1999) theoretical framework along with various studies which have previously adopted and used the framework for the purpose of studying student organising, i.e. the study of the German student union "freier Zusammenschluss von StudentInnenschaften" (fzs), and two studies of student representation in Europe and student representation in African higher education. The process of adapting the framework to the case study of Makerere University is discussed before outlining the four main adapted associative actions proposed by the framework, which are then applied to this case of student politics and multiparty politics in higher education.

1.1 Student Politics and Multi-Party Politics

One of the main reasons given for the historical influence student leaders have held in national politics within the former colonies such as in most African countries, has been that;

> There are fewer competing political forces and this permits students to play a more direct and powerful role. The mass media are weaker, parliamentary systems are often ineffective or non-existent, trade unions, consumer groups and the myriad of interest groups typically found in the Western industrial

> nations are missing, and the educated middle class is small (Altbach, 1984: 637).

Given the changes in the national political systems of most African countries through mainly adopting democratic political leadership (Gyampo, 2013), the advantages of democratic rule such as political stability have also had an effect on the higher education systems. Various scholars have shown the increase in enrolment rates on the continent arguing that the continent is experiencing massification at institutional and national levels (Mohamedbhai, 2014; Luescher, 2016). Hence with such changes gaps arise in the literature, calling for a need to assess, for example, the effect of student activism, to try and find out the reasons for changes in activism if there are and the contemporary forms of activism. Given the historical argument that "the reaction of the political system to student activist movements helps to shape their actions, orientations and, of course, the impact they have on society" (Altbach, 1984: 638). Weinberg and Walker (1969: 82) have argued that, the recruitment of young leaders and student leaders' ambitions for political careers are at the centre of the relationship between student leaders and political parties.

While Altbach (1968) noted the failure by parties in Europe to replace old leaders as a problem that led to the revolts of 1964 since most student activists felt that party leaders were old men who did not understand the challenges students at the time were facing. As early as the 1980s Altbach argued:

> Authorities have occasionally tried to co-opt student movements and organizations in order to obtain their cooperation and to ensure campus calm. Student leaders have been brought into the government and authorities have listened to student grievances. Such tactics sometimes work to defuse dissent and also to bring different perspectives to the political debate (Altbach, 1984: 652-653).

Hence in a democratic regime, student participation in political party spaces becomes important in influencing student activism for example considering Lipset's (1966) argument that universities in general are training grounds for future elites and this is more-clear in underdeveloped countries around the world. It is also noted that even during their time as students they also play an important role in the political life of the country through their movements and activism. Therefore even in the presence of oppositional party politics for example in Africa, student activism remains relevant. In relation to party politics it is argued that;

> The core of student leadership tends to be politically aware and often ideologically oriented. Student leaders are more likely than their less active compeers to be members of political organisations prior to their involvement in activism. Activist leadership is often politically involved during periods

> of campus quiet; in many instances, student political leaders are a part of an existing political community (Altbach, 1989: 102-103).

Accordingly, Altbach (1984) highlights that external actors (e.g., political parties) may try to manipulate the political situation using student politics or student leaders for the external actors' gain. Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume (2014) posit on the evidence showing the presence of the relationship between student leaders and political parties in various countries on the African continent. They argue that the relationship appears to be based on resource exchange between the two actors with both student leaders and political parties gaining from the relationship in various ways (also see Mugume 2015). Thus, they highlight the interest-based reasons for the two types of actors to enter into and maintain a relationship. To interrogate the related reasons and processes, the Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework is employed below, considering how it has been applied before, and how it can be adopted to a study of the relationship between student leaders and political parties at MAK.

2 The Schmitter and Streek Theoretical Framework

2.1 The Organisation of Business Interests: Studying the Associative Actions of Business in Advanced Industrial Societies

The Schmitter and Streek (1999) framework was initially designed in an attempt to study the reasons why independent business investors (i.e. capitalists) in industrialised countries come together to protect and represent their interests through organisations. The framework criticises the attention given to workers by most scholars for organising themselves while there is noticeable silence about capitalists organising themselves. Two reasons are presented for such lack of attention. Firstly, they argue that it is as if scholars question the legality of capital owners organising themselves through organisations to protect their interests, while on the other hand employees coming together to form unions in order to protect their interest is looked at as brave or courageous. Secondly, since business owners conduct business in private and with concealment, accessing information to write about Business Interest Associations (BIAs) may become a hindrance to scholars (Schmitter and Streek 1999: 9).

Therefore given the challenges, the framework attempts to address the subject of organising capitalists and the complexities involved in such relationships. Moreover, Schmitter and Streek (1999: 12) argue that independent capitalists ought to compete rather than cooperate with each other

and that business culture tends to lack trust between investors. Hence they argue that to understand this relationship, at least one should consider why the capitalists would want to come together given their differences, what the required organisational mechanisms are for these investors to work together in organisations that protect them to achieve their business objectives. Furthermore the question arises whether organisations formed to protect the interests of investors end up assuming control over their members in the same way organisations formed by employees, i.e., trade unions, assume control over their members (Schmitter and Streeck, 1999: 10). The framework considers two potential 'logics' used in organising the above interests: a logic of membership and a logic of influence. However in relation to these two competing logics, it is argued that BIA should organise themselves in two ways. Firstly, they should structure their associations to act so as to offer sufficient incentives to their members to extract from them adequate resources to ensure their survival, if not growth. Secondly, they must be organised in such a way as to offer sufficient incentives to enable them to gain access to and exercise adequate influence over public authorities (or conflicting class associations). They have to therefore extract from this exchange adequate resources (recognition, toleration, concessions and subsidies) which enable them to survive and prosper (Schmitter and Streeck, 1999: 19).

The framework focuses on two main logics of exchange in order to explain the different levels of interaction which leads to the exchanges. It expresses how capitalists interact with the organisation and then how such an organisation which is meant to represent their interests interacts with the state, state institutions, as well as workers' organisations such as trade unions.

2.2 The Logic of Influence and Membership

The logic of influence relates to how organised interests influence policy processes and how such influence can be directed, directly at the state, or at other state institutions or to actors such as the trade unions in the case of the workers' relation to BIAs. The framework outlines that in the process attention is given to factors such as the rules of the game, access, the institutional frame work, political culture and many others. The framework focuses on detailed explanations of factors or variables which influence the relationships. Specific circumstances can then explain the national and sector specific conditions of the relationship (Schmitter and Streeck, 1999: 19-39).

The logic of membership is meant to outline a number of factors which can affect members of the business community. It relates to how members get involved in the formulation of goals they design to protect their interests. These goals are then promoted by the BIA on behalf of its members. The framework offers the following variables: membership numbers, equality, competition,

interdependence, heterogeneity, turnover, social cohesion, profitability and growth (Schmitter and Streeck, 1999: 19-24). Figure 1 below shows this relationship in the two outlined logics, i.e., membership and influence, and how the different actors theoretically interact.

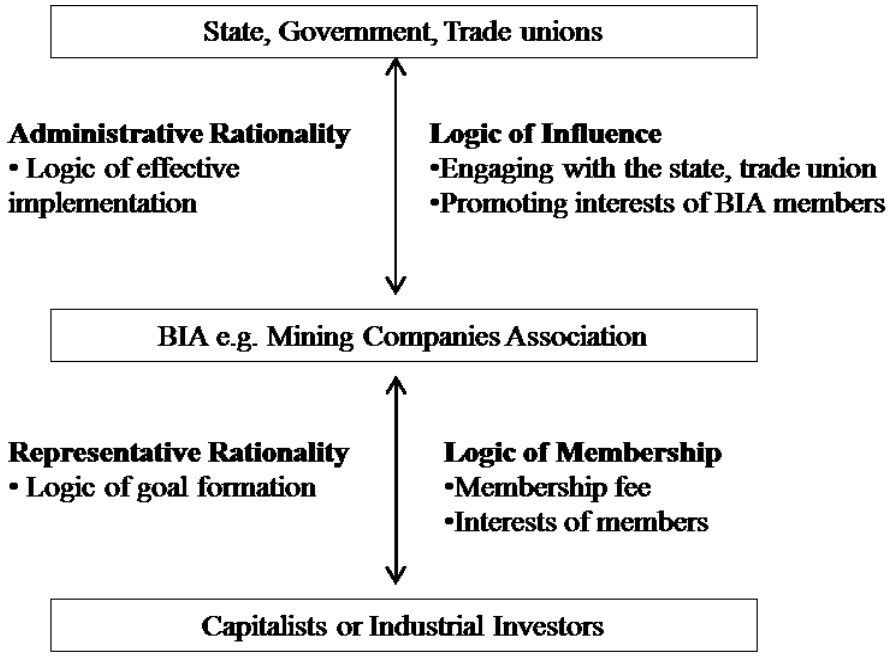

Figure 1. Relationship among capitalists, BIA and the state, state agencies, trade unions.

Figure 1 illustrates how the different actors associate considering the two logics of association. The Figure indicates that capitalists or investors may form a BIA which can protect their interests as members. The BIA therefore ensures that the interests of its members are promoted and defended before other actors, and that is referred to as the logic of membership. Thus, the interests or agendas of members are set and then advocated by the BIA. The BIA intentionally influences, for example, policy positions in favour of its members and that is referred to as the logic of influence above. Through a representative rationality, goals are formulated by the members of a BIA which are then defended by the BIA and this is referred to as the logic of goal formation, while the different sufficient ways used to ensure proper implementation and thus to achieve the set goals are referred to as the logic of effective implementation.

Schmitter and Streek argue that "attending to all of these would involve an association in four types of activity: Participation for Members, Representation of Members, Services to Members and Control over Members – each with a

corresponding type of modal 'good'" (1999: 20). Thus, the framework outlines four types of associative actions and related types of goods in a matrix. The goods may be solidaristic, public, monopolistic, selective or authoritarian in nature. It is argued here that "as associations structure themselves organisationally to provide only … one "logic" of social action, they transform themselves, at the extreme, into another type of social organisation (Schmitter and Streeck, 1999: 20). Such organisations in relation to the modal "good" include a club, movement, government and a firm respectively. Figure 2 shows the above explained relationship in more detail.

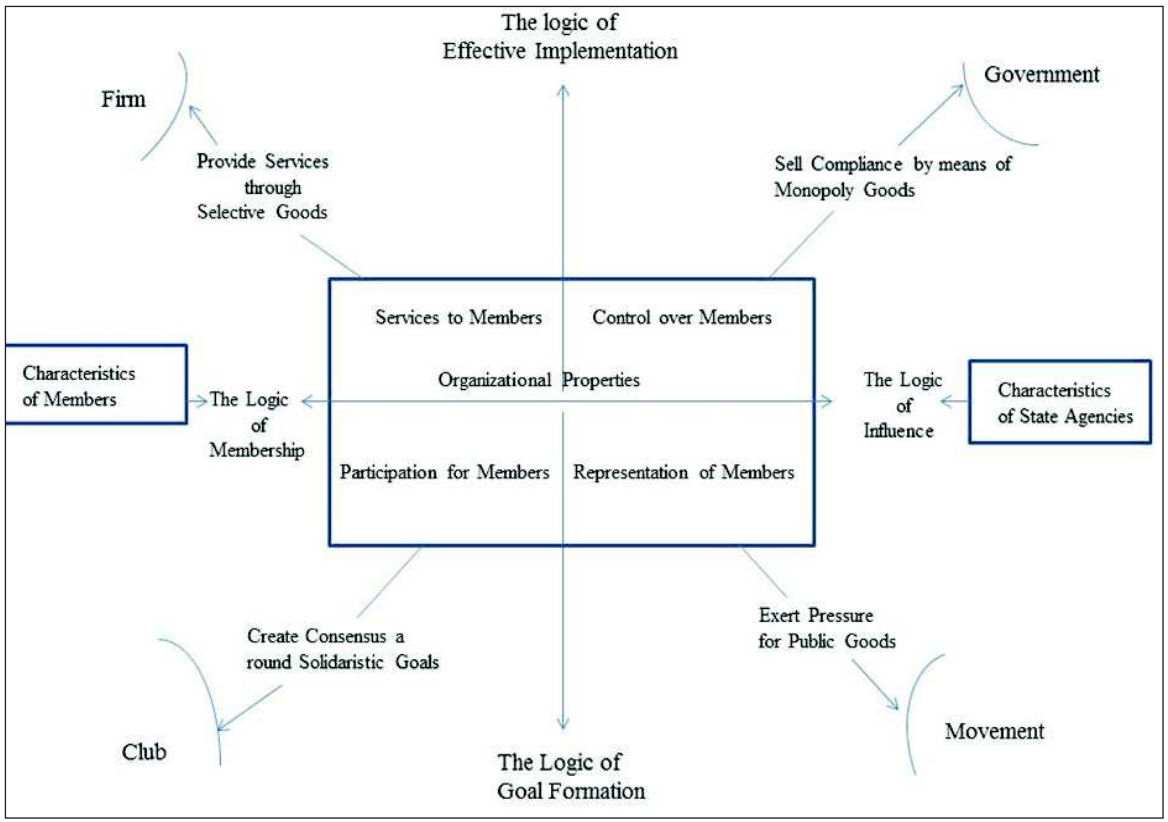

Figure 2: The competing logics of associative action affecting organisational properties
Source: Schmitter and Streeck (1999: 21).

Figure 2 illustrates a theoretical relationship between the two sets of logical alternatives. Attending to all of these would involve an association in four types of activities and four corresponding goods at the extreme, as named above.

The framework has been used before by other scholars to study student representation, particularly in higher education in Europe and more recently in Africa as discussed below.

2.3 The Study of the German Student Union (FZS)

Jungblut and Weber (2012: 47) used the Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework to study the development of the German student union, "Freier Zusammenschluss von StudentInnenschaften" (FZS) from the time of its formation in 1993 to 2010. Since FZS was the main national students' union, they considered the logic of membership in their study by assessing the multi-level memberships for student union organisations at the local level and union membership within an academic institution, and the organisational structures of unions (at local level or institutional level). Therefore as individual students became members of unions at the local level, unions joined FZS which is a collective of interests of local unions at the national level (Jungblut and Weber, 2012: 49-50). The two competing logics of membership and influence are highlighted through FZS members paying a membership fee which then keeps the organisation going (logic of membership). Then FZS represents their interests as members through interactions with the state and other public authorities/institutions (in-terms of a logic of influence). They explain two main areas of development for FZS in relation to the two logics: ideology and membership development-logic of membership, and communication and internal organisation-logic of influence.

2.4 The Study of Student Representation in Europe

Klemenčič (2012: 2, 7) introduces the *special issue* in *the European Journal of Higher Education* using the Schmitter and Streeck (1999) BIAs framework to compare how students are represented by various student organisations in Western Europe. She explains that the formation and structure of organisations representing interests vary depending on the interests of members and also how the organisation interacts with the state and other political actors, and public authorities. Klemenčič explains that through the logic of membership, students in Europe are represented by National Students Associations. As members, students contribute to the determination of the organisation's structure, resources, political agenda, mode of action and output (Klemenčič, 2012: 7). In terms of the logic of influence, these student associations take with them the decisions made by their members and engage with state institutions (national

and continental actors in their respective countries). She also uses the framework to show the systems of student interest representation and intermediation in Europe. However Klemenčič does not comprehensively refer to the matrix by Schmitter and Streeck (1999), most especially in relation to the logic of goal formation and the logic of effective implementation even though they are implicit in the organisational properties of these student organisations.

2.5 Study of Student Representation in Higher Education in Africa

Finally Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume (2014: 511-512) use empirical data from nine African countries to explain how student representation has evolved by means of a shift from non-institutionalised to institutionalised student politics as a current trend. In an attempt to understand the new relationship between political parties and student politics on the continent and how that relationship impacts on the representation of students, they apply the Schmitter and Streeck framework (1999). They argue that there is a high level of resource exchange, both material and non-material, between student leaders and political parties in the relationship. They propose that this mutual resource exchange influences the student leaders' level of autonomy of representing the interests of students and they argue regarding the different levels of resources exchange that, "they produce four types of associative actions which respectively may be called, participation of student leaders, services to student leaders, representation of student leaders, and control over student leaders" (Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume, 2014: 511). Participation of student leaders refers to student leaders being part of the political party's structures and activities, and in the process advancing students' interests. Services to student leaders may refer to the exchange of material and non-material resources. Representation of student leaders refers to the political party taking on the role of representing student interests, and Control over student leaders refers to the loss of autonomy by student leaders in the process of exchanging resources (Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume, 2014: 511). These four associative actions suggested will be discussed in more detail in the process of adapting the Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework.

3 Adapting the BIA Framework to the case of Makerere University and Possible Changes

The Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework focuses on the structure of BIAs or organisations as the dependent variable. Therefore much of how BIAs relate to the capitalists individually or as firms and how they relate to the State is reliant on how they are structured or organised. Conversely, the main question

for this study is directed at attempting to understand how through the lens of this framework, the relationship plays out? In other words how it impacts on student leaders and their constituency and the political parties involved? In correspondence with the original framework, Byaruhanga (2006) indicates that resources play an important role in the interaction and motivation for establishing and maintaining a relationship between student leaders and political parties.

In keeping with the above discussion mainly in relation to membership, the naming of the logics will change from "logic of influence" and "logic of membership" to "logic of influence" and "logic of membership and interests" respectively so as to focus on aggregated interests, rather than a complete focus on membership since all registered students automatically qualify as members whose interests are represented by student leaders at a first level. Also, while in the original matrix the associative relationship takes place among the three main actors (capitalists, BIA, State-state agencies), in the adapted framework the associative relationship takes place among student leaders (representing students), political parties (as interest association) and the state (state agencies) or university administration. Figure 3 outlines the theoretical associative relationship among the three main actors in the new framework.

Figure 3.The associative relationship among student leaders, political parties and the state.

Figure 3 illustrates the competing logics of associative actions affecting aggregated interests of student leaders (SL) and political parties (PP). It shows how the different actors associate considering the two logics. Student leaders do advocate for interests of students who are members of a constituency, they promote and defend them before the political party. While the party also influences state and university authorities to access the much needed resources, resources which are always needed by student leaders such as campaign funding, leadership training workshops and many more costly activities are considered. The outcome of this defence of student interests, is influenced by whether the political party is in power or not.

The relationship mapped above will result in an associative activity of four types as noted above by Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume (2014: 511): participation of student leaders; goods and services exchange; representation of student leaders; and control over student leaders by the political party. Each associative action impacts differently on student leaders' level of autonomy. In relation to the Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework, this action theoretically involves a transformation at the extreme in which one of the two actors, i.e., either student leaders or the political party, gains some level of control over the other actor, or loses power to the other actor. Therefore understanding the circumstances under which student leaders may have more, or less autonomy within a political party, becomes important to understand when they may be able to influence party decisions or alternatively, when they may not. Figure 4 below shows the revised matrix for this study.

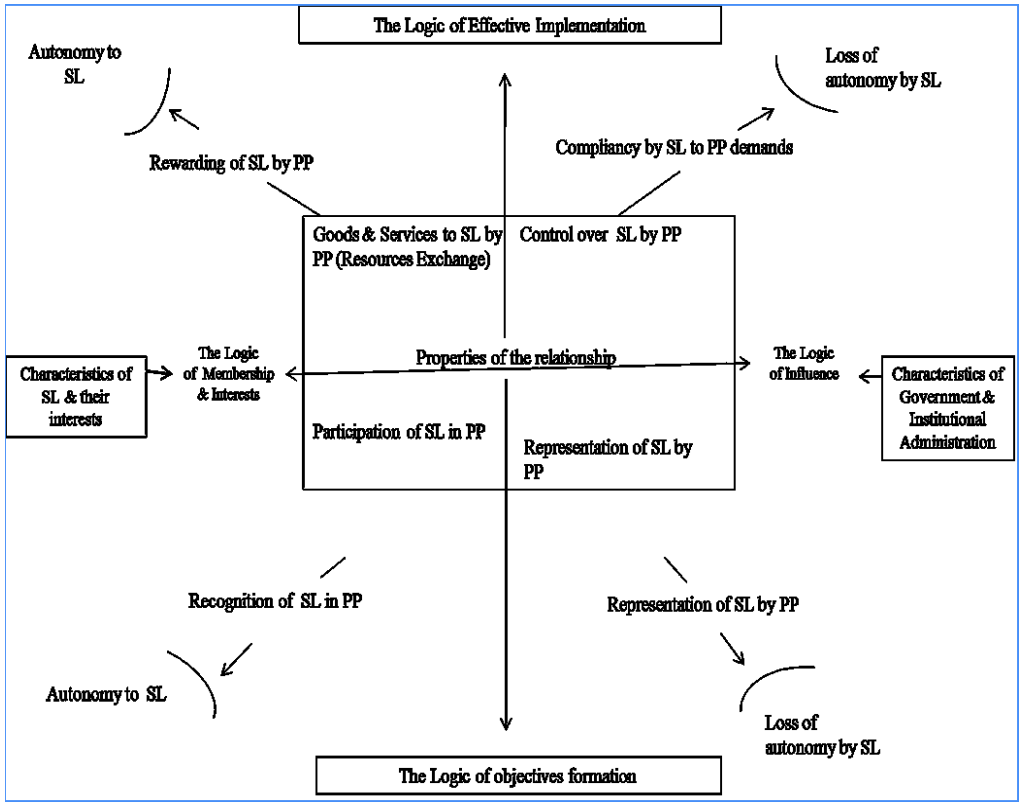

Figure 4. The competing logics of associative action affecting the relationship between student leaders (SL) and political parties (PP)
Source: Adapted from Schmitter and Streeck (1999).

Figure 4 illustrates the relationship as argued through the framework, highlighting the four associative actions as named earlier with each representing a different way of associating between a political party and student leaders, even though the activities outlined in the matrix above are not mutually exclusive.

The framework suggests that autonomy is influenced by resources and incentives in two ways. One way is that for example the more incentives a political party avails to student leaders, the more control it will have over them (other factors considered constant). While the more resources a political party may perceive to be receiving from student leaders, the more autonomy student leaders will be able to enjoy even within the political party. However, it is important to note that a political party accesses more resources if it runs the government (as a ruling party) in comparison to the opposition (Byaruhanga, 2006). Therefore as noted, the amount of resources a political party can access and distribute affects its influence or control over student leaders. The associative actions outlined above in the four types of activities are discussed in detail below along with empirically identifiable indicators.

3.1 Participation of Student Leaders in the Political Party

Participation of student leaders in the political party as a type of associative action refers to the space afforded to student leaders within the political party in order to be part of the decision making process of the party. Through being part of the party's decision making structures or committees such as National Executive Committee (NEC) or delegates conferences, student leaders can promote the interests of their constituency i.e., the student community. Student leaders can then be part of the different activities in the party such as voting on party policy decisions thus retaining more power and more autonomy.

3.2 Representation of Student Leaders

This refers to the representation that the political party affords student leaders. The political party represents students' interests on behalf of student leaders rather than student leaders representing students' interests themselves. Thus student leaders raise their issues in the party and then the party leadership decides on such issues before taking a public stand. This does not mean that student leaders cannot be part of such representation, but whether student leaders are part of the team in the party to represent their interests through the political party is a decision made by the party together with the student leaders. Therefore the 'representative' in this instance is the political party leadership on behalf of student leaders and by extension the students they represent. This

associative action thus involves directing more power to the political party and less autonomy for student leaders.

3.3 Goods and Services Exchange

This refers to exchange of the different goods and services which may be directly or indirectly afforded to student leaders through the political party. Student leaders organise the interests they plan to achieve in the process of associating with political parties. The services provided by the party in the process may include the training of student leaders (e.g., through party workshops and seminars); helping student leaders with campaign advice; for example on how to hold a successful protest. This kind of associative action leads to empowering student leaders and gaining potentially more autonomy. However, as political parties give student leaders incentives, they also have expectations and these may include material or non-material resources in a relationship of mutual exchange such as student leaders recruiting new members for the party; student leaders promoting the party's agenda in public; and student leaders representing the party when called upon.

3.4 Control over Student Leaders

This refers to circumstances whereby student leaders make their decisions following party orders. This therefore refers to student leaders exchanging their power for goods and services the political party may be willing to offer. Student leaders become captive to political party decisions and in the process accept being controlled by the political party. This associative action therefore results in loss of power for student leaders and less autonomy.

The adapted framework will be applied to illustrate its ability to increase our understanding of the relationship between student leaders in Makerere University and political parties in Uganda.

4 Applying the Schmitter and Streeck Framework to Makerere University

4.1 Participation of Student Leaders in Political Parties

4. 1.1 Participation of student leaders in party structures on-campus

In our interview, the dean of students confirmed the presence of party structures on campus and he further offered more insight into how the administration views the influence of political parties on student politics at the institution.

> Officially, management and council discourage direct involvement of external forces in determining the student leadership. But the university does not prevent students becoming members of associations even if they are political [such as] political parties. That is the official position. But over the years in practice the external actors have come in and as we speak now the elections of guild leadership or student leadership at all levels are heavily influenced by political parties. To the extent that now they select candidates, they sponsor candidates and so on. [The] main influence on student leadership here is by political parties and cultural groups (Interview with dean of students, October 23, 2013).

While institutional management allows party influence on campus but critically monitor the relationship and have preferred not to allow such influence. Consequently, despite the concerns, management respects the right of students to affiliate with political organisations. Clearly, political parties are highly influential at the institution.

The party leaders interviewed (October 17, 2013 & 22, 2013), argued that even though political parties have chapters at MAK most of them are not very active. They noted that the recruitment of students into political parties increases during student election campaigns. Therefore the campaign period is utilised to identify and recruit new members. The MAK-based political party chapters are recognised by the mainstream parties under their respective youth wings. Most student leaders interviewed (October 22, 2013 & 23, 2013), explained that students who are not in leadership don't really understand the details or the complexity of the relationship.

Clearly there is active engagement between student leaders and party leaders through the party structures on campus as noted in the discussion above. However to consider whether this level of engagement highly contributes to the level of autonomy student leaders may enjoy or rather constrain them, it is important to consider what happens off-campus.

4.1.2 Participation of student leaders in party structures off-campus

Interviews with guild leaders (October 23, 2013) show guild leaders use their structures on campus to connect with the off-campus structures of their respective party, more specifically the youth wing of the party. The participation in the structures off-campus happens in different ways as noted below.

This may afford student leaders the opportunity to represent student interests in forums beyond the university. UPC and UYD leaders indicated that affiliated student leaders were invited to their respective national delegates' conference. For instance, a UYD party leader reported that each university chapter of UYD in the country sends three representatives to the party's national delegates'

conference (Interview with UPC leader B, October 17, 2013; UYD leader, April 15, 2014). It is clear that this form of participation provides the opportunity for student leaders to voice students' concerns at the national level; it therefore provides an opportunity of empowering them within the party structures. They may consequently enjoy a level of influence to air out certain concerns as delegates, but that may not necessarily mean they are independent or have autonomy from the party as referred to in the theoretical framework. They may have a level of authority to influence, but within the party structural confines. This may mean having more power to influence, but they may lack the independence mainly to make or influence the final decisions. Hence in relation to the context of participation being discussed, empowerment appears to be the more appropriate concept to use since they may be empowered to influence the process, but not the final decision made about a particular issue.

The empowerment of student leaders inherent in forms of participation may be expressed in different ways. According to a UPC party leader, it is mostly through influencing change.

> During the last national election campaigns the managers [of the building] were not allowing posters here [at the party head office]. The youth came and forced that to happen and it happened. They sat here [in protest] until the manager said we are allowing [it] but please don't put [posters] everywhere. We made big posters and stuck them on walls in the building. When there was a leadership problem [within the party] again the youth came and took over the party headquarters. They came in the morning, overpowered one of our security guards and entered the offices, and locked themselves in until the issues they raised were heard. We had a meeting and resolved the leadership grievances they had (Interview with UPC leader A, October 17, 2013).

The party leadership did not punish the youths from MAK for these actions. This highlights how student leaders can participate within a political party in different ways, for example using student activism, sit-in etc. Moreover, it indicates that they are able to exert considerable power within political party structures. This further highlights not autonomy but influence they may enjoy within party structures. As noted above, it is the party leaders who in the end resolve the problems raised; students could only exert influence and pressure. Therefore student leaders do not enjoy autonomous power but enjoy influence within party structures. Student leaders who also have leadership roles in party institutional structures, may enjoy a level of authority within the party and thus may be listened to, they may even participate in decision making structures, but they do not independently determine the final decisions made.

In relation to the established theoretical framework, it may be argued that participation of student leaders in political parties avails them additional

platforms to raise student concerns and therefore increases their power and influence overall. Similarly, some student leaders claimed to be viewed as national leaders:

> Even though I am a student leader, I am viewed in my own respect as a national leader because students' issues are not issues that are limited to a specific age group or ethnicity. Students are from all over the country, different nationalities, they are from different age groups; so at the end of the day being a leader of that kind of constituency puts me out as a national leader (Interview with guild leader A, October 23, 2013).

Other guild leaders explained that it is the guild president in particular who is most recognised by the political parties and who therefore could claim to be a national leader (Interviews with guild leaders B and D, October 23, 2013 & 24, 2013).This shows he influence and the power student leaders may enjoy as upcoming party leaders. Since the "great prize" is the guild presidency, political parties seek to influence the process of choosing the candidate who represents the party; in turn, the guild president becomes a national leader in her/his party. Thus, another party leader argued that:

> They [student leaders] are taken as serious leaders. That is why when there are campaigns in MAK all political parties go there to see who is strong so that they can convince them to join their party. So political parties go there to mobilize for support and recruit possible candidates to become their members. MAK is looked at more seriously in comparison to other universities in the country (Interview with NRM leader A, October 22, 2013).

MAK does have a special status in this respect, as it represents a microcosm of Ugandan society. In this regard a student leader argued that "there is a perfect correlation between leaders who move from MAK and go to the national scene" (Interview with guild leader A, October 23, 2013). In addition, student leadership at MAK is often a precursor to a career in the party and in national politics hence many prominent national leaders were guild leader.

Thus, the interviews vividly confirm Byaruhanga's (2006: 145) earlier findings that the relationship between student leaders at MAK and political parties in general is historical and has created a succession *"*political culture or tradition*"* over time. Hence, student leaders in other universities that ban political party activities on campus (such as the Uganda Christian University) rarely make the transition into national politics in Uganda (Mugume and Katusiime, 2016).

The discussion above shows that student leaders actually don't enjoy autonomy within the party but rather they get empowered at different levels depending on the context. Considering Figure 4, student leaders-need a level of

autonomy within the party, which as noted above, they actually may not enjoy to authentically represent their constituency. Evidence shows that student leaders participate in the decision making processes of their respective parties hence they may be able to represent the student constituency. Furthermore, it may be hard to argue that student leaders participate in the relationship with a political party only to represent their personal interests since their own interests may overlap with the interests of the general student population given that they are also students.

4.2 Representation by the Political Party

According to guild leaders A and B (interviewed, October 23, 2013) opposition parties may not be able to influence the university, for example, if students complained about a policy, since MAK is a public university the ruling party has more influence on policy. Therefore an opposition party can only influence such policies through parliament, and for an issue to reach parliament it should be advocated for within the party to appear on the party agenda in the House. Since some of these parties explicitly allow student leaders into their structures, this creates room for student leaders to advocate for students' interests in the party. Hence students' concerns may end up on the floor of national parliament and get defended by the party of the respective student leaders raising such a concern. Therefore, political parties do represent student leaders' concerns, but there are limitations: whether it is a ruling party or opposition; whether student leader/s are able to argue for a specific student concern to appear on the party agenda. Conversely, student leaders are a small constituency within a political party and therefore have less influence on party policies. If one of the other bigger constituencies within a party were to go against a policy it may not gain a majority and most likely not be implemented by the party. Political parties mostly intervene if issues raised gather national attention:

> Political parties cannot solve problems which are here [at the institution] but if you put it in parliament, you're most likely to get their voice. You have to just struggle and make sure you push the issue to their level where they can come in at a more national level. The time when we took the university to court, our members of parliament who are lawyers helped us and gave us affordable legal services but also because it was about student fees, it touched the whole nation (Interview with guild leader B, October 23, 2013).

This highlights the limitations of political parties in the process of representing student leaders' interests and this allows student leaders to consider other means of getting their issues heard, most especially if such issues cannot easily get national public attention.

When the party is in power in the case of a public university, it is able to influence policy indirectly, thus it would be able to represent student leaders' concerns in the process. Student leaders would have less autonomy in the process, while an opposition party which struggles to represent students' interests would leave student leaders more empowered since they would have to try and resolve their concern until they are of national concern. At the institutional level student leaders appear to be constantly trying to negotiate their way to solving problems with management, mostly informally rather than through the official structures. How are the resources exchanged?

4.3 Transactions between Student Leaders and Political Parties

Student leaders generally get help from their respective political parties during campaigns, after the campaigns and even after graduating. However, in this resource exchange relationship political parties also have expectations (Byaruhanga, 2006; Luescher-Mamashela and Mugume, 2014; Mugume and Katusiimeh, 2016; Mutibwa, 1992).

4.3.1 Support to student leaders during campaigns

A cross-section of interviewed student leaders and party leaders (Interviewed, October 17, 2013, 22, 2013 & 23, 2013) all agreed that political parties get seriously involved in the campaigns for student leadership at MAK. They further confirmed that there was a variety of material and non-material resources that were given to student leaders, mainly the party candidates for the guild presidency such as: cash; posters; training in how to campaign; nomination fees; and mentoring of student leaders by influential members of the party. The latter would in most cases be members of parliament. One of the student leaders noted that "Through the many meetings we attended in the process of strategizing, they [party leaders] usually encouraged other members to take up various positions. So in that way I can say they encouraged us, they advised us on which strategy to use, these in a way become resourceful" (Interview with guild leader C, October 24, 2013).

For a potential student leader, participating in political party activities enhances their status as candidates. Thus FDC party leader A argued in relation to the 2013 primaries ahead of the guild president elections that "some of us when we don't see [the leadership qualities] in you, we even don't go there [to MAK] to campaign, like the current guild president. If it was another student, some of us would not have gone there. Because others contestants mediocre" (Interviewed, October 22, 2013). This also highlights the considerations party leaders make before extending the needed resources to a particular student leadership candidate. It also shows the importance of aspiring student leaders participating in party activities so as to access party resources in future.

All party leaders interviewed named almost the same resources they provide during campaigns as noted above, also confirmed by student leaders. The claim of manhandling the female FDC candidate during the 2013 guild campaigns was also highlighted by the dean of students in the interview. Thus in this case, some political parties even provided body guards for their candidate. (Interview with guild leader A, October 23, 2013). Correspondingly, a former UYD student leader (2001-2003) emphasised that party support for candidates is historical at the institution (interviewed October 22, 2013).

4.3.2 Support to student leaders when elected into office

Guild leader A (interviewed, October 23, 2013) explained that the party still guides her as a student leader and this mainly involves meeting those she considers to be her role models in the party. In the process she gets advice about how to deal with different issues, mainly the party leaders' opinions on how they would handle different circumstances in politics. Also activities with the party continue.

> We usually have activities within the party, youth activities where the youth are in charge and whenever there are activities to be carried out at MAK, the party comes to us. These include both activities on campus but also community outreach projects whereby the party sends students as FDC members to go help out in communities (Interview with guild leader D, October 24, 2013).

Political parties also organise conferences to help groom the young leaders (Interview with guild leaders B and C, October 23, 2013 & 24, 2013).

Having noted the opportunities political parties avail to student leaders, UPC and FDC leaders argued that, the challenge was the ruling party, i.e. the NRM, would attempt to 'poach' their student leaders.

> Whenever a contesting student leader from the opposition party becomes a guild president, the NRM agents persuade them to join the NRM and this has happened three or four times already. The NRM usually attempts to take them all, it tries to bribe them. Even some of the current leaders have been given offers such as houses, vehicles and good jobs so that they join NRM (Interviews with UPC leader B, October 17, 2013).

This is also confirmed by student leaders who argue that they have been approached by the NRM to join with promises of financial rewards (Interviews with guild leaders C and D, October 24, 2013). Therefore being in power influences a party's resources ability and influence on student leaders.

4.3.3 Support to Student Leaders when they Graduate

A student leader explained that when the candidate wins the elections, she/he becomes a public relations tool for the political party (Interview with guild leader B, October 23, 2013). Thus, this student leader argued that the relationship changes after election, whereby the student leader now provides more support for the political party, than that which the political party actually gives to the student leader. A party leader highlights the importance of a guild presidency win:

> Winning gives motivation to party members because you know how people follow the guild elections, even after midnight you will hear the radio announcing who won the vote at MAK. Secondly we use it to groom leaders... We expect you [the student leader] to promote the party by providing good leadership and we also expect you to mobilize for the party (Interview with FDC leader A, October 22, 2013).

This confirms a relationship with high levels of resources exchange between student leaders and political parties.

4.3.4 What the Political Party may expect from Student Leaders

> The NRM expects that when time for elections comes they use that structure (chapter) to build leaders for the guild presidency and other posts at the institution. Such student leaders will in time come to Delegates Conferences and they would be allowed to run for positions within the national network and they become national leaders. It is a nursery bed of grooming leaders (Interview with NRM leader B, October 22, 2013).

Thus, the NRM looks at student leaders as future national leaders and space is availed within the party structures for them to grow their leadership skills. But the interviewee noted that since the party was in power, the opportunities for student leaders were not only within the party but even in government. Therefore, student leaders are expected to try and keep good relations with party leaders and with party structures even in their home areas to access party-opportunities. The relationship as discussed above, confirms the functions of recruitment and career opportunities as argued by Weinberg and Walker (1969).

4.4 Control of Student Leaders by the Political Party

The dean of students at MAK explained that the involvement of political parties in student politics came with many challenges for the institution.

> For instance one of the ills … has been the commercialisation of the elections. We would want a brilliant student who is pro-students and who knows the institution and has got the university at heart to emerge the winner. Where they should look at the leadership characteristics then fellow students elect him or her. But [you can't win] if you don't have for example what here they call logistics so as to for example print posters, stage rallies, hire buses to take students from one hall to another, have the public address systems, buying gifts and so on … (Interview with dean of students, October 23, 2013).

The dean of students argued that this form of dependency by student leaders on political parties is a common characteristic of the relationship in Uganda. He further indicated that the resources availed by political parties to student leaders make it hard for independent candidates to compete. In addition he explained that this influence turned student politics into national politics whereby issues in national parliament which may have nothing or very little to do with the students consume all the leadership and political debates on campus. The dean of students further outlined that "we are also observing trends; it is lucrative to be in student leadership here" (Interview, October 23, 2013). He argued that student leadership was turning into a money-making venture for the student leaders, given the opportunities that came with it, rather than an opportunity to serve fellow students. This highlights the consequences of party politics on campus, as political parties ensure that they keep a grip on their respective student leaders.

A couple of issues emerge here. Firstly, there is a fear that the most competent students or candidates don't get to be elected due to the "commercialisation" of student politics by external forces, while political parties give the funding, expecting something in return from the student leaders. As a result student leaders' actions get controlled by off-campus forces.

However, guild leader B argued to the contrary. Indicating that after a student leader has been elected into office, even though the party may have contributed resources during the election campaign, they cannot control what he or she does on campus (Interviewed, October 23, 2013). Hence a student leader can even swap parties after entering office. Furthermore, what resonates from the analysis is that the weaker the structures within the party, the more powerful the student leaders become, such as the example of UPC. Student leaders took advantage of the weak party leadership and attempted to fill the leadership vacuum in the party. The implication of this is that the political party ends up having less control over the student leaders as they are empowered to force the party structures to do certain changes which favour their position.

It is clear from the interviews that any attempt at controlling student leaders will require some kind of "carrot and stick" method. A FDC party

representative explained how important the resources can be to a party in this respect:

> There are instances whereby the party does not have enough money and you find them [i.e., students] getting money from other sources to finance their campaigns. Now also those sources want something in return so as to access the privileges that come with having a guild president, such as a status for the party. …Like in any country, if you do not finance the candidate you know there are those times when that candidate feels after all … what was the role of my party in my reaching here? (Interview with FDC leader A, October 22, 2013).

The dean of students noted that as much as political parties may try to control student leaders, the whole electoral process offers student leaders a learning experience. Furthermore, the dean explained:

> We teach them things trying to re-orient [them but] some of them know it by the way that [using political parties] is only a route through which they can reach leadership. Some of them understand it very well. In fact we have had cases of students who have changed parties just towards elections or after (Interview with dean of students, October 23, 2013).

This highlights how student leaders use political parties for their political success while at the same time trying to run away from being controlled. Another FDC leader indicated that student leaders manipulate political parties, mostly those parties with a popular brand, during campaigns, but after winning they cut ties:

> I think we are now a brand as a party that talks about a better future and those who are looking at Uganda that does not stop today they want to join us. Those who think about what we call the common good and fairness want to join us but of course there are those who want to join us because we have the crowd. Those you can never rule out, like I said those after winning they are not with you. Even after leaving campus you never see them talk politics again (Interview with FDC leader A, October 22, 2013).

Therefore students at times cut ties with political parties after elections to avoid the responsibilities (and potential control) that come with having used party resources during campaigns. The approach of the NRM is illustrated here by another party leader towards recruiting. For example, if the president makes a policy decision which the student leaders may disagree with and they protest mostly at MAK.

> Those student leaders will be summoned to the State House to explain to him what their demands are. Afterwards he asks the others on the delegation to leave [the room]; he wants to talk to you [the guild president]. If the

> person is not of strong character they break. [A former guild president explained his encounter with the president] that the president said to him, you see now we are talking as presidents … praising you, … he [the student leader] would say but I'm not like you, but the president would keep insisting that we are meeting like presidents not like any one… I was also voted into office like you now let's talk as presidents. So defending that becomes a challenge (Interviewed FDC leader A, October 22, 2013).

The argument here is that most student leaders 'break' and a deal is struck there and then for the student leader to join the ruling party with specific promises made to the guild president. This shows the power and influence that comes with a particular political party being in office.

4.5 Reflecting on the Schmitter and Streeck Theoretical Framework

The Schmitter and Streeck (1999) framework adapted for this study focuses on student leaders and political parties by design (i.e. student leaders' participation in the political party and representation through the political party) and in the process less consideration is directed at those whom student leaders are meant to represent (students). It bases itself on the assumption that student leaders as representatives represent student interests almost by default. In addition the theoretical framework as noted in Figure 4 focuses on autonomy (more or less autonomy) of the student leaders, which is conceptualised as their level of independence in relation to the decisions they make. However applying the framework to the case above shows a more nuanced interaction, with no single actor having full autonomy. Political parties derive their authority in the relationship independently from the many different and powerful constituencies that make up a political party, while student leaders make up a small constituency in a party. Therefore the application of the adapted theoretical framework to the case shows that there is a constant attempt by the student leaders and the political parties to gain influence by one over the other. However, given that the relationship does not play out on a level playing field, political parties always have more power over student leaders than vice versa and are therefore able to influence what student leaders do.

Power is influenced by resources and incentives in two ways: Firstly, the more incentives a political party avails to student leaders in answering their demands/interests, the more power and thus control it will have over them [other factors considered constant]. Secondly, the more resources a political party will be able to access, the more incentives it will be able to give to student leaders and thus able to control them, which results in empowerment for the student leaders. In relation to this point, the distinction between ruling party and opposition party is important (Byaruhanga, 2006). However in relation to the

associative actions of the framework namely; Participation of student leaders in the political party, Representation of student leaders, Goods and services exchange, and Control over student leaders, their characteristics or the way they are defined and thus used in the analysis remains the same. Therefore the indicators proposed during the process of adapting the framework to the MAK case study remain important while analysing how student leaders and party leaders relate.

5 Conclusion

The study confirms the continued historical relationship between student leaders and political parties in Uganda, which Byaruhanga (2006) reports in his study, and suggests that this relationship is even stronger now with more new political parties in the country in competition with each other. Furthermore, student leaders from Makerere University are still the most likely to end up as powerful politicians in the country or powerful bureaucrats, even while many new universities in Uganda have been established especially since the 1990s. This historical relationship continues to serve the function of renewing the political and bureaucratic elite in the country generally in terms of the historical recruitment function of student political affiliation with political parties as argued by Weinberg and Walker (1969). The relationship with political parties is also clearly important to any guild presidential candidate. Political parties provide the goods and services necessary for a party flag-bearer to wage a successful election campaign. Overall, goods and services provided by a party differ between those availed during campaigns and after winning an election. The expectations of student leaders regarding a possible political career after graduating, and conversely the expectations of the political party in that whole process, tend to shift over the process of association and greatly impact on the levels of influence (or even control) that a political party may exert over a student leader.

The paper shows that while student leaders may influence some of the weak political parties (in terms of party policies), student leaders are a weak constituency within any political party. As a result, student leaders may influence decisions mostly in the structures of a weak political party but still the final decisions even in a weak party are made by the main political party leadership and not student leaders. In terms of its effects on student representation in particular, the study shows that the relationship certainly harbours its ambiguities. It benefits student leaders and political parties directly; in the process, however, the actual representation of student interests may become a minor issue. We have pointed out, however, that the framework adapted from Schmitter and Streek, fails to consider in detail the way student interests and concerns are expressed, and intermediated authentically by student

leaders into institutional decision-making. Rather it is an assumption that student leaders' interests are congruent with those of the general student body of Makerere University. Overall, given the complex and at times contradictory relationship shown in this study, a level of institutional intervention to safeguard student interest representation in the long run may be required.

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