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## *LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE*

1. **Akudolu, Lilian-Rita I.**, Department of Educational Foundations, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Nigeria.
2. **Alwazrah, Abdullah**, King Saud University.
3. **Asoegwu, May Nwaka N.**, Department of Accounting Education, School of Business Education, Federal College of Education Technical, Umunze, Orumba South Local Government area, Anambra State, Nigeria.  
Email: Mayjes2003@yahoo.com
4. **Christensen, Gerd**, Associate Professor, Department of Media, Cognition, and Communication, University of Copenhagen, Denmark.
5. **Aylor, Alan Edward, Healthy Org Now, USA.**
6. **Macaraeg, Agnes M.**, Dean, College of Arts and Social Sciences, Tarlac State University, Tarlac City, Philippines; **David, Maria Elena D.**, Director, University Research Office, Tarlac State University, Tarlac City, Philippines; **Lacanalale, Erwin P.**, Research Chair, College of Arts and Social Sciences, Tarlac State University, Tarlac City, Philippines.
7. **Miller, Isaac O.**, Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Lagos State, Nigeria.
8. **Oloyede, David Oluwatoyin**, Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Management Sciences, Osun State University, Okuku Campus, Osun State, Nigeria.
9. **Onyeike, Victoria C.**, and **Eseyin, Emmanuel O.**, Department of Educational Management, Faculty of Education, University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State, Nigeria.
10. **Owolabi, J., Adedayo, A. O., Amao-Kehinde, A. O., and Olayanju, T. A.**, Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Lagos State, Nigeria.
11. **Pamungkas, Viliya D.**, Wichita State University.
12. **Raddawi, Rana**, Department of English, American University of Sharjah.
13. **Salem, Mohammed Saleh**, Candidate, CBA, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, Tutor in Business Studies Department, Arab Open University; **Al-Motawa, Ahmed A.**, CBA, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, Assistant Professor in Marketing Department.
14. **Sowho, Paulina Obioma**, Lead presenter; **Usman, Fatima O.**, Department of Educational Psychology and Foundation, Federal College of Education, Okene, Kogi State, Nigeria.
15. **Wafa H. Altuwaijre**, Assistant Professor, Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, Administration and Educational Planning.
16. **Weaver, C. P., Jr.**, Regent University.

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## From the Editor's Desk



Dear Colleagues:

Welcome to the inaugural issue of the Global Journal of Education. This Journal was created and designed by the Department of Education, University of Riverside. This issue contains professional papers as they relate to global issues in education. These papers were presented at the University of Riverside Education Conferences held in 2014. You will find that these papers are informative and very helpful to further understand global education issues. We are proud of the contributions made by our authors. All of them are well known both nationally and internationally in their field of expertise.

Dr. Abdullah Alwazrah discusses the empowerment of leaders at academic institutions. The paper reviews the importance of and different types of leadership empowerment and challenges faced.

Dr. May Nwaka Asoegwu explains the NCE Program in Nigeria and the Global Changes in Education.

Dr. Lilian-Rita Akudolu discusses how education responds to the needs of contemporary society.

Dr. Agnes Macaraeg analyzes the experience in the May 2010 election of the Parish Pastoral Council for responsible voting (PPCRV).

Dr. Isaac Miller identifies the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in pedagogical skills for teaching effectively in technical colleges in Lagos State in Nigeria.

Dr. Josiah Owolabi, Dr. Adedayo, Dr. Kehinde, and Dr. Olanju discuss the effects of two selected laboratory based instructional approaches on computer students' self-efficacy in visual-basic .net computer programming.

Dr. Viliya Pamungkas provides a systematic review of the effect of animal assisted therapy on Students with exceptionalities.

Dr. Rana Raddawi discusses in detail emotional intelligence (EQ) and transformational leadership. She shares that EQ skills build transformational leaders who have vision, coaching, affiliation, and democratic qualities that are needed in the workplace.

Dr. Paulina Sowho, and Dr. Fatima Usman discuss teachers' perception of barriers to learning as it affects classroom management in Okene in Kogi State of Nigeria. They believe that classroom management is considered most important in bringing about better learning.

Dr. Victoria Onyeike, and Dr. Emmanuel Eseyin explain that internally generated revenue in the administration of university education in Rivers State of Nigeria.

Dr. Wafa Altuwaijre discusses the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in public universities. Her study presents a conceptual proposal on the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in public universities in Saudi Arabia.

Dr. Alan Aylor discusses in detail the nonprofit sector. He states that studies have shown the casual link between work life satisfactions, work effort and positive employee morale when organizations have clearly defined work objectives that delineate management and staff expectations.

Dr. David Oloyede discusses some of the issues and challenges of harmonious industrial relations for sustainable development. His Paper examines the theoretical framework for harmonious industrial relations for sustainable development in Nigeria.

Dr. Mohammed Saleh Salem, and Dr. Ahmed Al-Motawa, explores the factors affecting satisfaction with the relationship between supplier and retailer. They believe that relationship marketing is a new paradigm in marketing practice, especially in developing countries.

Dr. Carl Preston Weaver explains about expanding the ethical leadership concept.

Dr. Gerd Christensen, discusses gender constructions and legitimacy among university students. Her research questions focused on how long-term group work affects university culture, in general, and specifically how it impacts the students.

I would like to extend my sincere thanks to our authors for their contribution towards a successful publication of this high quality journal.

Raj Singh, Ph.D.  
Editor-in-Chief

# LEADERS EMPOWERMENT AT ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

by

ALWAZRAH, ABDULLAH

King Saud University

## Abstract

Academic institutions are adopting a different management philosophy based on recruiting individuals and empowering them according to their responsibilities. This paper reviews the importance of and different types of leadership empowerment, and the challenges empowerment poses for these academic leaders. Empowerment is essential for any academic institute seeking excellence. Like any other change, implementing an empowerment strategy can be very challenging at the beginning. It requires investment in training and developing leaders' skills so they have the right competencies to carry out their duties and responsibilities. An empowered work environment encourages leader creativity and increases productivity, allowing it to compete locally and globally.

*Keywords:* empowerment, leadership, middle management, responsibilities

## Introduction

The term empowerment emerged after the 1990s as a result of the cumulative development in management, in general, and human resources management, in particular. Researchers are starting to focus their attention on empowerment in an effort to consolidate the spirit of participation and employee interaction. They believe empowerment enables workers to exercise full authority and take responsibility for their jobs. Therefore, empowerment is considered one of the pillars upon which an organization meets challenges and environmental developments (Alwadi, 2012, p. 28).

Academic institutions are adopting a different management philosophy based on recruiting individuals and empowering in order of their responsibilities (Effendi, 2003, p. 10). In response, it has become necessary to empower leaders in higher education institutions, especially leaders in middle- and lower-level management, such as deans and department chairmen. The empowerment process includes continuous, on-the-job training, trusting, and providing education management with all the available tools that enable them to perform their responsibilities.

Empowering employees, in general, and leaders in particular, can lead to improved academic institution performance and to improved competitiveness as well. Some studies, such as the study of Fayad (2005), indicated a direct correlation between empowerment and competitiveness. Empowerment is a management strategy based on giving leaders the power to act, make decisions, solve problems, think creatively, and take responsibility (Effendi, 2003, p. 11).

## The Importance of Leader Empowerment

The importance of empowerment in academic institutions can be justified from two perspectives (Alqubaisi, 2004, p. 137):

- 1. Realistic and practical justifications.** The reality of negative management practices such as a centralized hierarchy, multi-level communication, the confidentiality of information, and limited authority. These

negative practices easily can be identified in third world academic institutions. It is difficult to maintain such management practices because of the nature of the current era, which requires fast responses and quick decisions. Therefore, empowering middle management leaders can be a solution.

**2. Developmental and strategic justifications.** Futuristic studies and research conducted by specialists in various fields of knowledge indicate that organizations need to be proactive and apply a new management philosophy; otherwise they will start to crumble. The reengineered philosophy shall consider empowerment as a managerial strategy to face future challenges.

Effendi (2003, p. 25) identified the importance of empowerment as it:

- hastens an organization's need to respond to urgent conditions and changes;
- reduces the number of management levels in organizational structures;
- helps higher management focus on long-term, strategic issues rather than daily work issues;
- optimizes utilization of all available resources, especially human resources, to maintain the development of organizational excellence;
- reduces the cost of and speeds the decision-making process;
- gives leaders a chance to think creatively and demonstrate their skills;
- brings employee satisfaction and increases a sense of belonging to the organization; and
- gives employees a greater sense of responsibility and sense of achievement at work.

### **Elements of Empowerment**

Cabrera (2012) suggested three elements of empowerment:

- 1. Clarity.** The first element in empowering employees is to clarify goals and expectations to be achieved. People can only progress at work if they know what results they are expected to achieve. This means that academic leaders need to know the expected outcomes so they understand their responsibilities.
- 2. Support.** The second element in empowering others is to support them by providing the resources they need to succeed and removing any obstacles that may hinder progress. This requires not only providing the time, resources, and encouragement necessary for accomplishing goals, but also actively working to eliminate barriers facing academic leaders to succeed.
- 3. Autonomy.** The third element in empowering people is to give them the autonomy they need to do their work. Employees need to know what they are expected to do and have the support they need to do it. Trusting academic leaders is important to getting their work done and fundamental for creating positive work environments.

Lin (1998) stated three elements that need to be present for successful empowerment:

- 1. Style.** Empowered employees have a working style of self-management and possess a team spirit. Employees make, implement, and are held accountable for work-related decisions.
- 2. Skills.** Empowered employees are trained to have effective problem-solving and communication skills. They challenge inefficient policies and identify problems."
- 3. Staff.** Empowered employees are bred in empowering organizations. With empowering leaders as drivers, immersed in a culture of empowerment and reinforced by empowering management practices, employees are expected to grow.

## Types of Empowerment

There are different types of employee empowerment, as mentioned by Alwadi (2012), namely:

**Leadership style.** Employee empowerment is considered one of the modern leadership styles. This leadership style is based on the role of a leader to empower subordinates. It includes giving authority from top levels to lower levels in a large scale.

**Empowering individuals.** This type of empowerment is based on what is so-called “self-empowerment.” It begins when cognitive individual factors lead him or her towards accepting the responsibility and autonomy in decision-making. Empowered individuals have greater levels of control for job requirements, and a greater capacity to utilize information and resources.

**Team empowerment.** The focus on the empowerment of the individual may lead to ignore the power of teamwork; that is why some researchers emphasize the importance to team or group empowerment. Team empowerment has benefits that go beyond individual achievement. The idea of team empowerment began with the initiatives of quality movement in the 1970s and 1980s. This type of empowerment is based on building and developing the spirit of cooperation and partnership among individuals.

Alwadi (2012, p. 47) confirmed that teamwork empowerment is a tool used to empower individuals. It also is reason to develop their competencies and enhance corporate performance. In fact empowering teams creates mutual trust among team members, which leads to a higher level of individual autonomy.

## Empowerment Levels

Kendrick (2004) suggested six levels of empowerment. Each level is given a greater degree of empowerment, as follows:

**Level 1.** Employees do not make substantive decisions about their service.

**Level 2.** Employees do not make substantive decisions about their service but routinely are informed about the decisions others will be making on their behalf.

**Level 3.** Employees routinely are asked to give advice (i.e., consulted), by the actual decision-makers, about their personal service decisions.

**Level 4.** Employees begin to routinely make a personally significant minority of the substantive decisions that constitute their personal service. A significant minority, in statistical terms, might range from 25%-45% of key decisions.

**Level 5.** Employees routinely begin to make a personally significant majority of the substantive decisions that constitute their personal service. A significant majority, in statistical terms, might range from 55%-90% of key decisions.

**Level 6.** Employees are so routinely making the vast majority of key decisions that they no longer believe they have a meaningful empowerment issue.

Considering these six levels, it can be said the academic leaders are supposed to be in the sixth level or at least in the fifth level. When this happens, the academic institute will have a horizontal rather than a hierarchical structure. Academic leaders in these two levels will be able to make decisions quickly. Accordingly, the academic institution will be able to respond faster to the rapidly changing needs of the community in general.

## Challenges of Academic Leader Empowerment

Yacoub (2004, p. 64) believed challenges to empowerment that lead to the failure of the empowerment process are related to expectations, information, and attitudes. Some of these challenges include the following:

- Disagreement between the manager and the subordinate regarding the employee's ability to control the authority granted to him/her for making decisions.
- Manager's unwillingness to grant more authority for subordinates as a result of fear that he/she may lose his/her power in the institution.
- It takes a very long period of time to see the positive effect of leaders' empowerment.
- The cost that needs to be paid at the beginning to empower leaders, such as training cost.
- The nature of the organizational structure may sometimes not encourage empowerment.

Root III (2014) added other challenges facing employee empowerment.

**Message disconnect.** Empowerment can create chaos by developing different messages from various employees. This can become challenging in the area of student or faculty service, for example, when one dean may handle a similar situation differently from his/her counterpart within the institution. When two students with the same issue get two different resolutions, this can lead to a disconnect between the institution and the student.

**Insufficient training.** Lack of training in an empowered environment can create situations in which employees are working on intuition rather than following institution policy. As a result, there might be incompatible solutions or insufficient.

**Reluctant managers.** The challenges in some empowered environments can come from the managers; some managers may hesitate to empower subordinates because they feel that their employees are not competent enough to handle an empowered environment, and those managers will still maintain an employee-manager business model that can interfere with implementing the employee empowerment model.

**Breakdown of organizational structure.** As academic leaders gain more confidence in an empowered environment, they begin to feel they can take on more crucial decisions. Their superiors need to create clear guidelines for empowerment, or they risk the possibility that the hierarchy within the organizational structure will break down, making it difficult for them to maintain control over their employees.

Alotaibi (2004) also shared some of the same thoughts when it comes to leader empowerment in academic institutions. He stated the following challenges:

- Hierarchical organizational structure.
- Highly centralized decision-making authority.
- Senior management fear of losing power.
- Unwillingness to change.
- Leaders fear bearing responsibility and accountability.
- Strict regulations and procedures that do not encourage innovation.
- Confidentiality in the exchange of information.
- Inadequacy incentives system.
- Poor training and self-development.
- Distrust among the institution management.

## Benefits of Empowerment

There are several benefits of empowering academic leaders in higher educational institutions. Among the most important is to improve the quality of decision making; this applies mainly to the sophisticated decisions that leaders already have information about. In addition, empowerment can lead to a more precise problem definition. Empowering leaders also can improve the quantity and quality of decisions targeting institutional problems (McShane & Glinow, 2010).

In terms of the institution's benefits of empowerment in general, studies have proven a clear relationship between empowered leaders and their performance. Empowerment has an important impact reflecting the institution as listed by Melhem (2006). Empowerment:

- Increases leaders' loyalty for the institution: An employee who feels empowered and has a freedom of decision making at work knows that this freedom is part of a healthy and positive relationship between management and employees, which, in turn, contributes to improved loyalty level of employees to their institution. Improves leaders' productivity quality and quantity.
- Encourages creativity and innovation as a result of the freedom to act.
- Helps the institution to create more development programs: A leader may be willing to apply change and will be less resistant to change. Change resistance is the most difficult challenge that leads to failure of the projects. Fear of change does not exist in individuals who are empowered, as they love change and innovation.
- Improves the relationship among employees through the concept of internal marketing. This concept is consistent with the concept of empowerment in terms of the quality of the relationship among the team members, or among employees that leads to a significant change in the way look to their colleagues at work. (p. 124)

Empowerment also has an important impact on the leaders themselves (Melhem, 2006):

- Organizational commitment improvement: empowerment contributes to an increase in the level of commitment of the academic leader to his/her institute. As a result, the feeling of belonging to the institute increases; which, in the end, reduces the rate of turnover.
- Positive participation: Leader empowerment leads to raising the level of their participation. Participation resulting from empowerment generates a high level of efficiency and positive engagement that stems from the sense of responsibility toward the institution's goals.
- Performance improvement: Empowerment improves leaders' performance, and raises the level of satisfaction. The idea of improving performance is an essential drive behind applying empowerment programs in academic institutions.
- Acquiring knowledge and skills: The success of empowerment programs requires knowledge and skills, which cannot be achieved without developing and training leaders. This requires, in most cases, the involvement of leaders in training programs, seminars and workshops, and conferences from which they gain valuable knowledge and skills.
- Job security: Successful institutes are those that do not easily let go empowered leaders. The acquisition of knowledge, skills, and experiences related to the leader job will push the institute to retain them as long as possible.

- Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is one of the most important advantages achieved through leader empowerment. Leaders feel satisfied when they have enough authority and power that they need to carry out their duties. (p. 120)

## **Conclusion**

Empowering academic leaders is essential for any academic institute seeking excellence. The rhythm of today's life is very fast and changing rapidly, which requires dynamic leadership. Academic leaders, especially those in middle management, such as deans and department chairmen, are the ones who face daily work challenges. They need to have enough power to make decisions in a responsive manner.

Like any other change, implementing an empowerment strategy can be very challenging at the beginning. It requires an investment in training and developing leaders' skills so they have the right competencies to carry out their duties and responsibilities. There might be change resistance as well that needs to be dealt with. However, the benefits an academic institute gains from empowering its leaders are worth the cost. An empowered work environment encourages leader creativity and increases productivity. This enables the institute to respond quickly to the needs of the community and compete locally and globally.

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# NIGERIAN CERTIFICATE IN EDUCATION (NCE) PROGRAM AND THE GLOBAL CHANGES IN EDUCATION: A MIRAGE

by

ASOEGWU, MAY NWAKA N.

Department of Accounting Education

School of Business Education

Federal College of Education Technical, Umunze

Orumba South Local Government Area

Anambra State, Nigeria.

Email: [Mayjes2003@yahoo.com](mailto:Mayjes2003@yahoo.com)

Phone No: +2348030584884

## Abstract

The Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) is a program intended to qualify teachers for the much-needed primary and junior secondary schools in the country. This paper provides a concise evaluation of the revised NCE minimum Standards (curriculum). The certificate is the basic qualification for teaching, which teaching students can obtain after completing three years in the College of Education. The country's education for teachers is in a deplorable state. Since this curriculum has been viewed as irrelevant, The National Commission for Colleges of Education recently made a bold step by reviewing the minimum standards (curriculum) of Colleges of Education. The review deemed this evaluation as one of the most highly criticized versions of the curriculum. In our research, we adopted the descriptive survey design. This design was used to capture the study's entire domain. The study's target population comprises the 1100 NCE teachers in three Federal Colleges of Education in South East Nigeria: The Federal College of Education (Technical) Umunze, The Federal College of Education, Eha-Amufu, and Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Owerri. We adopted Taro Yameni's formula to determine the sample size. We found that the latest innovation integrates technology into the teaching and learning processes by introducing Information and Communication Technology (ICT)-based classrooms. However, since the government and college authorities have failed to provide colleges with ICT tools, attaining this provision may not be feasible without the necessary technical equipment. One conclusion is that reforms are necessary for higher education to address the challenges posed by globalization and, consequently, to achieve educational objectives. Relevance of a suitable program constitutes an important factor to its successful implementation. Among others, we recommend that the Nigerian government review the admission requirements to capture the best minds in society.

*Keywords:* curriculum, education, Federal Colleges of Education

## Background to the Study

According to the 2006 census, Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa, and eighth in the world, with a population of more than 140 million people. With a nominal gross domestic product of \$207.11 billion and

per capita income of \$1,401, Nigeria has the second largest economy in Africa (Salami, 2011). As impressive as these figures may appear, the education sector still is facing many challenges as it serves more clientele than any other industry. Therefore, the education system's problems impact every individual or household either directly or indirectly.

Sustainable development in Nigeria requires the availability of competent and committed human resources. Using education as an instrument, the government hopes to produce manpower that will serve in different capacities and contribute positively to the nation's socio-economic and political development. Specifically, the government intends to gear higher education toward high level, relevant manpower training, self-reliance, national utility, and international understanding (Federal Republic of Nigeria [FRN], 2004). Many changes were introduced into the Nigerian higher education system in the last decade of the 20th century. During this period, Ezekwezili (2006) observed that the nation's education sector was suffering from a systematic dysfunction at all levels. As the Federal Minister of Education at that time, Ezekwezili embarked on education reforms through which she proposed to bring sanity into the system.

The federal government also stipulated that the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) would be the minimum teaching qualification and encouraged all teachers to be professionally qualified. Granting of license to some college of education and polytechnics for award of degree also was a reform on higher education in Nigeria (Babalola, 2007; FRN, 2004; Lawal, 2008). Reform continued to be initiated and implemented as people and government saw the need for it. Moreover, technological development has drawn nations, cities and villages closer to one another, and changes in one place quickly affect other places. As Omolewa (2008) observed, people are constantly motivated by a desire for change, an eagerness for transformation and a conscious search for progress and development.

In line with fulfilling these objectives, the government, private organizations, and individuals have established institutions of higher learning in different parts of the country. These institutions admit, train, and graduate students in different fields. The expectation is that graduates will work in different sectors of the economy and contribute their quotas toward making Nigeria a developed nation. The Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE), for instance, is a teacher education program aimed at producing teachers for the much-needed vocationalization of the primary and junior secondary schools in the country. Since the NCE is the basic qualification for teaching in Nigeria, there is need for special attention to its curriculum. It is a sub-degree (certification course) and a professional teacher diploma, which is obtained after three years (full time) at a college of education (Lassa, 2000). The graduates of the program are qualified to teach the first nine years of schooling (six years of primary and three years of junior secondary education). The Decree (1985, No. 16) was enacted on national minimum standards, and this paved the way for the first and subsequent editions of the national minimum standards (curriculum) of Colleges of Education. The curriculum is implemented in colleges of education.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Despite the fact many changes were introduced into Nigeria's higher education system at different times since its independence, certain modalities are needed for the successful implementation of the minimum standards so that the NCE program will meet the global changes in education. The international community is entering an era of high-quality transformation. The fundamental basis for this is the exhaustion of opportunities in developing civilizations. Information is the new main product in this new economic system. With that, knowledge quickly

becomes the decisive factor for production. This involves the performance of the world's educational system and cooperation, production, and specialization for the purpose of creating global products and services. Forming global information systems, increasing influence of international organizations, and multinational corporations in the world market all are creating a new dimension in the global education systems (Irina, 2013). These changes are globalizing national economies and even national cultures.

The curriculum recommends a participatory and interactive approach to delivering lessons. The extent to which this can be achieved is in doubt, as overcrowded classrooms are one issue plaguing curriculum implementation. The latest innovation provides for integrating technology into the teaching and learning process and ICT-based classrooms. Attaining this provision may not be feasible if the necessary technological equipment is not dispensed to colleges. Teaching/learning facilities are required for successful implementation of this curriculum. The courses offered by the NCE graduates are not the courses that will help them meet these global changes in education.

It also appears that the curriculum is based on the notion that the requisite facilities for the implementation of the curriculum are available in all schools. This is contrary to the report of the NCCE (National Commission for Colleges of Education, 2001) that federal colleges are better staffed and resourced than the state college; therefore, the curriculum cannot be implemented in the same manner in all the schools. The production of an implementation framework is commendable, but it may not achieve its goal if teachers lack the skills required to ensure productive teaching in classrooms.

This paper intends to show that certain modalities are needed to successfully implement the minimum standards so that the NCE program will meet the global changes in education. Consequently, this paper is designed to ascertain the true state of things empirically and the extent to which the learning experiences component of the 2012 minimum standard (curriculum) of the program is to be carried out. This paper also seeks to learn to what extent the blue print (minimum standard) contains learning experiences in relation to the global changes in education.

From the foregoing, the following pertinent research questions become imperative:

1. To what extent has the minimum Standards of the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) program meet with the global changes in education?
2. Does the blue print (minimum standard) contain learning experiences in relation to the global changes in education?

### **Objectives of the Study**

The aim of this study was to examine the extent to which the NCE program meets the global changes in Education. The specific objectives of this study were to:

- examine the extent to which the minimum standards of the NCE program meet the global changes in education; and
- ascertain if the blue print (minimum standard) contain learning experiences in relation to the global changes in education.

### **Research Hypotheses**

1. The minimum standards of the NCE program did not meet the global changes in education.

2. The blue print (minimum standard) did not contain learning experiences in relation to the global changes in education.

### **Conceptualizing Globalization**

Globalization has become a catchphrase used in all conferences that borders on social development. Its indispensability to socio-political and economic development has made it imperative for a thorough examination of the concept. According to Egbon, globalization primarily has two principal meanings, as a phenomenon and as a theory of economic development. Within the context of a phenomenon, globalization translates to a greater interdependence among different regions and countries in the world in terms of finance, trade and communication (Akani, 2012).

As a theory of economic development, globalization assumes that a greater level of integration is taking place among different regions of the world and that this integration is having an important impact on economic growth and social indicators (Egbon, 2011, p. 12 as cited in Akani, 2012). The integrating trend associated with globalization is reinforced by the improvement in information technology. The knowledge and acquisition of technological know-how becomes a desideratum for the understanding of the principles of globalization (Akani, 2012).

It is not surprising that the Internet's rapid growth, and associated World Wide Web, is the latest expression of this development. In 1990, fewer than one million users were connected to the Internet. By 1995, the figure rose to 50 million. In 2000, it grew to between 580 to 655 million. Esko Toyo cited in Akani (2012) that globalization is a call for lifting restrictions on private imperialist direct investment. It is an attempt to exploit the fact the world already is chronically indebted to the imperialist. They have to swallow the hook of foreign direct investment (Akani, 2004, p. 10).

Globalization did not emerge on the world stage from the blues. It is a part of the systematic movement orchestrated by industrialized countries to weaken world economies for their capricious enjoyment. The emergence of nation states in Europe and its attendant wars, the formation of international organizations, subjection of Africa to inhuman slavery, the colonization of the continent, and the present epoch of unprecedented scientific revolution are just part of the trends to bring the globe under one hegemony. Throughout these stages, there has been an unbridled effort to internationalize capitalism for maximum profit. The present epoch is distinguished from previous stages because of its facilitation of fast movement of goods and services and business transactions electronically carried out no matter the distance. This process has resulted in what Renato Ruggiero, director-general of the World Health Organization (WHO), described as a "borderless economy" (Akani, 2012).

Globalization has led to the intensification of world wide social relations, which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa, (Derefaka 2004 as cited in Akani, 2012, p. 233). The essential ingredients of globalization are anchored in:

- movement of people, goods and services across the world;
- private sector development;
- belief in the efficacy of the market; and
- interdependence of economic transaction.

The belief in the effectiveness of the market presupposes an adherence to economic fundamentalism, the Washington consensus “or a form of dogmatism to the extreme in which there is a strong belief that markets can handle any and everything” (Olofin, 2006, p. 24 as cited in Akani, 2012).

Invariably, globalization has become synonymous with western exploitation and “the highest stage in the development of imperialism” (Akani, 2004, p. 19). In other words, it has become a new trend for capitalist expansionism. After all, the modern world system is, therefore, “a capitalist world-economy because the accumulation of private capital, through exploitation in production and sale of profit in a market, is the endless accumulation of capital through the eventual commodification of everything” (Wallestein, 1998 as cited in Akani, 2012, p. 10).

The capitalist world is hinged on a mindless survival of the fittest and since the third world cannot profitably participate in the game because of its obvious handicap, it exists on the fringe of the global political economy. Because globalization brings about marginalization on a massive scale and economic and political domination, globalized poverty has become the vogue. The effect of globalization is terribly uneven and produces big winners and losers (Taiwo, 2004, p. 224 as cited in Akani, 2012).

### **Conceptualizing Education**

According to the National Policy on Education of 1976, as amended, “education is the vehicle for the promotion of socio-cultural and political change in the society” (Akabue & Enyi, 2001, p. 417). Education humanizes the mind for ethical conduct, good governance, liberty, life and rebirth of the society by subjecting medieval ideas to microscopic scrutiny. Education is an agent of change, which empowers its recipients to be creative and become a change-agent. After all, Denis Diderot, one of the Enlightenment philosophers said that “man is the only point of departure and the only point of return.” The essentiality of education to human development led J. J Rousseau (2006) to assert that,

we are born weak, we need strength, helpless, we need aid, foolish, we need reason. All that we lack at birth, all that we need when we come to man’s estate, is the gift of education. This education comes to us from nature, from men, or from the education of men, what we gain by our experience of our surroundings is the education of things. (p. 6)

Education, in whatever form, is indispensable for the production and repositioning of a given community. It suggests that any community/state that neglects the socialization of its members will experience an opaque existence, and live within the bounds of state of nature (Akani, 2012).

Fafunwa noted that traditional education oriented Nigerians (Africans) to achieve and uphold the seven cardinal goals. Among them is to develop the child’s later physical skills, to develop character, develop intellectual skills and respect for elders and position in authority (Fafunwa, 1991, p. 20). Unfortunately, colonial education through the instrumentality of the colonial state doggedly and consistently suppressed indigenous education in preference to western education. From 1842 when the “Nursery of the infant” was established in Badagry to the 1950s, colonial education became a viable channel to indoctrinate Nigerians nay Africans on the absolute need to trust and obey imperialist etiquette because there is no other way. A speech from Renkin, Colonial Governor of Kinshasa in Congo DR in 1883, urged the missionaries to,

interpret the Gospel in a way to protect and serve the interest of Belgium in that part of the world . . . you will see that our savages be not interested in the riches, that their soil possesses in order that they will not

want them. Thus they will not be involved in a murderous competition with us and dream to live a luxurious lifestyle. Your knowledge of the scripture will help us to use special text that recommend the infidels to love poverty, such as the beatitudes: 'blessed are the poor, for theirs is the kingdom . . . it is hard for the rich to enter the kingdom of heaven.

From the above, we can see that both the missionaries who pretend to be neutral of colonial exploitation were working hand in hand with the colonial state to uphold the ideals of imperialist exploitation. While the mission(s) emphasized the four Rs--religion, reading, writing, and arithmetic, the colonial administration encouraged the learning and teaching of the English language. The subject choice was informed by the fact that they needed interpreters, court clerks, policemen, commercial and financial clerks, among others (Adiele, 1996, as cited in Akani, 2012, p. 190). By the time the country attained fragile political independence on October 1, 1960, it became imperative to overhaul the imperialist-oriented educational policy, which was outwardly focused and shallow in content. It was this scenario that informed the myriad educational reforms which the country witnessed right from the regional education policies to the Lord Ashby commission in 1959. The need to expose Nigerians to world-class education led to the establishment of numerous educational institutions (Akani, 2012).

### **Globalization and Educational Challenges in Nigeria**

Globalization "refers to liberalization and intensification of international linkages in trade, finance, markets, production, research, transportation, medicine, education, politics and culture" (Ajayi, 2004). This definition implies that people of different nations across the globe are able to influence one another easily in all aspects of life, at all times, and without barrier. Tabb (2009) expands further when he states that globalization is an "emergence of a global society in which economic, political, environmental and cultural events in one part of the world" affects people in other parts. The process of globalization is accentuated by scientific and technological development in advanced countries, which have revolutionized communication, transportation and other human activities around the world. Information on socio-economic, political and technological development in one part of the globe spreads quickly to other parts. To this extent, the entire world has become a global village.

Globalization poses challenges to both developed and developing countries because whatever happens in one nation affects others either directly or indirectly. As a developing nation, Nigeria is confronted with the challenges from two perspectives. Knowledge, skills, and new ideas in commerce, industry, and other aspects of technology from other countries would be highly essential. Also, there is need to acquire knowledge and skills on indigenous socio-economic, political and technological activities and ensure that they are improved upon. This is to assist in making the country a self-reliant nation. It is also to ensure that Nigerians are not only able to make effective use of foreign technology, but that we are able to export our technology to foreign countries. These two aspects of globalization rely heavily on the education system. Incidentally, education needs to be revolutionized to be able to meet these expectations. The blueprint 2012 minimum standard (curriculum) did not contain learning experiences in relation to the global changes in education. It is probably in realization of the vital role which higher education can play in meeting the challenges of globalization that the government initiated reforms on this sector. However, the reforms are yet to achieve desired results.

Perry (1994) suggested that the factors influencing educational quality include the performance of teachers, the construction of the course, the devices put in places by the institution to enhance the quality of teachers' performance, links with industry, the existence of appropriate accommodation, furniture and equipment for teaching,

as well as good library and learning resource facilities. He points out, however, that this list provides only the necessary not the sufficient conditions for quality education. He notes that the best measure of quality teaching and education remains the quality or extent of student achievement at the end of a course. For him, it is what a student knows, understands and is able to do, that is the chief and legitimate object of the measurement of teaching quality.

Like teaching, learning is a central task of educational institutions and is an outcome of the combined teaching and research processes. Bowen notes that learning is often viewed as the unifying goal of teaching, research, and service for education institutions. He defines learning as knowing and interpreting the unknown, discovering the new, and bringing about desired change in cognitive and affective skills and characteristics of individuals. Domjan similarly describes learning as a change in behavior that meets three criteria. First, students think, perceive, or react to the environment in a new way; second, this change is the result of students' experiences in repetition, study, practice, or observation; third, the change is relatively permanent (Watson and Stage, 1999). In the educational process, excellence means accomplishing results that satisfy all stakeholders in an educational system, with a focus on and understanding of students and teachers, their needs, expectations, values, and contributions, and the contributions of other stakeholder in line with educational goals. Excellence is outstanding practice in managing education and achieving results. Truly excellent educational systems are those that strive to satisfy their stakeholders by what they achieve, how they achieve it, what they are likely to achieve and confidence that the results will be sustained in the future. Excellence requires full leadership commitment and acceptance of fundamental management concepts or a set of principles on which an institution bases its behaviors, activities and initiatives. When the institution turns these principles into practice it secures access to "sustainable excellence" (EFQM, 2003, 2005, 2013; Ololube, 2006).

### **Nigeria Certificate in Education, Minimum Standards, and the Global Changes**

A curriculum is one aspect of the educational system that cannot be overemphasized. It is usually printed in black and white, and schools are expected to implement it. Scholars have given their views on curriculum in Nigeria. In the opinion of Okebukola (2013), curriculum in Nigeria is theoretically oriented and irrelevant to the future demands of students. Obidike and Ogwuru (2013, p. 332) corroborated Uma's view when they said "the prevailing pattern of education after independence was criticized on the ground of irrelevant curriculum." The significance of these aforementioned views is clearly evident in the recent review of the NCE minimum standards (curriculum).

The National Commission for Colleges of Education, as established by the Act (formerly Decree) 13 of 17, January, 1987 (Amended Act 12 of 1993), is "the third leg of the tripod of excellence" in the regulation of higher education in Nigeria (Nigeria Certificate in Education Minimum Standards for Languages, 2012, p. iv). The agency supervises teacher education, accredits programs, and reviews the curriculum for colleges of education. The new curriculum is a consequence of a range of activities such as conferences, workshops, critiquing sessions, etc. (Curriculum Implementation Framework for NCE, 2012).

The first production of the NCCE minimum standards occurred in 1990, and this entailed a study and seminar on the NCE programs offered in various parts of Nigeria (NCCE, 1990, as cited in Abelega, 2007). In addition, the programs were evaluated and revised. The fourth edition was produced in 2008 and followed by widespread criticism. The latest edition (Specialist Minimum Standards) was produced in 2012, sequel to conferences, critiquing sessions and seminars held (Curriculum Implementation Framework, 2012). The latest

review was necessary to comply with the needs of the New Basic Education Curriculum and to address the issue of the production of quality teachers in the country.

According to Otunuyi (2013, p. 4), the new curriculum has been reviewed from the “out-dated one-size-fits-all the model to specialist level oriented one.” In other words, student teachers are expected to specialize in different levels of Universal Basic Education. The reviewed documents were the outputs of sessions aimed at establishing standards that would enhance teachers’ on-the-job skills. This revision has established a new structure and courses for the NCE programs. The agency aims at providing quality teachers for the lower levels of education in the country. The new teacher education programs comprise:

- early childhood care and education (ECCE)
- primary education
- junior secondary school (JSS)
- adult and non-formal education
- special education (Curriculum Implementation Framework for NCE, 2012)

The corollary of the above specialized professional teaching programs and the revised documents is the production of an implementation framework that would guide the execution of the innovations. The framework has been designed to enable uniformity and benchmarking of standards in all the institutions and also channel the functioning of the new structure and systems.

### **A Critique of the NCE Minimum Standards Curriculum**

The review of the curriculum is in accordance with earlier calls for a review of teacher education curriculum in the country (Dada, 2004; Evans, 1992; Slavin, 1987, as cited in Olaofe, n.d.). It is expected that this will lead to an improvement in the quality of teacher training education. Relative to the needs of lower-level education, a number of scholars emphasized the NCE curriculum’s irrelevance (Education Sector Analysis 2002, 2008; Ajelayemi 2005, Okebukola 2005; Teacher Education Policy 2007; Education Support Program in Nigeria (ESSPIN); Input Visit Report, as cited in Adeosun, 2011). The new curriculum recognized this fact and modified the teacher education program to comprise early childhood care and education (ECCE), primary education, junior secondary school (JSS), adult and non-formal education, and special education.

The shift toward an emphasis on acquiring skills, attitudes, and knowledge is admirable, as one of the criticisms of the previous curriculum had been the placement of premium on success in examinations rather than the acquisition of skills and attitudes (Dada, 2004). Moreover, the curriculum was seen as overly theoretical without much opportunity for skills development (Ajelayemi, 2005).

However, the new curriculum failed to address the issue of quality entrants into the colleges of education (Akinbote, 2000, as cited in Akinbote, 2007; Kniper et al., 2008) as the requirements for admission into colleges was not amended to capture the best minds in society. The quality of students admitted into colleges has been faulty. This factor has been attributed to the mediocre quality of graduates produced by the colleges (Akinbote, 2000, as cited in Akinbote, 2007). It was also noted that the admission of these poor quality candidates has had a negative effect on the teaching profession (Lieberman, 1956; Akinbote, 2000, as cited in Akinbote, 2007). In the same vein, it did not address the issue of teaching practice duration as it had been critiqued as being too short and poorly supervised (Ajelayemi, 2005).

The curriculum recommends a participatory and interactive approach in delivering lessons. It also made tutorials mandatory for language and literature courses. The extent to which this can be achieved is doubtful, as an overcrowded classroom is one of the issues plaguing curriculum implementation in the country (Olusola, O. & Rotimi, C., 2012). In addition, one of the objectives of the curriculum, which is to equip students to teach English effectively at the junior secondary level, may turn out to be a debacle, as student teachers are not exposed to strategies that promote language learning (Olaofe, n.d.).

The latest innovation provides for integrating technology into the teaching and learning process and ICT-based classrooms. Attaining this provision may not be feasible if the necessary technological equipment are not dispensed. As Adedeji (2011) noted, the government and college authorities have failed to furnish the colleges with ICT tools. The implementation of a curriculum in an institution requires teaching/learning facilities for successful implementation (Lawanson, & Gede, 2011).

The problem of available facilities in higher learning institutions is not limited to colleges of education. The federal government of Nigeria (2000, as cited in Uma, Obidike, & Ogwuru, 2013) noted that all levels of education in Nigeria are deficient in the provision of teachers and principal infrastructure, which includes instructional materials and resort centers.

Apart from the availability of information technology tools, most lecturers lack the technical ingenuity to handle e-learning and e-teaching resources (Adedeji, 2011). It also appears that curriculum is based on the notion that the requisite facilities for curriculum implementation are available in all the schools. This is contrary to the report of the NCCE (National Commission for Colleges of Education, 2001) that the federal colleges are better staffed and resourced than the state college. Therefore, the curriculum cannot be implemented in the same manner in all the schools (Umar, 2006).

The textbooks in stock also were found to not be current. Adeyanju (2005, 2006) deduced that this could account for poor college student performance in the subject of English language. Adeogun (2001, as cited in Adeogun & Osifila, n.d.) corroborates the view stating, “a positive and significant relationship exists between instructional materials and academic performance.”

Finally, the production of an implementation framework is commendable, but it may not achieve its aim if teachers lack the skill to apply it to ensure productive teaching in classrooms (Olaofe, n.d.).

## **Methodology**

The research design used for this study was descriptive survey design as a means to capture the entire domain of the study. This was strengthened by the views of Calhoun (1976) and Hillestead (1979), who described this approach as a very good technique for audience research and program monitoring. The study was carried out in Anambra State, southeast of Nigeria. Specifically, it involved all the three Federal Colleges of Education in Nigeria's Southeast Geopolitical Zone.

However, the study's target population comprises the 1100 NCE teacher educators in three Federal Colleges of Education in Southeast Nigeria (The Federal College of Education (T) Umunze, Federal College of Education, Eha-Amufu and Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Owerri). This was done to ensure adequate population coverage. To generate manageable data, as well as make meaningful deductions, it was imperative to use a sample of the population. According to Biereenu-Nnabugwu, the idea and need for a sample hinges on the realization

that the population is large and that it is possible to make choices from an array of possibilities. To achieve this, the Taro Yameni's formula was used to determine the sample size.

Taro Yemeni's formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where  $n$  = Sample size

$N$  = Population of the study

$e$  = Tolerable error (0.05%)<sup>2</sup>

$I$  = Constant

Applying the formula:

$$n = \frac{1100}{1 + 1100 (0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1100}{1 + 1100 (0.0025)}$$

$$n = \frac{1100}{1 + 1100 \times 0.0025}$$

$$n = \frac{1100}{1+2.75}$$

$$n = \frac{1100}{3.75}$$

$$n = 293$$

The sample size of the study was 293.

The data-gathering instrument was a structured, five-point Likert scale questionnaire with five sections, constructed by the researcher, on the NCE program and the Global Changes in Education. Section A contains respondents' personal data. The items in Sections B, C, D, and E have a five-point scale option to be responded to by the respondents.

The researcher, and other experts in the Department of Business Education of the Federal College of Education (T), Umunze, properly validated both instruments. The comments and observations made by these experts were used to improve the instrument to ensure validity. The consistency in our question and interview models assured the reliability of our instruments. In this exercise, the purpose was to know if the questionnaire would be reliable after measuring with an object at different periods of time and receiving the same or similar results. We employed the test-retest technique to determine the reliability of the research instruments.

Thus, a group of 10 people from the main study sample group received the constructed questionnaire. This group had the same characteristics as the pilot sample group. The researcher then gave each individual element a number from one to 10 to allow her to identify them. The instruments administered to the respondents also were numbered one to 10. Later, the researcher collected the marked questionnaires from the respondents. After three days of collecting the completed questionnaires, the researcher shared the same instrument to the same group, as in the first place, by numbering the questionnaires one to 10. Thus, respondent number one received the copy of the questionnaire marked one. This was done accordingly until respondent number 10 received questionnaire copy number ten.

Questionnaires were collected from the respondents for the second time. The researcher then compared the first scored questionnaire collected with the second scored questionnaire on each of the sample respondents, one after the other. This comparison was repeated until all the 10-paired instruments were exhausted. Upon completion, the researcher discovered that the responses for the two sets of questionnaires given out had a high consistency correlation of 0.72. Therefore, the reliability of the questionnaire had a 0.72 Cronbach's alpha coefficient. According to Nunnally (1978), a questionnaire with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of at least 0.72 should be accepted. Therefore the internal consistency of the questionnaire used in this study was reliable.

We ensured instruments reliability by ensuring that the questions we posed in our questionnaire was in simple, good, precise, and understandable form to the respondents. We further ensured reliability through the use of the internal consistency method whereby crosschecking questions are built into the questionnaire. We also crosschecked our information against many sources to ensure that facts and figures collected from various sources earlier stated were not only accurate and authentic but would remain the same if the collection were repeated.

Consequently, questions were couched around the areas that actually gave meaning to the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) Program and the global changes in education, giving a 10-item structured questionnaire schedule. The respondents were asked to either mark: *Strongly Agree* (SA), *Agree* (A), *Disagree* (D), *Strongly Disagree* (SD), for each statement and each respondent was expected to respond with a tick (✓) to each of the statements. Documentary instrument was also used for data collection.

We administered 293 questionnaires to our sample with the help of five research assistants. These questionnaires were retrieved after seven day, giving enough time for staff to respond. We retrieved a total of 280 questionnaires, while 13 were not retrieved due to absence from the office on the day we went for retrieval. In analyzing the data collected using questionnaires, the researcher used descriptive sample percentage tables and chi-square statistical tools to test two random samples. Primary data were collected through questionnaires distributed among the staff of the three Colleges of Education.

## **Summary of Findings, Conclusion, and Recommendations**

The study has given a clear evaluation of the revised NCE minimum standards (curriculum) in relation to global changes in education. The appraisal makes it apparent that the successful implementation of the curriculum would require putting the necessary mechanisms in place and adopting a proactive action to enhance implementation. Also, availability of personnel, facilities, funds, and political-will could enhance the implementation of a reform in higher education. We found that the latest innovation provides for the integration of technology into the teaching and learning process and ICT-based classrooms. The attainment of this provision may not be feasible if the necessary technological equipment is not dispensed. As Adedeji (2011) noted, the government and college authorities have failed to furnish the colleges with ICT tools. The implementation of a curriculum in an institution requires teaching/learning facilities for its successful implementation (Lawanson & Gede, 2011).

It can be concluded that reforms are necessary for higher education to be able to address the challenges posed by globalization and, consequently, achieve educational objectives. Relevance of a program to the needs of Nigerians constitutes an important factor to its successful implementation. From the foregoing, we recommend that the government should review the admission requirements to capture the best brains in the society. If the standard of the college entrants is poor, they will not be able to sequence knowledge and provide learning experiences. There is need for the libraries to be stocked with current publications and books; so that students can have access to materials that will aid learning. Technological facilities should be dispensed if learning materials must be in varied formats such as video, digital, Internet etc. Internet connectivity is a major problem in the country. Finally, the college authorities should organize workshops and seminars at various levels in all the colleges to acquaint the lecturers with the modalities necessary for curriculum implementation.

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# HOW DOES EDUCATION RESPOND TO THE NEEDS OF CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY?

by

LILIAN-RITA I. AKUDOLU

Department of Educational Foundations, Nnamdi Azikiwe University,

Awka, Nigeria.

[lilianrita2003@hotmail.co.uk](mailto:lilianrita2003@hotmail.co.uk)

+234-8063929670

## Abstract

The advent of information and communication technologies (ICTs) has resulted in unprecedented changes in societies all over the world. As one of the bedrocks of society, education must keep pace. But what demands must it meet to do so? Educational development drives social development, which, in turn, promotes educational development. Society establishes education and reaps the benefits. In contemporary society, teachers are expected to equip students with the basic skills and competencies such as creativity, knowledge versatility, information, media, and technology literacy, etc. This implies that teachers must be aligned to the demands of 21st century learning to ensure they are equipped with the knowledge and skills to help students maximize their potential. This paper discusses how major shifts will need to occur to put all this in place. First, educators will need to equip students with generic, rather than subject-specific skills. Generic skills are discipline independent and rely on cognitive strategies applied to solving problems across subject areas. Among these include critical thinking, communication, problem-solving, learning, and metacognitive skills. Second, technology needs to find an equal playing field. Everyone needs to have equal access to broadband, notebooks, networks, mobile phones, etc. These are the skills and shifts that every productive society needs to possess in order to move from lone to networked.

*Keywords:* education, information communication technologies, society,

## Introduction

Societies all over the world are scampering to reap the benefits of ICTs for the improvement of all aspects of life for their citizens. The advent of ICTs has resulted in unprecedented changes in human endeavors to the extent that, while enjoying the benefits of ICTs, people are making a concerted effort to tap into the array of knowledge that technology opens. This has given rise to the knowledge economy in which societal progress depends on not only the quality and quantity of available information but, above all, on an individual's ability to access and use the information that is available. In this regard, education constitutes one of the bedrocks of the knowledge economy in the sense that education equips someone with the ability to produce, share, and use knowledge for both personal and societal needs. Given the precarious nature of society in this knowledge economy, how does education respond to the needs of society, and how does education prepare members of a contemporary society to fulfill their needs?

This is the focus of this paper, presented under the following sub-headings:

- Society as a Proprietor and Beneficiary of Education;
- The Demands of Contemporary Society and Re-designing Education to Respond to these Demands; and
- Conclusion: Major Challenges to Adapting Education to the Needs of Contemporary Society.

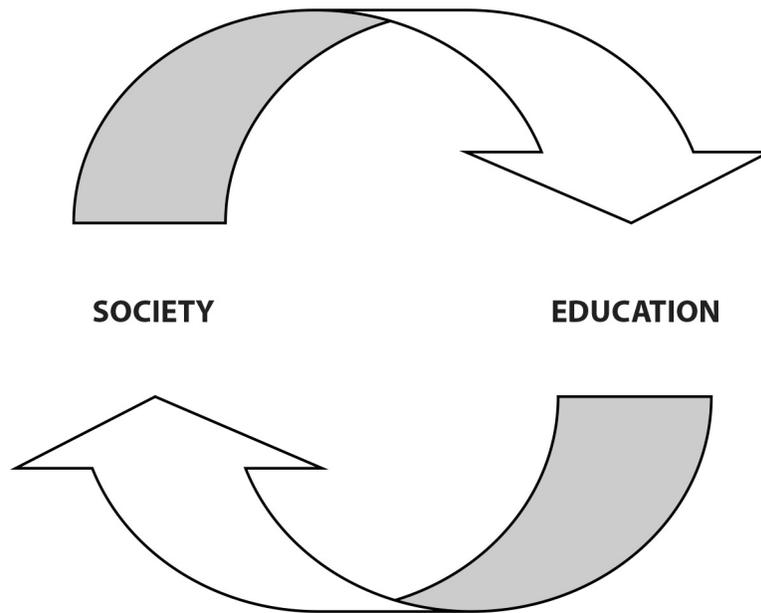
### **Society as a Proprietor and Beneficiary of Education**

Education is a part of living, and it dates to the early years of human existence. People always have found a way to impart knowledge and skills to individuals for their personal and societal development. In families, children learn the way things are done in society, acceptable norms, taboos and expectations for a particular age, grade, and gender from their parents, siblings, and other relatives. The family and associated education continues through other groups in society. The advent of western education resulted in a more organized and systematic form of education, but it did not alter the aim of education, which is preparation for life. Every human society has its own conceptions of what constitutes this preparation for life.

Consequently, education always has occupied a central position in society's life and development. This is based on the premise that education is concerned with the total development of the individual, resulting in the development of society. Education enlightens the mind, and society's progress is assured. Education prepares someone to think, feel and behave in a manner expected of a member of a group. This is because education is both a process and a system. It is the process of transmitting knowledge, values, appropriate attitude, and skills that are considered desirable in a society. In brief, it is a process of cultural transmission and knowledge dissemination (Azikiwe, 2012). Through education, a society transmits her cultural heritage from one generation to the next. In this regard, education becomes the instrument used by society to achieve stability and progress. Apart from being a process, education is "a complex system embedded in a political, cultural and economic context—these dimensions are interdependent, influencing each other in ways that are sometimes unforeseeable" (UNICEF, 2000, p. 3). Inadequacy in the education sector affects all other aspects of the society, including the political, cultural, and economic dimensions.

The level and quality of education in a society influences development and other activities. In fact, development is the major distinguishing feature of education. This is because education is concerned with the overall development of the individual as well as the development of the society. The former Nigerian Minister for Education, Ahmed Rufa'i (2010, p. v) said, "Education is the foundation of all development." She goes on to say, "In many countries of the world, development is proportional to the quality of education" (Rufa'i, 2010).

It is true that society is the proprietor of education in the sense that society determines the appropriate knowledge, skills, and values that learners need to acquire for society's continued growth and reconstruction. On the other hand, education, as a product of the society, sustains the society and functions for its continuous existence and evolution" (Obanya, 2011). Education derives its sustenance from society, while society depends on education for continuity and growth. Above all, educational development drives social development, which, in turn, promotes educational development. Society establishes education and reaps the benefits from education, as shown in Figure 1.



*Figure 1. Reciprocal relationship between society and education.*

Society also uses education to create, promote, and disseminate knowledge for sustainability. In performing these functions, education equips people with the ability to create and share knowledge and also to use knowledge to solve problems in all aspects of life. Therefore, education promotes culture and develops desirable attitudes and behaviors. This reiterates the fact that though society creates education, education shapes and sustains society. Consequently, development in any society cannot rise above that society's level of education. The implication is that for any nation to join the league of developed nations, it needs a dynamic and sustainable education system.

### **The Demands of Contemporary Society and Redesigning Education to Respond to these Demands**

The 21<sup>st</sup> century society is experiencing multi-dimensional changes in the economic, social, education, environmental, leisure, travel, commerce, and other aspects of life. These changes present varying degrees of challenges to both the individual and the society. Examination of these changes and challenges is the main stay of this section of our discussion.

One of the major demands of contemporary society is to develop into a network society. Already, society is experiencing structural transformation that is moving it toward the direction of network society. Here, economic, political, cultural and social activities are structured by social and network digital information and communication technologies such as microelectronics and digital computer networks. Basically social and media networks constitute the backbone for the organization of a network at the individual and group levels. (Van Dirk, 2006). Hence the network society is borne of information and communication technologies (ICTs). It is an ICT-enabled society and, consequently, communication is the major currency in this type of society. In fact, a network society is pervasive throughout the planet, its logic transforms, extends to every country in the planet, as it is diffused by the power embedded in global networks of capital, goods, services, labor, communication, information, science, and technology. So, what we call globalization is another way to refer to the network society, although more descriptive and less analytical than what the concept of network society implies (Castells, 2005, p. 5).

From Castells observation, the terms knowledge society, information society, and globalization have almost the same meaning as network society, but the latter is more analytical than the others. The transformation of society into network society is affecting life activities. For instance, people are experiencing new forms of sociability in which communication has gone beyond face-to-face interaction to include all forms of electronic communication. Facebook and Twitter, as well as email and instant messaging, and other Internet sites, are examples of network society. Today, some people engage more in communication through digital means than face to face. These new forms of communication increase sociability, but each requires new knowledge and a certain level of ICT literacy.

The network society has led to a new network economy that includes digital organization, distribution, and production management. Consequently, to be relevant in the network society, people need to adapt to the requirements of the new workplace such as acquiring and reacquiring skills. The labor force requires innovative people who easily can adapt to change, work autonomously, and learn on their own.

The network society also has helped to create new social demands and communities of learning. Nations all over the world are making a frantic effort to catch up with ICT development. In fact the level of availability and use of ICTs in different nations is intensifying the digital divide. Some nations are developing and enjoying the fruits of technology, while other nations are scampering to join the information super highway. World events indicate that the extent modern technologies are developed and used in a society depends on that society's ability to generate and use new knowledge, which, in turn, depends on the society's level of education. Also, the level of technological development in a nation determines not only a society's level of preparedness to rise among other nations in the arena of global competitiveness but also that society's living standards. This reiterates the fact that technology drives societal transformation while the "society shapes technology according to the needs, values, and interests of people who use the technology" Castells, 2005, p. 3).

Since the 20th century, technological breakthroughs have moved human endeavors along a continuum from the Agricultural Age to the Industrial Age and now to the Knowledge Age. While possessing land was the central issue during the Agricultural Age and possessing capital was the central issue in the Industrial Age, the present emphasis is on the possession of knowledge, or on a person's ability to use knowledge to solve problems. One of the characteristics of this age is that knowledge quickly becomes obsolete thanks to ICT developments. This has resulted in a shift in the structure of activities from routine to non-routine and analytical tasks. The implication is that contemporary society needs people who can generate, manage, and use knowledge in a non-routine way to solve problems. People who use knowledge in this way are knowledge workers, and these include those who solve problems through the use of creative thinking skills (e.g., educators, engineers, scientists, lawyers, etc.).

Prior to the technological advancements that ushered in the 21st century, routine work was the order of the day, and people could anticipate problems in a given situation. However, in this era of knowledge economy in which new knowledge is continuously generated, people need to be flexible in creating and managing knowledge and in using knowledge as capital.

Apart from the ability to generate and use knowledge, every citizen needs to possess a certain level of digital literacy, which is not only a life skill in the sense that it is required in all aspects of existence but is also a gate skill. Digital literacy is a gate skill because it is a veritable route to other skills that are needed in a workplace or life activity in the present era of information and communication technologies. In fact, digital literacy "comprises a set of basic skills which include the use and production of digital media, information processing and retrieval,

participation in social networks for creation and sharing of knowledge, and a wide range of professional computing skills” (UNESCO, 2011, p. 1). So, digital literacy encompasses ICT literacy, technological literacy, and information literacy. Digital literacy provides the skills required for the non-routine tasks of the new workplace, which UNESCO (2011, p. 2) presents as the “ability to respond flexibly to complex problems, communicate effectively, manage information, work in teams, use technology, and produce new knowledge.”

Technological development has enhanced our ability to produce new knowledge. However, it is necessary to point out that technological development has both positive and negative consequences on society. While these technology-born developments have engineered improvements in almost every aspect of our existence, they have created demarcations in the social order. Apart from creating the digital divide (such as geographical divide – among nations, gender divide – between male and female, and economic divide – between rich and poor) between those who have access to technology and those who do not, one social impact of the digital divide is the inferiority complex shared by those on the negative side of the divide. This type of feeling can dwarf motivation and make those concerned rely solely on developments in other nations or by other people instead of striving to achieve their own technological development. Besides, the rate of cybercrimes in society has increased significantly in the 21st century, thanks to the tremendous ICT developments. Apart from instances of piracy violations in the use of information on the Internet, different nations are currently facing different security challenges ranging from leaking national security information, to the establishment of crime-based international and national networks such as Boko Haram among others.

Nigeria, like some other nations, entered the 21st century with a baggage of security challenges that continue to manifest with intensity that increases every day. Most of these security challenges emanate from political, religious, economic, and ethnic crises. Incidences of killings, bomb blasts, pipeline vandalism, child trafficking, kidnapping, and all forms of domestic terrorist activities that used to occur rarely in the past recently have become a part of the daily news. In fact, the return to democracy in 1999 led to cases of fierce rivalries among politicians, at the state and national levels, and violent tensions in some regions, including the current Niger Delta militancy, the Boko Haram movement, and kidnapping. The Niger Delta militancy activities started in the 1990s as a conflict between foreign oil corporations and the Niger Delta ethnic groups. Most Nigerians became aware of the Boko Haram, or Yusufiya movement, when it launched its deadly attack on Borno State in September 2010. The group’s goals include the Islamization of the Northern states and the eradication of western education. In this regard, the members engage in indiscriminate killings and destruction of institutions. These activities of Boko Haram, and other security challenges, make life unbearable in this society. In fact, the fear of kidnappers and bombings is the beginning of security in the present day society. Therefore, the security of people, facilities, and institutions is a very big challenge to the modern society because security is both a constitutional requirement and a basic platform for development.

How society handles these challenges determines whether it can join the competition in the global arena or sink deep into the technological dark ages. In this regard, every society looks to education to prepare its citizens and equip them with relevant knowledge and the skills to face these challenges and contribute to the

advancement of the society. To achieve this feat, the education system needs to be overhauled and repositioned. The network society requires the type of education that is based on effective and efficient generation, acquisition, and transformation of knowledge as well as innovative instructional process. The establishment of this type of educational system requires educational policy that must be geared toward ensuring:

- up-to-date pedagogical competence in the information society;
- the integration of new pedagogic opportunities;
- equal and flexible access to education; and
- effective and flexible education structure and organization. (UNESCO, 2004, p. 6)

Close examination of these UNESCO recommendations indicates that the first goal for repositioning the education system and developing a network society is to train teachers how to use the new technologies and new educational methods. Since the advent of ICTs, there has been a shift in instructional methods from teacher-centered to learner-centered, problem-based and project-based learning. Teaching and learning processes are becoming more focused on knowledge development than on knowledge transfer. Educators realize that knowledge does not come from teachers and bookshelves but from results based on the learner's interaction with the content and environment. The teacher is no longer the knowledge but a facilitator and a stimulator. The teacher facilitates the learning process by stimulating the learners to learn through various means. The goal is to develop a students' ability to think critically and transform them from being mere absorbers of information to evaluators of information. Also, the effective use of problem-based and project-based instructional strategies develops a student's ability to organize and participate actively in learning communities and learning networks and, consequently, become an active citizen in the network society.

There also is need for educational policies that can lead to the development of schools where knowledge is not only acquired and interacted with but also created. These are "knowledge-creating schools" and "network schools" (Castells, 1999). In knowledge-creating schools, emphasis goes beyond acquiring numeracy and literacy to acquiring the skills needed to perform present and future tasks, or tasks that are unforeseen. This implies that instructional strategies are geared toward students' critical and creative thinking skills. These are the skills that can transform the learner into a competent problem solver and a fast decision maker. On the other hand, in network-schools, teachers and learners share knowledge and skills on a teacher-teacher, learner-learner and teacher-learner basis and at intra- and inter-school levels. Networked schools enable teachers to share information and improve their instructional skills. Intra-school networks involve teachers in a given school working in teams in such a way that they complement one another and share information. Inter-school networks allow teachers in different schools to share skills and knowledge and sometimes work collaboratively on projects. Repositioning education for the advancement of contemporary society requires the type of education that equips the learner with the basic groups of 21st century skills and competencies, as shown in Figure 2.

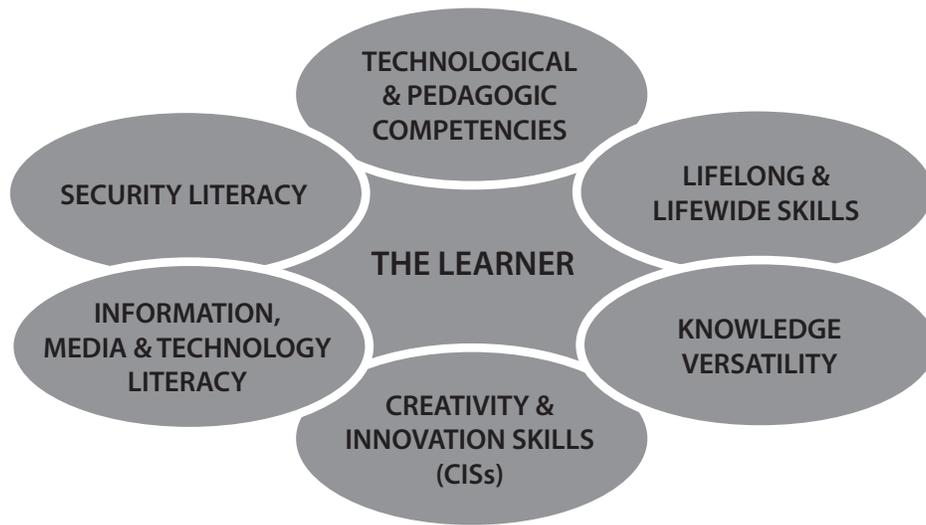


Figure 2. Basic 21st century skills and competencies.

Education in a contemporary society is expected to equip the learner with the basic 21st century skills and competencies, as presented in Figure 2. These are the skills and competencies students will learn in knowledge-creating and networked schools. This implies that teachers are learning facilitators and guides and they must possess and demonstrate the ability to help learners develop these skills and competencies. Teachers also need to demonstrate the ability to use new technologies in the instructional process as well as to adopt appropriate teaching methods. This implies that teacher education has to be realigned to the demands of the 21st century to ensure that educators are equipped with knowledge and skills to help students maximize their development potential. Most teachers entered the 21st century with instructional delivery strategies based on 19th and 20th centuries learning theories. Learning in the 20th century differs remarkably from that of the 21st century. The 20th century student depended on the teacher for what to learn, how and the extent to learn the limited and known or pre-constructed information. The 21st century learner has access to limitless information anytime and anywhere and can use as well as share the information through the use of appropriate technology. The 21st century learners' extent of acquiring knowledge depends on their ability to use ICTs to source, create and share knowledge. Above all, instructional delivery in the 20th and 21st centuries differs in terms of objectives, skills and methodologies. Consequently, for education to respond to society's needs, teacher education needs to be redesigned to equip educator with the 21st century-compliant skills, attitude, and knowledge.

Fast developments in ICTs have given knowledge such a short life span that often when students want to solve life problems with knowledge they recently acquired, they are surprised to learn they can't find the solutions in the so called new knowledge. They need to seek more current knowledge. Hence, lifelong and life-wide learning skills, which imply skills for learning throughout life, as well as learning in different circumstances and stages of life, are a prerequisite for effective life in 21st century society. Among these lifelong and life-wide learning skills are self-skills (e.g., skills of self-motivation, self-confidence and self-direction), critical thinking, problem solving, communication, and collaboration skills. Teachers need to possess these necessary skills and competencies for developing these learning skills in students to transform them into self-monitoring, lifelong, and life-wide learners. With this type of ability, students become self-directed or self-guided, which is a necessary condition for sustainable learning throughout different areas and circumstances of life.

Bearing in mind the fleeting and interconnected nature of knowledge, a teacher needs to demonstrate versatility in the possession of knowledge. This implies that teacher-prepared education has to include general, field, and specialized knowledge. ICT application is gradually eroding the demarcation among fields and areas of knowledge in the sense that problem solving in contemporary society often involves connecting multiple topics. A teacher needs the type of general knowledge that is broad enough to cut across disciplines as well as deeper knowledge in a given field and specific/specialization knowledge. This knowledge versatility gives teachers the capability to integrate the 21st century interdisciplinary themes into core subjects. Among these themes are global awareness, civic literacy and entrepreneurial literacy.

Apart from knowledge versatility, a teacher in contemporary society needs to be equipped with creativity and innovation skills (CISs). The CISs enable a teacher to originate, develop, implement, and communicate new ideas. The more CIS knowledge a teacher possesses, the more creative he/she can be. Instructional activities must be transformative enough to equip the student with the ability to make a difference in the present and future life of society. To help learners develop transformative skills, teachers must possess adequate knowledge of the CISs and the ability to apply each skill appropriately to the solution of present and future problems. In this regard, teacher education needs to be repositioned to be in line with the 21st century education model, which is transformative, learner-centered, problem-based, and interactive.

Teachers also need to be able to creatively and innovatively instruct students when implementing the new education model. This involves the use of enabling pedagogies in the instructional process. Whitby (2007) observed that:

enabling pedagogies encourage curiosity and a sense of wonder. They provide learning opportunities that are meaningful and relevant to students, encouraging learners to critique and question, to seek meaning, to make choices and to create and express ideas with skill and confidence. (p. 7)

These enabling pedagogies differ from the 19th and 20th centuries' education, which focused more on theory and replication of knowledge with little or no room for innovation. On the other hand, the 21st century pedagogies "can be employed in creative, transparent and intuitive ways" (Whitby, 2007, p. 6) to help students learn and acquire skills in a self-directed manner.

Above all, for education to respond to the demands of an ICT-driven society, both teachers and students need to be literate and versatile in information, media and technology (IMT). This implies refocusing education to ensure that learners and teachers demonstrate fundamental knowledge of which, when, and how to access and use IMT to facilitate learning and demonstrate an understanding of ethical issues involved when using IMTs. No matter the extent to which education is redesigned, this national tool for societal development and emancipation cannot be effective in serving the needs of the society if the society lacks a safe and secure environment. Therefore, there is a need to redesign education and make it a tool that is geared not only to the development of individual and society, but above all, towards security and peace.

Education is society's major key to establishing political, social, and economic security, because education shapes people's minds. It is in this regard that the preamble to the 1945 constitution of UNESCO affirmed: "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." Sustained security can only be established through education (which develops and tilts the minds of men and women in the desired direction) and not through the use of violence. In this regard, Obanya (2013) presented 10 non-sequential steps to enhance security through education. These include "good politics, education for all,

education demand and supply, values promotion, emphasis on quality as well as investing in instead of spending on education” (p. 6). Obanya calls on every society to invest in education because it is the major avenue to establishing security.

Twenty-first century society is facing a lot of national security challenges. These are offshoots of human security challenges, and human security is based on freedom from fear (e.g., fear of being kidnapped, abused, persecuted, killed, etc.) and want (e.g., abject poverty). Having shelter, food, water, a sustainable job, human dignity, and love constitute the fundamentals of human security, and each can be promoted through appropriate education.

For education to promote national and human security, it needs to be redirected. Upon graduation, students must have the appropriate skills, knowledge, exposure and values that allow them to be employable, self-employed and job creators. Education needs to equip students with the ability to succeed in work and in life. Education must be available so that every citizen acquires the capabilities of human security that are necessary for national security. In fact, the rate of a country’s security risk is as high as the lack of education among its citizens. For education to boost human and national security, quality education should be the norm, with emphasis on overall individual and instructional development regarding security awareness. Teachers and other staff members need security training in order to identify security threats and hazards and to develop and be ready to use emergency planning when needed.

### **Conclusion: Major Challenges to Adapting Education to the Needs of Contemporary Society**

Education can and should be repositioned to serve the needs of contemporary society. Challenges include the type of knowledge that learners need to acquire, teacher quality and availability, a conducive learning environment, and information and communication technology facilities.

The 19th and 20th century teaching styles definitely cannot prepare students for effective life in a 21st century society. Educators need to equip students with knowledge and generic skills to survive in a society where knowledge value depends on the extent that it is applied to solve problems. Generic skills are discipline-independent, or cognitive, strategies applied to solve problems in different subject areas and domains. Among these are thinking, communication, problem-solving, learning, and metacognitive skills. These are the skills everyone needs for a successful and productive life in society. To teach students generic skills requires a paradigm shift from exposing them only to specific knowledge and skills to integrating generic skills across subject areas. Consequently, education systems are facing the challenge of ensuring that content, learning experiences, instructional methods and evaluation strategies are reviewed and updated to be 21st century compliant.

The challenge of quality teachers is coupled with that of teacher availability. Developing generic skills in students only can be realized if the teachers possess 21st century skills and competences. The era of basing professional competence solely on whether a teacher has a certificate is gone. The high rate of unemployment,

despite opportunities, indicates a disconnect between teacher knowledge, or the certificate acquired in schools, and job demands. This situation is more demanding in the education sector where teachers are expected to prepare students for productive lives in a society that has been rendered unpredictable by technological exploits. The implication is that from the possession of life and pedagogic application skills, the possession and demonstration of learning to learn skills as well as life-long and life-wide learning skills and ICT versatility should be the norm for every teacher. These are the qualities that can enable a teacher to help learners acquire “core knowledge instruction” and “essential skills for success in today’s world such as critical thinking, problem solving, communication and collaboration” (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2009, p. 1).

Student engagement leads to authentic learning. The fact information and communication technologies make knowledge available to every learner, anywhere, at any time, has changed the role of teacher from know-it-all professional to guide and learner. Teacher availability is a challenge to realizing the needs of the society through education. The lack of, or insufficient number of, teachers in some subject areas, notably Languages, Mathematics and the Sciences, make it difficult and sometimes impossible for some students in Nigeria, and some African countries, to access the required knowledge. In most cases, these learners are helped at study centers to prepare for junior or senior secondary school certificate examinations. This practice fills society with secondary school graduates who have certificates but little or no knowledge. Instead of contributing to the solution of society’s problems, these people become problems to society. Effective learning requires that qualified teachers are available to keep learners actively engaged in the learning process.

Inadequate or lack of learning facilities (e.g., a conducive learning environment and ICT facilities) is another problem that needs to be solved for education to satisfy the needs of contemporary society. To prepare students for life in a networked society where activities and interactions are based on media networks requires ICT devices such as notebooks, mobile phones, tablets, and other interactive media in the learning environment. Recommendations by the Broadband Commission Working Group on Education (BCWG), as presented in the ITU & UNESCO Concept Note for Partnership (ITU & UNESCO, 2004 p. 2), include the following:

1. Increase access to technology and broadband;
2. Incorporate technology and broadband into job training and continuing education; and
3. Teach ICT skills and digital literacy to all educators and learners.

Recognizing the fact that “broadband is a great education enabler at all levels and in all forms is inextricably linked to the benefits offered by affordable high-speed connectivity,” the BCWG in ITU & UNESCO (2014, p. 2) calls on governments, IT providers, civil society, education authorities and other stakeholders to bridge the technological divide between countries. Simply importing the necessary technology into developing countries won’t close this gap. However, ensuring that learners acquire ICT skills and digital literacy in schools will hasten the society fast track movement from lone to networked society.

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**ANALYSIS ON THE EXPERIENCE IN THE MAY 2010 ELECTION OF THE PARISH  
PASTORAL COUNCIL FOR RESPONSIBLE VOTING (PPCRV)**

**by**

**AGNES M. MACARAEG**

Dean, College of Arts and Social Sciences  
Tarlac State University  
Tarlac City, Philippines

Email: [agnesmacaraeg@yahoo.com](mailto:agnesmacaraeg@yahoo.com)

Presenter for the 2014 Global Conference on Education

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Circus Circus, Las Vegas Hotel and Casino  
Las Vegas, Nevada

**MARIA ELENA D. DAVID**

Director, University Research Office

Tarlac State University  
Tarlac City, Philippines

Email: [Tsu4iec@yahoo.com](mailto:Tsu4iec@yahoo.com)

**ERWIN P. LACANLALE**

Research Chair, College of Arts and Social Sciences

Tarlac State University  
Tarlac City, Philippines

Email: [win1179\\_tsu@yahoo.com](mailto:win1179_tsu@yahoo.com); [erwinplacanlale@yahoo.com](mailto:erwinplacanlale@yahoo.com)

**Abstract**

The May 2010 automated election marked a significant historical event in Philippine politics. Before the country implemented this new election method, there were many questions, doubts, issues, and controversies, including election result credibility. Many believed that using an automated method could possibly encourage massive fraud and cheating. It was also thought that the Commission on Election (COMELEC) was not prepared to conduct an automated election, which is why many people still adhere to the traditional method of manual election. To ensure a clean, honest, accurate, meaningful, and peaceful election, the COMELEC created and accredited the Parish Pastoral Council for Responsible Voting (PPCRV). PPCRV members serve as watchdogs that monitor election conduct in the country. Their role was significant during the May 2010 election. This social research used the descriptive method, including questionnaires and interviews, to gather pertinent data. Study participants included the 350 PPCRV volunteers who worked as watchdogs in the May 2010 election. They came from different barangays and parishes in the Diocese of Tarlac. The PPCRV's involvement in the May 2010 election was significant and could not be undermined. Its members educated voters and stressed the importance

of wise, responsible voting. Members also taught volunteers to be knowledgeable, to understand and to embrace their significant roles and responsibilities in the election, particularly when watching the polls and conducting random, manual audits. Through these, and other election-related problems they experienced, PPCRV volunteers realized that their role was not easy. The study revealed the following issues: a lack of budget, training, coordination, and support from the Parish priest. Other problems included difficulty with recruiting volunteers, and a lack of materials and food for the volunteers. These all were experienced in the preparation and conduct of voters' education, poll watching and random manual auditing. Some of these problems occurred because PPCRV coordinators and volunteers had busy schedules, a minimal number of volunteers, misperceptions that PPCRV was a Catholic, religious organization rather than a political watchdog, a lack of volunteer training, late preparation, a lack of knowledge, and a fear of using the PCOS machines. From the findings of the study, policy recommendations were made so that these cited problems will not occur again in future elections.

*Keywords:* election, PCOS, PPCRV, parish pastoral council, responsible voting, voting

## **Introduction**

Elections are integral to democratic governance. Through the mechanism of elections, politicians are held accountable for their actions and are compelled to introduce policies that reflect and respond to public opinion. Ideally, elections serve as a “major source of political recruitment, a means of making government, and of transferring government power, a guarantee of representation, and a major determinant of government policy” (Heywood, 2000, p. 200).

Politics in the Philippines is one of those systems that gives life to the Filipino people. The Philippine political system is very colorful and full of issues and controversies. The May 2010 automated election marked significant history in Philippine politics. Before the implementation of this new election method, citizens raised many questions, doubts, issues, and controversies. They doubted the credibility of the results even before the election. Many believed that this new process could create massive fraud and cheating. They also thought the Commission on Election (COMELEC) was not prepared to conduct an automated election. That is why many people still observe the traditional method of manual election. But the COMELEC insisted on holding an automated election, and it took place on May 10, 2010.

To ensure a clean, honest, accurate, meaningful and peaceful election, COMELEC created and accredited the Parish Pastoral Council for Responsible Voting (PPCRV). The council serves as a watchdog that monitors Philippine elections. Thus, its role was very important during the May 2010 election. However, the PPCRV volunteers encountered many problems before and during the election. This research was deemed important to identify these problems and prevent them from reoccurring in the next election.

## **Statement of the Problem**

The goal of this study was to answer the following questions relative to the PPCRV's experience during the May 10 election:

1. How did the members of the PPCRV prepare volunteers prior to the May 2010 election with respect to:
  - a. voter education
  - b. poll watching

- c. random manual auditing
2. What problems did PPCRV volunteers encounter prior to the May 2010 election relative to:
  - a. voter education
  - b. poll watching
3. What caused the problems?
4. What mechanisms or policy recommendations would help to alleviate future problems?

### **Significance of the Study**

This study shed light on the persistent problems the country has experienced during election periods. The findings could be used to develop ways to help the government, especially the COMELEC and other non-governmental organizations (e.g., the PPCRV), involved in the country's electoral/election process. Through this study, problems encountered in the previous election receive proper attention and solutions. The goal is a clean and honest election combined with good governance that will contribute and lead the country to social, economic, and national development; something that is within every Filipino's reach.

### **Scope and Delimitation**

This research, which analyzed the experience of the PPCRV, identified the preparations/measures employed by the PPCRV, the problems they encountered, and the reasons for such problems. Survey respondents included the 350 PPCRV volunteers in the Tarlac Diocese.

### **Research Methodology**

This social research used a descriptive survey method using a questionnaire and an interview as its main instruments. Data resulted from questionnaires distributed to the respondents from the different parishes in the Tarlac Diocese. Moreover, main questions not answered in the questionnaires were asked among the respondents to reveal their answers.

### **Study Respondents and Sampling Design**

A total of 350 PPCRV volunteers from different parishes in the Tarlac Diocese responded to this survey. They were selected randomly from the different parishes where they were members.

### **Findings of the Study**

The following tables show the preparations PPCRV made for voter education, poll watching, and random manual auditing prior to the May 2010 election. Problems they encountered are presented and discussed in the succeeding tables, together with their reasons.

The data showed the preparations that PPCRV volunteers made to educate voters. This included distributing election-related materials such as DVDs, pamphlets, posters, and sample ballots to both volunteers and voters. In the later portion of church masses, parishioners watched films to enlighten and encourage them to vote wisely. The PPCRV also conducted seminars and distributed information (e.g., voter education manuals, poll watcher guides, and pamphlets) so volunteers and voters could understand important elements of the election. PPCRV also established headquarters inside voting places where they encouraged and motivated voters to vote wisely.

PPCRV members organized seminars and election information campaigns in the barangay of their respective parishes. They also conducted orientations on the automated election and the use of the PCOS machines for Parish Pastoral Council officers who were PPCRV members. PPCRV spoke to various organizations (students, youth, women’s organizations, etc.) and educated them on the automated election. They also led discussions at Radyo Maria and at Hi-Tech Cable TV Inc. (Eleksyon at Simbahan) that focused on the issues and information regarding the automated election. The PPCRV, through its coordinators, partnered with the Commission on Election in conducting seminars that educated voters on the uncertainties they had in mind on matters about the use of PCOS machines.

The PPCRV trained the coordinators and volunteers on poll watching. Coordinators attended seminars to learn about the automated election. They also received instructional video materials, manuals, and pamphlets that they could use to learn their duties and responsibilities in the election. Coordinators also received a poll watchers’ kit to familiarize themselves with their roles in the election process.

In turn, coordinators trained the volunteers on their roles in the election, including poll watching and the materials they would use. PPCRV also trained volunteer poll watchers on the new election system with a focus on ballot handling and collecting copies of election returns. In addition, radio programs (Radyo Maria) and television programs (through Hi-Tech Cable TV) ran programming to educate poll watchers about their important roles.

Table 1  
*Preparations of PPCRV on Voter Education*

<b>Preparations</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Distributed election-related instruments such as DVDs, pamphlets, posters, and sample training ballots to residents and PPCRV volunteers.	350	100%	2.5
Masses were rendered and at the same time, followed by voter education.	350	100%	2.5
Conducted seminars and distributed voter education manuals, poll watcher guides, and pamphlets.	350	100%	2.5
Established headquarters inside the voting place (school) encouraging everyone to vote wisely and intelligently according to the dictates of their own conscience.	350	100%	2.5
Organized barangays covered by the parish regarding matters on automated election.	348	99%	5
Held orientation meetings for PPC (Parish Pastoral Council) officers and PPCRV volunteers.	340	97%	6
Facilitated discussions on the importance of voting and the major role of every citizen in the election.	337	96%	7
Trained parish officers PPCRV on the rudiments of the new election system and the use of PCOS machines.	309	88%	8
Motivated every Catholic to vote according to the will of his/her conscience.	305	87%	9
Showed instructional videos after masses.	299	85%	10
Spoke to various organizations.	287	82%	11
Conducted discussions at radio stations and on cable TV to help enlighten the public on the new election system.	274	78%	12
Organized election seminars conducted by COMELEC officials in cooperation with the PPCRV coordinator.	222	63%	13

Part of the PPCRV's preparations for random, manual auditing involved providing volunteers with the materials needed in the election. These materials included the forms to be completed during ballot counting and the relevant materials needed such as manual auditing handbooks and election returns. Coordinators also conducted training among poll watchers on how to prepare a comprehensive report during election, especially when conducting random manual auditing in their assigned precincts.

Table 2  
*Preparations of PPCRV on Poll Watching*

<b>Preparations</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Coordinator's Training on Poll Watching			
Sent coordinators to different seminars regarding the automated election.	350	100%	1.5
Provision of election-related instructional video materials, manuals, and pamphlets.	350	100%	1.5
Coordinators were provided poll watchers kit.	332	95%	3.0
Volunteer's Training on Poll Watching			
Instructed on their roles as poll watchers and familiarizing them with the paraphernalia to be used in the election.	350	100%	1.0
Poll watching training through Tarlac Hi-Tech Cable channel.	285	81%	2.0

Table 3  
*Preparations and Conduct of PPCRV on Random Manual Auditing*

<b>Preparations</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Provided materials needed in the election pertinent to random manual auditing.	350	100%	1
Provided handbooks on manual auditing.	341	97%	2
Shared sample copies of election returns and discussed their use with volunteers.	330	94%	3
Informed volunteers about important materials and kits to provide or keep safely in case of emergency.	320	91%	4
Trained poll watchers how to prepare a comprehensive report on its observations during the electoral exercise.	270	77%	5

Table 4  
*PPCRV's Problems with the Preparation and Conduct of Voter Education*

<b>Problems</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Lack of volunteers to do voter education.	350	100%	2.5
Late preparation at the local level because the PPCRV was also late in holding national training conferences.	350	100%	2.5
COMELEC gave new guidelines late.	350	100%	2.5
PPCRV had a hard time dissemination information because of religious-related matters	342	98%	5
Some volunteers backed out.	320	91%	6
Many volunteers were not interested in attending seminars.	265	76%	7
Insufficient knowledge prior to the election.	185	53%	8
Late coordination with other institutions and agencies willing to help.	180	51%	9
PPCRV Volunteers lack support from their Parish Priest.	163	47%	10

PPCRV volunteers experienced the following problems: the lack of volunteers to do voter education, the short training conducted among the volunteers at the local level, which was brought about by the late national PPCRV conferences/training, and the late provision of new guidelines by the COMELEC. These somehow affected the performance of the volunteers, who found themselves not prepared to perform their functions in the election. PPCRV volunteers also had a difficult time disseminating information about voter education because of religious-related matters and problems. Non-Catholics misperceived the PPCRV as a Catholic organization and not an accredited citizens' arm of the COMELEC. Non-Catholics questioned the volunteers about their discussions of the dos and don'ts in the election because of their different political and religious point of views.

Table 5  
*PPCRV's Problems on the Preparations and Conduct of Poll Watching*

<b>Problems</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Some of the volunteers did not attend the seminars.	350	100%	2
No database of previous PPCRV volunteers and local coordinators.	350	100%	2
Many volunteers were tired and bored.	350	100%	2
Lack of volunteers to do poll watching.	337	96%	4
Some volunteers did not cooperate.	314	90%	5
Insufficient knowledge or computer handling.	301	86%	6
Difficulty in recruiting volunteers.	298	85%	7
Some of the coordinators had a hard time doing their jobs and assignments.	261	75%	8
Some did not acquire their poll watchers guides.	170	49%	9
Problems in organizing the volunteers.	155	44%	10
Delayed voting process because of PCOS machines.	104	30%	11

PPCRV volunteers had problems with poll watchers because of an absence of volunteers in its organized seminars. This could be the reason why volunteers felt they lacked training because of their non-attendance or participation in the seminars organized and conducted by their local PPCRV coordinators. This could be attributed to the fact the volunteers were busy and had no time to attend because of work and studies.

Coordinators had difficulty recruiting new volunteers because there was no database or record of previous volunteers or local coordinators. Because of this problem, they also did not have replacement poll watchers for those who were tired and bored. And some of the volunteers simply did not cooperate.

Some volunteers experienced having a hard time doing their jobs and assignments as poll watchers because they did not know how to use computers or the PCOS machines. Some did not know what to do because they were not given a poll watchers guide, which served as their reference. Some of them also experienced delayed casting and counting of votes due to malfunctioning PCOS machines.

Table 6

*PPCRV's Problems on the Preparations and Conduct of Random Manual Auditing*

<b>Problems</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
Lack of materials needed for manual auditing.	348	99%	1
Lack of volunteers to do random manual auditing.	332	95%	2
No food provided for the volunteers.	327	93%	3
Difficulty in operating the PCOS machines.	215	61%	4
Late arrival of some training materials.	168	48%	5

The common problem that PPCRV coordinators experienced was a lack of materials needed for random manual auditing. Additional problems included a lack of volunteers to do the manual auditing and no food for the volunteers. PCOS machine operation and the late arrival of some training materials for manual auditing hindered the volunteers when counting the votes. For some, these problems led to a delayed counting of votes in their precincts.

Table 7

*Reasons for the Problems of Voter Education*

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>R</b>
PPCRV volunteers and coordinators were very busy.	350	100%	2
Volunteers lacked time.	350	100%	2
Some voters thought PPCRV was a religious organization and not a political/election watchdog.	350	100%	2
Financial needs and problems of some volunteers to do voter education.	347	99%	4
Late arrival of election training materials.	340	97%	5
Coordination problems between PPCRV local and national.	336	96%	6
Conflict of religion and religious interests.	300	86%	7
Some politicians hired volunteers for their political campaigns and activities.	263	75%	8

PPCRV volunteers attributed the problems they experienced to the lack of time for volunteers to attend seminars or training on voter education. They were too busy working and studying. Other problems that hindered them included people's misperception of PPCRV as a religious organization, and they lacked budget to finance volunteer expenses. This specifically happened among volunteers who were students or who were unemployed and did not have the means to conduct a voter education campaign.

The late arrival of election training materials and a lack of coordination between local and national PPCRV members also attributed to volunteer problems. Also, some volunteers had conflicting religious interests with voters, and some of them left the PPCRV because politicians hired them for their own political campaigns.

Table 8  
*Reasons for Problems of Poll Watching*

Reasons	F	P	R
Late preparation of PPCRV in the conduct of poll watching training.	348	99%	1
PPCRV did not have enough printed election training materials.	340	97%	2.5
No funds available for PPCRV activities.	340	97%	2.5
Many volunteers were not really trained.	325	93%	4
No relief for tired poll watchers.	300	86%	5
Seminars on poll watching were only held once by the PPCRV.	298	85%	6

Reasons for poll watching problems can be attributed to the late preparation of PPCRV in the conduct of poll watching training. Furthermore, coordinators did not have enough printed election training materials, specifically poll watcher guides. The ultimate reason for the lack of training and volunteers was because the PPCRV had no funds to finance its activities, such as the provisions of kits, snacks or meal allowances for volunteers.

Table 9  
*Reasons on the Problems of Random Manual Auditing*

Reasons	F	P	R
Lack of funds to train volunteers in operating the PCOS machine.	350	100%	1.5
No knowledge about the operation of PCOS machines.	350	100%	1.5
Afraid to use the PCOS machines.	348	99%	3

Just like the problems experienced in conducting voter education and poll watching, problems with random manual auditing can be attributed to the lack of funds to train volunteers to operate the PCOS machines and the lack of knowledge, which made volunteers hesitant or afraid to use and operate them.

### **Policy Recommendations**

The Commission on Election should allocate funds for PPCRV (the accredited citizens' arm), which could be used to train volunteers in all election-related matters. Volunteers should be provided with financial assistance when performing their functions as PPCRV volunteers for snacks, meals, and transportation allowances. They also should receive benefits or incentives for their efficient and effective performance as watchdogs during the election process. The COMELEC could include such funds in their budget allocation if they would pass a resolution or policy regarding these matters.

The PPCRV should design training programs to enhance the skills of their volunteers and make training relevant to their function as watchdogs during the election period. Findings of the study show that problems were attributed to a lack of preparation and training. A well-designed, comprehensive training program could prevent or minimize these problems in the future. Partnering with organizations could help to provide expert services regarding these matters.

The PPCRV should develop communication channels to effectively relay information matters or concerns emanating from the national level down to provincial, municipal (parish) and barangay levels. Clear communication would prevent miscommunication between the local and national activities and avoid the lack of coordination among their members. Assigning a person or an officer-in-charge to supervise and monitor PPCRV activity communications would accomplish this task.

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# PEDAGOGICAL SKILL IMPROVEMENT NEEDS OF TECHNICAL INSTRUCTORS IN TECHNICAL COLLEGES IN LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA

by

**ISAAC O. MILLER**

Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka.  
Lagos State, Nigeria

## **Abstract**

The study identifies the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in pedagogical skills for teaching effectively in technical colleges in Lagos State, Nigeria. Three research questions guided the survey research design for this study. The population for the study included 304 technical instructors in Lagos State, Nigeria. The simple random sampling technique was used to obtain 225 technical instructors for the study. Three sets of structured questionnaires were developed and used to collect data from respondents. The Cronbach alpha reliability method was used to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire items. Reliability coefficient values of 0.84, 0.81, and 0.83 were obtained for the three sets of questionnaires, respectively. Weighted mean and performance gap analysis (PGA) were the ways in which data were analyzed. It was found that technical instructors need skills improvement in identified pedagogical skills areas (instructional planning, implementation, and evaluation) for teaching technical courses effectively in technical colleges. It is, therefore, recommended to introduce a re-training program, consisting of short- or long-term courses through scholarships, seminars, and workshops. The program's goal is to improve technical instruction in all the identified pedagogical skills for effectively teaching trade courses to students in technical colleges in Lagos State, Nigeria.

*Keywords:* improvement, need, pedagogy, technical college, technical instructor

## **Introduction**

Technical colleges are institutions where vocational courses are taught by technical instructors to equip students with skills needed for employment, the creation of employment, and acquiring national certificates for academic progression in a related trade. According to Okoro in Inyiagu (2005), technical colleges sometimes admit students who have first school leaving certificates and give them six years vocational training because it is difficult to attract enough junior secondary school leavers into its vocational programs.

In Lagos State, technical colleges are training institutions established to equip individuals with practical skills and basic scientific knowledge required for academic progression in their chosen trades, self-employment, acquisition of national certificates (NABTEB/NTC/NBC, Trade Test I, II, III, and LASTVEB skill certificate I, II, and III), creation of employment and wealth (Lagos State Technical and Vocational Board (LASTVEB 2013). These training institutions are structured so students learn different occupational trades under the guidance of technical instructors. These trades include, but are not limited to, block laying and concreting, furniture making, painting and decorating, electrical installation, fabrication and welding, and mechanical engineering.

Technical instructors teach specific trade skills to students within the school setting or corporate world. According to John (2014), technical instructors in the U.S. corporate world typically teach their students a mix of how to assemble, install, set up, program, operate, troubleshoot or maintain the products made or sold by the company for which they instruct, through theory and practical, hands-on-exercises. In the three-year, technical college program in Lagos State, instructors prepare their students for jobs as craftsmen in related trades. Instructors engage their students in both theory and practice. This method leads to students acquiring skills and certificates in their related trades. The quality of teaching they receive from their instructors indicates the extent of skills students acquire and their performance on trade examinations and in the work world. Walter, Wilkinson, and Yarrow cited in Moeini (2008) that the quality of teaching depends on the quality of the teachers, which, in turn, depends to some extent on the quality of their professional skill development. In the context of this study, professional skill development includes the technical and pedagogical skills that instructors possess for effective teaching of the related trade courses to students in technical colleges. This study emphasizes how well the technical instructors have been able to effectively use pedagogical skills to impart technical content knowledge to the students.

Pedagogy is the art and science of how something is taught and how students learn it. Pedagogy includes how teaching occurs, the approach to teaching and learning (planning), the way the content is delivered (implementation), and what the students learn as a result of the process (evaluation). Lack of attention to the importance of pedagogy in teaching and learning in technical colleges has been linked to the frustration students experience in their trade subjects. Mckenzie (2003) remarked that lack of devotion to pedagogy (how teachers orchestrate classroom teaching) explains why many learners bug down in schools or drop out entirely. This explains why new technologies have failed to realize their potentials in many classrooms across the land. This experience is noticeable in other parts of the world including Lagos State, Nigeria. Mckenzie advocated content knowledge of the teacher must be balanced with a solid grounding in effective teaching strategies, which is embedded in pedagogical skills development. In the context of this study, pedagogical skills development involves those skills the technical instructor possesses in instructional planning, implementation and evaluation for the purpose of effectively teaching trade courses to students in technical colleges.

Instructional planning is the art of making detailed preparation for instruction. Olaitan (2003) outlined some skills in instructional planning that a teacher should possess. These include the ability to determine the content of instruction from a unit, understand objectives of instruction, and identify key concepts to be taught or demonstrated during lesson or laboratory practice, among others. Planning instruction for teaching technical courses, as stated in Missouri Technology Guide (2002), is not different from the processes used for any other classroom/laboratory course. This underscores the need for technical teachers to be skilled in planning instruction and appropriate teaching methods, selecting and organizing content, and other activities for smooth implementation of instruction.

Instructional implementation is the process of the teacher instructing the students. Olaitan (2003) described instructional implementation as a stage where what the teacher has planned is carefully delivered to the learners in a school or suitable environment with the content and intended learning outcome in focus. This view stresses the need for technical instructors to be skilled in instructional implementation in order for students to achieve their learning goals. The teacher, through instructional evaluation, determines the success of this process.

Instructional evaluation is the process by which a teacher becomes familiar with the effectiveness of his or her instruction, as represented in the feedback obtained from the learner's performance in the classroom or laboratory situation. Olaitan and Alli (as cited in Miller, 2006), outlined skills in instructional evaluation that instructors should possess for effective evaluation of their instruction. These include the ability to determine the instructional objective to evaluate, decide the evaluation strategies to be used (formative evaluation), and develop the evaluation technique (give test or task) among others. The views of these authors on the need for teachers to be pedagogically skilled were in line with Solis (2001) who remarked that teachers should be pedagogically skilled in order to interpret and transform the subject matter knowledge in the context of facilitating students learning. These assertions make it imperative for instructors in technical colleges to be pedagogically skilled in order to improve the quality of teaching trade course content both in theory and practice.

To establish instructors' pedagogical improvement needs, they must be assessed to learn which skills they possess and those skills they need to possess. Need, according to Procter, in Miller (2012), is the condition of lacking or wanting something necessary or very useful. In general, needs are defined as a gap between what is expected and the existing condition. The performance gap between the pedagogical skills technical instructors possess and what is expected will form the baseline for improvement. Improvement is viewed by Robenson (2000) as the development of circumstances in which something lacking is brought to better standard or quality. In the context of this study, improvement means making technical instructors acquire pedagogical skills in which they are deficient in order to equip them sufficiently for teaching in technical colleges.

### **Statement of the Problem**

In Lagos State technical colleges, there has been a strong tradition of training emphasizing that students obtain the required technical skills and practical experiences to become skilled craftsmen. To achieve this objective, it is expected that the technical instructors be pedagogically skilled. Having this skill set equips the instructors to impart the right knowledge, skills, and attitude to the students, both in theory and practice.

Available research shows that technical instructors who are graduates of colleges of education (technical) and universities could not apply pedagogical skills to effectively teach trade courses to students in technical colleges. This experience might be responsible for the production of unskilled graduates who have turned out to become *Okada* riders and tout in the city of Lagos instead of being gainfully employed or be self-employed (Miller, 2013).

This observation necessitated the need to identify the pedagogical skills that technical instructors needed to improve their job performance. These skills might enhance the production of skilled graduates who are equipped with the practical skills they need to be self-employed or obtain gainful employment in the work world.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The study's purpose was to identify the pedagogical skill improvements that technical instructors need in technical colleges in Lagos State. The study specifically sought to identify the instructional planning, implementation, and evaluation skills that technical instructors need to improve.

### **Research Questions**

1. What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional planning?
2. What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional implementation?
3. What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional evaluation?

## **Methodology**

The survey design method was adopted, using three research questions designed to guide the study. A structured questionnaire was used to collect the data. The survey design was suitable for this study because it obtains data from technical instructors in the field on skill improvement needs in the three pedagogical skill areas (i.e., instructional planning, implementation, and evaluation) for effective performance of their professional jobs.

## **Area of Study**

The study was carried out in Lagos State, which has five technical colleges accredited by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE). This state has a widespread distribution of industries that need the service of well-trained craftsmen that technical colleges produce.

## **Population of the Study**

The population of the study was 304 technical instructors from the five technical colleges in Lagos State.

## **Sample and Sampling Technique**

The simple random sampling technique was used to obtain 225 technical instructors for the study.

## **Instrument for Data Collection**

The instrument for data collection was a 32-question pedagogical skill questionnaire divided into two categories: Need and Performance. The Need category had a 4-point response scale of Highly Needed (HN), Averagely Needed (AV N), Slightly Needed (SN), and Not Needed (NN), while the performance category also had a 4-point response scale of High Performance (HP), Average Performance (AV P), Low Performance (LP), and No Performance (NP) with corresponding values of 4, 3, 2, and 1 for the two groups of scale, respectively.

## **Validation of the Instrument**

The instrument was face validated by two experts: one from the Department of Science and Technology Education, University of Lagos and the other from the Department of Curriculum, Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka.

## **Instrument Reliability**

The Cronbach alpha reliability method determined the internal consistency of the questions, and reliability coefficient values of 0.84, 0.81, and 0.83 were obtained for the three sets of questions, respectively.

## **Data Collection Method**

The researcher and research assistants administered a total of 225 copies of the questionnaire to the respondents in the five technical colleges. Survey participants had two weeks to complete their questionnaires. Of the 225 questionnaires distributed, 208 were retrieved and analyzed, representing a return rate of 92.4%.

## Method of Data Analysis

The data collected from the pedagogical skill questionnaire were analyzed using Weighted Mean and Performance Gap Analysis (PGA) in answering the research questions. The improvement needs were determined as follows:

1. The mean ( $\bar{X}_n$ ) of the need category was determined for each item:
2. The means ( $\bar{X}_p$ ) of the performance category was also determined for each item.
3. The performance gap (PG) was determined by finding the difference between  $\bar{X}_n$  and  $\bar{X}_p$  for each item, that is  $PG = \bar{X}_n - \bar{X}_p$ .
4. Where the value of PG is positive (+), this means improvement is needed because the level at which the skill is required is higher than the level at which the teacher could perform it.
5. Where PG is negative (-), it means improvement is not needed because the level at which the teacher could perform the skill is higher than the level at which it is required.
6. Where PG value is zero (0), it means improvement also is not needed because the level at which the teachers were performing the skill is equal to the level needed.

To further determine the needed degree of improvement, a rating scale with an interval ratio of 0.28 was used:

0.00 – 0.14 = *Very Little Improvement Needed* (Very Little IN).

0.14 – 0.42 = *Little Improvement Needed* (Little IN).

0.42 – 0.70 = *High Improvement Needed* (High IN).

0.70 – 0.98 = *Very High Improvement Needed* (Very High IN).

## Results

The study's results were obtained from the research questions answered through collected and analyzed data.

**Research Question 1:** What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional planning skills?

The data for answering Research Question 1 are presented in Table 1.

The data presented in Table 1 show that the performance gap values of the 13 instructional planning skills ranging from 0.36 to 0.93 and were positive. These values indicate that the instructors need skill improvement in the 13 instructional planning skills for teaching the related trade courses effectively in technical colleges. The table also revealed that one of the items had a negative performance value of - 0.19, which was less than 0. This value showed that technical instructors did not need skill improvement in that item.

Table1  
*Performance Gap Analysis (PGA) of the Mean Ratings of Technical Instructors on  
 Skill Improvement Needs in Instructional Planning*

S/N	Item Statement	Xn	Xp	PG Xn-Xp	RMK
1	Determine content of instruction from a unit.	3.71	3.25	0.46	High IN
2	State objective of instruction.	4.20	3.65	0.55	High IN
3	Identify key concepts to be taught or demonstrated during the lesson or laboratory practice	3.86	3.35	0.51	High IN
4	Identify relevant, learnable instructional content.	3.95	3.59	0.36	Little IN
5	Select relevant, learnable instructional content.	3.96	3.46	0.50	High IN
6	Arrange selected learnable instructional content in order of presentation.	3.94	3.27	0.67	High IN
7	Identify relevant materials for instruction.	3.75	3.94	-0.19	No IN
8	Select relevant instructional materials for instruction.	3.89	3.52	0.37	High IN
9	Select relevant method for content delivery.	4.12	3.38	0.74	Very High IN
10	Select relevant techniques for instructional delivery.	4.00	3.37	0.43	High IN
11	Select relevant support system for content delivery.	4.01	3.08	0.93	Very High IN
12	Identify appropriate learning experience for instruction.	3.86	3.22	0.64	High IN
13	Select appropriate learning experience for instruction.	4.02	3.49	0.53	High IN
14	Identify appropriate instructional evaluation techniques to be used.	4.37	3.55	0.82	Very High IN

*Note:* Key: Xn = Mean of Needed, IN = Improvement Needed, Xp = Means of Performance, PG (Xn-Xp) = Performance Gap

**Research Question 2:** What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional implementation skills?

The data for answering Research Question 2 are presented in Table 2

Table 2  
*Performance Gap Analysis (PGA) of the Mean Ratings of Technical Instructors on Skill Improvement Needs in Instructional Implementation*

S/N	Item Statement	X <sub>n</sub>	X <sub>p</sub>	PG X <sub>n</sub> -X <sub>p</sub>	RMK
1	Select relevant instructional method of linking the previous lesson with new lesson.	3.39	3.10	0.29	Little IN
2	Select appropriate questioning technique to test students' entry behavior.	3.98	3.04	0.94	Very High IN
3	Present selected objectives of the instruction.	3.99	3.53	0.46	High IN
4	Arrange delivery of content sequentially.	3.99	3.40	0.59	High IN
5	Present selected content in sequential order.	3.96	3.40	0.56	High IN
6	Present selected learning materials at the appropriate time.	3.91	3.31	0.60	High IN
7	Introduce learner's instruction activities/events at the appropriate time.	3.75	3.62	0.13	Very Little IN
8	Identify learners' errors in the classroom/laboratory practice.	3.51	3.84	-0.33	No IN
9	Correct identified learner's errors.	3.81	3.54	0.27	Little IN
10	Select appropriate instructional assessment technique to be used.	4.14	3.36	0.78	Very High IN
11	Monitor and adjust instructional strategies in response to learner's feedback.	3.37	3.54	0.17	Little IN

Notes: Key: X<sub>n</sub> = Mean of Needed, IN = Improvement Needed, X<sub>p</sub> = Means of Performance, PG (X<sub>n</sub>-X<sub>p</sub>) = Performance Gap

The data presented in Table 2 show the performance gap values of all the 11 instructional implementation skill items ranging from 0.13 to 0.94 and were positive. These values indicated that the technical instructors need skill improvement in the 11 instructional implementation skills for teaching the students related trade courses effectively in technical colleges. The table also revealed that item 8 had its performance gap value as - 0.33, which was less than 0. This value implied that technical instructors did not need skill improvement on that item.

**Research Question 3:** What are the skill improvement needs of technical instructors in instructional implementation skills?

The data for answering research question 3 is presented in Table 3

Table 3  
*Performance Gap Analysis (PGA) of the Mean Ratings of Technical Instructors on Skill Improvement Needs in Instructional Evaluation*

S/N	Item Statement	X <sub>n</sub>	X <sub>p</sub>	PG X <sub>n</sub> -X <sub>p</sub>	RMK
1	Determine the instructional objectives to be evaluated.	4.10	3.59	0.51	High IN
2	Decide the evaluation strategies to be used (formative evaluation).	4.14	3.67	0.47	High IN
3	Develop the evaluation technique (give a task or test).	3.98	3.40	0.58	High IN
4	Administer the test or give task to be performed in the laboratory.	3.70	3.51	0.19	Little IN
5	Observe the learner perform the test/task independently.	3.76	3.36	0.40	High IN
6	Assess the learner's performance (mark the test, record the scores or award scores after completion of task).	4.15	3.79	0.36	High IN
7	Provide feedback to learners based on their performance in the test or task.	3.91	3.31	0.60	No IN

*Note:* Key: X<sub>n</sub> = Mean of Needed, IN = Improvement Needed, X<sub>p</sub> = Means of Performance, PG (X<sub>n</sub>-X<sub>p</sub>) = Performance Gap

The data presented in Table 3 reveal that the performance gaps of the seven instructional evaluation skills items ranged from 0.19 to 0.60. All the performance gap values are positive, indicating that technical instructors need skill improvement in instructional evaluation skills for teaching the trade courses to students effectively in technical colleges.

### Discussion of Findings

The data presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3 provided answers to research questions one, two, and three. The findings revealed that technical instructors from technical colleges need skill improvement in 13 out of 14 instructional planning skills, 10 out of 11 instructional implementation, and seven instructional evaluation skills for effectively teaching the related trade courses to students. This finding conformed with the finding of Sowande (2002) in a study that sought to investigate the technical competency improvement needs of metalwork teachers in Colleges of Education, SouthWest, Nigeria, where the author found that metalworking teachers indicated competency improvement needs in 38 out of 121 theoretical and 74 out of 112 practical competencies in technical skill areas for better performance.

Study findings also concur with the findings of Nwachukwu, Bakare, and Jika (2009) who carried out a study on effective laboratory safety practice skills required by electrical and electronic students in using hand tools, operating power tools and machine and working in the laboratory. The authors found that electrical and electronic students required laboratory safety practice skills in using hand tools, operating power tools

and working in the laboratory. Study findings also agreed with those of Miller (2012) who carried out a study on work skill improvement needs of technical graduates of mechanical engineering craft practice for demand driven employment in Southwest Zone of contemporary Nigeria. The author found that graduates of mechanical engineering craft practice needed work skill improvement in operations on lathes, milling, drilling, and grinding machines for demand-driven employment in contemporary Nigeria. The findings of the researchers cited corroborate the finding of this study and further add credibility to the finding of the study and the reliability of the results.

## **Conclusion**

Given the general concern for the apparent production of unskilled technical college graduates, which might be attributed to teachers' pedagogical deficiency, the need to improve these instructors' skills becomes imperative. This study has been able to identify the pedagogical skills where technical instructors have expressed deficiency and needed improvement in order to perform their jobs effectively.

## **Recommendations**

It is recommended that state authorities:

- Organize a re-training program through short- or long-term courses, geared to improving technical instructors' pedagogical skills.
- Organize seminars and workshops for technical instructors to improve their pedagogical skills in the areas where they have expressed deficiency.

These actions will, to a large extent, help the instructors perform their professional jobs more effectively and reduce the number of unskilled technical college graduates who enter the labor market.

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**EFFECTS OF TWO SELECTED LABORATORY-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES  
ON COMPUTER STUDENTS' SELF-EFFICACY  
IN VISUAL-BASIC.NET COMPUTER PROGRAMMING**

by

**OWOLABI, J.  
ADEDAYO, A. O.  
AMAO-KEHINDE, A. O.  
OLAYANJU, T. A**

Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Lagos State, Nigeria

**Abstract**

The study assessed the relative effectiveness of solo and pair programming instructional strategies on students' self-efficacy in Visual-Basic.Net computer programming approach. Two research questions and three null hypotheses guided the study. The sample consisted of 68 subjects distributed over three treatment groups (27 solo programmers, 24 pair programmers, and 17 conventional programmers) from 300-level computer science students at Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Yaba, Lagos State, Nigeria. Visual-Basic.Net Self-Efficacy Scale (VSES) was used to collect data for both the pre- and post-self-efficacy scores. The VSES was administered on all the 68 subjects in the three groups, first as pre-self-efficacy and, after treatment, as post-self-efficacy. Mean and standard deviation were used to answer the two research questions while ANCOVA and multiple comparisons were used in testing the three null hypotheses. The results of the analyses indicate that: (i) the pair group had the highest self-efficacy gain; (ii) the treatment appeared to be more effective among female students than their male counterparts; and (iii) only the main effect of gender was statistically significant. Female participants' post-self-efficacy score was statistically higher than that of their male counterparts.

*Keywords:* computer, laboratory-based, programming, self-efficacy, visual-basic.net

**Introduction**

Computer majors in our tertiary institutions are required to take and pass some programming courses during the course of their training. This requirement, however, has yet to make any significant impact on their confidence in themselves that they could write programs and their willingness to participate in software developments, which is basically programming, after graduation. According to Jegede (2009), most of the software packages presently in use in Nigerian industries, schools, and financial institutions are either foreign (developed outside Nigeria) or locally adapted. This points to the fact that the level of participation in programming among our computer graduates after graduation is very low. Therefore, it is important to understand what affects students' willingness to engage in programming tasks. According to Bandura (1986), people's judgment of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances strongly influences the choices they make, the effort they expend, and how long they persevere in the face of challenges.

People's judgment of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances is what is referred to in the literature as self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is, therefore, based on self-perceptions regarding particular behaviors. It can be defined as the belief a person has about his ability to perform a particular task or behavior (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is therefore domain or task specific.

Self-efficacy is an important psychological construct that requires attention in research as it influences (i) the choice of activities that an individual takes part in; (ii) the amount of effort they will expend in performing a task; and (iii) how long they will persevere in the face of stressful situations in completing that task (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, computer self-efficacy beliefs can affect how or whether a particular task or course of action will be attempted, and it may be a factor in whether people choose to get involved, or not, in computer-related activities (programming inclusive). Since it affects whether people attempt and/or persevere with the usage and study of computers, self-efficacy is very important in computer science education research generally and specifically in computer programming education research.

For the Nigerian state not to fall behind in information technology industry developments, and in light of the fact that learning to program is not easy, programmers who are confident in their ability to program are urgently needed. Given the research evidence on the influence of self-efficacy outlined in the preceding section, it is reasonable to think that high self-efficacy in computer programming might play an important role in learning and writing programs and consequently in producing competent and effective programmers in our nation. Self-efficacy does not exist in isolation. It is, in turn, affected by other factors including lecturer's instructional approaches and student gender.

Until recently, most programming instructions in Nigerian tertiary institutions theoretically were held in the lecture room. Students were then expected to practice the knowledge they acquired outside the regular classroom on their own. This probably is because of the few computers that were available for use. The story is, however, gradually changing now that the computers (desktop, laptops, notebooks, etc.) are now within the reach of many students, coupled with the fact that our computer laboratories in the tertiary institutions are now better equipped. Because of this development, few of the lecturers now deliver programming instructions directly using the computer in the laboratory.

The method of theoretical instruction on programming in the lecture room without computers, which is still common in our tertiary institutions, is what is referred to in this study as the conventional method of programming instruction. Two experimental methods adopted in this study (the solo and pair programming instructional strategies) are referred to in this paper as the two-selected, laboratory-based approaches. In solo programming, the programmer, or the student, is all alone on the computer. This is an older strategy compared to pair programming. Unlike in solo programming, in pair programming, two programmers work together on the same programming task using one computer and one keyboard. Pair programming is a practice in which two programmers sitting side by side use only one computer to work collaboratively on the design, algorithm, code, or test (William, Kessler, Cunningham, & Jeffries, 2000). One of them is the "driver" who is responsible for typing the code and has control over the resources such as computer, mouse, and keyboard. The partner known as "navigator" or "observer" has the responsibility of observing how the driver works. The navigator is expected to detect errors made by the driver and offer ideas to solve the problem.

Pair programming, which was first used in 1999 as one of the core practices in the Extreme programming (XP) software development methodology in industry, has been widely implemented in the industry as well as in

educational setting (Choung & Hulburt, 2007; Domino, Webb & Hevner, 2007). Particularly in an educational setting, researchers and academics had previously applied the pair programming techniques in the fields of software engineering (SE) and computer science (CS).

Romeu and Alemzadeh (1998), in a research conducted to compare a traditional lecture and a laboratory-based programming course, found a significant improvement in program development performance and pop quiz scores for those students in the laboratory course. It has also been found that the level of conceptual lab-based activity was a significant factor in improving higher order thinking skills in programming, including semantic programming knowledge (Oliver & Malone, 1993). Bevan, Werner, and McDowell (2002); McDowell et al. (2002) both studied the use of collaborative laboratory activities in an introductory undergraduate programming course, specifically in the form of pair programming. They found that pair programming improved retention rates and performance on programming assignments.

In research, the relationship between gender and computer self-efficacy (CSE) has been of regular interest, possibly because the computer was seen as a skill area for the male folks. So far, findings on gender influence on computer self-efficacy are mixed. Some studies showed that males evidenced higher self-efficacy than females (Harrison & Rainer, 1992).). However, Jegede (2007) found no gender differences in computer self-efficacy. Busch (1995) observed gender differences in perceived self-efficacy regarding completion of complex tasks in both word processing and spreadsheet software (with males having higher CSE scores). In the same study, no gender differences were found in self-efficacy regarding simple computer tasks.

In a study of factors related to self-efficacy for Java programming among engineering students in Turkey, Askar and Davenport (2009) found that males evidenced higher programming self-efficacy. Gender- and instruction-based studies on computer programming self-efficacy seems to be rare, especially in Nigeria. This study, therefore, investigated the effects of two selected laboratory-based (solo and pair) instructional approaches and gender on Visual-Basic.Net programming self-efficacy among computer majors in a southwestern Nigerian College of Education.

## **Research Questions**

1. What is the pattern of influence of laboratory-based (solo and pair) programming approaches on students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming?
2. To what extent has the gender and treatment interacted to improve students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming?

## **Hypotheses**

The following null hypotheses were tested at an alpha level of 0.05:

*HO1:* There is no significant main effect of treatment on the mean self-efficacy scores of students in VB.NET programming.

*HO2:* There is no significant main effect of treatment on the mean self-efficacy scores of male and female students in VB.NET programming.

*HO3:* There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on the mean self-efficacy scores of students in VB.NET programming.

## Methodology

The study employed a pretest post-test non-equivalent group control design.

Specifically, the study used three non-equivalent groups. The design can be represented as:

YbX1Ya

YbX2Ya

YbX3Ya

Where Yb stands for pretest

Ya stands for post-test

X1 stands for Conventional (Lecture) method

X2 stands for Solo programming

X3 stands for Pair programming

The subjects consisted of 68 three-year computer science students with Nigerian Certificates in Education (NCE): 14 males and 54 females. Purposive sampling was used to select NCE 3 computer science students at the Federal College of Education (Technical), Akoka, Yaba, Lagos, Nigeria offering Visual-Basic.Net (VB.Net) programming Language in their second semester. VB.NET self-efficacy scale (VAT) was used to collect the data. The VB.Net programming scale was adapted from a Java programming self-efficacy scale. It consisted of 30 items validated by a computer science lecturer and a lecturer in educational psychology. Using Cronbach alpha, the reliability coefficient was found to be 0.987 and, therefore, reliable.

## Procedure

Because this study was sponsored by the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) in Nigeria, it was possible to equip the mathematics college laboratory with computer systems specially prepared for the experiment. Sixteen other computers in the computer laboratory also were prepared for the study. Each student who participated in the study received a course module. The lecturer in charge of the course used the conventional (lecture) method to instruct the participants while another experienced facilitator took the experimental groups (one and two) through the solo and pair programming instructional strategies respectively in the laboratories. At the beginning of the study, the subjects responded to the VB.NET Self-efficacy scale (VSES). The score from this first test served as the pretest (covariate) score. All the subjects first learned to use the conventional (lecture) method. After this, the two treatment conditions (solo and pair programming instructional approaches) were provided for two of the three groups. The treatment lasted for four weeks after which the VSES was re-administered and used as a post-test.

In experimental group one (solo programming group), subjects sat at their own computers to code, compile, and run the programs as the facilitator explained and demonstrated using the interactive board. They then received exercises and assignments. In experimental group two (pair programming group), subjects sat two at each computer. There was a “driver” doing the coding, compiling, and running, and there was a “navigator,” or observer, to observe what was done for possible errors and also offer solutions. The control group only took part in the conventional approach.

The pretest and post-test self-efficacy scores in VB.NET programming were used to answer the research questions and also test the hypotheses that guided the study. Summary of the results are presented in the tables below.

### Answers to Research Questions

Table 1

*Summary of Mean Difference of Students' Self efficacy in Programming using VB.NET*

Treatment	N	Pre-Self-Efficacy		Post-Self-Efficacy		Mean Gain
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Solo	27	64.78	35.740	75.96	39.550	11.18
Pair	24	44.71	19.309	84.06	49.984	39.35
Conventional	17	59.24	32.124	70.53	26.514	11.29

Table 2

*Summary of Mean Difference of Students' Self-Efficacy in VB.NET Programming by Gender*

Gender	N	Pre-Self-Efficacy		Post-Self-Efficacy		Mean Gain
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Male	14	60.64	33.763	50.22	22.309	-10.42
Female	54	55.19	30.237	82.13	40.776	26.94

Table 1 shows the pair programming having the highest post self-efficacy mean score in VB.NET programming ( $\bar{x}$ =84.06), followed by the solo programming group ( $\bar{x}$ =75.96). The conventional group had the least ( $\bar{x}$ =70.53). When the post self-efficacy mean scores are compared with their corresponding preself-efficacy mean scores, the pair programming group had the highest mean gain in self-efficacy in VB.NET scores (39.35). The conventional group had a mean gain of 11.29, and the solo programming group had the least mean gain score of 11.18. All the groups, however, had higher post-self-efficacy scores in VB.NET programming compared to their respective preself-efficacy scores in VB.NET programming. From Table 2, the male students who had higher preself-efficacy scores had mean loss scores in self-efficacy in VB.NET programming ( $\bar{x}$ = -10.42). The female students had a mean gain of 26.94.

## Hypotheses Testing

Table 3

*Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of Posttest Mean Scores of Students' Self-efficacy in VB.NET by Gender*

Source of Variation	Type III sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	P-Value	Eta squared
Corrected model	15238.054	6	2539.676	1.702	.140	.170
Intercept	21370.908	1	21370.908	14.323	.000	.223
Preself Efficacy	5045.712	1	5045.712	3.382	.072	.063
Treatment	1216.982	2	608.491	0.408	.667	.016
Sex	8421.263	1	8421.263	5.644	.021	.101
Treatment*Sex	988.484	2	494.242	0.331	.720	.013
Error	74602.507	50	1492.050	---	---	---
Total	428564.000	57	---	---	---	---
Corrected Total	89840.561	56	---	---	---	---

$R$  square = .052 (Adjusted  $R$  square = -.041); \* = Sig at  $p < 0.05$ , NS = Not sig. at  $p < 0.05$

Table 4

*Scheffe Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Self-efficacy in VB.NET programming by Treatment*

(I)Treatment	(J)Treatment	Mean difference (I-J)	Std Error	p-Value
Control	Solo	8.739	16.417	.597
	Pair	-8.678	19.019	.650
Solo	Control	-8.739	16.417	.650
	Pair	-17.417	19.541	.377

The results in Table 3 indicate there is no significant main effect of learning approaches (solo, pair, and conventional) on students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming [ $F(2,50)=0.408, p > 0.05$ ]. Since the  $p$ -value of the  $F$ -ratio was not significant, it follows that hypothesis one on the main effect of learning approaches in students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming was accepted. This simply means that learning approaches generally do not improve the students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming. The partial eta squared estimated was .016. This implies that treatment accounts for 1.6% of the variance observed in post-self-efficacy in VB.NET programming score.

The Scheffe Post Hoc multiple comparisons (Table 4) show the mean differences of students' self-efficacy scores exposed to different treatment conditions. There was no significant mean score between the pairs of the three groups (Control versus Solo, Control versus Pair, and Solo versus Pair).

Table 3 also shows the main effect of gender on students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming is statistically significant. Since the  $p$ -value of the  $F$ -ratio was significant, it follows that hypothesis two on the main effects of gender on students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming was rejected. This simply means gender-impacted students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming. The partial eta squared estimated was 0.101, implying that gender accounts for 10.1% of the variance observed in the postself-efficacy score in VB.NET programming. Also, there was no significant interaction between learning approaches and gender on students' mean self-efficacy score in VB.NET programming.

Table 2 shows the mean postself-efficacy of male and female students. The mean gain of female students is significantly higher than that of their male counterparts.

## **Conclusion**

The results presented in Table 3 show the main effect of learning approaches was not statistically significant. This implies that learning approaches did not affect students' self-efficacy in VB.NET programming. Research reports on the main effects of learning approaches on self-efficacy in programming appears to be scarce. The findings of this study on learning approaches was related to performance since it has been established in literature that self-efficacy correlates positively with performance.

The finding of this study agrees with the findings of another study where there was no significant difference between pair and solo students in performances in quizzes, final examinations, and course grades (Freeman, Jaeger, & Brougham, 2003). However, it contradicts other findings where the researchers found that the performance of paired students was significantly higher than that of the solo students both in the final examinations and course grades (McDowell et al., 2002).

The significant main effect of gender in this study contrasts with that of Askar and Davenport (2009) where males evidenced higher programming self-efficacy in Java programming compared to their female counterparts. A possible explanation for this finding could be peer influence. Table 2 shows that the female participants were in the majority, and a higher percentage of them were in the pair programming group when compared with their male counterparts. Of the 14 male participants, six (representing 42.86%) were in the conventional group, another four (representing 28.56%) were in the solo group. Less than 30% of these male participants were in the pair group. This is unlike the female participants where only 11 (representing 20.37%) of 54 were in the conventional group and 20 (representing 37.04%) were in the pair group.

The treatment groups of the participants (especially the male participants) must have influenced their self-efficacy loss. Invariably, use of wrong methods could indirectly lead to loss of self-efficacy. The findings of this study revealed that the pair programming approach is the most effective approach to learning computer programming when compared to the lecture and solo programming methods. This approach, which is relatively new in Nigerian tertiary institutions, is more effective than the old, conventional method in improving students' self-efficacy in computer programming.

Therefore, it is recommended that this method (pair programming approach) be employed in the teaching and learning of computer programming in Nigeria. This work looks like a giant stride, as it appears to be one of the pioneering researches on programming education in Nigeria, made possible by the grant from Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND). To enhance the use of the pair programming approach in Nigeria's tertiary institutions, provision of enough computers in computer laboratories should be included in the condition for the approval of computer science programs. This will compel tertiary institution administrators to ensure the computer laboratories are adequately equipped, which will make this method easier for lecturers and, consequently, improve both teaching and learning of programming in our tertiary institutions.

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# THE EFFECT OF ANIMAL-ASSISTED THERAPY ON STUDENTS WITH EXCEPTIONALITIES: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

by

VILIYA D. PAMUNGKAS

Wichita State University

## Abstract

The interaction between animals and humans is an interesting study. History has shown that the relationship between humans and animals started in prehistoric times. The human-animal interaction continues to be evidently significant today, as scientists continue to conduct research on the benefits of having pets and using animals in therapeutic settings. As researchers increase their interest in pet therapy, the term has developed into Animal-Assisted Therapy (AAT). With AAT's extensive growth, pilot studies and research have been conducted to learn if AAT positively affects special education. Using the systematical reviews method, this paper thoroughly reviews existing literature (i.e., 12 relevant articles) to describe the effect of AAT on students with exceptionalities. Findings indicate that AAT positively affects students with exceptionalities, including increased quality of life. Limitations and recommendation for future research are discussed.

*Keywords:* animals, autism, dolphin, emotion, equine, exceptionalities intervention, pet, students, therapy

## Introduction

The interaction between animals and humans is an interesting study. History has shown that the relationship between humans and animals began in prehistoric times (Christiansen, 2007; McCardle, McCune, Griffin, Esposito, & Freund, 2011a; McCardle, McCune, Griffin, Maholmes, 2011b). Cave drawings, ancient tomb drawings, hunting companions, and the findings of a human's skeleton with the remains of his pet show the affectionate relationship between man and animal. The human-animal interaction (HAI) continues to be evidently significant until present times. In the United States alone, 68% of households owned a pet in the year 2013-2014 (American Pet Products Association [APPA], 2014). That means there are 82.5 million homes in the United States that have pets, including birds, cats, dogs, horses, freshwater fish, saltwater fish, reptiles, and small animals. This finding indicates that there is a positive correlation between humans and animals.

As people learned the significance of HAI, more scientists began to conduct research on the benefits of having pets and using animals in therapeutic settings. Odendaal (2000) claims that for more than 10,000 years, beneficial and meaningful interaction has developed between humans and family dogs. Studies have found that "pets have a definite, positive effect on human health" (Beck & Katcher, 1996, p. 1). There also are stories of the healing power of pets (Becker, 2002; Crawford & Pomerinke, 2003). Even though the positive interaction between animals and humans started thousands of years ago, it was not until the 1960s that Dr. Levinson (1997) introduced the term "pet therapy" to the world of psychotherapy. Since then, pet therapy research and use has been growing. It is not new to find animals in schools and therapeutic settings (McCardle, McCune, Griffin,

Maholmes, 2011b). In addition, pets and animals have been found beneficial in other settings, such as nursing care for the elderly, hospitals, and prisons (Chandler, 2005).

As researchers increase their interest in pet therapy, the term has broadened into Animal-Assisted Therapy (AAT). The animals used in therapy are not necessarily family pets. The study of AAT has been growing into the use of different kinds of animals, such as therapy dogs, therapy cats, therapy horses, small therapy animals (rabbits, gerbils, hamsters, certain birds, and aquarium fish), therapy farms animals (pot-bellied pigs and pet llama) (Chandler, 2005). With the growing practice of AAT, the term Animal-Assisted Activity (AAA) was introduced. People might consider AAA and AAT interchangeable. However, they have two different meanings. To differentiate between AAA and AAT, Pet Partners (2012a) explained that AAA is “casual meet and greet activities that involve pets visiting people.” Meanwhile, “AAT involves a significant part of treatment for many people who are physically, socially, emotionally or cognitively challenged.”

AAT and AAA are gaining popularity. Recently, both AAT and AAA were being applied in many counseling practices and school settings across the United States (Chandler, 2001). With the extensive growth of AAT, pilot studies and research are being conducted to find if AAT and AAA will positively affect special education. Pitts (2005) claims that dogs, cats, and many other animals “provide positive interaction with many children with special needs” (p. 38). Studies and research are taking place to reveal more of the efficacy of AAT in special education. AAT can be one intervention to use in helping students with exceptionalities achieve academic success and improve quality of life. AAT has a “growing body of research and a future filled with promise” (Hooker, Freeman, & Stewart, 2002)

Although AAT has gained popularity, it is considered new in the world of special education. There is a huge amount of literature proving the efficacy of AAT in the mental health profession compared to the literature in special education. The use of AAT has proven effective in helping children with special needs in residential settings (Pitts, 2005). Nonetheless, there is emerging research that questions the efficacy of AAT in school settings and in academic support for students with exceptionalities. The increasing use of AAT in special education is promising, but it is largely unproven (McCardle, McCune, Griffin, Esposito et al., 2011a).

Evidence-based practices (EBPs) are important in special education. EBPs are practices that are proven effective, through research, “to meaningfully improve the performance of students with exceptionalities” (Torres, Farley, & Cook, 2012). The importance of the EBPs in special education was motivation to look in depth into research literature of the efficacy of AAT in special education. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to do a systematic review in finding AAT’s effect on students with exceptionalities. The findings of the study hopefully will help special education educators to make data-based decisions when using AAT in their classrooms.

Studies have proven the efficacy of AAT in the mental health profession. The use of AAT has expanded into the residential settings of students with special needs. There is emerging research on the use of AAT in school settings to help students with exceptionalities. Thus, there is a need to question to what extent AAT is effective for students with exceptionalities.

## **History of AAT**

The history of AAT in the United States began in 1919 (Hooker et al., 2002). In that year, Franklin K. Lane, secretary of the interior, promoted the idea of including dogs in the treatment of psychiatric patients at St. Elizabeth’s Hospital in Washington, D.C. Between 1944 and 1945, the Army Air Force Convalescent Hospital

in Pawling, New York used animals in rehabilitation programs for soldiers who had injuries or psychological trauma (Altschiller, 2011; Beck & Katcher, 1996; Hooker et al., 2002). Sponsored by the American Red Cross, the rehabilitation programs used dogs, horses, and farm animals to help patients in rural areas. Again, there were no scientific data reported from this practice.

It was in 1961 when Dr. Boris Levinson, a child psychologist, formally introduced pet therapy in a scientific report (Altschiller, 2011; Beck & Katcher, 1996; Chandler, 2005; Hooker et al., 2002). Dr. Levinson accidentally found that his pet dog, Jingles, helped a patient during a therapy session. He documented his observation afterward and presented his findings in a conference. He claimed his dog as his co-therapist. His findings show that pets can function as transitional objects for the patient to bond with. In spite of pessimistic responses from his colleagues in the conference, Dr. Levinson continued his pet therapy research. His findings indicated positive results with using pets as co-therapists in child psychotherapy practices.

In the 1970s, a couple of psychologists, Samuel and Elizabeth Corson continued Dr. Levinson's the work in using AAT (Altschiller, 2011; Beck & Katcher, 1996; Hooker et al., 2002). The Corsons implemented AAT in a psychiatric institution run by Ohio State University, and expanded the target population to adolescents and adults. The Corsons were pioneers in doing quantitative research on AAT. Their successful results led others to do more research on AAT.

Later, in 1977, Michael McCulloch established the Delta Foundation in Portland, Oregon to study more on the human-animal bond (Altschiller, 2011; Pet Partners, 2012b). The foundation, later known as Delta Society, is the pioneer group that sponsors scientific research in physiological, psychological, and social effects of animals on human beings. Delta Society changed its name to Pet Partners in 2012. Pet Partners continues to work on increasing human health through positive interactions with therapy, services, and companion animals.

The history of AAT does not stop with the work of Pet Partners. There is growing research on AAT since the work of Dr. Levinson in the 1960s. This paper joins in the growth of the research on AAT. This shows the potential of finding more of the benefits of AAT and the issues that emerge within the field.

### **Populations Affected by AAT**

Throughout the years, AAT practices have affected demographics across age and gender in various settings. Beginning with Dr. Levinson's work, AAT has affected the field of child psychotherapy. Continued ATT research has proven that it positively affects young adults and the elderly. There are various AAT programs for children and the elderly (Altschiller, 2011). In addition, there is an emerging AAT program that uses wolves to help young adults overcome substance abuse (Promises Treatment Centers, 2014)

The areas of critical and acute care, rehabilitation, hospice, long-term care, children's advocacy centers, psychotherapy, social work, and prisons utilize ATT (Connor & Miller, 2000). Parshall (2003) presented various ATT research that targets different settings, including inpatients in hospitals. O'Callaghan and Chandler (2011) explored the effect of AAT utilized in the mental health profession. In the book *The Healing Power of Pets*, Becker (2002) described how pets and AAT affect many people from children in their childhood to cancer patients. Altschiller (2011) mentioned some programs using AAT that affect inmates in prisons.

Besides affecting the clients, AAT also affects the staff and the working environment that conducts this therapy (Pichot, 2012). AAT positively impacts the animals' handlers and the agency's staff. Therapy animals,

dogs in particular, touch the heart of the people who work with them. A therapy animal's presence evokes curiosity, compassion, forgiveness, and a desire to reach out to others.

### **Animals in AAT**

There are different types of animals involved in AAT and AAA. Dogs and cats are two common types. The history of AAT shows that small animals (e.g., birds and gerbils) and farm animals (e.g., chickens) have contributed to AAT's positive results. Horses are another type of animal included in therapeutic settings. The multidimensional treatment that uses horses is called hippotherapy (Altschiller, 2011). An emerging research involves using dolphins in neurological disorders therapy. Altschiller (2011) further discussed the use of llamas to help troubled youth and the elderly. Another emerging AAT practice involves using wolves in a residential setting for young adult with substance addiction (Promises Treatment Centers, 2014).

### **Benefits of AAT**

Research indicated that interaction between animals and humans can be beneficial for human health (McCardle, McCune, Griffin, Esposito et al., 2011a). One significant research finding shows that the presence of therapy animals lowers blood pressure (Connor & Miller, 2000; McCardle, McCune, Griffin, Esposito et al., 2011a). In addition, AAT studies indicate that contact with animals results in a relaxed body, lower heart rate, and steady breathing (Becker, 2002). AAT provides both physical benefits and mental health and social benefits. An exploratory study by O'Callaghan and AAT that include decreasing depression and anxiety, "increasing positive social behaviors and decreasing behavior problems," enhancing self-esteem, and enhancing psychological health and basic eight-week obedience course. Infection and disease control is another significant issue in conducting AAT. Many birds carry bacteria, so they are not allowed in the acute care facility. To prevent infection for hospital patients, therapy animals must be trained not to lick or scratch during visits.

### **Methodology**

This study uses a systematic review to collect data. According to Fiegen (2010), "systematic review offers a model for summarizing and critiquing the literature to improve future practice and possibly encourage higher levels of research methods" (p. 386). There are four steps to summarize the literature in systematic review:

1. Define the search terms.
2. Identify the databases and search engines, as well as journals which may need to be hand searched, and query with the chosen search terms.
3. Decide on, and apply, filters for inclusion and exclusion.-
4. Ensure that the resulting articles are representative, by repeating the filtering process. (Adolphus, 2014)

For the purpose of this study, defined search terms include animal-assisted therapy, pet therapy, pet, dolphin-assisted therapy, equine-assisted therapy, and students with disabilities. The author used the electronic databases in the Wichita State University (WSU) library web page to find articles. From various electronic databases in the education field, ERIC (EBSCO), ERIC (ProQuest), ERIC, and Education Full Text proved helpful. The author used a specific period of time (2004 – 2014) in her literature search. The author ensured that the articles were representative for this study by filtering the literature as shown on the chart in Figure 1.

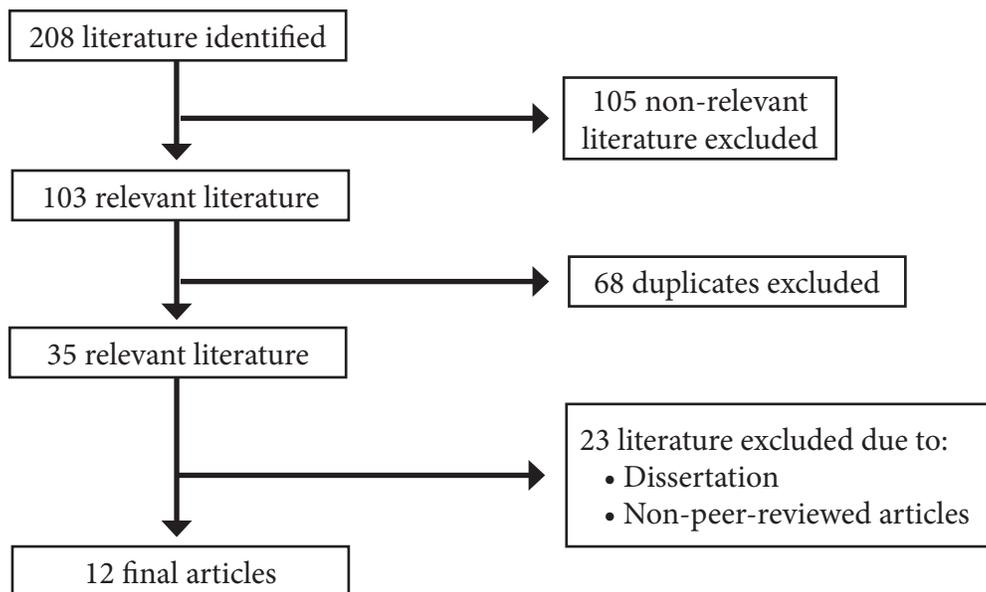


Figure 1. Chart showing the process of filtering the literature in the study.

## Results

There are limited articles that present evidence-based studies about AAT/pet therapy and students with disabilities, especially in school settings. From a total of 208 pieces of literature found in four electronic databases, 103 articles are relevant to the topic of AAT and students with disabilities. Inevitably, there is duplication of literature in the search results. Thus, the author excluded 68 duplicate articles. After eliminating the duplicate articles, there were 35 actual pieces of literature relevant to the study. The next step of filtering the articles resulted in 12 final articles. The 12 articles indicate three major topics: dog-assisted therapy, equine-assisted therapy, and dolphin-assisted therapy (see Table 1).

### Dog-Assisted Therapy

Four final articles present studies using therapy dogs (see Table 1). The studies involved participants with different categories of disabilities that include ASD, EBD, ID, and hearing impairment. Three studies used a small size sample, and one used a bigger size sample. The three studies with small size samples used single case experimental design. The study with a big sample size used a mixed method. All four studies present positive results in dog-assisted therapy (see Table 1).

The most recent study by Funahashi, Gruebler, Aoki, Kadone, and Suzuki (2014) took place in Japan and used a quantitative, single case design involving one student with ASD and one typical functional student as a control. Using a wearable device to detect smiles on the participant's face and Dartfish Software, the study analyzed behaviors when the participant was interacting with dogs. The student with ASD exhibited improved quality of eye contact along with enhanced social meaning, decreased negative social behavior, such as escaping, and less anxiety. In addition, researcher found that the dog served as a modulator of the social and affective interactions between the student and his mother and with his therapist.

Table 1  
*Results of 12 Final Articles*

<b>First Author (year)</b>	<b>Animal</b>	<b>Disability/At Risk Category</b>	<b>Results</b>
Funahashi (2014)	Dog	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improved quality and social meaning of eye contact</li> <li>• Decreased negative social behavior, such as escaping</li> <li>• Less anxious</li> <li>• Dog served as a modulator of the social and affective interactions between the students with ASD and his mother/the therapist</li> </ul>
Bassette 2013	Dog	EBD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased on-task behaviors during intervention and maintained improvements over time</li> <li>• Improved task engagement during intervention</li> </ul>
Shaw 2013	Dog	Not specified; however, some participants have IEPs.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Significant growth of the total reading scores</li> <li>• Growing reading skills</li> <li>• Gained confidence in reading, motivation and interest to read, and comfort</li> </ul>
Esteves 2008	Dog	Multiple disabilities (Intellectual Disability and Down's Syndrome, Intellectual Disability and hearing impairment)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase in positive initiations (verbal and non-verbal) toward the teacher and dog</li> <li>• Decrease in negative initiated interactions with teacher and dog</li> <li>• Generalized improvements in interactions with the teacher in students' classroom following sessions with the dog</li> </ul>
Dilts (2011)	Dolphin	Cerebral palsy, developmental delay, development disorder, develop-mental deficits, West syndrome, Intellectual Disability, autism, hemiparesis, encephalitis, de Morsier syndrome, Down Syndrome, epilepsy, Rett syndrome, microcephaly, Lesch-Nyhan syndrome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• More relaxed and more socially and verbally expressive</li> </ul>

<b>First Author (year)</b>	<b>Animal</b>	<b>Disability/At Risk Category</b>	<b>Results</b>
Esteves 2008	Dog	Multiple disabilities (Intellectual Disability and Down's Syndrome, Intellectual Disability and hearing impairment)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase in positive initiations (verbal and non-verbal) toward the teacher and dog</li> <li>• Decrease in negative initiated interactions with teacher and dog</li> <li>• Generalized improvements in interactions with the teacher in students' classroom following sessions with the dog</li> </ul>
Yusof (2012)	Dolphin	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Significant reduction in stereotyped behaviors</li> <li>• Significant improvements in communication and social interaction</li> </ul>
Lanning (2011)	Horse	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improvement in quality of life domains</li> <li>• Improvement in social functioning, physical functioning, and overall mental health and behavior</li> <li>• Less difficulties in doing chores and running</li> <li>• Participating more in sports, paying more attention in class, keeping up with homework and better school attendance</li> </ul>

<b>First Author (year)</b>	<b>Animal</b>	<b>Disability/At Risk Category</b>	<b>Results</b>
Ward (2013)	Horse	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decreased in autistic symptoms</li> <li>• Improved social communication, attention, tolerance, and reactions to sensory input in the classroom</li> </ul>
Holmes (2011)	Horse	EBD, LD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No significant difference in self-esteem scores</li> <li>• Decreased anxiety and avoidance behaviors</li> <li>• Increased approach behaviors</li> </ul>
Kern (2012)	Horse	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduced severity of autism symptoms</li> <li>• Increased quality of life</li> </ul>
Bass (2009)	Horse	ASD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improved sensory integration, directed attention, social motivation</li> <li>• Ability to break away from routine</li> <li>• Decreased inattention and distractibility</li> </ul>

First Author (year)	Animal	Disability/At Risk Category	Results
Ewing	Horse	EBD, LD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Quantitative data showed no significant difference in all aspects of measures (self-esteem, empathy, control, and loneliness)</li> <li>• Qualitative data showed positive changes in conduct and social acceptance</li> </ul>

Three elementary students with EBD participated in a multiple probe, single case design research by Bassette and Taber-Doughty (2013). Dogs came in to reading intervention sessions to see if there was a significant change in the participants' behaviors. Results of this study indicate that all three students increased their on-task behaviors during intervention and maintained improvements over time. The research shows that the participants improved their task engagement during intervention. In addition, two of the participants developed bonds with the therapy dogs.

With an emphasis on Reading Education Assistance Dogs (R.E.A.D.), Shaw (2013) conducted a study with 197 students in a public school in which 74 of the students received special education services. The researcher did not specify the categories of the disabilities of the participants. Using a mixed method, Shaw analyzed the participants' reading scores and distributed a questionnaire to all participating classroom teachers, parents, and students. Study results showed significant growth in the total reading scores for regular and special education students. All participants grew in their reading skills. Questionnaire results indicated that students who participated in this research gained confidence in reading, motivation and interest to read, better reading skills, and comfort.

Esteves and Stokes (2008) conducted a study involving three students with multiple disabilities to demonstrate if a dog's presence would affect their social behaviors at school. This study observed the participants' social behaviors, which were categorized as positive/negative, verbal/non-verbal, and initiations/responses. Study results indicated that there was an increase in positive initiations (verbal and non-verbal) toward the teacher and the dog. Further results showed that there was a decrease in negative initiated interactions with the teacher and the dog. In addition, the qualitative evaluation of this study revealed generalized improvements in interactions with the teacher in the children's classroom following sessions with the dog.

### **Dolphin-Assisted Therapy**

According to Yusof and Chia (2013), there are various forms of Dolphin-Assisted Therapy (DAT). DAT includes "swimming with, touching or taking care of dolphins, and a structured program to meet the needs of the individual concerned." DAT is a new field. Studies about DAT started in the 1980s (Dilts, Trompisch, & Bergquist, 2011). There are limited publications on DAT. In this study, there are two peer-reviewed articles that demonstrate the benefits of DAT for students with exceptionalities. Both studies used quasi-experimental design and were conducted outside the United States.

Dilts et al. (2011) used a convenience sample in their research. Participants included 40 parents who enrolled their children in a two-week Dolphin Swim program in Ukraine. The children who joined this program comprised 19 females and 18 males with differing disabilities (see Table 1). Dilts et al. utilized the Behavior Dimensions Rating Scale (BDRS) Parent Report Form to conduct this research. Study results indicated that

parents reported a positive change during the DAT program. Children who joined the DAT program were reported to be more relaxed and more socially and verbally expressive.

In Singapore, Yusof and Chia (2012) conducted similar research. However, Yusof and Chia's study was more specific to highly functioning students with ASD. Participants included 10 males and five females between the ages of nine and 10. Participants joined a 12-month Dolphin Encounter for Special Children (DESC) program conducted by Underwater World Singapore. Yusof and Chia (2013) analyzed pre- and post-treatment data taken using a Test of Non-verbal Intelligence-3rd Edition (TONI-3) and Gilliam Autism Rating Scale (GARS). TONI-3 collected data on participants with Autism, and GARS measured the participants' performance, including stereotyped behaviors, communication, and social interaction. The GARS results showed that participants' stereotyped behaviors scores dropped, and the communication scores rose after treatment. Furthermore, the social interactions scores showed improvement in the participants' social interactions. Further research results show that after a 12-month DAT, participants exhibited a significant reduction in stereotyped behaviors and significant improvements in communication and social interactions.

### **Equine-Assisted Therapy**

Compared to Dog-Assisted Therapy and Dolphin-Assisted Therapy, there are more articles found on Equine-Assisted Therapy (EAT). Six articles present studies on the effectiveness of EAT on students with disabilities. Four studies involved students with ASD, and two studies involved students with EBD and/or LD.

Ewing, MacDonald, Taylor, and Bowers (2007) conducted a mixed method research to evaluate the effects of an alternative therapeutic learning method using horses. The study comprised 28 youths with EBD between the ages of 10 and 13. Participants had moderate to severe behavioral disorders and/or LD. The research took place in Kansas in an equine-facilitated learning program called Horse Power. Horse Power was incorporated into the classroom as an academic subject. All subjects (including reading, math, and social studies) had an equine theme. Ewing et al. predicted that the EAT would increase participants' self-esteem, feelings of interpersonal empathy, and internal locus of control. In addition, the researchers expected that EAT would decrease the participants' feelings of loneliness. Surprisingly, research results did not corroborate Ewing et al.'s expectations. Quantitative data showed no significant difference in participant self-esteem, empathy, control, or loneliness. However, the qualitative data indicate that positive changes occurred in the students after participating in the program. The qualitative data were derived from case studies compiled from interviews and observations and implied positive changes in participant conduct and social acceptance.

Similar to Ewing et al. (2007), Holmes, Goodwin, Redhead, and Goymour (2012) explored the study of EAT benefits on students with EBD. Their results also concluded no significant difference in self-esteem scores. However, Holmes et al. (2012) found that EAT is beneficial for students with EBD in decreasing trait anxiety and approach behaviors toward the horses. Holmes et al.'s study involved 11 students, 10 males and one female, between the ages of 12 and 14, with EBD or LD.

In an attempt to evaluate the effects of therapeutic horseback riding on social functioning in children with ASD, Bass, Duchowny, and Llabre (2009) conducted a quantitative study using the Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS) and Sensory Profile (SP). Participants included 34 children with ASD divided into two groups: an experimental group (two girls and 17 boys ages 5 to 10 years) and a wait-list control group (three girls, 12 boys ages 4 to 10 years). Researches results demonstrated that EAT positively affected the participants with ASD.

Sensory integration and directed attention improved. Inattention and distractibility decreased. The participants improved in social motivation and sensory sensitivity. Treatment also allowed participants to break away from their routines, which is not usually seen in students with ASD.

Kern et al. (2011) conducted a quantitative study with multiple measures to examine the effects of EAT on the overall severity of autism symptoms of its participants. The study utilized both clinician- and parent-rated measures. The clinician-rated measures included Childhood Autism Rating Scale (CARS) and the Timberlawn Parent-Child Interaction Scale. The parent-rated measures included Sensory Profile, a quality of life enjoyment and satisfaction questionnaire, and a treatment satisfaction survey. Study results showed a decrease in CARS scores and no significant changes in Timberlawn Parent-Child Interaction Scale scores. Furthermore, the study showed no significant changes in Sensory Profile. Researchers concluded that EAT reduces the severity of autism symptoms and increases quality of life for children with ASD.

In a more recent study, Ward, Whalon, Rusnak, Wendell, and Paschall (2013) explored the association between therapeutic horseback riding (TR) and the social communication and sensory processing skills of students with ASD. This study comprised 21 children, 15 males, 6 females (Kindergarten through fifth grade). Ward et al. utilized the Gilliam Autism Rating Scale-2 (GARS-2) and the sensory profile school companion (SPSC) to measure autistic characteristics and sensory responses. The GARS-2 result demonstrated a significant change in the overall autism index. The participant's ability to relate appropriately to people, events, and objects changed from *Very Likely Autistic* to *Possibly Autistic*. In addition, this research claims that after 10 weeks of TR, participants improved in social communication, attention, tolerance, and reactions to sensory input in the classroom.

Lanning, Baier, Ivey-Hatz, Krennek, and Tubbs (2014) conducted the most recent study using quality of life assessments to determine the behavioral changes of children with ASD after joining Equine-Assisted Activities (EAA). Participants in this study comprised 25 children with ASD (13 in the treatment group and 12 in the social circle control group). Lanning et al. (2014) found that participants in EAA improved in quality of life domains. The participants improved in social, physical, and school functioning, as well as in overall mental health and behavior. Parents of the participants described their children as having less difficulty in doing chores and running, participating more in sports, paying more attention in class, keeping up with homework, and having better school attendance. Furthermore, this research noted that even though positive changes were reported in both the treatment and control groups, participants in the treatment group (EAA) had greater improvement in general behavior compared to the participants in the social control group.

## **Discussion**

This study seeks to explore the effects of AAT on students with exceptionalities. This study resulted in 14 final articles with three big topics including dog-assisted therapy, dolphin-assisted therapy, and equine-assisted therapy. The final articles present studies on the effect of AAT to students across categories of disabilities. However, none of the studies involved students with vision impairment (e.g., blindness and deaf-blindness). This is probably because students with vision impairments, including blindness, usually use animals (dogs) as service animals. As explained in the definition of key terms section, service animals are different from therapy animals. Therapy animals are not limited to meet the needs of people with disabilities.

Findings indicate that AAT has a positive impact on students with exceptionalities in three aspects: emotional, social behavior, and academic. In the emotional aspect, AAT using dogs and dolphins helps students

with exceptionalities to feel less anxious and more relaxed (Dilts et al., 2011; Funahashi et al., 2014; Holmes et al., 2012). However, AAT using horses does not indicate effectiveness in supporting the students' emotional aspect, particularly in the area of self-esteem (Ewing et al., 2007; Kern et al., 2011). Findings demonstrate that equine-assisted therapy does not increase self-esteem in students with EBD.

AAT has a large influence on students with exceptionalities in the area of social behavior. Findings suggest that AAT helps students with exceptionalities improve their social communication, tolerance, and positive initiation when interacting with others. AAT also helps students with exceptionalities decrease negative social behaviors. In addition, AAT improves students' social interactions with family members and teachers at school. These positive effects in social behaviors might help students with exceptionalities improve their quality of life when transitioning into adulthood and community.

AAT is academically beneficial for students with disabilities. Findings indicate that AAT helps students with exceptionalities to be more attentive and increase on-task behaviors. Attentiveness and on-task behaviors will help students to finish their school work and gain academic success. AAT findings, particularly using dogs for reading assistance, had a significantly positive effect on the students. The Reading Education Assistance Dogs (R.E.A.D.) program (Intermountain Therapy Animals, 2014) helped students improve their reading skills and scores. The R.E.A.D program helps students gain confidence in reading, in addition to motivating their interest to read. This finding indicates that students with exceptionalities can achieve academic success, since reading is important to academic achievement.

In addition to showing positive effects on emotional, social, and academic success, AAT improves the quality of life for students with exceptionalities, particularly with ASD. Findings demonstrate that AAT helps students with ASD reduce the severity of their symptoms. AAT with horses even gives students with ASD the ability to break away from routine, which is not commonly seen with autism. AAT might be a breakthrough in improving quality of life for students with ASD.

## **Limitations**

There are some limitations to consider in this study. Bias most likely occurs in the selected literature. Electronic databases were the only source of information used, and the choice of databases might not be vast enough to find qualified articles for this study. Relevant articles might be excluded due to inability to access the full text articles. Some studies included in this paper occurred outside the United States. Therefore, there is a possibility that the findings of those studies could not be generalized to students in the United States because of language and cultural differences. Furthermore, study findings exclude some categories of disabilities. Thus, the result of this study might not be generalized for all categories of disabilities. In addition, the findings do not include the physical aspect of the benefit of AAT.

## **Recommendations for Future Research**

This study is preliminary support for the overall efficacy of AAT/AAI for students with exceptionalities. Future research needs to be more rigorous and more specific to validate a specific AAT/AAI program for a specific category of disability. Future research also needs to include more studies that are qualified and relevant to validate the efficacy of AAT/AAI for students with exceptionalities. Research on physical benefits of AAT for students with exceptionalities also will be needed to extend the efficacy of AAT for students with exceptionalities.

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## Appendix

*Table of Resources*

<b>Program Name</b>	<b>Organization</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Website</b>
Therapy Animal Program	Pet Partners	Washington, USA	<a href="http://www.petpartners.org/PPTherapyAnimalProgram">http://www.petpartners.org/PPTherapyAnimalProgram</a>
Humans and Animals Learning Together	The University of Tennessee	Tennessee, USA	<a href="http://www.vet.utk.edu/halt/about.shtml">http://www.vet.utk.edu/halt/about.shtml</a>
Sit Stay Read	Chicago Public Library	Chicago, IL, USA	<a href="http://sitstayread.org/">http://sitstayread.org/</a>
Read2Dogs	Pets as Therapy	Buckinghamshire, UK	<a href="http://www.petsastherapy.org/">http://www.petsastherapy.org/</a>
Tail Waggin' Tutors	Therapy Dogs International	Flanders, NJ, USA	<a href="http://www.tdi-dog.org/">http://www.tdi-dog.org/</a>
Reading Education Assistance Dog (R.E.A.D.)	Intermountain Therapy Animals	Utah, USA	<a href="http://www.therapyanimals.org/R.E.A.D.html">http://www.therapyanimals.org/R.E.A.D.html</a>
Animal Assisted Therapy Programs of Colorado	Center for Animal Assisted Therapy	Colorado, USA	<a href="http://www.animalassistedtherapyprograms.org/">http://www.animalassistedtherapyprograms.org/</a>
Wolf Therapy	Promises Treatment Centers	LA, California, USA	<a href="http://www.promises.com/treatment-programs/young-adult-rehab/wolf-therapy/">http://www.promises.com/treatment-programs/young-adult-rehab/wolf-therapy/</a>
Various Dolphin-Assisted Therapy Programs and Camps	Island Dolphin Care	Key Largo, FL, USA	<a href="http://www.islanddolphinscare.org/">http://www.islanddolphinscare.org/</a>
Dolphin Therapy Programs	Water Planet	Panama City Beach, FL, USA	<a href="http://www.waterplanetusa.com/programs/">http://www.waterplanetusa.com/programs/</a>
Supportive Experience	Dolphin Reef Eilat	Red Sea, Israel	<a href="http://www.dolphinreef.co.il/en-us/experience.aspx">http://www.dolphinreef.co.il/en-us/experience.aspx</a>
Dolphin Assisted Program	Curacao Dolphin Therapy & Research Center	Curacao, Southern Caribbean	<a href="http://www.curacaodolphintherapy.com/en/the-program/the-program">http://www.curacaodolphintherapy.com/en/the-program/the-program</a>
Therapeutic Riding	Flint Hills Therapeutic Riding Center	Flint Hills, KS, USA	<a href="http://www.fhtrc.org/">http://www.fhtrc.org/</a>
Equine Assisted Psychotherapy and Equine Assisted Learning	Equine Assisted Growth and Learning Association (EAGALA)	Various places in the world. The main office is in Utah, USA	<a href="http://www.eagala.org/">http://www.eagala.org/</a>
Equine-Assisted activities and therapy	Professional Association of Therapeutic Horsemanship International (PATH Intl.	Various center. Main office is in Colorado, USA.	<a href="http://www.pathintl.org/">http://www.pathintl.org/</a>

Equine-Assisted Activities	Equine-Assisted Therapy	MO, USA	<a href="http://eatherapy.org/">http://eatherapy.org/</a>
Prairie Meadows Therapeutic Riding	Prairie Meadows Therapeutic Riding Center	Louisburg, KS, USA	<a href="http://www.prairiemeadowstherapy.org/Home_Page.htm">http://www.prairiemeadowstherapy.org/Home_Page.htm</a>

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# EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EQ) AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

by

**RANA RADDAWI**

Department of English  
American University of Sharjah  
rraddawi@aus.edu  
06 5152753  
University of Riverside

## **Abstract**

Emotional intelligence (EI or EQ) skills build transformational leaders who have vision, coaching, affiliation, and democratic qualities that are needed in the workplace. Many workers enter the workforce without the necessary emotional competencies and social skills that will enable them to cope with the demands, challenges, and sources of stress and adversity on the job. This paper will show how training programs should be established by businesses for all their employees regardless of their job titles.

*Keywords:* EI training, emotional intelligence, leaders, transformational leaders

## **Introduction**

This paper is an attempt to show that emotional intelligence (EI or EQ) skills are urgently needed in the workplace to instill transformational leadership in leaders. Whereas emotions were traditionally ignored when making organizational decisions, recent research underscores the importance of cultivating emotions in the workplace, in concert with cognitive abilities and expertise in the decision making process (Bradberry & Greaves, 2010; Emmerling & Cherniss, 1998; Goleman, 1998; Lewkowicz, 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1997a, 1997b). Given the power of emotions as a source of human energy causing physiological, cognitive, and behavioral changes in our bodies and minds, the same emotions should be regulated and controlled to act in our favor and not against us. This process of knowing and managing our emotions can be done through Emotional Intelligence or, as referred to in literature, EI or EQ.

Brian McMullen (1997) and Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as,

- Self-awareness: knowing your emotions
- Self-control: managing and controlling your emotions
- Social awareness: empathy-recognizing emotions in others
- Relationship management: social skills--handling relationships—interpersonal effectiveness

A person who possesses intrapersonal and interpersonal skills can be described as emotionally intelligent (Bradberry & Greaves, 2005). Intrapersonal skills comprise self-awareness and self-control, whereas interpersonal skills comprise of social awareness and relationship management. Bradberry and Greaves (2005)

conducted a remarkable quantitative research study surveying 500,000 people at the workplace to see if they could identify their feelings.

The results revealed that only 36% could identify their feelings. In other words, one third of the participants had a high level of EQ, while two thirds had low EQ. Women scored higher by 10 points, except for self-awareness. Fifteen percent of workers felt respected and valued by their employer. Four out of five would leave their current jobs if offered similar pay and position somewhere else. Ninety percent of top performers were emotionally intelligent.

According to the chain of command of surveyed businesses, managers placed in the middle of the chain scored the highest level of EQ, followed by supervisors, directors and individual contributors. Surprisingly, chief executive officers (CEOs) scored the lowest. This means that senior leadership in organizations revealed an incredible EQ deficit. Hence, one can infer the relation between EQ skills and job titles. Managers scored the highest because they communicate the most with stakeholders, while CEOs communicate the least, most likely only with top executives. Therefore, effective leaders should be aware of these empirical studies and strive to attain EQ skills.

As most adults today spend more of their waking hours at work than any other place, it is one of the best settings for reaching adults and fostering their social and emotional competencies. In today's competitive business world, organizations are likely to seek "ways to increase performance and productivity--the key outcomes of human resource development practices" (Muyia & Kacirek, 2009).

Socio-emotional competencies demanded in the modern workforce include,

- Passion for working toward goals
- Effective communication
- Negotiation
- Leadership skills

EI, or EQ, is malleable and can be trained. There is a growing impetus toward the provision of personal and workplace interventions that purport to increase EI or strengthen emotional competencies at work (Zeidner, 2005). In the U.S., organizations spend billions each year on training "soft skills" related to social and emotional competences (Cherniss, 2000). It has been claimed "that about two-thirds of the competencies linked to superior performance are emotional or social qualities such as self-confidence . . . empathy, and the ability to get along with others" (Boyatzis, 1982).

Many workers enter the workforce without the necessary emotional competencies and social skills that will enable them to cope with the demands, challenges, and sources of stress and adversity on the job. Therefore, systematic efforts to improve EI competencies at the workplace are essential. Leadership frequently is viewed as an emotion-laden process, both by leader and follower. Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003), in their study to find the relationship among EI, personality and effective leadership, revealed that EI, specifically the capacity to understand the emotions of others, was able to predict effective leadership over and above facets of personality. According to Chapman (2003), EQ is important in the work environment because the higher a person's EQ, the less insecurity is likely to be present and more openness will be tolerated. When a person is open to change and accepts new ideas, there is a scope for progress. People with low EQ have emotional "baggage" and unresolved issues. Cherniss (2000) outlined four reasons for EQ usefulness at the workplace:

1. Emotional intelligence competencies are critical for success in most jobs

2. Many adults enter the workforce without the competencies necessary to succeed or excel at their jobs
3. Employers already have the established motivation for providing emotional intelligence training
4. Most adults spend the majority of their waking hours at work

For these reasons, the relationship between EI and aspects of employee behavior like leadership, managerial effectiveness, teamwork, organizational citizenship, and decision-making have been of particular interest to many researchers. When EI skills are intelligently utilized in management, leadership becomes transformational.

A leader's fundamental task is to promote good feelings in followers. Transformational leadership is characterized by charisma and the ability to articulate a vision for the future. The leader transmits a sense of mission that is effectively articulated, instilling pride, faith, and respect in followers. Emotional intelligence has been claimed to be a fundamental element of charisma, vision, and careful attention to the personal needs and qualities of the individual follower. Some studies have established a relationship between EI and key facets of transformational leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Bass, 2002; Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005).

According to FORBES (2013), the top 10 qualities of a leader are,

1. a positive attitude;
2. creativity;
3. honesty;
4. the ability to delegate;
5. communication;
6. sense of humor;
7. confidence;
8. commitment;
9. intuition; and
10. an ability to inspire.

Jordan and Troth (2002) argued that individuals with high EI are more likely to generate high affective commitment, even during times of stress and instability. However, the validity of these claims remains to be established. Empirical studies provide evidence supporting the link between EI and effective outcomes that might be considered "positive organizational citizenship." These include job dedication, customer orientation, interpersonal sensitivity, pro-social tendencies, altruistic behavior, effective tone in negotiation, and willingness to change.

## **Conclusion**

EI training programs should be established by businesses for all their employees regardless of their job titles. In addition, extensive workshops and seminars should be organized to spread awareness about the indispensable character of EQ skills and to form a generation that thinks on its own, is able to identify its potential, and act on it. EQ skills build transformational leaders who have vision, coaching, affiliation, and democratic qualities with the very best climate and business performance.

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# TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF BARRIERS TO LEARNING AS IT AFFECTS CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT IN OKENE, KOGI STATE, NIGERIA

by

SOWHO, PAULINA OBIOMA (LEAD PRESENTER)  
USMAN, FATIMA O.

Department of Educational Psychology and Foundation  
Federal College of Education, Okene, Kogi State, Nigeria.

## Abstract

Classroom management is considered most important in bringing about better learning. The way teachers organize their classes to maximize students' learning achievement is of concern to all teachers. However, ensuring that learning takes place in the classroom is one of the challenges faced by teachers globally. This paper seeks to investigate teachers' perceptions of barriers to learning as they affect classroom management in Okene, Kogi State, Nigeria. A descriptive research design was adopted for the study, and 300 randomly selected teachers served as participants. A questionnaire, *Barriers to Learning* (BTLQ), was used to gather information. Rank order and t-test statistic analyzed the collected data. Results reveal that 15 factors cause barriers to learning, and these create classroom management problems for teachers. On the basis of sex, respondents did not differ in their perception of barriers to learning. Among others, this paper recommends that teachers collaborate with other school personnel and other stakeholders, such as counselors, medical personnel, and parents, to help tackle problems when the need arises.

*Keywords:* classroom, education, management

## Introduction

Education is seen as the process through which knowledge, skills, and attitudes are transmitted from one generation to another with the aim of integrating individuals into society for the purpose of achieving ambitions, develop national consciousness, promote unity and strive for social, economic, political, scientific, cultural and technological process (Akande, 2006). Education in Nigeria is given much prominence, and teacher education--a process in which an individual learns to teach--receives a lot of attention. Training institutions used to be known as colleges of education. There are about 76 federal and state colleges of education in Nigeria. Teacher training is done in almost 80% of the more than 80 federal, state, and private universities where faculties of education are among the many faculties and departments in various specialized disciplines.

Trained teachers are saddled with the job of impacting knowledge. They are expected to transmit knowledge, values, and skills to students in an effort to move society forward. Akande (2006) aptly described the teacher as being in the center of the educational system. After graduation, more than 3,000 Nigerian teachers are posted in schools to teach.

A typical Nigerian public school is big and has many students. Class sizes range between 60-150 students from different cultures and behaviors. Thus, overcrowded classes are common sights, and the problems can better be imagined.

Management skills are central to effective teaching. A disorderly class is a teacher's worst nightmare. As research has pointed out, when a teacher loses control of the classroom, it becomes very frustrating and difficult to regain control (Moskowitz & Hayman, 1976; Orji, 2012; Owobi & Aliu, 2012). Equally, research has shown that when teachers dwell more on trying to solve problems or correcting maladjusted behavior, the time for and rate of academic exercise in class becomes slow and impacts the quality of teaching (Marzano, 2003, Moskowitz & Hayman, 1976; Vitto, 2003). This may have been what Rose and Gallup (2006) and Marzano et al. (2003) meant when they asserted that a disciplined classroom is a priority for teachers, and that the success of the teaching and learning activities depends on it.

There seems to be no agreed upon definition of classroom management, as it is viewed differently. Classroom management has been described as the process of ensuring that classroom lessons and activities run smoothly despite disruptive behavior by students or any other learning obstacles (Martin & Sugarman, 1993).

Classroom management also implies the many processes in class and how they interact together with students in the teaching and learning process. Vitto (2003) said the process consists of some important tasks that teachers must do to develop a conducive learning environment. These tasks include:

- (i) organizing the physical environment;
- (ii) establishing rules and routines;
- (iii) developing caring relationships;
- (iv) implementing engaging instructions; and
- (v) preventing and responding to discipline problems.

Evertson and Weinstein (2006) look at classroom management in terms of purpose. The teacher's major purpose in class is to establish and sustain an orderly environment so that students can engage in meaningful academic learning and to enhance students' social and moral growth. They further characterized classroom management as the actions taken to create a conducive environment that supports and facilitates academic and social-emotional learning. To achieve this, the teacher is expected to:

- (i) develop a clear and supportive relationship with students and among themselves;
- (ii) organize and implement instruction in ways that maximize student access to learning;
- (iii) use group management methods that encourage students in academic tasks;
- (iv) promote the development of students social skills and self-regulation; and
- (v) use appropriate strategies and intervention to assist students with behavioral problems.

One commonality among these definitions is that classroom management is the process of creating a favorable learning atmosphere and is a result of effective teaching and learning. Classroom management is the teacher's ability to maintain harmony and order in the classroom. Academic achievement, teacher-efficacy, and teacher and pupil behavior are directly linked with the concept of school and classroom management.

Various barriers affect classroom management, since there are many students in any class from differing backgrounds. Barriers are things or problems that make it difficult for people to learn or achieve a goal and delay progress. Sprick, Borgmeiner, and Nolet (2002) viewed barriers to learning as problems or situations that prevent

learners from accessing programs, make it difficult for learners to go to class, or make it hard for learners to concentrate and learn.

Identifying students with barriers and helping them overcome obstacles are part of the teacher's responsibility. To remove or reduce barriers to learning and participation of students requires insight into where these barriers may come from, why and when they arise (Bear et al., 2005). However, they point out that teachers need to critically reflect on what happens inside the classroom as students' behavior is often a reaction to factors within the school.

For effective teaching and learning outcomes, it is expected that teachers identify barriers to learning and deal with them appropriately. More so, Sprick et al. (2002) asserted that teachers who can draw on a range of responses when dealing with barriers to learning and other classroom problems are more likely to keep those students in the classroom, have little or no disruptions, assert authority and create better learning environments and outcomes.

Considering the obvious merits of effective classroom management for the teacher and students, this paper seeks to investigate teachers' perceptions of barriers to learning as they affect classroom management in Okene, Kogi State, Nigeria.

**Research Question:** What are barriers to learning as perceived by teachers in Okene, Kogi State?

**Research Hypothesis:** There is no significant difference in teachers' perceptions of learning barriers as they affect classroom management in Okene, Kogi State.

## **Methodology**

This study adopted the descriptive research design. Okene, Kogi State, Nigeria, occupies an area of 32.8km<sup>2</sup> with geographical coordinates 070.33', 060 14'E /7.5500N 6.2330E. Population of the study comprised of all teachers in Okene (about 2,000). However, the 300 teachers selected from 15 secondary schools were randomly selected for the study. The 15 schools were selected based on their location and proximity to the Federal College of Education, Okene. A questionnaire, developed by the researchers was used for data collection. Four experts certified the instrument as valid, and a test-re-test reliability procedure revealed a co-efficient of 0.71, which was deemed high for the questionnaire. Frequency counts, simple percentages and t-test statistics were used to collect and analyze the data.

## **Results**

Table 1 shows teachers' perception of learning barriers. Virtually all the items on the questionnaire were answered positively. The learning barriers are believed to be things that can affect classroom management. This is appropriately captured in the frequency column and percentage of each item.

Table 1  
*Responses to Teachers' Perception of Learning According to Type of School*

S/No	Barriers to Learning	F	%	F	%
1.	Physical disability	201	67.00	99	33.0
2.	Hearing problems	210	70.00	90	30.0
3.	Inability to speak clearly	160	53.00	140	47.0
4.	Poor eyesight	171	57.00	129	43.0
5.	Hyperactive behavior	265	88.33	35	11.7
6.	Difficulty in relating to other learners	290	96.67	10	3.33
7.	Criminal activities and violence in schools	261	87.00	39	13.0
8.	Inability of learners to access educational facilities	180	60.00	120	40.0
9.	Poverty and underdevelopment	161	53.67	139	46.33
10.	Inflexible curriculum	182	60.67	118	39.33
11.	Language and communication	215	71.66	85	28.33
12.	Large classroom	291	97.00	9	3.00
13.	Difficulty concentrating in class	194	64.66	106	35.33
14.	Emotional instability as a result of physical/mental Abuse	256	85.33	44	14.66
15.	Behavioral problems	222	74.00	78	26.00

**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant difference in the perception of teachers on learning barriers as they affect classroom management in Okene, Kogi State, on the basis of type of schools.

Table 2  
*T-test Comparison of Respondents' Perception of Learning Barriers*

Variables	U	X	SD	df	Cal-t	Cri-t	Remark
Type of Schools Public	152	18.37	1.44	298	-2.68	1.96	NS
Private	148	19.20	1.63				

*Note:* Not significant at 0.05 level

Table 2 shows that the calculated value is -2.68, while the critical table value is 1.96. Thus, the hypothesis that states there is no significant difference in teachers' perceptions of learning barriers on the basis of type of schools is accepted.

## Discussion

The study's results show respondents agreed that the questionnaire items constitute learning barriers, which may likely affect classroom management. Answers to research Question 1 reveal that large, crowded classes received the highest level of response (97%), followed by difficulty in relating to other learners (96.67%), hyperactive behavior (88.33%), and criminal activities and violence (87%). The result supports the views of Weiner (2003), Vitto (2003), Weiner (2003), and Bear et al. (2005) who said barriers to learning affect classroom management. If the teacher does not attend to them, the class will be unmanageable, and the teaching and learning processes will be ineffective. The result also agrees with the views of Levin and Nolan (2000) who

maintained that classroom management is an integral part of the teaching and learning process and that the teacher is, indeed, saddled with the herculean task of managing the classroom and the barriers to effective learning.

Results in Hypothesis 1 show that regardless of whether the school is private or public, all teachers acknowledged that barriers exist. All teachers have to manage their classes for normalcy and control. Only then is teaching and learning effective. Private schools are not overcrowded like the public schools, yet, they all agree on barriers. The results also supported the views of Moskowitz and Hayman (1976) and Owobi and Aliu (2012). Equally, Sprick et al. (2002) maintained that teachers who acknowledge learning barriers and respond accordingly are more likely to keep the classroom controlled and well managed.

### **Implication of the Findings**

The study's results imply that barriers to learning abound, and barriers differ from class to class and from teacher to teacher. For solutions, the teachers need to utilize strategies and interventions that will ensure that teaching and learning are effective and meaningful. The study throws more light on the central position occupied by classroom management. It is also a reminder that teachers have a lot to do for effective instruction to take place.

### **Recommendations**

For effective learning, classroom management should be included in teacher education curriculums.

Some learning barriers are behavioral in nature and require behavior modification intervention by trained guidance counselors. Therefore, teachers need to solicit help from referred counselors for effective treatment.

Teachers should utilize retraining programs to update their knowledge and keep up to date with new classroom management techniques, skills, and strategies.

### **Conclusion**

Any learning environment can identify barriers. They come in different ways and may only become obvious when a class is out of control, in disarray, or when learning breaks down. Understanding effective classroom management responses and strategies is necessary, and mandatory, if a teacher is to impart knowledge and effective learning. Only then will society achieve the dividends of education.

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# INTERNALLY GENERATED REVENUE IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA

by

VICTORIA C. ONYEIKE

EMMANUEL O. ESEYIN

Department of Educational Management  
Faculty of Education,  
University of Port Harcourt,  
Rivers State, Nigeria

## Abstract

The research work was designed to assess the role of internally generated revenue in the administration of university education in Rivers State. Emphases focused on the sources, impact, and challenges of internally generated revenue in the administration of university education. Three research questions and three hypotheses guided the study, and the descriptive survey design was used to conduct the study. Questionnaire was the instrument used for data collection, and department heads and faculty deans served as respondents. Analysis shows a significant difference in how federal and state universities manage internally generated revenue. It was, therefore, concluded that universities have not yet properly utilized internally generated revenue. The recommendation is that the government and university administrators explore all avenues of revenue so that universities meet their financial needs. To increase internally revenue-generated funds, students should produce and sell crafts, and university administrators should concentrate on developing academic programs.

*Keywords:* alternative, education, challenges, revenue, university

## Introduction

The funding of university education in Nigeria is an ongoing problem, considering the number of university strikes recorded in the country in the last few decades. According to the Nigerian Elites Forum (2013), universities under the umbrella of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) have recorded about 11 strikes over 32 months. More often than not, the cause of the strikes has been tied to the inadequate funding of Nigerian universities. Inadequate funding has, therefore, limited the ability of various universities to carry out the key functions of teaching, learning, research, and community development.

The history of university education in Nigeria dates back to 1948 with the establishment of the university college at Ibadan (Wikipedia, 2014). There were other universities established by various regional governments in Nigeria immediately after the country's independence. However, with increases in demand for university education in the country for various reasons, today, there are 129 universities in the country comprising 40 federal, 38 state, and 51 privately owned ([www.nuc.edu.ng/pages/universities.asp](http://www.nuc.edu.ng/pages/universities.asp)). With the continuous growth in the number of universities, it is becoming increasingly difficult for the government to confidently fund

university education. The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) stated that member nations should ensure that at least 26% of their annual budget be channeled to the education sector (Ejiogu, Ihugba, & Nwosu, 2013). However, this target is far from being achieved, as shown in Table A1 in Appendix A.

Because of this situation, the federal government, through the National Universities Commission, suggests that all public universities in the country internally generate at least 10% of the funds required to carry out their programming in any fiscal year (Akinyemi, 2013). This will enable universities to generate enough revenue to carry out their academic and non-academic functions. Since funding is very important to the success of university education in Nigeria, it is necessary that various universities explore internally generated revenue streams to secure additional funding. Revenue outlets within and outside the activities of the university should, therefore, be explored to assist universities increase their revenue base.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The challenges confronting university education in Nigeria are enormous. Constraints range from a lack of human capital to material resources. With the increasing level of enrollments in the state, and country at large, the resources available at this level of education are gradually being strained, which is threatening the quality of education. Ayeni and Adelabu (2012) stated, “The quality of learning facilities available within an educational institution has positive relationship with the quality of teaching and learning activities” (p. 62). The inadequacy of these facilities has affected lecturers’ and students’ abilities to carry out their major responsibilities of academic excellence in their various universities.

In the same vein, available infrastructure at this level of education is either obsolete or highly inadequate, which has contributed to the country’s falling standard of university education. Despite all efforts to make resources available to administer education at this level, there seems to be very little success. Similarly, the shortage of funds has impeded universities from meeting their basic academic needs, which has hindered quality university education in the country.

Since Nigeria gained its independence, there has never been a time when the government’s allocation to the educational sector has been able to provide adequate funding to meet its financial needs. This trend is contrary to the UNESCO agreement that states at least 26% of the national budget of any country is allocated to the educational sector, specifically for the country’s educational needs. This has a multiplier effect in the form of dwindling quality of university education. For this reason, it has become imperative that for universities to thrive, they need to devise conceivable means to source additional funding. To provide quality education, universities need to investigate the avenues through which they can generate more funds internally. University education is a highly capital-intensive venture. It requires that adequate attention be directed to the challenges of acquiring internal funds and the impact those challenges have on university management.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The study is intended to achieve the following objectives:

1. Investigate available sources of generating revenue internally for the management of university education in Rivers State;

2. Determine the impact of internally generated revenue on the administration of university education in Rivers State; and
3. Identify the challenges faced by universities in Rivers State in generating funds internally.

### **Research Questions**

1. What alternative sources are available for university management to generate internal revenue in Rivers State?
2. What are the impacts of internally generated revenue on the administration of university education in Rivers State?
3. What challenges do universities in Rivers State face in generating internal funds?

### **Hypotheses**

1. There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities and the sources of internally generated revenue available for management of university education in the state.
2. There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities and the impact of internally generated revenue on the day-to-day activities of the universities in the state.
3. There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities and the challenges faced by universities in Rivers State in generating funds internally.

### **Significance of the Study**

The outcome of this research is important to educational stakeholders in the following ways:

1. The private sector will benefit by becoming more aware of the need to provide financial and non-financial assistance to universities as part of its corporate social responsibilities.
2. The government will benefit by becoming aware of some of the governmental policies and decisions that have hindered universities from generating funds internally.
3. It will enlighten alumni, who are highly placed in society, of the need to contribute to the advancement of their alma maters through financial and non-financial assistance.
4. Education policy formulators will become aware of the need to formulate appropriate revenue generation policies that will contribute to the effective management of university education in the state.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The theory that guides this research is known as the unified theory of revenue generation for non-profits (UTRGN). Greim (2012) proposed this theory, which highlights the system of revenue generation for nonprofit organizations. The theory suggests that nonprofit, or social service, organizations such as the educational sector have the capacity to generate funds to actualize the organization's objectives. According to Greim, "Providers of revenue to the non-profit sector can be ranked in terms of the—Dollar Cost of the Return on Funding (DCORF) that they require in exchange for the financial support they provide the nonprofit" (p. 2). This means that the cost in dollars required for the nonprofit sector to access such financial assistance must be ranked. This helps to determine which revenue sources will incur the highest expenditures. The sources with huge costs or expenditures will need to be substituted with cheaper sources, as much as the revenue generated, in turn, will not

be affected. Greim noted that although nonprofit organizations can generate revenue internally, the expenditure incurred to generate such revenue must be itemized. This is to ensure that the revenue sources with the most returns and least cost are considered above other sources of revenue open to the organization. Greim stated,

The pure altruistic donor requires nothing of dollar cost in return for his/her donation and therefore has a DCROF of 0%. Conversely, the pure fee-for-service customer requires a good and/or service with a dollar value equal to the fee paid to the nonprofit and has a DCROF of 100%. (p. 2)

This description of revenue sources implies that there are revenue sources that require no expenditure (0%) to access them, while other sources require goods and/or services that will equal 100% of the expected revenue. The reason why revenue sources must be ranked is to ensure that the cost of acquiring these funds does not exceed the generated revenue. Also, some influential individuals in society can provide financial assistance at 0% cost to the university. These donors do not need the beneficiary to incur any expenditure in accessing their financial assistance. It is, therefore, the benefiting organization's responsibility to plan, approach, and acquire this financial aid.

This theory applies to nonprofit organizations, such as the university system, that have a wide spectrum of revenue outlets. Revenue in the university can be generated either internally or externally. Therefore, the university system needs to be careful when seeking financial assistance. The university should be able to rank the cost of generating revenue, forecast the expected revenue, and invest in projects with the highest rate of return. The revenue-generating projects adopted also should be ones that can generate steady revenue for a reasonable number of years.

### **Conceptual Clarification: Internally Generated Revenue (IGR)**

The term "revenue" is used to refer to money generated by an organization from its activities. Revenue also can be used to mean an amount of money that is brought into an organization through its business activities (Investopedia, 2013). Relating this term to an educational scenario, Ebong (2006) stated, "Educational revenue represents the total inflow of financial resources to an educational institution or organization (the school) within an accounting period or fiscal year" (p. 167). Therefore, revenue is the total inflow of money generated as a result of an organization's business activities.

However, IGR is income generated within an institution and different than assistance from the parent body. It is an organization sourcing funds from internal activities. The University of Ibadan (n.d.) suggested that IGR is revenue generated internally apart from subsidies, allocations and government grants. IGR refers to the income generated by any school to finance activities apart from governmental intervention.

### **Alternative Sources of Revenue Available For the Management of Universities**

Various sources of revenue are open to any organization involved in the production of goods and services in any society. These revenues can be generated either internally or externally. Allen (2003) noted revenue can be generated from one or more of the following sources:

- sales of goods and services;
- leasing of equipment and facilities;
- interest generation from investments; or
- revenue from provision of services.

The Federation of Canadian Municipalities and National Research Council (FCMNRC) (2002) suggested that revenue can be generated by any organization through internal sources such as special levies, development fees, and utility fees.

**Special Levies.** Special levies refer to appeals that are raised by an organization from its members or external individuals. The need or importance of such funding must be communicated to contributors through appeal to the benefiting institution before revenue can be generated.

**Development Fees.** Development fees are other sources of revenue open to most institutions in the country. This type of revenue is sourced to help execute a project. Revenue from developmental projects is sourced in order to assist an institution carry out important projects for its existence.

**Utility Fees.** Utility fees are those funds generated by using facilities or equipment provided within an institution. For example, individuals pay for the use of an institution's laboratories, workshops, libraries, parking spaces, halls, and other facilities. The revenue generated is used for the expansion of the entire organization. From a broader perspective, Emunemu (n.d.) identified that revenue can be generated by a university through the following outlets.

- Conventional sources of funding tertiary institutions, which comprise the following:
- government subvention (grants)
- donations and endowment funds
- tuition fees/levies and
- education trust funds.

This list consists of those funding outlets that are recommended by law. They are the common funding options usually utilized by various institutions of learning within the country.

1. IGR that comprises fund sources generated from:

- sales of research products
- joint venture partnerships with the private sector
- private giving and support
- relationships with alumni/alumnae
- sponsored government research funding
- program expansion and
- part-time teaching in other institutions of learning.

Emunemu noted that universities also can generate more funds from ventures such as,

- operating a hotel
- primary and secondary school
- publishing
- consultancy services
- bookshops
- farming and
- sales and marketing (e.g., petrol and supermarkets).

Obasi and Asodike (2007) identified basic alternative sources of financial resources. They include the following:

- school fees
- levies

- school fundraising ceremonies
- allied school business
- sale of students' arts and crafts
- school farm proceeds
- school cultural dance troop and choir and
- alumni association and aid.

### **IGR Impact on University Activities**

IGR is important to sustain the university system in one or more of the following ways:

**Reduce student cost.** Couch (2012) observed that unless an alternative source of funds is available, students will continue to pay the high cost of education, even if it is unreasonable. The cost of education, including transportation, food, books, and other miscellaneous expenses, is very high in developing countries such as Nigeria. Such costs, in addition to tuition fees and other schooling expenses, can be unbearable for parents and students. Therefore, the university system contributes to the reduction of student costs by putting facilities and equipment in place that are required for teaching and learning. If such costs were added to the students' costs, the cost of education would be even higher. Therefore, IGR helps reduce student costs by providing resources needed for learning.

**Daily expenditure.** IGR has proven to be very important in carrying out daily university expenses. The University of Benin's vice chancellor pointed out that in Universities of Nigeria (2011), there is a need to look inward to raise substantial funds and carry out internal activities. Such daily expenditures as stationery provisions, fuel, lighting, and food can be handled and, to a large extent, reduced by internally generated revenue.

**Provision of infrastructure.** Ogbu (2007) revealed that University of Port Harcourt realizes about ₦830 million annually, with which it currently is carrying out infrastructural development on campus. Infrastructures are projects that have a long life span. Ahaotu (2012) also noted that some of the infrastructure in University of Nigeria Nsukka such as water supply, power supplies, and so forth, are products of IGR. In the same way, Ugwu (2013) noted that a set of hostel blocks was constructed at a cost of N1.5bn at the Michael Opara University Umudike with funds from internal revenue. Therefore, revenue generated internally can assist the university in putting in place infrastructures like libraries, classrooms, hostels, halls, and so forth that are needed for quality teaching and learning.

**Staff welfare.** Federal Ministry of Information (2013) quoted the rector of Auchi Polytechnic as saying "that the institution realizes over 590 million naira from Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) annually and a portion of" (news release, para. 4) it is set aside to pay the salaries of its part-time lecturers. This implies that internal revenue, if properly managed, can be used to pay a portion of staff salary. In addition, universities can provide staff with training and development programs such as workshops, seminars, and scholarships from IGR. Similarly, universities can use this income to offer staff paid study leaves. These actions help to instill a level of commitment to their jobs.

**Maintenance.** Aside from provision for infrastructure, IGR can provide maintenance for available infrastructure. The flooding in Nigeria in 2012 damaged University of Ibadan's fish farm, garden, and research farm. The institution's vice chancellor noted that repairs were carried out with its IGR. Revenue from internal

sources is, therefore, important for maintaining university equipment, facilities and programs. Expenditures for maintenance, that may not be too expensive, can be handled using funds generated internally.

### **Challenges Rivers State Universities Face in Generating Funds Internally**

There are various challenges that confront universities in their move to GRI. Most revenue outlets that could contribute to a university's financial base are being obstructed by one or more factors, including:

**Large interest groups.** For the sake of making a profit, different individuals carry out business activities in the university system. According to Polster and Newson (2009), the university comprises administrators, faculty members, students, staff, and community members whose interests reduce transparency in university operations. Each of these individuals has a business interest in the university's activities. For example, principal officers such as the visitor, pro-chancellor, vice-chancellor, deans, and department heads govern the university system. Aside from these principal officers, the university has other interest groups such as staff unions—Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) and Non-Academic Staff Union (NASU)—among others. There also are the alumni, student unions, and the university host community. These various interest groups compete within the university system to generate income from activities that could have contributed to the internal revenue base of the university.

**Inadequate partnerships.** Partnering with other professional bodies is another challenge the university experiences in generating internal revenue. The University of Jos researchers recently discovered a plant called *artemisia annua*, but had challenges in partnering with the National Institute for Pharmaceutical Research and Development (NIPRD) Abuja and the Ahmadu Bello University in making the product a commercial good (Obateru, 2013). Most research products from the university fail to gain commercial value due to the inability of the university to partner with other professional bodies. According to Onyeike and Eseyin (2014), areas of discrepancies between the university and these organizations exist in the following forms:

- patent ownership
- revenue distribution formula
- project site/situation and
- target membership/beneficiary/market.

The university's inability to partner with professional bodies has reduced its ability to generate additional internal revenue. As a result, revenue sources from this area have remained underutilized. Rather than partner with the university, these professional bodies prefer to take over the commercial value of the product developed by the university, which deprives the universities of additional revenue.

**Insufficient facilities.** Cooper (2012) reported that in the United States, a \$1 investment in infrastructure is usually expected to yield a \$1.44 return. Infrastructure is very important in generating revenue. This is another constraint the university experiences in generating additional revenue. Infrastructures, such as stadiums, halls, classrooms, workshops, vehicles, and so forth, serve as revenue-generators. The increase or decrease in the number of facilities in the university contributes to an increase or decrease in the revenue base of the university, respectively. Universities in Nigeria are generally constrained with inadequate revenue due to the insufficient number of facilities in the university needed in order to generate revenue.

**Bad leadership.** The issue of bad leadership is another major problem confronting universities in the country. Over time, university administrators have been found guilty of practicing corruption, embezzlement,

and mismanaging the university's funds. According to Anderson (2013), the result of good leadership is high morale and good employee retention, in addition to sustainable, long-term success. However, in a situation where university leadership is bad, the university will generate lower revenue, which will further be inadequately managed. This is because university administrators will raise revenue for self-enrichment rather than increasing the revenue base of the university.

**Technological constraint.** The presence of appropriate technology similarly contributes to the revenue of the university. In the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, Hornsby (2010) defined technology as "scientific knowledge used in practical ways in industry" (p. 1534). Technology has aided online marketing and contracting. Burhin et al. (2011) stated, "Search-enabled productivity gains enjoyed by knowledge workers in enterprise were worth up to \$117 billion in 2009 in the five countries studied" (p. 4). Supporting this idea, Ajegbomogun (2010) said that the application of information technology (IT) can facilitate routine operations and reduce costs. Appropriate technology in the university, therefore, helps to reduce cost and create an IGR platform.

## Methodology

This research work adopted the descriptive survey design method. The design was chosen because it helps in describing an existing and ongoing phenomenon. The population of this study comprised the three universities in Rivers State. The 29 deans and 159 department heads of these institutions totaled 188 research respondents. The universities were the University of Port Harcourt, Port Harcourt, Nigeria; Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt, Nigeria; and Rivers State University of Science and Technology, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt, Nigeria. The sample size was 30% of the deans and department heads from the universities in the state, which amounted to 56 respondents used for the study.

The instrument used for this study was a questionnaire titled "Internally Generated Revenue in the Administration of University Education Questionnaire (IGRAUEQ)." The instrument contained 15 questionnaire items responded to on a 4-point modified rating scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) with weight of 4, 3, 2, and 1, respectively. This gave a criterion mean of 2.50, which was derived by adding  $4 + 3 + 2 + 1 + 4 = 2.50$  and used for making decisions.

## Results and Discussion

**Research question 1:** What alternative sources are available for university management to generate internal revenue in Rivers State?

As referenced in Appendix B, Table B1, the outcome suggests that federal universities believe that tuition fees, well-planned school farm projects, rendering other non-educational services, and leasing of equipment and facilities can assist federal universities in generating revenue internally. In addition, federal universities believe that charging tuition fees could be a source of additional revenue for the school, while state universities that already charge tuition fees do not see that as another revenue source.

**Research question 2:** What is the impact of IGR on the day-to-day activities of universities in Rivers State?

As referenced in Appendix B, Table B2, the outcome suggests that IGR can help with daily expenditures, staff training and development, provide welfare packages, establish infrastructures, and give scholarships to both staff and students. IGR is, therefore, of immense benefit to staff, students and the entire university system in both federal and state universities.

**Research question 3:** What challenges do universities in Rivers State face in generating internal funds?

As referenced in Appendix B Table B3, study findings reveal that large interest groups, insufficient partnership, bad leadership, lack of facilities, and technological know-how are challenges confronting most universities in their effort to generate additional internal revenue.

**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities on the sources of internally generated revenue available for the management of university education in Rivers State.

Table 1

*Z-test Analysis of the Sources of IGR and Management of University Education*

Variables	N	X	SD	df	z-cal	z-crit	Level of Significance	Decision
Federal University	26	2.68	4.28	54	-0.01	2.00	0.05	Ho2 is retained
State University	30	2.69	5.97					

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation derived from the analysis of questions one through six are used for the calculation of the z-test statistics at 0.05 level of significance. From the analysis above, the z-calculated, which is - 0.01, falls within the range of - 2.00 and + 2.00. As such, the null hypothesis is accepted, and there is no significant difference in the opinion of federal and state university staff on the sources of internally generated revenue available for the management of university education in Rivers State.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities on the impact of internally generated revenue on the day-to-day activities of universities in Rivers State.

Table 2

*Z-test Analysis of the Impacts of IGR on the Day-To-Day Activities of the Universities in Rivers State*

Variables	N	X	SD	Df	Z-Cal	Z-Crit	Level of Significance	Decision
Federal University	26	3.10	5.71	54	0.15	2.00	0.05	Ho2 is retained
State University	30	2.81	7.19					

Table 2 shows the difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities. The z-calculated is 0.15, which falls within the range of the values of z-critical, which is from - 2.00 to + 2.00 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained, signifying that there is no significant difference in the opinion of staff in federal and state universities on the impact of internally generated revenue on the day-to-day activities of universities in Rivers State.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is no significant difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities on the challenges faced by universities in Rivers State in generating funds internally.

Table 3

*Z-test Analysis of Challenges Faced by Universities in Rivers State in Generating Funds Internally*

Variables	N	X	SD	df	z-cal	z-crit	Level of Significance	Decision
Federal University	26	2.94	7.80	54	0.09	2.00	0.05	<i>H<sub>0</sub></i> is retained
State University	30	2.75	6.87					

Table 3 shows the difference between the mean opinion of staff in federal and state universities. The *z*-calculated is 0.09, while the value of *z*-critical ranges from - 2.00 to + 2.00 at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis is, therefore, accepted, stating that there is no significant difference in the opinion of staff in federal and state universities on the challenges faced by universities in Rivers State in generating internal funds.

### Conclusion

IGR is a very useful source of revenue generation for the university but has remained unexplored by most universities. Most universities have underutilized IGR for the administration of the university system. Therefore, universities in the state need to fully explore these sources of revenue to the fullest to create a large revenue base for the school. This will help to raise additional funds for providing resources needed for the management of the university system.

### Recommendations

1. Appropriate government policies should be made to ensure the generation of adequate internal revenue. Policies that will assist the government to generate more funds internally should be formulated.
2. School alumni who are well placed in society should be encouraged to contribute, in cash and in kind, to the development of their alma maters.
3. The National Universities Commission should be properly involved in the administration of the university by giving advice to the universities and coordinating their activities to ensure that funds in the university are used for developmental programs.
4. Universities in the state should be encouraged to prepare public expenditure accounts to ensure transparency in the activities of the university.
5. As part of their academic responsibilities, students should endeavor to produce goods and services, such as handcrafts, entertainment programs and so forth, which would help the university generate additional funds internally.

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## Appendix A

Table A1

*Annual Budgetary Allocation to the Education Sector from 2008 to 2014*

Year	Recurrent Expenditure	Capital Expenditure	Universal Basic Education Commission	Total Expenditure	Total Budget	Percent Allocated
2008	162,694,071,909	47,750,746,670	39,700,000,000	250,144,818,579	2,492,076,718,937	10.04
2009	183,014,340,686	33,625,096,425	35,565,376,384	252,204,813,495	2,870,510,042,679	8.79
2010	198,084,948,657	97,208,440,839	44,341,401,504	333,634,791,000	4,608,616,278,213	7.37
2011	304,392,631,774	35,088,896,911	54,328,643,090	393,810,171,755	4,226,191,559,259	9.32
2012	345,091,448,178	55,056,589,805	68,237,452,545	468,385,490,528	4,749,100,821,170	9.86
2013	360,822,928,272	71,937,785,489	76,279,000,000	509,039,713,761	4,987,220,425,601	10.21
2014	373,452,095,037	49,536,035,231	70,470,000,000	493,458,130,268	4,642,960,000,000	10.63

*Note:* From Federal Ministry of Finance, 2014.

## Appendix B

Table B1

*Internally Generated Revenue and Management of University Education*

S#	ITEMS	FEDERAL UNIVERSITY <i>n</i> = 26							STATE UNIVERSITIES <i>n</i> = 30						
		Agree		Disagree		Mean	SD	Remark	Agree		Disagree		Mean	SD	Remark
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%				<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%			
1	Tuition fee is the major source of university revenue	21	81	5	19	3.11	1.61	Accepted	14	47	16	53	2.49	0.85	Rejected
2	School farm project contributes largely to the university's revenue	19	73	7	27	2.73	2.47	Accepted	24	80	6	20	3.00	1.85	Accepted
3	Universities should carry out other non-educational services	24	92	2	8	3.42	2.23	Accepted	17	57	13	43	2.57	1.75	Accepted
4	The university should lease her infrastructures for revenue generation	15	58	11	42	3.04	2.12	Accepted	26	87	4	13	3.08	2.43	Accepted
5	See Research products for revenue generation	14	54	12	46	2.46	0.66	Rejected	25	83	5	17	2.94	2.71	Accepted
	Grand Mean	--	--	--	--	14.76 2.95	9.09 1.82	----	--	--	--	--	14.08 2.82	9.59 1.92	----

*Note.* Table B1 shows the percentage (%), mean, and standard deviation (*SD*) scores of staff in federal and state universities on Internally Generated Revenue (IGR). Items 1, 2, 3, and 4 have calculated mean scores of 3.11, 2.73, 3.42, and 3.04 respectively for the federal university. The mean scores are more than the criterion mean value of 2.50 and, as such, are all accepted. For the state universities, items 2, 3, 4 and 5 have mean scores of 3.00, 2.57, 3.08 and 2.94 and are, likewise, accepted.

Table B2

*Impacts of Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) on the Day-To-Day Activities of the Universities in Rivers State*

S#	ITEMS	FEDERAL UNIVERSITY <i>n</i> = 26							STATE UNIVERSITIES <i>n</i> = 30						
		Agree		Disagree		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Remark	Agree		Disagree		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Remark
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%				<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%			
1	IGR can adequately fund daily expenditures	25	96	1	4	3.58	2.60	Accepted	29	97	1	3	3.34	2.76	Accepted
2	IGR can fund staff training & development	23	88	3	12	3.49	2.54	Accepted	24	80	6	20	2.94	2.31	Accepted
3	IGR can fund staff welfare packages	22	85	4	15	3.08	1.99	Accepted	23	77	7	23	2.99	2.93	Accepted
4	IGR can possibly fund infrastructural development	18	69	8	31	2.96	1.04	Accepted	28	93	2	7	3.23	2.63	Accepted
5	IGR can provide scholarships for both staff and students	21	81	5	19	3.16	1.66	Accepted	28	93	2	7	3.20	2.89	Accepted
	Grand Mean	--	--	--	--	16.27 3.25	9.83 1.97	----	--	--	--	--	15.70 3.14	13.52 2.70	----

*Note.* Table B2 shows the percentage (%), mean, and standard deviation (*SD*) scores of internally generated revenue (IGR) on the Day-to-Day Activities of the Universities in River State. Items 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 all are accepted for both federal and state universities.

Table B3

## Challenges Faced by Universities in Rivers State in Generating Funds Internally

S#	ITEMS	FEDERAL UNIVERSITY <i>n</i> = 26						STATE UNIVERSITIES <i>n</i> = 30							
		Agree		Disagree		Mean	SD	Remark	Agree		Disagree		Mean	SD	Remark
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%				<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%			
1	Large interest groups affect university revenue generation	24	92	2	8	3.31	2.22	Accepted	18	60	12	40	3.01	1.77	Accepted
2	Partnering with professional organizations for revenue generation is difficult	10	38	16	62	2.59	1.89	Accepted	22	73	8	27	3.00	1.61	Accepted
3	Bad leadership is responsible for poor revenue generation	24	92	2	8	3.03	3.38	Accepted	25	83	5	17	2.97	2.74	Accepted
4	Universities lack appropriate facilities for revenue generation	22	85	4	15	2.82	3.13	Accepted	24	80	6	20	3.10	1.67	Accepted
5	Lack of technological know-how	23	88	3	12	3.01	2.72	Accepted	27	90	3	10	3.07	2.81	Accepted
	Grand Mean	--	--	--	--	14.76 2.95	13.34 2.67	----	--	--	--	--	15.15 3.03	10.60 2.12	----

*Note.* Table B3 shows the percentage (%), mean, and standard deviation (*SD*) scores of challenges faced by universities in Rivers State in generating funds internally. Items 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 have mean scores of 3.31, 2.59, 3.03, 2.82, and 3.01 for the federal university, while state universities have mean score values of 3.01, 3.00, 2.97, 3.10, and 3.07 respectively. This implies that all values for both federal and state universities are accepted.

# THE ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE SUPPORTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CULTURE OF DIALOGUE IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES:

by

**Wafa H. Altuwaijre**

Assistant Professor

Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University  
Administration and Educational Planning

## **Abstract**

The study presents a conceptual proposal on the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in public universities in Saudi Arabia. The proposal was achieved by exploring the reality, dimensions, and most prominent experiences of the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in universities.

*Keywords:* organizational climate, public universities, Saudi Arabia

## **Introduction**

The study adopted the Delphi Technique, a descriptive approach, both analytical and documentary. A sample of experts in management, planning, and dialogue within Saudi Arabia and abroad participated in the survey, which explores the reality and dimensions of the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue. An exploratory round was performed, followed by two main rounds circulated among a group of experts in management, planning, and dialogue. These rounds were based on the following seven dimensions:

1. organizational structure,
2. communication pattern,
3. leadership and supervision,
4. participation in decision making,
5. work motivation and rewards,
6. employee satisfaction, and
7. organization policies and strategies.

In addition, research shows an analysis of international university experiences. A conceptual proposal on the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in Saudi public universities concludes the study.

Statistical data have been processed through repetitions and percentages leading to the study's results. First, the reality of the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in Saudi public universities includes 119 supporting elements. The communication pattern dimension scored the highest number, reaching 26 supporting elements, whereas the work motivation and rewards dimension was the lowest,

scoring only 10 supporting elements. On the other hand, elements awaiting the development of the culture of dialogue exceeded supporting ones reaching 240 impending elements. The organizational structure dimension was the highest of all, scoring 45 impending elements, and the dimension of work motivation and rewards was the lowest of all dimensions with only 25 impending elements.

Second, the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in Saudi public universities has the following seven dimensions:

1. organizational structure – 26 elements.
2. communication pattern – 33 elements.
3. leadership and supervision – 33 elements.
4. participation in decision making – 33 elements.
5. work motivations and rewards – 19 elements.
6. employee satisfaction – 19 elements.
7. organizational policies and strategies – 30 elements.

The dimensions of communication pattern, leadership and supervision and participation in decision making scored the highest numbers of elements. The dimensions of work motivation and rewards and employee satisfaction received the lowest number of elements.

Third, the most prominent international experiences presented in the study are from international universities: University of Oxford, University of Wisconsin-Stout, Northwest Missouri State University, Al-Akhawayn University, and King Abdullah University of Science and Technology. Exploring the experiences and administrative systems of these international universities helped to identify dimensions of each of their organizational climates. Despite their differences, they share the same exchange of ideas—supporting the organizational climate dimensions identified above. Participants prepared study tools and contributed by identifying elements of organizational climate dimensions supporting the culture of dialogue. Thus, achieving the goals of the Study and forming a conceptual proposal.

Fourth, the study presents a conceptual proposal for the dimensions of the organizational climate supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in Saudi public universities. This proposal is based on eight factors that emphasize the importance of organizational climate dimensions in supporting the development of the culture of dialogue in universities.

1. using dimensions of the organization's climate to support cultural development in Saudi public universities;
2. promoting the culture of dialogue through various academic and administrative levels; and
3. applying the criteria of promoting the culture of dialogue in Saudi public universities.

Moreover, the study includes requirements needed for applying the conceptual proposal. These requirements include developing a flexible organizational structure, choosing qualified leaders and employees, and providing a comprehensive information system.

## **Conclusion**

The study presents a number of recommendations supporting spreading the culture of dialogue in universities.

# PAY-FOR-PERFORMANCE AND EMPLOYEE WORK OBJECTIVES IN THE NONPROFIT SECTOR

by

ALAN EDWARD AYLOR

Healthy Org Now

## Abstract

Studies have shown the causal link between work life satisfaction, work effort and positive employee morale when organizations effectively implement pay-for-performance programs and have clearly defined work objectives that delineate management and staff expectations. Further, these studies show that applying these strategies has remained in the domain of private sector institutions. Nonprofit organizations, in spite of their interest in adopting for-profit practices, have been reticent to apply pay-for-performance and defined work objectives as management strategies. This paper explores the current state of these practices in the nonprofit sector in light of the theories of donative labor and other nonprofit management practices and concerns, such as the lack of providing employees formal performance reviews. Specifically, how can the application of pay-for-performance coupled with employee accomplishment-based objectives, serve as performance motivators in the nonprofit sector?

*Keywords:* for-profit practices, nonprofit, nonprofit management, pay-for-performance

## Introduction

Employee motivation has been effectively linked to methods of compensation, reward, and recognition requiring no significant further explanation, at least regarding the activities of the private or for-profit world. The body of available work on for-profit worker motivation is extensive. Try to find comparative work relative to the nonprofit sector and the results are discouraging. This is in part due to the lack of required regulatory reporting and in part due to the perceived operational, functional and mission differences in the organizational nature of nonprofits. To date, nonprofits have not adopted management tools that firms in other sectors use to accomplish the task of recruiting, retaining, growing, and motivating top organizational leadership.

Some of the earliest research completed comparing the private and nonprofit sectors was designed to differentiate practices related to compensation and hiring. The primary study encompassed the methodologies and levels of compensation paid to employees of nonprofits as compared to those in the for-profit sector. Results from this research indicated that executives worked in the nonprofit sector for lower wages to the level of a 20% differential (Preston, 1989). While this might seem an impediment to the ability of nonprofit firms to recruit and retain capable leadership, the advancement of a wage displacement theory known as “donative labor” helps explain a potential nonprofit allure. In this theory, individuals sacrifice wages to further the altruistic goals of an institution they believe in.

Preston (1989) and other researchers found other differences between the private and nonprofit sector. Nonprofits tended to hire more minorities than their counterparts, reported higher levels of job satisfaction, and

less stressful work environments (Benz, 2005; Leete, 2001; Preston, 1989). This, coupled with the availability of management positions, should make the sector desirable. Stein (2002) noted that more than half of all nonprofit employment positions are managerial or professional and a reasonable opportunity for those willing to make a sector transition. Abzug (2007) suggested that because of the unprecedented growth of the third sector there now, or will shortly, exist a shortage of experienced and capable professional management in the nonprofit sector. The pending impact of retiring baby boomers is likely to exacerbate the problem for the nonprofit sector. While Bank (2009) suggested that displaced private sector employees could make a significant impact, Stein noted that only 3% of private sector employees will either chose to or successfully switch between sectors.

The lack of successful mobility to the nonprofit sector raises the issue regarding what factors limit access and transition. This paper reports on research completed to investigate the impact of work behavior in the nonprofit sector in view of this concern. The question raised is could the application of management methodologies used to motivate, communicate, and promote employee and organizational effectiveness in the for-profit sector serve to enhance the nonprofit work environment and increase recruitment, retention, growth, and motivation of top organizational leadership. To date, the effective application of programs such as management-by-objective or pay-for-performance have seen little adoption by nonprofit organizations in spite of the wide acceptance and noted impact of both management methodologies in the private sector and organizations.

## **Literature Review**

This paper reviews current organizational and sociological literature with regard to the practices of performance evaluation in the nonprofit sector and, in particular, the effect of performance tools on compensation, work behavior, and job satisfaction. An evaluation of research regarding the application of standard organizational theories to the nonprofit sector will provide background. Further examination will include comparative studies of the nonprofit and private sectors, available research on pay-for-performance programs and its applicability to the nonprofit sector, and existing analysis of current issues related to managing nonprofit organizations as relevant to this paper's topic.

## **Organizational Theory and Nonprofits**

In an attempt to consider the relative value of accepted organizational constructs as applied to the nonprofit sector, Helmig, Jegers, and Lapsley (2004) described nonprofits in terms of several of the leading organizational structural theories as they pertain to the private domain. The authors' intent is to provide a contextual framework using economic or sociologic theory to drive management direction for this sector. In their research, Helmig et al. considered the application of four theoretical constructs to nonprofit organization structure: (a) principal-agent theory (PAT), (b) institutional theory, (c) structuration theory, and (d) resource dependency theory.

Helmig et al. (2004) encountered difficulty related to the application of standard organizational, economic and structural theories as a mechanism to describe the activity or function of nonprofits due to the cultural, formational, and missionary aspects of nonprofit organizations. For instance, Helmig et al. reported that externally it would appear that PAT should apply neatly to nonprofit governance. PAT assumes that relationships exist within an organization based on a contractual expectation by one or more parties to engage the services of another individual (the agent) to perform some duty. The power or control of the arrangement is relative to the incentives or expected rewards based on contracted performance. While this serves well to describe typical

employer/employee or board/management relationships, as they exist in private or public organizations, the definition fails when applied to nonprofits due to the lack of incentives, reward programs, or performance clauses in most nonprofit management contracts (Brandl & Güttel, 2007; Helmig et al., 2004). A residual outcome related to leadership requirements not fettered to performance clauses is the resulting lack of organizational controls. Helmig et al. report that often, nonprofits lack typical governance controls as would be usual in an incentivized relationship. The failure to hold management to specific accountable performance criteria leads to looser overall internal organizational monitoring. To support the case, the authors report that most nonprofits lack strategic planning, audit procedures, and financial controls that would be critical components of professional management systems in private organizations.

A second social systems theory applied in this aforementioned research study to nonprofit firms is institutionalization (Helmig et al., 2004). The premise of institutionalism stems from the concept that organizational social constructs that proscribe expected internal behaviors are the product of member's shared realities and interactions that formulate over time. The development of these constructs, or behavioral models, assists the organization in defining expected internal conduct as related to its external environment. The roots of these models are often external stakeholders or influencers, which create requirements that drive conformance within the organization.

Institutionalization theory is similar to PAT in that it is useful in describing degrees of nonprofit organizational performance. However, as Helmig et al. (2004) note, the theory fails in application to nonprofits in two areas. First, the authors explain that institutionalism often relies on a process known as institutional isomorphism; a mechanism through which one organization identifies and assimilates behavior from another to create organizational transformation. When practicing isomorphism, nonprofits will often "mimic" best practices from private institutions to appear to external or internal stakeholders as advanced or developed without implementing real systemic change. No organic constructional transformation occurs, and the mimicking organization does not adopt the learned behaviors. Second, agent influence appears to counteract the process of development of organizational behavioral models. That is, a transformational individual or group can change the dynamic effectiveness of the organization. This causal effect seems prevalent in nonprofits.

Structuration is a third social theory applied in this study and is similar to institutionalism but considers the influence of an agent that is "knowledgeable, intelligent and resourceful in organizational life" (Helmig et al., 2004, p. 106). Helmig et al. applied structuration to the analysis of nonprofits to counter the apparent limitations of institutional theory. As the authors describe the use of this theory relative to nonprofits, structuration considers the formation of organizational constructs through a pair of driving forces. The two processes at work in structuration include a similar mechanism to that found in institutionalism. Organizations attempt to learn from other entities but require the additional energy of an internal leader to create actual change (Helmig et al., 2004). It is the effort of the institutional leader, as experienced over time and supported by internal methods of communication, power building, and behavior sanction, that make the development of organizational systems and behaviors possible. Helmig et al. suggested that the difficulty in applying structuration theory to nonprofit organizations is the required linkage of a stable agent's presence to the institution for an extended period.

A final organizational theory considered by Helmig et al. (2004) in the study of nonprofits is that of resource dependency. Resource dependency theory assumes that the external environment and the scarcity or availability of necessary resources influences organizational development (Helmig et al., 2004). For nonprofits, one primary

external resource is money as most organizations rely on donors and do not have the means to generate other revenue sources. Resource dependency theory denotes that nonprofits should be specifically responsive to funding sources for operational mechanisms and organizational structures or behavior. Within nonprofits, the nature of financial controls may be weak. The combination of internal budget allocation mechanisms with the inability of donors to control the use of contributions often hamper the ability to budget for certain programs. The analysis of Helmig et al. again demonstrated that, often funding has less institutional influence than might be expected. As such, resource dependency theory falls short in describing nonprofit organizational function.

The research of Helmig et al. (2004) was designed to provide a framework for understanding nonprofit organizational structures to aide management decisions and analysis based on accepted, standard theories. The author's conclusion was that while organizational and sociological theories help to provide some understanding as to the nature and function of nonprofits, there is enough fundamental difference between the for-profit and nonprofit domains to realize that current theories do not fully describe nonprofit operations. Helmig et al. noted three significant findings. First, there is evidence that nonprofits, in an effort to appear relevant, often practice mimicry of their private or public institutional counterparts. Mimicry in and of itself would not be an issue were nonprofits to drive to systemic change; most do not. Second, when considering the application of organizational theory to nonprofits, it is significant to note the impact or influence of the principal agent. Leadership for nonprofits is a key. Third, in spite of the critical role of leadership in the nonprofit sector, the lack of professional management as a whole stands out as this domain's greatest need (Helmig et al., 2004). To satisfy the need for professional leadership, nonprofits have turned to the private sector.

The potential presented by Helmig et al. (2004) is to recognize that nonprofit organizations have complexities and requirements unique to their environments. Much of the research conducted on nonprofit organizations has been from a comparative perspective to either private or public firms, as further literature review will demonstrate. The opportunity for this research is to find mechanisms that breach sectors to allow for growth, improvement, and effectiveness.

### **Nonprofit versus the Private Sector**

Four studies conducted over a period of three decades established significant differences in compensation and motivation between the private and nonprofit sectors. Preston (1989) conducted one of the earliest studies available that provides insight regarding the potential differences in management between the private and nonprofit sectors. Preston (1989) initially set out to understand the potential wage differentials between private and nonprofit organizations. Preston's study focused on white collar, or management, positions recognizing that these labor classifications would be the most common between the two economic sectors.

Preston's examination and analysis of the two databases demonstrated several quantifiable differences between the private and nonprofit sectors. The three most notable dissimilarities were that nonprofit organizations were more likely to hire women and blacks into white-collar positions, to have a workforce with a higher level of education, and to be unionized.

Preston's (1989) study also had a fourth declarative finding based on the analysis that nonprofit workers tended to be paid up to 20% less than the for-profit counterpart and to work less hours leading to the development of a theoretical concept now known as donative labor. The idea of labor donations by employees of nonprofits organizations implies that individuals will often chose to work for institutions based on a desire to

support an altruistic belief in the socially worthwhile product or service rendered by the agency and do so for lower wages. This trade off allows an individual to pursue missional service and the organization to gain service at less than market value.

Preston (1989) also advanced the idea that an inverse correlation to donative labor existed and noted the potential impact lower compensation might have on nonprofit hiring practices. In practical terms, nonprofits faced getting what they paid for in competent management personnel. By the nature of the economy under which nonprofits operate, often the administration's choice is to pay less than competitive wages and benefits for management and leadership positions. The impact of paying less than competitive wages meant that third sector organizations also settled for less capable individuals in leadership positions. Preston noted that this "selectivity or self-sorting of less productive employees" (p. 439) may be a contributor to the compensation difference between private and nonprofit workers. In effect, management was paying less, and able to pay less, by hiring less capable and competent employees.

Leete (2001) built upon Preston's (1989) work in a study designed to further test the issue of compensation differences between for-profit and nonprofit organizations using a more expansive database. Leete found evidence for the practice of donative wages in private and public institutions regardless of wage scales. The author suggests that donative labor reflects an individual's emotional response to a service or product or an emotional attachment to an organization regardless of the sector served. The point learned from comparing Leete and Preston's studies is that other environmental factors influence worker behavior and sector choice when working for lower wages in nonprofits than just donative labor.

Benz (2005) offered a third perspective on the for-profit versus nonprofit debate by providing an analysis of the comparative value realized in both environments and expressed as job satisfaction. Benz's study also built on the early work of Preston (1989), Leete (2001), and other scholars concerned with the issues related to nonprofit work performance. Instead of solely focusing on the impact of wage, Benz worked to place a value on the utility of the work experience. Surveys provided to participants asked for responses that allowed the collection of a variety of data including work characteristics, educational background, other biographical information, wage and benefit information, and overall job satisfaction.

Benz' (2005) study demonstrated a significantly higher job satisfaction rating for individuals working in nonprofits over private industry for participants in both the NLSY and BHPS. What was interesting in Benz' (2005) analysis was that job satisfaction did not correlate to any specific dependent variable against which it was analyzed in this study. While other researchers have postulated that higher wages, lower wages, altruistic motivations, less hours and other non-monetary utilities can create job satisfaction, no single variable showed significant correlation relative to positive work attitude other than working for a nonprofit. In the analysis, as conducted by Benz (2005), private organizations would be required to pay wages two to three times higher than current practice to have a wage-to-job satisfaction effect that would offset the reported positive work attitude as reported by this study.

Benz' (2005) study demonstrated two factors relative to employment in a nonprofit organization. First, as noted first by Preston (1989) and then by Leete (2001), employees and managers are enticed to work for nonprofits for reasons other than compensation, and in fact, in spite of compensation. Second, a higher sense of job satisfaction for those working for nonprofit institutions provides a potential explanation for donative wages in the nonprofit sector. The combination of an altruistic work environment with high job satisfaction combined

to create an acceptance for what Preston termed reduced pecuniary benefit packages. The gap left by Benz' study was identifying the source of job satisfaction by those employed in nonprofit work.

A more recent study by Lanfranchi, Narcy, and Larguem (2010) was conducted to understand the relationship between employee behavior, interest, and motivation to work for nonprofit organizations. To test the construct that altruistic interest in organizational mission creates a *superior motivation* for recruitment, effort, and retention, the authors built a research project designed to simulate job opportunities in which applicants would have to choose what they were willing to sacrifice to obtain employment. The three utility measures used in the study were weekly-hours worked, employee wages, and employer loyalty (Lanfranchi et al., 2010).

The study was open to working individuals' between 18 and 65 years of age employed in private industry or by a nonprofit organization. The final study sample involved 3,744 participants. Each participant was to complete a survey that contained five hypothetical job offers with each offer involving 10 attributes, which the participant was required to rate 0 (worst) to 10 (best) based on the likelihood that they would be attracted to the position. The intent of the survey was to look for differences in intrinsic motivation between nonprofit and for-profit workers (Lanfranchi et al., 2010).

What made the study of Lanfranchi et al. (2010) particularly interesting for this research project was not just the specific findings but also the methodology employed. Lanfranchi et al. noted several contributions from their work. First, nonprofit employees work for lower wages and have a higher intrinsic motivation as long as work hours do not exceed 33 per week. Once the job expectations required that the individual expend additional time at work, the influence of altruistic motivation or willingness to accept lower wages disappeared (Lanfranchi et al., 2010).

As presented, the collective analysis of the comparative studies of nonprofit organizations and private organizations make several notable points. First, the varying authors agree that two distinct factors exist. Individuals work in nonprofit organizations for reduced compensation, in similar positions, particularly at management levels. A donative causation may provide partial if not a significant explanation for acceptance of the reduced compensation. Other study results indicate conflicting factors to have a causal impact influencing worker attraction to nonprofit organizations to include work environment. Second, nonprofit organizations provide a higher level of job satisfaction than found in private industry or public institutions. While the studies to date have not been able to identify the specific factors relative to reported sense of job satisfaction, the combination of an altruistic work mission and less demanding work environment are leading indicators (Benz, 2005; Lanfranchi et al., 2010; Leete, 2001; Preston, 1989).

### **Job Satisfaction and Work Behavior**

To further understand job satisfaction and work behavior relative to employee performance, or attraction to nonprofit organizations, requires additional review of relevant literature. Goulet and Frank (2002) conducted a study to determine if discernable behaviors are identifiable between employees of private firms, public institutions, and nonprofits demonstrating higher levels of organizational commitment. The premise of the authors' study was that organizational commitment is representative of employee attitude toward workplace and employer. Commitment can be valued through several work habits or behaviors to include willingness to work additional hours, willingness to work hard to the benefit of the organization, and willingness to work on activities other than an individual's specified job (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

Goulet and Frank (2002) stated that their expected outcome was to find nonprofit and public employees more committed to their organizations than individuals working for private firms. The underlying basis for this belief stems from the hypothesis that nonprofit and public employees are altruistically motivated, which leads to high job satisfaction. Comparatively, the authors expected employees of private firms to be more career oriented and less interested in efforts that promote organizational wellbeing, resulting in lower job satisfaction (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

The value of Goulet and Frank's (2002) findings are threefold. First, performance pay should not be underestimated when considering motivators toward work behavior. Employees in private firms had positive responses to organizational requirements due to linkage to the expected reward received for providing value-added service. Second, as the authors stated, "The nonprofit sector is unique" (p. 206) and does not easily fit into models and descriptions such as typically applied to private institutions. Attempts to describe and predict work behaviors based on schemas developed for private or even public institutions provide unreliable outcomes. Third, while other research has identified high levels of job satisfaction within nonprofit organizations, this does not translate into superior work behaviors. Intrinsic motivators (e.g., mission and sense of pride) may not be as effective in generating work effort as the extrinsic motivators (e.g., wages and benefits) found in structures that exist in the more competitive levels of private firms (Goulet & Frank, 2002).

### **Challenges Managing Nonprofits**

The lack of professional management in the nonprofit sector is an issue raised earlier in this paper (Helmig et al., 2004). In writing about challenges for the third sector, Abzug (2007) echoes this concern noting that nonprofits typically suffer from three strategic human resource dilemmas. First, nonprofits lack the tools in terms of compensation packages or attractive positions to lure competitive talent. Second, for the talent nonprofits do have, they often do not have the ability to retain the best and brightest as their capabilities develop. Abzug (2007) notes that the third dilemma this is creating is a significant leadership vacuum. He predicts that as much as half of nonprofit executives will be retiring between 2005 and 2015. Different approaches to rewarding and valuing employees are required to create opportunity that attracts leadership talent.

One such opportunity, as proposed by Brandl and Güttel (2007), is the application of pay-for-performance (PFP) compensation systems. As the authors describe, there are three primary compensation systems used by organizations: individual-based, function-based, and performance-based. An individual-based compensation system rewards employees based on factors such as age, experience, length-of-service, education, and other specific characteristics or traits. A function-based system is hierarchical in nature and tied to an individual's career attainment and relative position within the organization or industry. Performance-based systems utilize metrics that measure employee contributions based on achievement of organizational goals and objectives. As Brandl and Güttel (2007) noted, often compensation reward design includes combinations of components of the three systems providing greater incentive flexibility.

While PFP systems have wide application in private organizations in which profit motivations are high, little use of these mechanisms exists in the nonprofit sector (Brandl & Güttel, 2007). Three conditions have contributed to the lack of using PFP systems in the third sector. First, nonprofits do not have profit growth as a goal that can be rewarded, and many do not operate with metrics by which employees can be valued and

compensated (Brandl & Güttel, 2007; Carroll, Hughes, & Luksetich, 2005). Second is the assumption prevalent within the nonprofit sector that individuals are at least partially motivated to this industry and willing to accept less pay by personal intrinsic motivational factors (Leete, 2001; Preston, 1989). The purpose of a PFP system is to generate extrinsic motivation. Some experts note the crowding-out theory to suggest the utilization of mechanisms, creating both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators will have an offsetting effect (Ren, 2010). The concern is that individuals will abandon their altruistic ambitions if monetary inducements are involved. Brandl and Güttel (2007) suggested that the final reason nonprofits do not use PFPs is that “external stakeholders (funding institutions, volunteers, and media)” (p.178) have a controlling interest in compensation methodologies and resource usage. These external influencers create difficulties for nonprofit institutions to reward individuals based on internal performance.

In contrast to common industry thinking, Brandl and Güttel’s (2007) showed several important considerations for the use of PFP programs in nonprofits. PFP programs are of high interest to individuals that are extrinsically motivated, seek income reward and status, or rank improvements. Typically, these individuals will be attracted to private industry but could be influential leaders if induced into the third sector. Likewise, not reevaluating high performing individuals will potentially drive performers from the nonprofit sector as they work to maximize career opportunity. Another consideration is that the few nonprofits that have adopted PFP compensation systems have determined that individual-based performance measurement is possible, desirable and effective within this sector.

Carroll et al. (2005) provided a similar study to that of Brandl and Güttel (2007) in studying the differences in compensation systems between the private and nonprofit sectors. The intent of the Carroll et al. (2005) study was to look for correlation between executive compensation and four organizational performance measures: fundraising, programs, management, and general operations. Carroll et al. add two important considerations to the discussion at hand. First, their study determined that the larger the nonprofit in terms of asset value, the more likely the organization’s compensation system would be similar to those of an equal size in the private domain. This correlation held true but also demonstrated a point of diminishing marginal return stopping when asset value reached certain limits. The limits varied based on the performance measured evaluation system, higher for fundraising and lower for general operations. Carroll et al. also found a positive correlation between reward for performance and increased activity, or effort, on the part of executives. The study, in effect, supported the concept of PFP for nonprofits. Attraction of improved leadership, and its retention, will occur when nonprofit compensation is equitable to the private sector.

Support for PFP programs does not change the existing reticence regarding the use of monetary tools to motivate employee behavior in nonprofits. In a study to determine the potential effectiveness of non-monetary rewards as a means to motivate nonprofit employees, Devaro and Brookshire (2007) examined the used of promotions as a work incentive. The authors stipulated two theories for test. First, similar to discussion presented by other researchers in this paper, Devaro and Brookshire (2007) suggested that nonprofit workers are intrinsically motivated, and that incentives are embedded in the mission of the organization and nature of the work. For the purpose of their study, Devaro and Brookshire defined intrinsic motivation as the “effort a worker exerts in the absence of external rewards,” (p. 330). In this case, external rewards would be compensation comparable to that of a private industry position. The intrinsic reward comes from the job that carries task significance based on the degree to which lives are affected.

A second theory postulated by Devaro and Brookshire (2007) relates to promotion as a mechanism for creating incentive to encourage worker behavior consistent with organizational goals. The authors note that, as identified in this paper, numerous studies have sought to analyze comparative wage and compensation issues between the private and nonprofit domains. None to date has addressed the use of promotion as a tool for rewarding effort, adjusting wage disparity, or ensuring job fit.

For the purpose of their study, Devaro and Brookshire (2007) used the data from the Multi-City Study of Urban Inequality, which consisted of information gleaned from 3,510 organizations across four major metropolitan areas between the years of 1992 and 1995. The database used was unique in that it contained wage, promotion, and job performance rating information. From this study, the authors deduced that nonprofits were less likely to promote individuals than their counterparts in private industry. Private companies were more likely to utilize promotion as an incentive and, as such, employees received promotions on a more frequent basis. A corollary benefit of promotion is wage adjustment. Devaro and Brookshire (2007) noted that while nonprofits promoted less frequently, the wage differential of one promotion/increase to several promotions/increases were approximately zero. There was no net financial benefit to multiple promotions in the private sector.

One other interesting outcome of the Devaro and Brookshire (2007) study was the differences it uncovered relative to the recruitment processes in the nonprofit and private sectors. Devaro and Brookshire noted that a nonprofit recruitment campaign is likely to last longer and involve a variety of networks, or mechanisms, compared to the process employed by a private organization. The authors' interpretation of this difference is that due to the missionary nature of the nonprofit organization, employee fit is critical. The effort expended to find individuals that are motivated by the corporate goals and objectives, as well as fitting individuals culturally into the firm, will demand more time and scrutiny than is employed by other domains.

## **Conclusion**

In spite of a definable variance in levels of compensation, the reported higher level of job satisfaction as perceived by individuals working for nonprofits would seem to be a work-life advantage (Benz, 2005; Lanfranchi et al., 2010; Preston, 1989). Studies link job satisfaction to improved organizational performance, worker behavior, worker retention, and increased morale (Goulet & Frank, 2002; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008).

While incentive programs as PFP, timely promotions or creating common organizational hierarchy between sectors could make nonprofit employment more attractive, the influence of stakeholders may stymie that opportunity. This paper explores the combination of factors that can contribute to job satisfaction and improve opportunities for managers and executives that will help fill a potential growing leadership void in the nonprofit sector. Brandl and Güttel (2007) as well as Carroll et al. (2005) examined the value of pay-for-performance compensation systems in the nonprofit sector comparative to those used in private organizations. Finally, Helmig et al. (2004) identified the lack of performance goal measures, or other governance controls, as one characteristic and shortcoming of professional management in the third sector.

## **Methodology**

As provided, the study is an expansion of work done by the author relative to the examination of work behavior in the nonprofit sector (Aylor, 2011). As such, methodology and findings from an earlier study will be included for background purposes and expanded with additional data.

The purpose of the underlying study was to analyze work behaviors of individuals in executive or leadership positions in the nonprofit sector (Aylor, 2011). The methodology employed utilized a two-phased, sequential mixed-methods study that described nonprofit employee's work life attitude relative to work behaviors and patterns. The study posed three research questions. First, do differences exist between a career nonprofit employee in work habit, behavior and skill and those of a transitional nonprofit employee? Second, if these differences exist, do they influence an employee's understanding or perception of job satisfaction? Third, is there was any causality in these differences that might create a cultural aversion preventing employee crossover attraction?

## **Research Design**

The initial study design relied on both quantitative and qualitative analysis methodologies typically known as a mixed-methods approach. The quantitative phase utilized a correlative strategy seeking alignment regarding the influence of the independent variable of study and the multiple dependent variables selected to determine effect. The qualitative phase employed a phenomenological approach allowing selected participants to provide the researcher with personal reflection of emergent results of phase one analysis.

In this study, an explanatory mixed-methods design provided the best structure for the questions posed. Phase one use of a quantitative survey employed a correlative strategy to provide the maximum statistical confidence in comparing the independent to dependent variables. The survey consisted of two sections. Section one presented numerous questions formatted to gather participant-specific demographic, work life, and work history information. The format for this section provided questions as a simple, descriptive study to gather data for cross reference analysis relative to work life issues.

Section two of the survey posed a series of questions specific to the four dependent variables: pay-for-performance, work autonomy, performance goal measures, and expected work hours. Participants were asked to respond to five questions for each dependent variable using varying formats requiring the respondent to choose between diverse work conditions to establish a decision cost relative to the assumed impact of the variables on work life and job satisfaction. Use of a Likert scale provided value variation to participants' responses.

The analysis of results directed the development of phase two's investigation. The qualitative analysis was phenomenological in nature. This allowed the researcher to employ a strategy of selective individual interviews to confirm findings, assess outlier data, or explore surprising findings.

The current study relied solely on qualitative analysis and was phenomenological in nature. As with the earlier phase two study, this allowed the researcher to employ a strategy of selective individual interviews to confirm findings and assess data trends to determine potential meaning.

**Quantitative research phase.** The quantitative phase, or phase one, targeted individuals were those designated by study parameters as persons in leadership or management positions and working in the nonprofit subset "churches." This would include any individual working as a senior pastor, executive pastor, youth pastor, children pastors or ministry director. The study achieved a participation of 196 individuals in response to 2,011 requests mailed and emailed. This represents an approximate 10% response rate.

As has been stated, the study presented participants with questions specific to the four dependent variables in a Likert format: pay-for-performance, work autonomy, performance goal measures, and expected work hours. Based on their personal reaction to the work behavior as posed, participants could chose to value their

response by choosing from the following variables: 1--*strongly disagree*, 2--*disagree*, 3--*neutral*, 4--*agree*, and 5--*strongly agree*. The finding of interest from the quantitative portion of the earlier study for this analysis was the participant response to sampling questions regarding pay-for-performance and work objectives.

Analysis of data gathered through phase one, after the completion of the initial study, showed surprising trends in the areas of work objectives and pay-for-performance. The value scores for five of the questions in the survey show that a majority of participants had favorable views of the use of work objectives and pay-for-performance methodologies in the nonprofit workplace.

Question 11, or Work Goal 3, asked participants to respond to “I prefer organizations that require at least annual review of employee performance metrics.” As shown in Table 1.1, 125 of the respondents indicated that they strongly or very-strongly agreed with this statement, a 64% favorable rating. When adjusted for “neutral,” 84% of respondents that took a position stated that this was a preferable work environment. This same trend follows for questions 13 (P4), one (P1), nine (P3), and 19 (G5). Following are the questions as presented in the survey:

- 13–I believe others can successfully measure my value and provide adequate compensatory reward.
- 1–I prefer to have wage increases, bonus or other compensation tied to my supervisor’s measure of my performance.
- 9–I usually outperform my peer group and prefer to be rewarded based on individual merit.
- 19–I believe that the requirement by supervisors/organization for definitive performance goals provide greater job satisfaction.

Table 1  
*Response of Participants to Question 11 or Work Goal 3.*

Question	Identifier	Percent	Without Neutral
11	G3	64	84
13	P4	69	83
1	P1	56	79
9	P3	52	77
19	G5	48	64

**Qualitative research phase.** Based on the size and scope of the initial study, the author interviewed four executives of organizations representative of the study group. Contacted individuals in each case were the senior executives in their respective organizations. The executives were similar in that they have been in executive positions with their respective organizations for more than 11 years. The principal from 001 owned a private business for 22 years before leaving the private sector to work for a nonprofit. The executive from 002 was career military with more than 20 years’ experience. The individual interviewed from 003 was unique in that he had been with the same organization, in the same position, for more than 30 years. Prior to that time, he had worked for a private organization but for less than five years. The executive from 004 had worked in private industry for more than 11 years before deciding to transition to the nonprofit sector. Based on their backgrounds, three of the executives were representative of a transitional employee, and one’s experience (003) was illustrative of a career nonprofit worker.

The executive interviews followed the findings relative to the initial study and, while confirming most of the participant input, did provide the researcher with some additional, surprising data (Aylor, 2011). Each executive indicated that work objectives were either non-existent or an ineffective part of their management practice. Further, none of the organizations had in place a pay-for-performance compensation methodology. More importantly for this study, follow-up questions related to management methodology lead to these responses as they pertain to developing work objectives and the application of pay-for-performance in the nonprofit sector.

The researcher asked Interviewee 002 if there was any discernible difference in work habits, work attitude or work behavior between transitional employees and career nonprofit employees. The response was “no measurable” difference. For this organization, “no measureable” difference had two prominent meanings. First, no system of metrics is in place that provides management with timely and consistent feedback on employee performance. Second, short a system of metrics that could provide definition for this executive, no behavior stood out or was significantly different as to call attention to dissimilarity. The organization does not have a pay-for-performance system or procedure for setting and maintaining performance goals relative to individuals.

In discussion with Interviewee 003, he did not employ a pay-for-performance methodology, nor was he aware of any “church” that used such a system. When asked about performance metrics, Interviewee 003 noted that his organization does require them for each employee. He further stated that in truth, the use of metrics is very rudimentary. His staff was responsible for submitting measures annually but was seldom held to them. At this point, the Interviewee interjected that from his own study and experience with nonprofits, particularly this industry segment has lagged behind other sectors in successfully implementing and using performance metrics.

The conclusion drawn from the interviews conducted in the qualitative phase of this study support the findings from the quantitative phase. The experience and observations of each executive found no significant difference when comparing the study group of transitional employees against a control group of career nonprofit employees relative to work habits, skills, and work behavior.

**Secondary qualitative phase.** The data gathered from the initial study qualitative investigation was in contrast with the reflected desire to be both accountable through defined work objectives and to have pay or wage increases tied to actual performance. To test this dichotomy, a second qualitative analysis was completed with a separate set of executives. This group of executives fit the same criteria as the initial interviewees. They represented similar institutions as the first study group, had similar length of experiences, and all were from Southern California.

When questioned regarding their organization’s use of work objectives, three of the eight executives noted that their organizations do require staff to submit goals and objectives. Two of these three require them annually, while one requires submission every other year. Only two of the three actually use them for review. One of the two executives did semi-annual and annual reviews, while the other used the work objectives for at least monthly but also semi-annual and annual reviews. In total, four of the 12 executives interviewed across the two studies could report use of work objectives while only two of them make them part of a regular accountability and communication system to the benefit of the employee and organization.

The two executives who made work objectives a useful management tool provided further feedback on why it was part of the practice in their organization. One executive responded that it provided “boundaries for why we exist” and set up accountability “up and down” within the business. The second organizational leader provided a similar response in noting that review gave “two-way communication.” When asked the origin of the practice

of employee goal and objective setting in their organizations, one executive shared that it was learning from readings, conferences, and other organization's "best practices," while the second commented that he carried the practice from his time working in the private sector. Of these two organizational leaders, only one also had work objectives that he was required to meet and/or be audited by a supervisor or board. This follows the findings of Helmig et al. (2004) relative to the application of the Principal Agent Theory in nonprofits and the lack of leader accountability.

Notably, similar concerns or rationales for not using work objectives surfaced during the interviews with the executives from the organizations that did not use this management methodology. Several noted that they used "informal reviews" or relied on what they considered open internal communications to offset the lack of a formal process to communicate with employees. "We would if we could" was repeated several times, and one executive stated that it would take having "a business person in place" to oversee and manage this type of internal program. None of the leaders had a formal accountability system in place that required a review process.

When questioned about pay-for-performance (PFP) compensation systems, the executives were unanimous in that not one of their organizations utilized this methodology. The discussion, relative to the consideration of a PFP program in a nonprofit setting, echoed interview replies obtained during phase two of the initial study. While several leaders did indicate they would be supportive of a PFP program, most did not. Common concerns ranged from a lack of cultural precedent for this type of remuneration, that without work objectives in place there was no mechanism by which to support PFP, and the worry about the choice of goals/objectives particularly with regard to the impact PFP could have on a missional organization. One executive mused that PFP is difficult when the leader does not have autonomy regarding decisions reflecting the influence of institutional boards or denominational structures.

## **Conclusion**

Analysis of participant answers to specific questions from the quantitative phase one study shows a desire for tangible work objectives by which management or other evaluative bodies can properly assess their contribution to the organization. Further, participants indicated that tying wage increases, bonuses, and other compensation opportunities to work performance evaluations would provide them with a more motivating environment. Qualitative inquiry of leaders representing 12 organizations, from which the phase one population was drawn, indicated that the use of either management practice was mostly non-existent.

Four organizations did have staff development goals and objectives as part of their management practices. Only two of those institutions use those objectives for regular review, improvement, accountability, and communication. Without work goals and objectives in place, pay-for-performance is impossible to implement, regardless of the potential benefit to employees, leadership, and organization. All of the organizations reviewed reported that PFP, even if desired and useful, is not a current management practice.

## **Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations**

This study opened commenting on the common use of compensation methods to motivate employees in the private sector speculating on applicability to the nonprofit sector. A thorough examination of existing literature demonstrates several themes discriminating the two sectors. First, there is a quantifiable difference in

compensation between the for-profit and nonprofit world expressed as donative labor (Benz, 2005; Leete, 2001; Preston, 1989).

Second, typical organizational structural theory, as formulated from the private sector, did not fit the realities of nonprofit entities (Helmig et al., 2004). This was pronounced in the case of PAT and the lack of governance controls and formal methods of accountability, which held true throughout this study.

Third, several researchers noted the contributing issues of lack of utilization of standard management techniques (i.e., employee work objectives/performance compensation reward systems), as highlighted by the subject of this paper (Brandel & Güttel, 2007; Carroll et al., 2005; Ren, 2010), and problems attracting and retaining best talent for nonprofits (Abzug, 2007). Brandel et al., in particular, notes the effective use of pay-for-performance in the private sector and suggests the applicability of this methodology for nonprofits if initiated with a system of employee goals and objectives.

Fourth, consideration from the literature reviewed was the amount of research that demonstrates a higher level of overall job satisfaction in the nonprofit sector likely associated with a less demanding work environment (Benz, 2005; Lanfranchi et al., 2010; Leete, 2001; Preston, 1989). The research was unable to overlook the effect of involvement in a social cause as a leading effect for recruitment, job, and overall work satisfaction in the nonprofit sector. Tied to each of the studies was a determination that the altruistic nature of the organization was a conditioning, if not primary, factor in attracting individuals to the work and influencing their decisions regarding acceptance of levels of compensation and willingness to stay (Lanfranchi et al.).

If altruism and a less stressful work environment were the attractational factors for the nonprofit sector, why challenge the management's motivational methods currently employed? In a study reported by Krejcir (2007) discussing the emotional work health of the nonprofit subset of this paper "Churches," job work satisfaction is far less than reported in other studies of the nonprofit sector. Krejcir reported on an 11-year study conducted between 1989 and 1999 by the Francis Shafer Institute of Pasadena, California, studying over 1,000 pastors. Based on the data accumulated, Krejcir noted that pastors are "the single most stressful and frustrating working profession, more than doctors, lawyers, politicians, or cat groomers (Hey! they have claws!)." This group of individuals entered their profession based on a "calling"; an understanding that they are set apart to perform an altruistic good. The statistics, as reported by Krejcir, are dismal. Krejcir noted that 90% of pastors are "frequently fatigued or worn out on a weekly or daily basis." Of this group, 89% would have considered leaving the ministry at one time or another, and 57% would do so immediately if they had a better opportunity, including moving to a position in the private sector. Additionally, 80% of seminary or Bible college graduates leave ministry positions within the first five years of employment.

The value of the Krejcir (2007) report is that it provided context to the findings of this paper. Significant numbers of respondents to the original study indicated a desire for a more structured accounting of their individual contribution and then institutional mechanisms that would reward this effort. Qualitative interviews from the original and secondary studies demonstrated that utilization of individual work objectives or performance pay systems are limited to non-existent in the subset of nonprofits studied. Four organizational leaders reported requiring staff to report goals and objectives to some degree. Only two of the leaders actually used the objectives as a tool to review, assess, and communicate institutional and individual expectations and accomplishments. The two leaders utilizing this methodology acknowledged the value it provided in clarifying roles and the usefulness for official reporting and accountability.

None of the interviewed organizational leaders applied pay-for-performance or any other compensation mechanism as a motivational tool for their employees, nor was one used by the organization for them. The most common reason interviewed leaders gave for not tying pay to performance related to concerns over the choice of metrics and unreliability of revenue. Metrics in a nonprofit environment are inherently more difficult to identify, as the organization is not driven by a profit motive. Too often, leaders use this as an excuse to dismiss the effort. As demonstrated by the successful application at two organizations interviewed, establishing metrics is possible. Evidence of the lack of metric use may be seen in the comment provide in the form of the response given by one interviewee that it would take “having a business person in place” to make this happen. This infers that the skill set to establish metrics did not exist. A further causal problem can be the pursuit of individual gain against organizational or institutional missional values for profit motives. Ren (2010) raises this concern citing the crowding-out theory suggesting that the use of performance reward mechanisms could have an off-setting effect as extrinsic (bonus or wage increases) and intrinsic motivators (missional objectives) work against each other.

In spite of these stated concerns, the adoption of formal work objectives and a pay-for-performance system would be beneficial to the nonprofit sector, particularly churches, for the following reasons. First, as Krejcir (2007) identified, there is significant need to correct internal effects that impact professional motivation and work satisfaction. While studies have been identified that show the nonprofit sector has higher reported job satisfaction, in general, this does not hold true for churches, as Krejcir demonstrated. Goulet and Frank (2002) validated the positive relationship between a performance-based reward system and employee motivation. While nonprofit organizations are dissimilar from for-profit organizations, their people are not. The Goulet and Frank noted that job satisfaction and superior work behaviors should not be expected as the same behavioral response to an organization’s environment. Several of the interviews noted that while it might appear contradictory for a leader to note high job satisfaction and high stress, this was usual for their work environment. One interviewee described it as the “nature of the beast” when an individual works in an organization designed to serve others. Krejcir pointed out that intrinsic motivation can be lost without some form of supplement or reinforcement.

Second, researchers of compensation models indicated that individuals are willing to work for nonprofit organizations for altruistic reasons. As such, nonprofit employees, especially executives, accept less pay for comparative positions to the private or public sectors. This has led to the idea that attention to issues of recognition and contributed value are less important for organizations to maintain. As demonstrated by participant answers in the original study, review, recognition and compensation are still primary concerns for members of nonprofit organizations regardless of their motivation to serve in an altruistic institution. Correlating this back to Preston’s (1989) work, the “cultural” assumption that organizations do not need to consider mechanisms of performance pay may contribute to the loss of talented capability (Krejcir, 2007) and the unintended “selectivity or self-sorting of less productive employees.” Abzug (2007) addressed the issue of recruiting and retention of leadership talent, echoing the findings of Krejcir’s (2007) report. Nonprofit organizations will not rectify a troublesome situation without better models and methods of accessing, communicating, and rewarding.

Third, while it is correct for any nonprofit leader to state that revenue in an organization that relies on donations is tentative and difficult to predict, this statement also is true in a for-profit organization. Any pay-for-performance or bonus program would be predicated on the well-being of the organization and its ability to honor commitments. Organizations often will find other mechanisms to award employees if revenues will not allow wage increases or bonus. It is more likely that, as was described by one of the interviews, “the culture” of nonprofit organizations does not allow for awarding performance. As Helmig et al. (2004) indicated, the conflicting institutional requirements inflicted by structures developed in response to the nonprofits unique fit with the principal-agent and resource dependency theories may impinge compensation methodology more than reality.

## **Conclusions**

The value of this study lies in the contributions made in understanding organizational dynamics in the nonprofit sector. Several mentions made by the author and references to other research studies implicate the necessity for leadership development and consideration of management practice relative to work objectives and compensation strategies. This study’s focus was to understand current practices, attitudes and influencers in nonprofits compared to best practices in the private sector. The specific issue raised was use of work objectives and pay-for-performance as effective management methodologies.

The findings from this study showed a trend with nonprofit employees toward the desired use of work objectives to measure and validate effort and a pay-for-performance compensation methodology to ensure wage increases and bonuses are tied to employee effort. Qualitative analysis determined that, with minor exceptions, work objectives and pay-for-performance strategies are not engaged in the nonprofit sector. Extensive literature review demonstrated that while the nonprofit sector has many factors that make it unique from the for-profit or public sectors, the applicability of management strategies still fit within operational paradigms associated with the third sector. In fact, based on the issues of recruitment, motivation, and retention of leadership, as raised by Krejcir (2007) and other studies, the case for improved operating systems appears direr.

Management methodologies based on establishing employee goals and objectives provide sound systems for assessment, organization focus, and communication. Regularly scheduled performance reviews allow both supervisor and employee to dialogue on expectations, resources, roadblocks, and progress. Completion of objectives allows new strategies to be formed or new directives/directions to be set. When managed well, rewarding employees from the top leader to the newest recruit can increase motivation and increase promoters of the organization’s mission.

## **Recommendations for Future Studies**

Several recommendations for future research are evident from this study. As mentioned, evidentiary data from the quantitative phase of the initial inquiry indicate trend data correlating nonprofit employees and the desire for management strategies of work objectives and pay-for-performance. Further investigation into these relationships, and other variables to determine what level of employee is best served by these strategies, how each

strategy can be implemented for best effect, and other compensation strategies also may serve as motivational value. As well, an action research project following the impact of strategies at one or a limited number of organizations could produce valuable insight.

A comparative analysis of nonprofit organizations that have already adopted work objectives as a mechanism of communication, focus, and boundary setting against other similar organizations that are non-adopters would help clarify the usefulness of this management practice in the nonprofit setting. In particular, determine whether the use of objectives affect issues such as job satisfaction, retention, and employee well-being.

Any organizational change in the nonprofit sector that would affect intrinsic values must be carefully considered. A further study valuing both work objectives and pay-for-performance, or any other compensation system impacting the balance between extrinsic and intrinsic motivational dynamics, would be of benefit and add to existing knowledge.

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# HARMONIOUS INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES

by

**OLOYEDE, DAVID OLUWATOYN**

Department of Business Administration  
Faculty of Management Sciences  
Osun State University, Okuku Campus  
Osun State, Nigeria  
atoyenbonanza@yahoo.com

## **Abstract**

This paper examines the theoretical framework for harmonious industrial relations for sustainable development in Nigeria. The author adopts a philosophical approach to explain the features of industrial relations as it affects sustainable development. Relationships among the actors in industrial relations including the employees and their union, the employers and their organization, and the government and its agencies, need to be harmonious in order to promote industrial development with corresponding sustainable development. This paper emphasizes the strategies for sustaining harmonious industrial relations through union-management relations. The aim is for improved socio-economic and political development in Nigeria.

*Keywords:* challenges, development, harmonious, industrial relations, issues, sustainable Introduction

Every nation of the world strives to improve the quality of its people's lives. This is made possible through sustainable economic development. Rapid industrialization is one of the most important national activities that can improve the economic status of any nation (Nair & Nair, 1999). This is because industries produce goods and services. Industrialization leads to employment of people and directly, or indirectly, increases Gross Domestic Product (GDP), profit of firms, wages and salaries of employees, with corresponding effects on national infrastructure development. This is the reason why government of every nation is obviously interested in the development of industries.

It is pertinent to note that the production of goods and services in an industrial organization involves three actors, namely: the employers and their organizations, employees and their unions, the government and its agencies. They have different objectives, even though they actively participate in work relationships that exist in the industry or organization. The main purpose of this relationship is to ensure industrial peace so that maximum levels of productivity can be attained and virtually foster an equitable share of the economic returns and sustainable development.

However, there is a need to sustain harmonious relationship among the actors of industrial relations in order to sustain national development in terms of social economic, political, educational, and cultural development (Akitayo, 2006). This can be achieved through sustainability of effective organizational productivity, which is a

byproduct of harmonious industrial relations. It is the intention of this paper to discuss industrial relations, its actors, objectives, harmonious industrial relations, and its importance to sustainable development, and factors that can enhance harmonious industrial relations.

### **Conceptual Clarification**

An industrial relationship is concerned with the relationship that exists between trade union, employers, and the intervention of government in that relationship (Onasanya, 1999). Yesufu (1984) defined industrial relations as a whole web of human interactions at work, which is predicated upon and arises out of employment contracts. Fajana (2000) and Cooke (2005) suggest that industrial relations deals with everything that affects the relationship between workers and employers, perhaps from the time an employee joins the work organization until he/she leaves the job. Hence, industrial relations embraces the relationship between employers and employees; it covers employment problems and security; conditions of work; remuneration; labor and employer grievances and disputes, efficiency of production, occupational health and safety, welfare of workers, social security (sickness and old-age benefits, maternity leave) and employee development (training, upgrading, and promotion).

According to Fashoyin (1980) and Fajana (2000), the industrial relations system comprises three actors:

- workers and their union;
- employers and their associations; and
- government and its agencies.

Therefore, the industrial relations system is concerned with the roles each actor plays, the conflicts generated as a result of the interaction, and the resolutions based on the established rules and regulations. Industrial relations are tripartite in action. Each party in the tripartite arrangement has its own objective, which tends to guide its roles in the relationship.

### **The Objectives of the Actors**

The objectives of workers' unions are to represent the interests of their members. They tend to influence the employer to offer increased wages and salaries, better conditions of service, and welfare provisions without passing the cost on to the employers. The employers, on the other hand, seek to control costs and, therefore, try to influence the unions not to ask for more, to restrict operational cost (that is payable to workers) to the barest minimum, so as to reap maximum profit. Government feels that it has responsibility for economic growth and, consequently, tries to influence both employers and employees to prevent trade disputes. Therefore, when a dispute exists, the government attempts to settle it and prevent both employers and unions from engaging in restrictive practices that hinder production of goods and services.

These objectives of union, employer, and government are sometimes congruent and at other times incongruent with one another. When they are congruent, we refer to such situations as good or harmonious industrial relations; this tends to promote economic development and growth. Conversely, bad industrial relations retard economic growth and development. Indeed, bad industrial relations are usually due to unresolved conflicts of interest among the parties.

The objectives of management and unions are broadly similar; nevertheless, the interpretation of intentions by each party differs. This is because the overall interests of the two parties are competing as much as they are

complimentary. Most union demands represent costs to the employer. Therefore, the union is often considered as a cost-raising center. Nevertheless, a labor-management relationship is complimentary because both depend on each other for survival and achievement of their objectives.

### **Areas of Conflict in Industrial Relations**

According to Onasanya (1995), the areas of disagreement among the actors that can cause conflict or disharmony are:

- Wages and salaries. The workers see wages and salaries as an income and, consequently, expect it to remain stable and to steadily increase to an unlimited point in order to satisfy their needs and enhance their social status. The employer, however, sees wages and salaries as costs of labor and, consequently, wants them to be flexible; strictly controlled and reduced to the barest minimum.
- Labor. Management/employer sees labor as one of the costs of production because the cost of labor is charged to production. However, the labor force sees itself as partners in progress with the management team.
- Job Security. The worker sees employment as a means of livelihood and expects the job to last as long as he/she is able to work; hence, job security is a priority to him/her. The employer, on the other hand, requires labor mobility so that the organization can obtain the best manpower requirements at all times. The employer disengages workers who are not performing optimally and replaces them with new ones who are more productive.
- Management. Since industrial relations seek to find out how each of the organized groups tries to acquire more power to influence and outwit the others, the employers see the management of the enterprise as its prerogative and, therefore, seeks to free itself from the control clutches of the union, who is seen as 'poke-nosing' into an area where it has no *locus standi*. However, the workers union sees "management prerogative" as an effort in futility and believes they must have a say in the determination of their future and that of the organization.

### **Harmonious Industrial Relations**

For the actors in industrial relations to achieve their objectives, they have to depart from mutual antagonism and move on to a level of mutual understanding and cooperation. It is when there is production of goods and services that management can make profit and afford to increase worker wages. This brings peace and harmony that favors increased organizational productivity.

According to Nair and Nair (1999) and Oloyede (2006), harmonious industrial relations is of great importance to the economic, political, educational, and socio-cultural development of a nation. Hence, a harmonious industrial relationship is valuable in the following ways:

- It encourages healthy labor-management relations.
- It promotes industrial peace and productivity. This prevents strikes and go-slow tactics, lockouts, and layoffs. With this, employee cooperation secures improving productivity.
- It encourages retraining and redevelopment of surplus labor. Harmonious industrial relations help management to train, retrain and re-develop surplus labor as a result of diversified activities in the workplace. This means surplus and redundant workers are not laid off but are retrained to perform other

productive activities in the workplace. This will be to the workers' advantage.

- It fosters improvement of the workers' economic condition. This is in the sense that the organization's increased productivity and profit margin could lead to increased wages, salaries, and other benefits for the workers.
- It enhances career prospects and promotions because enhanced profit levels increase the organization's activities, opening various areas of development that will need qualified and committed workers to fill.
- It promotes retirement benefits and medical coverage in case of sickness. With an increased level of production viz., increased profit, the management will not hesitate to provide adequate welfare services in term of benefits to its workers.
- It encourages payments of compensation (insurance coverage, etc.) for accidents.
- It leads to the provision of employment opportunities.
- With increased profit, management is in a position to adequately upgrade its production techniques to meet up with modern technology and to effectively compete in the market place.
- Harmonious industrial relations will improve worker morale, cooperation and commitment and secure efficient production of goods and services. This will increase the nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This will increase the national income and infrastructural development in terms a good transportation system, portable water, communication, and electricity.

### **Strategies for Maintaining Harmonious Industrial Relations for Sustainable Development**

The importance of harmonious industrial relations to a nation's development is enormous. Organization and government management must strive to maintain that relationship among the actors of industrial relations. This can be achieved through the following strategies.

**Recruitment policy.** Management must ensure that workers are engaged in jobs they are best suited for. This is important because workers will be satisfied with their work and committed to the organization if they are placed in positions where they can exercise their skills and abilities. Hence, management must put in place a good recruitment policy- based on appropriate job analysis and job specification. This policy will help workers to produce at optimal levels, satisfying both them and management. This will, in turn, improve their relationship and effectively foster sustainable, socio-economic development.

**Communication.** Management should establish and endeavor to sustain the free flow of information between the employer and employee. Rawal (1994), Venkataraman (1995), and Onasanya (1999) submitted that various policies are often employed by management to ensure harmonious a relationship between workers and their unions. They theorized that workers should be well informed on matters that may affect them. The bulk of information to be disseminated to workers should fulfill the following conditions:

- Workers must be fully informed about their rights and obligations to the enterprise, especially their conditions of service and any subsequent change.
- They should be informed of any negotiation and agreement reached with their employers.
- Workers should know about available training, promotions, transfers, and other developmental programs within the organization.
- They should be informed about their performance and management plans, especially changes in organization policy and employee job requirements.

- Workers should be informed about social and welfare facilities.

Fajana (2000) observed that various communication policies are employed by management to ensure harmonious relations with workers and unions. He submitted that organizations enhance their effectiveness by deploying a number of communication methods. These include meetings, joint consultative committees, briefing sessions, deputation letters, notices and circulars, newsletters, bulletins and private journals. All these enable the management and the workers to work together to achieve their various objectives.

**Good union-management relations.** People of diverse natures, standards, and goals practice industrial relations. Management representatives should show a lot of good human relations to be able to accommodate the union officials, no matter how difficult they may prove (Hassan 2013). The relationship between the two ranges from mutual antagonism to mutual accommodation. Since the ultimate is mutual accommodation, management should endeavor to encourage the union officials by not resisting their pressures at all times and by having constant dialogue and collective bargaining with them until harmonious relationship is achieved.

To ensure harmonious relationships between the employers and the workers, there must be well laid down grievance and disciplinary procedures. All employees should have the right to seek redress for their grievances and also have the right to fair hearing. The management on the other hand has a duty to ensure that effective procedures exist for the workers to air their views and to deal with grievances and disputes before they get out of hand. It must be noted that discipline should neither be arbitrary nor high-handed. The workers should be given the right to state their cases and, if need be, they can be represented by the unions. Both the management representatives and the workers union should bear in mind that complaints lead to grievances; grievances lead to disputes; disputes lead to industrial actions and industrial actions lead to strained relationships and work disruption. All this leads to loss of sales turnover and profits. (Oloyede, 2007).

Management should put in place opportunities for workers to be well motivated, satisfied and committed to the performance of their duties and other obligations to the organization. An enterprise with good conditions of service, reasonable working hours, good training and development plans, attractive compensation packages and good promotion prospects will always have good relations with its workers. This will enhance increased commitment from the workforce. It will also lead to increased production of goods and services, increased profit, and achievement of the organization objectives.

Workers and their unions must be faithful, committed, and render their skills, knowledge, and services to management. This is important to realizing the goals and objectives of both the workers and management. Hence, the workers should perform their duties faithfully, carefully, diligently, satisfactorily, and efficiently. By so doing, integrity and work ethics must be strictly observed, especially those relating to the following:

- Workers must have the interest of the employer. No employee must do anything that may harm or jeopardize the interest of his employers, even in his spare time.
- Workers must not be found with any act of misconduct such as stealing, dishonesty, drunkenness, immorality, etc.
- Workers must keep the secrets of their employer's affairs during employment and even after disengagement from the employer's service.
- The workers must obey all lawful and justifiable instructions given to them in the course of their employer's business.
- All these will encourage good labor management relations in the workplace.

## Government

The government is the third actor and the largest employer in the industrial relations system. The main purpose of government intervention in the industrial relations system is to influence the other two actors (employer and employees) and to achieve industrial peace, increase productivity, preserve human values in the development process, control inflation, and raise the standard of living of the populace (Onasanya, 1999). Thus, in order to encourage harmonious industrial relations, the government must ensure that it effectively carries out its regulatory activities. For example, the Federal Ministry of Employment, Labor and Productivity in Nigeria is the arm of government through which the regulatory activities are carried out. The Ministry:

- must serve as a data bank to both the employers and the unions;
- give advice to both sides and issues guidelines on disputes and how to settle them;
- has the responsibility to supervise both the Industrial Arbitration Panel (IAP) and the National Industrial Court (NIC) and apprehends trade disputes before any of the parties behave irrationally; and
- must also appoint arbitrators to settle disputes and advise government on labor laws.

Government must provide an environment that will encourage the development of industrial organizations. Hence, government must ensure that adequate and modern infrastructural facilities are in place in the country, including the construction of good roads, telecommunication services, constant electricity supply, portable water, and so forth.

Government should encourage the National Labor Advisory Council to perform its duties effectively. The council comprises representatives of government, those of the organized private sector fully represented by the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA) and the Central Labor Unions represented by the Nigerian Labor Congress (NLC) and the Senior Staff Consultative Association of Nigeria (SESCAN). The National Labor Advisory Council is charged with advising the federal government on labor and industrial relations.

## Conclusion

When there is a harmonious relationship among the actors in industrial relations, there will be industrial peace, as all the actors (management and its organization, workers and their unions and government and its agencies) will achieve their objectives. This will bring a conducive environment for workers to work optimally, create increased goods and services, earn more profit for employers, pay higher wages and salaries for workers, improve people's standard of living, improve innovations and technological developments with corresponding effects on the nation's Gross Domestic Product. This will improve earnings for economic development, which will lead to an increase in national infrastructural development. Hence, harmonious industrial relations is a *sine qua non* to sustainable development.

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# EXPLORING FACTORS AFFECTING SATISFACTION WITH THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SUPPLIER AND RETAILER

by

**MOHAMMED SALEH SALEM, CANDIDATE, CBA**

King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Tutor in Business Studies Department, Arab Open University

m.salem@arabou.edu.sa

**AHMED A. AL-MOTAWA, CBA**

King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Assistant Professor in Marketing Department

amotawa@ksu.edu.sa

## **Abstract**

Relationship marketing is a new paradigm in marketing practice, especially in developing countries. This paper will study relationship marketing concepts and focus on the relationship between supplier and retailer. The research aims to examine the level of communication between suppliers and retailers and investigate whether they share the same strategic integration, goals and values between them. The research will then focus on Saudi Arabia, one of the fastest-growing retail markets. A research sampling method will evaluate the commitment and trust in these relationships. A five-point Likert scale will measure all constructs to determine communication quality, strategic integration, information exchange, commitment, trust, and satisfaction in Saudi Arabia distribution channels.

*Keywords:* distribution channels, information exchange, quality communication, relationship marketing, trust

## **Introduction**

Relationship marketing refers to the set of marketing activities oriented to establishing, developing, maintaining, and terminating successful, relational exchange (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Eiriz & Wilson, 2006). It is a new paradigm in marketing practice, especially in developing countries. Before the paradigm of relationship marketing, most marketing theories and practice focused on the selling transaction in what was known as transactional marketing. In contrast, relationship marketing adds another dimension and focuses on building long-term relationships with customers and other partners in order to satisfy their needs.

In distribution channels, relationship marketing studies the effect of commitment and trust in satisfying the relationship among different channel members. It also explores the antecedents of commitment and trust such as communication quality, strategic integration, and information exchange. In this paper, researchers explore these factors in the supplier-retailer channel of distribution in developing countries such as Saudi Arabia. Researchers also examine whether suppliers and retailers conduct relationship marketing with each other and the benefits of exercising relationship marketing.

## Research Objectives

This research aims to examine the level of communication between suppliers and retailers and investigate whether suppliers and retailers have strategic integration in goals and values shared between them. Communication quality, strategic integration, and information exchange can be considered as antecedents of trust and commitment that affect satisfaction in the relationship between supplier and retailer.

**Communication quality.** Communication can be defined as the formal and informal sharing of meaningful and timely information between firms. It can be described as the “glue” that holds together a channel of distribution (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Communication is the human activity that creates and maintains relationships between the different parties involved. For communication to occur, people must not only exchange information, but also be able to decipher each other’s codes (Lages, Lages, & Lages, 2005).

Communication quality is an important factor in achieving satisfaction between channel members. A higher level of communication quality is associated with more successful partnerships (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Boyle et al., 1992; Lages et al., 2005; MacNeil, 1981; Mohr & Nevin, 1990; Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Weitz & Jap, 1995). A number of studies found positive relationships between communication and trust in distribution channel (e.g., Anderson & Narus 1990; Anderson & Weitz 1989; Geyskens, Steenkamp, & Kumar, 1998). They further noted that effective communication has the greatest positive effect on trust, which supports cooperation between channel members.

Mohr and Spekman (1994) used the five-step, bipolar scale to assess communication quality between computer manufacturers and dealers in the United States. This scale is used in the present study to assess the communication quality between suppliers and retailers in the Saudi Arabian market. Channel members are asked about the extent to which they feel communication with other partners is timely/untimely, accurate/inaccurate, adequate/inadequate, complete /incomplete, and credible/not credible (see Appendix A for the full list of questionnaire items).

**Strategic integration.** Strategic integration can be understood as shared goals and values. Morgan and Hunt (1994) proposed that shared values can be direct precursors to both relationship commitment and trust. Shared values have been defined as the extent to which channel members have beliefs in common about future goals and objectives and whether they are in agreement to fulfill these goals and objectives (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Strategic integration is the long-term relationship orientation that evolves cooperation, goal sharing and risk sharing (Lages et al., 2005).

A channel member will seek to develop relationships with firms offering synergistic capabilities and that have similar values, beliefs, and operating practices (Weitz & Jap, 1995). When channel members set common goals, they can be expected to act instinctively for the benefits of one another (Achrol, 1997). Strategic integration between firms begins when the exchange relationship becomes important and moreover becomes beneficial to the firms in strategic ways (Johnson, 1999). The present study measures the strategic integration between suppliers and retailers in Saudi Arabian market using five-point Likert scale developed by Johnson (1999).

**Information Exchange.** Information exchange strategy is the extent to which the source firm’s boundary personnel discuss general business issues and operating procedures to enhance the profitability of the target firm (Frazier & Summers 1984). Many researchers found a high positive correlation between the amount of information exchange and channel members agreement and relational satisfaction (Boyle et al., 1992; Frazier & Summers, 1984; Kwon & Suh, 2004; Lages et al., 2005; Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Müller & Gaudig, 2011).

Information sharing (exchange) reduces the level of behavioral uncertainty, which, in turn, increases the level of trust in supply chain context (Kwon & Suh, 2004). Information exchange is an important factor in relationship marketing. Internet and new information technologies changed the way channel members communicate and exchange information. Retailers now can connect directly to suppliers' information systems and order the required quantities or get insights from data stored in suppliers' information systems.

**Trust.** Trust has been studied extensively in social exchange literature. The literature suggests that confidence on the part of the trusting party results from the firm belief that the trustworthy party is reliable and has high integrity, which is associated with honesty, fairness, responsibility, helpfulness, and benevolence (Hausman & Johnston, 2010; Kwon & Suh, 2004; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Relationships characterized by trust are highly valued that parties will desire to commit themselves to such relationships. Therefore, trust is considered to be the cornerstone of any strategic partnership (Spekman 1988).

A number of studies found a significant relationship between trust and satisfaction among channel members (Achrol, 1997; Geyskens et al., 1998; Lindgreen 2001; Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Weitz & Jap, 1995). Moreover, trust, along with commitment, was found to be a key mediating variable (KMV) model of relationship marketing (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Trust also completely mediated the relationship between fairness and loyalty in symmetric interdependence relationship between supplier and buyer in the pharmaceutical supply chain (Jambulingam, Kathuria, & Nevin, 2011).

**Commitment.** Relationship commitment is the exchange partner's belief that an ongoing relationship with another partner is so important as to warrant maximum effort to maintain it, that is, the committed party believes the relationship is worth working on to ensure that it endures indefinitely (Chao et al., 2013; Hausman & Johnston, 2010; Kwon & Suh, 2004; Morgan & Hunt 1994). Commitment and trust are key factors because they encourage marketers to work at preserving long-term relationships and to view potentially high-risk actions as being prudent because of the belief that their partners will not act opportunistically. Therefore, when both commitment and trust are present, they produce outcomes that promote efficiency, productivity, and effectiveness. In short, commitment and trust lead directly to cooperative behaviors that are conducive to relationship marketing success (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

**Satisfaction with the relationship.** Geyskens et al. (1999) distinguished between two types of satisfaction. The first is economic satisfaction, which focuses primarily on economic aspects of the relationship such as member satisfaction resulting from increased sales volume or profit margin. A satisfied channel member considers the relationship with its partner to be satisfied, as well as with the resulting financial outcomes.

The second type of satisfaction is non-economic satisfaction, which can be defined as the channel member's positive affective response to the non-economic, psychosocial aspects of the relationship with its partner. A channel member satisfied with the non-economic aspects of the relationship appreciates the contacts with its partner and, on a personal level, likes working with it because it believes the partner is concerned, respectful, and willing to exchange ideas.

Legas et al. (2005) focused primarily on non-economic satisfaction in measuring satisfaction with the relationship between exporter and importer. They used three items for measuring satisfaction with the relationship. The first item is related to the fact that a satisfied channel member considers association with its partner to be successful. The second item assesses overall channel member satisfaction with its partner. And

the third item refers to the degree to which the channel member's expectations are achieved with the channel member partner's relationship.

### Conceptual Model

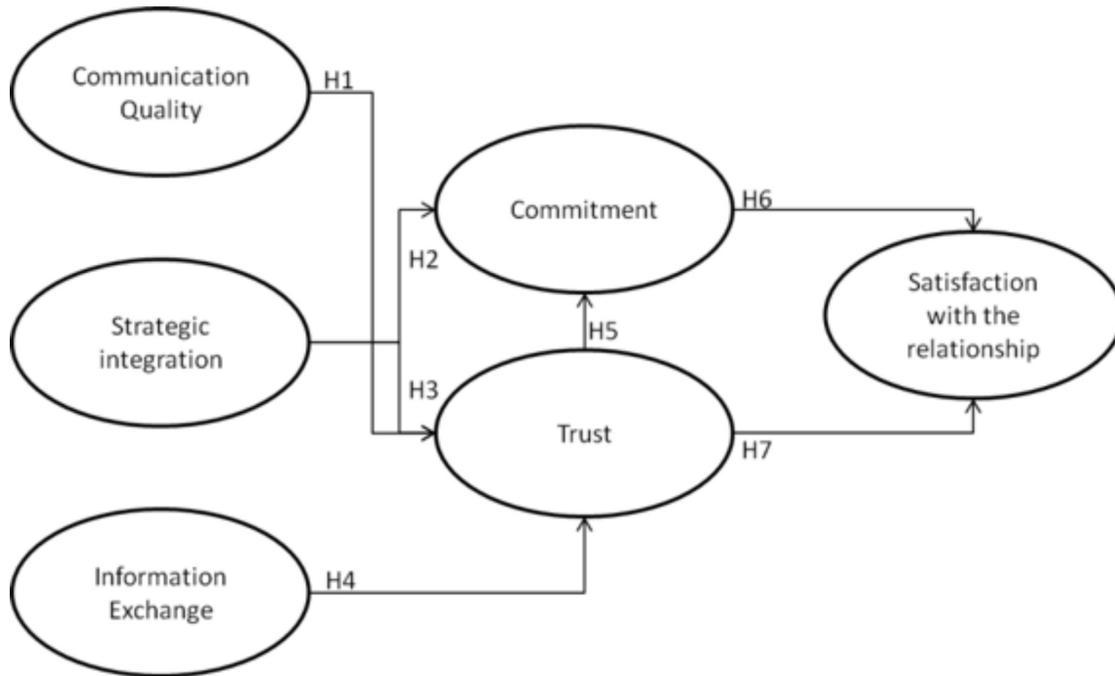


Figure 1. A conceptual model of communication quality, strategic integration, and information exchange effects on satisfaction with the relationship.

**Communication quality.** In reviewing previous studies, most of the studies that address the relationship between quality communication and trust in distribution channels clearly find a positive relationship between those two concepts (Anderson and Weitz, 1989; Anderson and Narus, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Therefore, the first hypothesis is:

- *H1*: There is a positive relationship between communication quality and trust between supplier and retailer.

**Strategic integration.** Morgan and Hunt (1994) found that shared goals and values we refer to here as strategic integration can be an antecedent of both commitment and trust. Therefore, the two hypotheses related to strategic integration are:

- *H2*: Strategic integration between supplier and retailer is positively correlated with commitment.
- *H3*: Strategic integration between supplier and retailer is positively correlated with trust.

**Information exchange.** Previous studies addressed the relationship between information exchange and trust and found a highly positive correlation between them (Boyle et al., 1992; Kwon & Suh, 2004); therefore, the following hypothesis was tested in this study:

- *H4*: Information exchange between supplier and retailer is positively related with trust.

The following three hypotheses have been discussed extensively in trust-commitment theory of relationship marketing (Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and also in other studies (Achrol, 1997; Chao et al., 2013; Mohr & Spekman, 1994; Weitz & Jap, 1995) and, therefore, were tested in a Saudi Arabian context:

- *H5*: Trust is an antecedent of commitment in the supplier-retailer distribution channel.
- *H6*: Satisfaction with the relationship is positively related to commitment in the supplier-retailer distribution channel.
- *H7*: Satisfaction with the relationship is positively related to trust in the supplier-retailer distribution channel.

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## Appendix

The following question will measure the communication quality between supplier and retailer (adapted from Mohr & Spekman, 1994).

To what extent you feel that the communication with other partner is:

Untimely	1	2	3	4	5	Timely
Inaccurate	1	2	3	4	5	Accurate
Inadequate	1	2	3	4	5	Adequate
Incomplete	1	2	3	4	5	Complete
Credible	1	2	3	4	5	Not credible

The following items will measure strategic integration between supplier and retailer. All items are anchored by (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree* (adapted from Johnson, 1999):

1. Our firm's long-term strategy depends on maintaining a good, healthy relationship with our major supplier.
2. It is very important for our organization to maintain the relationship with our major supplier.
3. A strong cooperative relationship must be maintained between our firm and our major supplier for us to remain competitive in our industry.
4. When developing our firm's strategy, we consider our major supplier as a large part of the picture.
5. We do not think about our own firm's long-term strategy when we make plans with our major supplier.  
(Reverse)
6. If our major supplier went out of business, our firm would immediately have to change our competitive strategy.

The following items will measure the information exchange between supplier and retailer. All items are anchored by (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree* (adapted from Boyle et al., 1992):

1. Our supplier focuses on general strategies (as opposed to specific tactics) as how to make our business more profitable.
2. Our supplier concentrates more on strategic, long-term issues, rather than specific courses of action our business should take.

3. Our supplier discusses the orientation our management personnel should take with regard to long-term planning, rather than daily activities.
4. Our supplier attempts to change our perspective by looking at how our business decisions affect the “big picture.”

The following items will measure trust between supplier and retailer. All items are anchored by (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree* (adapted from Mohr & Spekman, 1994).

1. We trust that our major supplier’s decisions will be beneficial to our business.
2. We feel that we do not get a fair deal from our major supplier. (Reverse)
3. The relationship with our major supplier is marked by a high degree of harmony.

The following items will measure commitment between supplier and retailer. All items are anchored by (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree* (adapted from Mohr & Spekman, 1994).

1. We’d like to discontinue carrying this supplier’s product. (Reverse)
2. We are very committed to carrying this supplier’s products.
3. We have a minimal commitment to this supplier. (Reverse)

The following items will measure satisfaction with the relationship between supplier and retailer. All items are anchored by (1) *strongly disagree* and (5) *strongly agree* (adapted from Legas et al., 2005).

1. Our association with this supplier has been a highly successful one.
2. This supplier leaves a lot to be desired from an overall performance standpoint. (Reverse)
3. Overall, the results of our relationship with the supplier were far short of expectations. (Reverse)

# EXPANDING THE ETHICAL LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

by

C. P. WEAVER, JR.

Regent University

## Abstract

Ethical leadership is a relatively new and developing leadership theory. Subsequent to the numerous ethical lapses in government, business, and the nonprofit sector over the past decade, this theory is especially applicable and must further develop to meet the needs of leaders across each economic sector. While ethics in leadership is not new, the study and development of ethical leadership as a theory is a relatively new area of research. A review of the empirical literature reveals a limited study of antecedents and outcomes without integration into an overall theoretical construct. This paper examines the current state of ethical leadership research and proposes an expansion of the ethical leadership concept. This proposal includes expanding the current definition and integrating the existing empirical research into a construct to guide future research. The proposed concept may guide leader and employee behavior and decision-making within the organization and in relations with the organization's external environment.

*Keywords:* employee behavior, ethical leaders, leadership, organization

## Introduction

The ethical aspects of leadership gained a renewed interest for scholars and leaders after Enron, the energy company, collapsed in 2001. Subsequent unethical leader behavior has only served to highlight the importance of ethical leadership research. Although a leader may behave unethically, that behavior may go beyond individual consequences to affect an entire organization, such as it did for Enron. Corporations may go bankrupt, confidence in public institutions may decrease, and nonprofits may see donations decline. The development of the ethical leadership concept responds to these all-too-regular lapses in ethics across a variety of organizations. A further consideration in developing the concept of ethical leadership is determining what factors influence leaders to behave in an ethical way and the subsequent influence on subordinates.

## Ethics

The study of ethics dates back to the Greek philosophers Sappho and Socrates. Ethics, or moral philosophy, is primarily concerned with how people determine what is good or bad, right or wrong (MacKinnon, 2011). There are four areas of ethical studies, meta-ethics, normative, descriptive, and applied ethics. The concern of meta-ethics is the nature and methodology for making moral judgments (Gensler, 1998). Normative or prescriptive ethics studies the principles of how people should live, descriptive ethics studies what people think is right, while applied ethics studies specific moral areas (Gensler 1998). The two philosophical views of ethical leader decision-making are based on two aspects of normative ethics. Utilitarian philosophy is consequentialist and proposes that ethical decisions are based on the predicted consequences of the intended action (Bowen, 2004). The

deontological philosophy proposed by Immanuel Kant is non-consequentialist and proposes that decisions are based on moral worth and values at the time and not on the consequence of the intended action (Bowen, 2004). This non-consequentialist philosophy is also the ethical underpinning of transformational leadership (Groves & Larocca, 2011). The leading definition and concept of ethical leadership uses normative ethics as its foundation, which studies how people should live and behave, and the ethical leader's decisions are based on what action is thought to be right. This is the non-consequentialist philosophy.

### **What is Ethical Leadership?**

The ethical leadership concept is not yet well defined, and there is no widely accepted definition. Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) established a construct and definition that is most often cited in empirical studies of ethical leadership (Çoklar, 2012; Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2011; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Xu, Yu, & Shi, 2011). This definition is also included in a review of ethical leadership studies by Mihelič, Lipičnik, and Tekavčič (2010). Brown et al. (2005) proposed that ethical leadership uses social learning theory as a conceptual foundation.

It is the social learning theory concept that influences most studies of ethical leadership and the definition by Brown et al. (2005). The concept is often defined in a descriptive manner rather than prescriptively or philosophically (Arel, Beaudoin, & Cianci, 2012). This is the case with the definition by Brown et al. who stated ethical leadership is “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions, and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (p. 120). The definition by Brown et al. is also the most often cited definition and includes two dimensions to describe the leader: the leader as a moral person and the leader as a moral manager promoting ethical conduct in others.

To define, investigate, and expand the concept of ethical leadership more fully in order to provide a theory that will help combat leadership behaviors harmful to organizations is important. Indeed, the trend in the growing empirical literature on ethical leadership suggests this concept is distinct from other concepts of leadership and has a positive influence on all aspects of an organization from customer relations to employee outcomes. An updated concept of ethical leadership appears limited to highlighting three elements of the concept: treating people fairly, the leader as a moral person, and the leader as a moral manager (Chin, 2013). This three-dimensional concept of ethical leadership expands from the two moral dimensions suggested by Brown et al. (2005). This concept does not necessarily update the definition or concept but does recognize the trend toward a more robust theory of ethical leadership.

### **Why is Ethical Leadership Important?**

Individuals must be good leaders to develop, sustain, and advance the goals of an organization. When people speak of good leadership, it is very possible they mean ethical and effective leadership (Ciulla, 1995). One of the driving forces in the study of ethical leadership is the unethical behavior of business executives and especially chief executive officers (CEOs). This focus drives the scholarly research increasingly toward leaders (Mayer et al., 2011). Ethical leaders are expected to model and enforce practices, policies, and standards that promote ethical conduct (Mayer et al., 2011).

Leaders also set the standards in an organization. Leaders set these standards in both a passive and active way. While individual employees may benefit from observing the work behavior of their peers, the leader sets the standard for every employee. A leader may state actively and routinely that ethical conduct is an important part of the organization, but if the leader's conduct is less than ethical, this passive message may very well have greater importance. Behavior will set a standard without the need for any other active communication from the leader.

Few other types of leadership endeavor to encourage subordinates to develop in a manner that helps advance and improve the expression of human behavior. Toor and Ofori (2009) stated, "leadership ought to be ethical in order to be effective and successful over the long term" (p. 533). Although it is encouraging to note in a study of the manufacturing industry that 67% of respondents viewed their leaders as high in ethical behavior; organizations should continue to strive toward integrating ethical leadership as a benefit to the organization internally and externally (McCann & Holt, 2009). The unethical behavior from leaders of Enron, Tyco, Madoff, and others indicated that several individuals, or as few as just one, can destroy or severely damage an organization, its employees, and customers. A number of empirical studies in the past decade indicated that ethical leadership has a positive influence on organizations (Resick, Martin et al., 2011). Therefore, to increase the ethical conduct of organizations through leadership, and the leader's influence on organizational climate, culture, and individual subordinate conduct is important.

### **Ethical Leadership Research and Conceptualization**

While the ethical leadership concept is relatively new, the research topics and global interest are broad and require an examination of the literature to determine research trends and topics that will both support the expansion of the concept and aid future study. Ethical leadership studies concentrate on understanding the concept by investigating leader characteristics and influence processes, antecedents, employee outcomes and the organizational consequences of ethical leadership. The majority of empirical studies of ethical leadership are directed at CEO and executive level leaders (Toor & Ofori, 2009). Ethical leadership also needs to consider leaders below the top rung of management since social learning theory requires exposure to the leader's ethical behavior. Only one study by Arel et al. (2012) found an indirect influence for ethical leadership. How researchers view and define the concept of ethical leadership affects conceptualization and research on the topic.

The lack of a consistent construct will affect the trend and topics of research and will not properly guide research to determine the relevance of an ethical leadership concept. Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) suggested that based on the accumulating ethical leadership research, including their own study, that ethical leadership has a genuine nomological niche in the leadership literature. Toor and Ofori (2009) considered ethical leadership as a component of other leadership concepts such as transformational, transactional, and charismatic leadership. Piccolo et al. (2010) suggested that ethical leadership overlaps a number of other leadership concepts. The trend in current research is toward a distinct concept for ethical leadership, regardless of the particular space ethical leadership occupies in the spectrum of leadership theories currently. Scholarly studies in this review show support for ethical leadership as a useful means to influence certain follower outcomes, organizational climate and culture, and provide support to expand the concept.

## **Ethical Leader Characteristics**

Since the seminal study by Brown et al. (2005), the majority of research has concentrated on two main areas of the ethical leadership concept: leader characteristics and employee outcomes. According to Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, setting the tone at the top will inspire individuals within the organization to emulate the behavior of attractive role models such as an ethical leader. It is this construct that appears to guide the majority of ethical leadership research. The moral person aspect of ethical leadership includes traits and behaviors of the leader. Based on current research, these traits and behaviors include accountability, altruism, character, a collective orientation, empowerment, honesty, interactional fairness, justice, openness and flexibility, and respect for others. In the Brown et al. (2005) study, ethical leadership was found to correlate with leader consideration, interactional fairness, leader honesty, and idealized influence.

Several studies have also examined the global applicability of the ethical leadership concept. Resick, Martin et al. (2011) conducted a qualitative content analysis of responses from managers in six countries about their perceptions of ethical leadership and found that character dominated the responses as the one quality that appeared in the top results for five of the six countries. Previously, Resick, Hanges, Dickson, and Mitchelson (2006) used data from the Global Leadership and Organizational Effectiveness (GLOBE) project to exam cross cultural support for the ethical leadership concept. The GLOBE study used societal-based cultural clusters to show endorsement of the ethical leadership conceptual dimensions. The study by Resick, Hanges et al. (2006) used four of the six GLOBE dimensions: character/integrity, community/people orientation, altruism, motivating/encouraging and empowering to find universal support for these dimensions as contributing to individual effective leadership.

A firm, ethical value set also is an important characteristic of the ethical leader. In a study of 218 business students working full time, Mahsud, Yukl, and Prussia (2010) found that a leader with strong ethical values is likely to set firm ethical standards, behave in an ethical manner, and expect ethical behavior from subordinates. Values associated with ethical leadership include altruism, honesty, fairness, empowerment, and justice. These values are also common to servant, spiritual and authentic leadership (Mahsud et al., 2010). However, the integration into ethical leadership via the ethical decision-making process appears distinct. According to Marsh (2013), a leader's ethical decision-making process is an extension and expression of the individual's value system.

The moral manager aspect of the concept of Brown et al. (2005) is the leader's proactive behavior that encourages followers' ethical conduct. The management and encouragement of ethical conduct can be an important benefit of ethical leadership for the organization and eventually for the leader. Leaders who demonstrate high levels of ethical conduct and effectively communicate and reinforce ethical values are better at managing the ethical conduct of subordinates (Miao, Newman, Yu, & Xu, 2013). Additionally, Rubin, Dierdorff, and Brown (2010) found that ethical leader behavior is positively associated with leader potential promotability to senior leadership. The findings did not support the potential for short-term promotability, but there was support for ethical leadership as a significant predictor of promotability to senior leadership.

In addition to characteristics directly related to ethical leader behavior, several studies have investigated antecedents of ethical leadership. Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, and Kuenzi (2012) propose moral identity as an antecedent of ethical leadership. Moral identity motivates leaders to act in a manner that demonstrates a certain

degree of responsiveness to the needs of others (Mayer et al., 2012). Moral identity is related to ethical leadership and also provides a cognitive moral structure that the individual will use to help define behavior and what it means to be a moral person (Mayer et al., 2012).

Personality factors are also subjects of empirical research into ethical leader characteristics. Two of the Big Five factors of conscientiousness and agreeableness were found to be antecedents of ethical leadership in several studies (Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2010; Walumba, & Schaubroeck, 2009; Xu, Yu, & Shi, 2011). Additionally Xu et al., (2011) found extraversion was positively associated with ethical leadership.

### **Ethical Leadership Influence Process**

The use of social learning theory as a foundational construct for ethical leadership also provides the conceptualization for the leader influence process. Brown et al. (2005) proposed that leaders influence the ethical conduct of others through modeling. The proposed concept suggests that ethical leadership is unrelated to respondent beliefs about human nature but the influence process will come from follower observations of the leader. In support of that contention, Brown et al. (2005) found that the idealized influence dimension of transformational leadership is positively related to ethical leadership. In a study of 580 participants from 97 organizations, Groves and Larocca (2011) found that deontological values are strongly associated with transformational leadership. This result suggests that the influence process for transformational leadership involves a leader's belief in a moral obligation to others and the leader will consider the right action rather than the consequence of decision. Additionally, Groves and Larocca (2011) propose this is done to help others without personal benefit to the leader. Given the positive relationship to transformational leadership, this influence process also may apply to ethical leadership.

Inherent in the ethical leadership concept is the idea of a moral obligation and a leader's responsibility to act ethically. De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) examined the relationship between a leader's social responsibility and different aspects of ethical leadership. The researchers found a leader's social responsibility (moral-legal standard of conduct, internal obligation, concern for others, concern about consequences, and self-judgment) is positively related to ethical leadership (morality and fairness, role clarification, and power sharing).

Controlling for organization type, they found that internal obligation is the most prominent in leader behavior factors. They also found that all the ethical leadership characteristics are positively related to top management team effectiveness and employee optimism about their future with morality and fairness the most important. The researchers concluded that while Brown et al. (2005) argued that ethical leaders use reinforcement to support the ethics message, Dutch leaders focus on leader transparency, engagement in open communications, and clarification of expectations and responsibilities. This study provided additional support for expanding the concept into a more fully developed global theory, but the definition by Brown et al. (2005) is flexible enough to integrate a multicultural aspect.

Beyond direct leader influence, a study by Arel et al., (2012) indicates that an ethical leader can influence the decision-making of individuals who are not the direct subordinates of the leader. Arel et al. (2012) also found that the influence of ethical leadership is more pronounced when there is a strong internal control system. In this case, it was an internal audit function in an accounting firm. The results of the Arel et al. (2012) study suggest the importance and strength of ethical leaders modeling the desired behavior. The study also provides evidence

supporting a social learning theory construct for ethical leadership and its influence process. Ethical leaders use this influence process to effect employee outcomes, organizational culture, and organizational climate.

## **Employee Outcomes**

Employee outcomes complement studies of ethical leader behaviors and provide evidence to support the expansion of ethical leadership into a more substantial leadership theory. Studies of employee outcomes include individually related factors such as self-esteem and pay satisfaction, and organizationally related factors such as trust and organizational citizenship behaviors. The results of employee outcome studies vary from positive support of ethical leadership to findings of negative relationships that confirm the influence of ethical leaders and the relationship to unethical behavior. Mo, Booth, and Wang (2010) found that ethical leadership is negatively associated with inter-organizational conflict. Mayer et al. (2012) found a negative relationship between ethical leadership and unit relationship conflict. The study also determined that there is a negative relationship between ethical leadership and unethical behavior. These studies confirm a quantitative relationship between ethical and unethical behavior that future research may utilize to establish the validity of influence processes and aiding organizations to overcome leader ethical misconduct.

Ethical leadership appears to aid and improve overall employee welfare: a significant advantage and goal for leaders. Employees perceive a greater level of job autonomy (Piccolo et al., 2010), job performance (Sabir, Jam, Rehman, Kamran, & Yameen, 2012), and job satisfaction (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Ruiz, Ruiz, & Martínez, 2011) when led by ethical leaders. Ethical leadership is positively related to employee well-being (Avey, Wernsing et al., 2012; Kalshoven, & Boon, 2012). According to Avey, Wernsing et al. (2012), ethical leadership appears to aid and improve overall employee welfare: a significant advantage and goal for leaders. Employees perceive a greater level of job autonomy (Piccolo et al., 2010), job performance (Sabir, Jam, Rehman, Kamran, & Yameen, 2012), and job satisfaction (Avey, Wernsing et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2011) when led by ethical leaders. Ethical leadership is positively related to employee well-being (Avey, Wernsing et al., 2012; Kalshoven, & Boon, 2012). According to Avey, Wernsing et al. (2012), well-being is related to maintaining quality relationships, building self-esteem, and increasing task meaningfulness. A related concept to well-being is employee voice behavior and psychological ownership. Employee voice stems from the assertion in Hirschman (1970) that dissatisfied employees will either leave the organization or voice their concerns. Psychological ownership means the employees feel part of the organization and should make decisions for the long-term interest of the organization. Ethical leadership is positively related to employee voice and employee psychological ownership (Avey, Wernsing et al., 2012; Walumba & Schaubroeck, 2009). Employees were more satisfied with pay when working for ethical leaders. This is especially important to attract the best talent (Ruiz-Palomino, Sáez-Martínez, & Martínez-Cañas, 2013). Ethical leaders tended to influence subordinates with lower self-esteem to a greater extent when compared to those with higher self-esteem (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010). Overall, self-esteem is positively related to ethical leadership (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010).

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A number of other employee outcomes are positively related to ethical leadership. Trust and satisfaction with leaders, team and organizational commitment, perceived leader effectiveness, willingness to exert extra effort on the job, and willingness to report problems to management are all positively related to ethical leadership (Brown, 2005; Resick, Martin et al., 2011). A study by Chin (2013) adds the cultural aspect of harmony to the ethical leadership concept and to employee outcomes. Chin (2013), in a study of three human resources associations in China, found that ethical leadership is significantly related to employee harmony, and that harmony also mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and employee voice behavior.

There are significant benefits to the overall organization from employee-related, ethical leadership outcomes. When ethically led employees exert extra effort through organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), the organization will benefit (Avey et al., 2010; Brown et al., 2005; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011; Piccolo et al., 2010; Ruiz et al., 2011; Shin, 2012). Team level OCB are similarly beneficial and affected by ethical leadership, as found in a study of Chinese businesses (Mo, Wang, Akrivou, & Booth, 2012). Additionally, there appears to be a concomitant decrease in deviant behaviors such as unethical behavior, bullying, and employee misconduct, even though the misconduct could potentially help the organization in the short term (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010; Mayer et al., 2007a, 2007b; Miao et al., 2013; Shin 2012; Stouten et al., 2010). Another deviant behavior is employee counter productivity, and several researchers have found that ethical leadership discourages employee counter-productivity through the promotion of ethical conduct (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). These researchers suggested ethical leadership may have organizational benefits similar to other leadership theories regarding OVB and potentially even greater benefit through the moderation of corrosive interpersonal behaviors such as bullying and counterproductive work practices.

When an organization has ethical leadership that communicates and actively promotes an ethical message through behavior, there should be little question in the minds of subordinates about how to behave, make decisions or interact with internal or external personnel. While the vast majority of studies concentrate on internal factors, external relationships also should express the ethical values of the organization. How an organization interacts with external stakeholders, such as suppliers or customers, is a clear expression of the established climate and culture. The leader cannot control every interaction and must rely on acculturated personnel to act on behalf of the organization. Only one study has investigated ethical leadership from an external perspective. In that study, Zheng, Wang, and Li (2011) found that ethical leadership has a significant and positive influence on customer relationships. External relationships are important to any organization, and the ethical leadership concept should expand to include this organizational expression of ethical leadership.

## **Ethical Climate**

Leaders are important to an organization's climate. Leaders at the top of an organization create, shape and sustain an ethical climate through personal actions and policies (Arel et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2011; Neubert,

Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009). This is a premise of social learning theory that proposes, in this case, ethical leader actions will inspire followers to emulate that behavior and create a more ethically based organization. The majority of studies indicated that the daily behavior of leaders is the primary determinant of organizational climate (Stringer, 2002). In a South Korean study of 263 organizations, Shin (2012) found that CEO ethical leadership is positively related to ethical climate. Further, the moral development of the leader is positively associated with an organization's ethical climate (Schminke, Ambrose, & Neubaum, 2005). In a study of leaders and subordinates in a wide variety of business organizations in the southeast U.S., Mayer et al., (2001) also found that ethical leadership was positively related to ethical climate, and that ethical climate mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and employee misconduct. Employees also have a greater sense of ethical climate when there is a commitment to interactional justice from an ethical leader (Neubert et al., 2009). Employee trust also increases when the organizational climate is perceived as ethical (Shukurat, 2012).

### **Ethical Culture**

Organizational leaders are significant contributors to ethical culture. In order for an organization to be ethical throughout, it must foster a culture that values ethics and ethical decision-making (Bowen, 2004). Leaders influence organizational culture and subsequently employee attitudes, behaviors, and external relationships. Those ethical decisions will not only affect the organization internally but also externally. Barney (1986) contends that organizational culture can contribute to a sustainable competitive advantage for businesses. Conceptually, an ethical culture could provide a competitive advantage through sustained ethical leadership and its influence on culture and employee performance. Bowen (2004) found a high degree of consistency between a leader's personal values and the ethical values of the organization. In a related study of 150 participants from a variety of organizations in Pakistan, Sabir, Jam, Rehman, Kamran, and Yameen (2012) found that there is a strong, positive correlation between corporate ethical values and ethical leadership, and that there is also a strong coherence between ethical leadership and employee performance. Organizational culture may actually contribute to a sustainable and competitive advantage for business (Bowen, 2004). These organizational ethical values and performance outcomes should provide the foundation for developing and sustaining an ethical culture that could extend to influence external relationships.

There also is a benefit to leaders in an ethical organizational culture. When leaders feel supported by the organization and trusted to make the right and ethical decision, their moral judgment and empowerment is enhanced (Bowen, 2004). Additionally a participative organizational culture appears to facilitate ethical culture and decision-making (Bowen, 2004). Although there is no direct empirical evidence that ethical leadership promotes a participative culture, ethical leadership's connection to transformational leadership and authentic leadership make this conceptually possible.

### **Expanding the Ethical Concept**

Since the initial conceptualization and definition of ethical leadership by Brown et al. (2005), empirical research has advanced the concept through studies of leader behaviors, employee outcomes, and organizational culture and climate. Despite all the empirical research, the scholarly work on ethical leadership is often confusing and remains somewhat fragmented regarding a unifying concept (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010). An expansion of the concept proposed by Brown et al. (2005) would maintain the social learning conceptualization but would

revise the definition, integrate current research and move the concept into a more robust, globally applicable leadership theory.

The definition contains several points that would contribute to the expansion of the ethical leadership concept. The definition by Brown et al. (2005) indicated leader conduct is normatively appropriate, which is the ethical basis for making decisions centered on what the leader believes to be right with no consideration for the consequences of the action. The addition of a consequentialist ethical philosophy would better represent ethical leadership behavior that attends to the result of decisions or making both the right decision for the right ethical outcome.

Additionally, ethical leaders make the ethical message clear through their behavior; this is the primary influence process. The concept proposes that ethical leadership in the social learning context trickles down from top levels and then, ultimately, to all employees (Arel et al., 2012, p. 353). Organizations do not tend to be unidirectional when it comes to influences processes, this is contained in the Brown et al. (2005) definition through the words, “two-way communication,” although the intent of the phrase “two-way communication” appears to refer mainly to leader-directed, ethical conduct compliance. Leaders at every level play a vital role in setting ethical standards since ethical leaders may have a positive effect on employee attitudes (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010). The social learning theory concept relies on subordinates observing the leader and integrating and emulating the ethical behavior; there is no consideration that followers may have an established ethical foundation or are influenced indirectly through other organization mechanisms such as leader influenced culture and climate. An indirect influence process would better include organizations or cultures with a higher power distance, expanding the global applicability of the ethical leadership concept.

The current concept and definition of ethical leadership promotes one side of the ethical conduct behavioral process. The definition by Brown et al. (2005) indicates the leader will demonstrate “normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions” (p. 120). The research concentration appears to heavily favor the traits and behaviors of an ethical leader and the consequences of ethical behavior on followers. A very distinct message to followers is the rejection by the leader or unethical conduct whether internally, and this seems covered by the definition, or externally when the organization must engage with other organizations that are not suffused with an ethical culture. It is proposed that the concept and definition include the explicit rejection of unethical behavior to broaden the concept and provide an additional subject for research to more fully develop the ethical leadership theory.

While the definition by Brown et al. (2005) is sufficiently flexible to include a number of factors, external relationships should be explicit within the definition. The definition explicitly details leaders’ actions regarding responsibility for ethical conduct regarding followers through the words “promotion of such conduct to followers” and stating the mechanisms for that promotion as “two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision making” (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). As part of the definition, leader decision making could be reasonably considered to include external relationships as an example to employees. But this fact should be made clear in order to promote research on the subject, provide a model for practitioners and organizations, and aid in expanding the utility of the ethical leadership theory.

When Brown et al. (2005) proposed ethical leadership as a concept, early research did not give a clear indication of the role of ethical leadership. Scholars promoted the concept as distinct and others stated that ethical leadership represented the ethical component of other established leadership theories. Most of

the latest leadership theories discuss ethical implications of leader behaviors and this is especially true for transformational, charismatic, authentic and spiritual leadership (Avey, Palanski et al., 2010, p. 573).

It appears reasonably clear that transformational leadership is positively related to ethical leadership, as are a number of transactional leadership elements (Brown et al., 2005; Toor & Ofori, 2009; Kolthoff, Erakovich, & Lasthuizen, 2010). Studies also have found that ethical leadership is related but distinct from other leadership concepts such as servant, charismatic, and authentic leadership (Walumba, 2008; Yukl, 2010). Therefore, it seems increasingly evident that ethical leadership occupies a distinct position separate from but related to other leadership theories.

An expanded definition of ethical leadership (additions in italics), with great respect for Brown et al. (2005) and subsequent scholars, would include several elements intended to expand the concept and aid in future research. Ethical leadership is the *rejection of unethical conduct* and the demonstration of normatively appropriate *ethical* conduct through personal actions, *organizational culture, climate*, and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, *external relationships*, and decision making.

## **Conclusion**

Ethical leadership is a fairly new concept and has a smaller empirical base compared to more established leadership theories. Nevertheless, the trend in the existing literature appears sufficient to expand the ethical leadership concept into a more theoretical level. While the studies on the consequences of ethical leadership outnumber those on antecedents, studies that explore antecedents of ethical leadership will help better define the ethical leadership influence process. Current empirical studies are generally focused on business improvement with ethical leadership lapses cited by most researchers as a reason for studying the concept. At present, empirical studies have been mainly centered in the United States with some research in China, Europe India, Singapore, Pakistan, and Turkey. General findings show that ethical leaders who model ethical behavior and who are perceived as conscientious, agreeable, and extraverted are more likely to influence employee performance. Research findings suggest employee perceptions of ethical leader behaviors may have positive effects on a wide range of employee and organizational outcomes from job autonomy and employee performance to organizational citizenship behaviors. Research also suggests that employees feel more comfortable in expressing their opinions and sustaining feelings of psychological ownership when led by an ethical leader.

There is conceptual overlap with transformational leadership and perhaps other leadership theories such as servant, charismatic, and authentic leadership. Research indicates that while many scholars contend ethical leadership may not occupy a unique position among other theories, others believe the concept is distinct. Research trends appear to indicate that ethical leadership is beneficial to the leader, employee, internally to the organization, and externally to other organizations. The concept should expand to integrate a broader ethical base, external influence, organizational culture and climate, as well as a clear rejection by the leader of unethical behavior to serve as an additional clear signal to employees that ethical conduct is an important organizational requirement. Expanding the concept and definition should provide an additional impetus for research to more fully develop ethical leadership as a distinct leadership theory.

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# GENDER CONSTRUCTIONS AND LEGITIMACY AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by

GERD CHRISTENSEN

Department of Media, Cognition and Communication,  
University of Copenhagen, Denmark

## Abstract

During a case study of students' project groups at the university level, I identified complex patterns of inclusion and exclusion occurring among the students. First, there are the processes that relate to the other student's skills. I found that the students are very observant of each other in programs where a significant part of the learning process takes place through group work. Students evaluated each other through non-transparent processes and inexplicit criteria. For some reason, the students categorized as stupid, lazy, dominant, or antisocial had serious difficulties being accepted in groups and, thus, in completing their education. Second, I found that gender played a key role in attributing the negative categories to the students. In Denmark, we are very concerned with eliminating inequality and creating equal possibilities according to race, social background, and gender. We tend to believe that gender plays no role in the potential for university students to obtain a high-level of education. Contrary to this assumption, my studies show that students used gender stereotypes to select and limit fellow students.

*Keywords:* complex patterns, evaluation, gender, inequality

## Introduction

Within the last 40 years, group work and project studies have become some of the most used pedagogical methods at all levels in the Danish educational system, from primary and secondary schools to colleges and universities. Especially at some of the universities, students' projects prepared and written in groups are considered an important part of their education. Surprisingly, there has been little research on the long-term impact of group work and project studies at universities.

This is the primary reason I chose to concentrate on these topics during my Ph.D. (Christensen, 2013). My research questions focused on how long-term group work affects university culture, in general, and specifically how it impacts the students. I questioned how participants handle group work as part of their project studies and how group work creates and excludes certain possibilities for some students while not for others. I was especially concerned with identifying the norms for good and bad behavior at the universities and among the students. What were the mechanisms used to define a *good student* or a *bad student*? How did the students and the universities distinguish between the two?

## Empirical Data: Several Qualitative Methods

The empirical design of my research project was a qualitative study that combined many qualitative methods. I observed two groups in their second year of a bachelor program at two Danish universities throughout their semester's project studies. Both programs were characterized by a significant part of the study consisting of

project work in groups. The majority (i.e., at least 70%) of the students were women. I observed the group during their meetings and when they met with their supervisor, and I interviewed the groups about their work process and what was going on in the group.

Apart from this, I conducted qualitative interviews with 16 other students and four teachers in two bachelor's programs and collected the answers on a qualitative questionnaire handed out at one of the programs (see Table 1). The data also comprised a study of written material from the two universities and from research on groups and project studies in Denmark and countries with comparable education programs.

Table 1  
*Sources of Data*

Collected Data	Sample Sizes
Observations	More than 30 hours in two groups
Qualitative questionnaire	62 answers (i.e., more than 70%)
Group interview	7 students
Individual interviews	6 students, 4 teachers
Text	Evaluation and research reports and text from the two programs (e.g., presentations)

A multi-methodological study gave me the opportunity to compare findings from different parts of the study with each other. In this way, the findings gave me richer insight into what was at stake for the students. All the quotations in this paper are from my interviews.

### **The Analytical Complex: Social Constructionism and Post-structuralism**

My concern about identifying the norms for being a good or a bad student and what this meant for the possibilities of the student led me to choose an analytical complex based on post-structuralism and social constructionism. In this paradigm, the human subject is not considered as a (universal) human essence but as produced through the variety of ongoing practice in which the subject itself is an agent. Thus, the subject is contingent (Gergen, 1991). The process of subjectification is limited to occur within the conditions set by what the French philosopher Michel Foucault called the *discursive formation*, *discourse*, or *discursive practices*: the formations of language and thinking that define what meaningfully can be said in a given context. Instead of considering the subject as the outset of agency and meaning, and thus as an essence, the subject is considered as effect of discourse:

Instead, these questions will be raised: how, under what conditions, and in what forms can something like a subject appear in the order of discourse? What place can it occupy in each type of discourse, what functions can it assume, and what rules must it obey? In short, it is a matter of depriving the subject (or its substitute) of its role as originator and of analyzing the subject as a variable and complex function of discourse” (Foucault, 1984, p. 118).

In later versions of social constructionism and post-structuralism, this concept is reformulated into claiming that individuals are not only limited, but also draws upon discursive resources in their production of selfhood and in the process of subjectification. In this tradition the subjectification is considered as a narrative process, which occurs within the limits of the discourse and the narrative tradition of the culture. When we are co-constructing our own subjectivity we draw on what Davies (2000) called *storylines* and what Potter and Wetherell (1992) called *interpretative repertoires*.

But subjectification is not just a linguistic process. It has to be understood as something that is going on in (a physical, social) practice. In order to emphasize, on the one hand, that the individual is a co-constructor of her own subjectification, and, on the other hand, that this is something that is going on in a practice, Davies and Harré introduced the concept of positioning. As explained by Davies (2000) in his book:

Positioning, as we will use it, is the discursive process whereby selves are located in conversations as observably coherent participants in jointly produced storylines. There can be interactive positioning in which what one says positions another. And there can be reflexive positioning in which one positions oneself. However, it would be a mistake to assume that, in either case, positioning is necessarily intentional. One lives one's life in terms of one's ongoing produced self, whoever might be responsible for its production. (p. 91)

Subjectification is not telling oneself into being. Subjectification comes about through negotiations, relations with others, and in accordance with the constraints and possibilities of the context. Subjectification is not a mere reproduction of discourse. The possibilities and constraints can be understood as relations of power. Not as power in the traditional sense (i.e., some individual's domination of others) but as Michel Foucault's productive power concept. Here, power is considered a productive and not-necessarily possessed force that produces subjects as its primary product: "The individual, that is, is not the vis-à-vis of power; it is, I believe, one of its prime effects" (Foucault, 1980, p. 98).

### **Inclusion, Exclusion and Abjection**

Positioning and subjectification identify similarities (sameness) and dissimilarities (differences). This is realized through Jacques Derrida's concept *la différance* (1978). *La différance* is the principle of differentiating, or making different, that which is inherent in the use of language. Analytically, it may be understood in the relationship between presence and absence, or between inclusion and exclusion of linguistic phenomena, and of practices and individuals. Every spoken sentence contains a presence and an absence. The phenomenon, which is brought into being in the sentence, always, perhaps tacitly, excludes something else. This is a founding principle of the function of language. The relation between inclusion and exclusion can be further nuanced through the concept of abjection. Abjection defines the category of non-existence, or as Judith Butler puts it, "as those who are not yet 'subjects', but who form the constitutive outside of the domain of subject" (Butler, 1993, p. 3).

In the analyses, I applied the concepts of inclusion, exclusion and abjection as analytical approaches to identify the conditions of belonging as different from that which does not belong. Here, the prevailing norms for good and bad, correct and incorrect, true and untrue are part of the game just as well as they are transformed and new standards negotiated and established. The analytical complex also had a major impact on the design of the study as well as on the results of the analyses. The qualitative methods all were chosen to make it possible to capture the students' narratives about what it meant to be a student in the group work and the project studies.

I performed the analyses by reconstructing the students' narratives with a focus on their relational positioning strategies, the relationships between strategies of inclusion, exclusion and abjection, and the use and transformation of language, storylines, metaphors, and narratives. This work, among other things, exposed the ways in which legitimacy as a student is attached not only to a concept of personality but also to gender, and; thereby, affects the student's relative status in the context.

## Groups in the Danish Project Studies

The Danish Project Studies have some similarities with Problem-Based Learning (PBL), but also vary in certain ways from the standard PBL model. To make things even more complicated, different Danish universities handle projects differently. The most commonly applied model is the one introduced at Roskilde University in the early 1970s. With small modifications, this model is widely used in the Danish educational system from primary school to the university (Christensen, 2013). Thus, it is the one used at the two university programs I studied during my research project.

At both programs, as well as in other programs at the two universities, the project studies are conducted in groups, which the student's themselves choose based either on topic or on personal choice of fellow group members, or both. The students coordinate and arrange this process themselves. The group work may not be mandatory, and the students do not receive supervision if they choose to work on their projects alone or if they cannot find a group.

From the outset, the groups are formally leaderless, and the ideal is shared or mutual group leadership. This is very hard to practice because the students are provided none or only vague tools to coordinate the group work and the group dynamics. The students are not thoroughly introduced to what it means to work in a group and to the advantages and pitfalls of group work. In Denmark, group work has been so widely spread in the educational system that it now seems to be taken for granted. Everyone is expected to know what group work is and what it means to work in a group. It also is taken for granted that every student has a natural disposition to act like a social human being and a good co-worker in the group. Project study groups are, in other words, naturalized as environments for social acting and personal growth (Illeris, 1981; Ulriksen, 1997). This assumption, *inter alia*, stems from Carl Rogers' concept of *encounter groups* (Rogers, 1969, 1970) and from the naturalization of groups in the early progressive pedagogy (Köhler, 1936; Petersen, 1930).

My research showed that this is an assumption based neither on facts nor research. The naturalization of groups as environments for personal growth is a myth and, thus, hard to question. Contrary to the assumptions, I found that the emphasis on group work created a certain culture among the students at the two programs that was far from tolerant.

## Being a Legitimate Student

First of all, I found the students to be quite occupied with positioning themselves as legitimate and competent. This posturing is based on the fact that students are dependent on acceptance from fellow students in order to establish a project group. If the students are not accepted as part of the group, they could, in the end, be unable to continue their education and to graduate. As far as I could see, this created significant and constant social pressure. As some students told me in an interview, this had an impact on how they contributed—not only in the groups but also in class:

*Karina:* Yes, and people are afraid to say anything in front of each other, and . . .

*Susanne:* It's also because . . . Well, again because of this social pressure, I think [ . . . ] There is this social pressure on you because it means so much which role you get. So when we sit in the auditorium and we all belong to this big group, there is (whispering) no one who dares to say anything . . .

*Karina:* No, because what if you actually stood up and said something completely nonsense?

### **(Student interview, my translation)**

In this quote, the students tell me that it is only a few who dare ask questions in class for fear of appearing stupid. The students pay a lot of attention to each other. They also put a lot of emphasis on how they appear. It seemed easy to get a reputation as a bad student. A great deal depended on gossip. As one student put it, "The grapevine has spoken."

During my analyses of the empirical data, I was able to identify four categories of illegitimate student positions. I already mentioned the stupid. The three other were the lazy, the dominant, and the antisocial. All four positions were identified through the students' stories about other students who did not know how to handle the group and project studies.

Although it seemed quite important for the students not to qualify for a position in one of the four categories, the definitions of the categories seemed rather open. Students could be defined as stupid if they spoke too little or too much in class or did not agree with another group member whom the other students considered as wise or smart. The category of lazy was open for students who preferred to work alone (i.e., transcended the principle of project studies as group work) or who did not attend group meetings. While some students were excluded from the important decisions of the group because of absence from a few group meetings, other group members could miss several group meetings without losing influence. The sanctions seemed to be directly related to the status of the group member.

The dominant position was open for students who were too explicit in trying to be the group leader. This was considered an act of domination and, therefore, illegitimate. But from my perspective some students could actually act quite dominant without having trouble finding a group. Again, much seemed to depend on the acceptance and tolerance from fellow students. Finally, the category of antisocial was open for students who pointed at fellow student's incompetence or lack of work in the group. Although it was illegitimate either to be lazy, stupid, or dominant, it also was illegitimate to bring such problems into the open.

While I was able to identify the categories from the role they played in the students' narratives, I was unable to observe and pinpoint the exact criteria for qualifying for one of these categories. For example, being labeled stupid was not necessarily a question of having academic or cognitive skills. Also, a student could be categorized as both stupid and dominant. At the same time, there seemed to be a great difference in what the students accepted from different fellow students.

The openness and lack of exact definitions did not make the categories less important or less real for the students who were somehow positioned in one or more of the categories and marked as different in a negative manner. Nor did it weaken the importance of the categories to the students who were able to remain unmarked. The categories of illegitimate students seemed to serve as a means for the other students to remain in the good student position, which was in opposition to those four categories. The students would exhibit a great deal of effort to avoid being positioned in one or more of the categories. The energy spent on this in both programs came as a surprise to me.

### ***Gendering and Legitimacy***

Another surprising finding was the way students positioned each other according to gender. When I began my research, I had no focus on gender. As many others in academia, I was gender-blind (Hasse et al., 2002). I thought it played no role in academia and no role in project studies. However, my empirical findings showed me otherwise.

Both programs were characterized by the fact that two-thirds of the students were females. This meant the male students were perhaps not significant and, to some extent, a minority. Although in the minority, both of the groups I followed had male members. Group A consisted of four females and one male, while group B consisted of one female and three males. This gave me insight into the way the group members distributed and handled authority in the groups and the way authority was linked to gender.

### ***Gendered Group Leadership***

As already mentioned, the project groups were constructed without formal leadership. The principle of leaderless groups is, in this case, founded on the model of collective leadership, which stems from the early 1970s.

This model had a significant impact on the way the students spoke about the work process and leadership in the groups. While all the students I interviewed individually would claim they were leaders of their current group, all the students I interviewed in their groups would deny that their group had a leader. I interpreted this contrast in my data as ambivalence toward group leadership. On one hand, leadership is illegitimate because it points to the students' differences with respect to academic and/or cognitive skills. The leader also is the one who will be held responsible if the group does not succeed with their project. On the other hand, the group leader must be the best skilled and smartest of the students. This definition makes the position as leader attractive. Thus, claiming the leader position was tempting for the students when their fellow group members were not listening. If interviewed in the group, pressure would overrule this temptation.

In spite of the denial that there was a group leader, it was obvious to me that the single male member of Group A had a certain position. At every group meeting, he would sit at the head of the table, lean back in his chair with his arms crossed while suggesting new (difficult) literature or complex theory for the other (female) group members to read. Contrary to this, my observations of Group B, which had three males and one female member, showed that the female member was often the one who got the boring tasks. In one of my interviews with this group, one of the male members was quite explicit about the role as leader. When female members acted as leaders, they would act more like secretaries than like real leaders:

Tom: In my former group, I shared the role as group leader with a girl. And the way she was leading the group was just by saying "Okay, we meet at this place and time, and we will be doing this and that." She was not the one to introduce new ideas or theories or the one who had the overall view of the project . . . such as I had when I was the leader.

### **(Student interview, my translation)**

During my observations of Group B, I noticed how the single female member got the boring tasks and also that she did not object to this position. In an interview, she even identified with the role as the group secretary. I also observed that she was the one who did the largest part of the work on the project and that she seemed both wise and smart. The distribution of responsibility and power were not affected according to academic skills. The female member did not fuss over herself. She subjected herself according to the possibilities of the context.

### ***The Attractive Male Students and the Illegitimate Chattering Girls***

Generally, I observed how the male students were sought after in both programs. In one of my individual interviews with a female student, she told how important male group members are for the group to get anything accomplished:

*Minna:* It has been a major problem that we are nine girls in the group . . . we have really been missing . . . a rooster in the chicken coop; one who would say: “Oh, now we’re on the right track!” or “Now we believe in it!” or “Okay, now we divide the group into subgroups” . . . we have been so nice to each other, and there isn’t really someone who is cutting through . . . the result is, that the group work isn’t really progressing.

**(Student interview; my translation)**

Minna tells us, that her group suffered from the lack of male assistance. The ability to lead the group in a way that is considered legitimate and productive for the group to accomplish its task is linked closely to having a male presence. Therefore, the male students were considered attractive group members. In contrast to this, male students either took the female members for granted or considered them a problem. Male members also would tell stories about how female students talked too much during the group meetings. One student told me this was the reason he avoided female students as group members:

*Pelle:* And there we sat at the group meeting, me and my mate. And there is something about women when they meet, it all becomes a mess, nothing came out of the group meetings except for the girl’s chattering. But when the girls finally did split up separately, and were allowed to work individually, they were actually quite productive.

**(Student interview, my translation)**

In this case, it seems as if it was a certain community of female group members that bothered the male student. Through their chatter, the female students created a mono-gendered group-in-the-group that was excluding the male group members. Establishments of mono-gendered groups-in-the-group also could be observed in several of the other groups I followed or interviewed. Nevertheless, this student used the story to legitimize avoiding female students in the groups and thus discriminating against the females as a unit.

***Conflicts and the Illegitimate Crying Females***

All the students and teachers I interviewed referred to common conflicts in students’ project groups. This claim is substantiated by research and evaluations from the Danish project-oriented universities (Hansen, 1997; Keldorff, 1996; Keldorff & Mads, 1999; Laursen, 1994; Lejre & Murning, 2004; Wahlgren, 1977). Even though the problem with conflicts in the groups is well known, actual conflicts are rarely brought into the open. Instead, the groups suffer from bad communication and lack of tools to make cooperation work. The discursive abjection of group conflict is counterproductive to the intentions of the project studies.

The students did not explicitly express the abjection of the actual group conflicts. But when they told me about the conflicts, it was rarely with reference to their present groups. Instead, the problematic stories were about former groups or other groups in the program. By “othering” the conflicts, they seemed to become safer as an object of discussion and perhaps even solution (Christensen, 2013). The students seemed to use stories about the “other” groups as a way to discuss present problems and to warn their fellow group members about what could happen if they transcended the borders of good behavior in the current group.

Again, I found that references to specific kinds of behavior, considered problematic to the group work, were used to question the legitimacy of the female students. Among those were the stories that pointed at the female group members as problematic because they would start to cry when the male members were too

straightforward in discussions. As was the case with the stories about chattering; there were a number of stories about crying female group members who could not withstand the sometimes tough group discussions. The following quote is an example from a, interview with a group of five members—four males and one female. The one telling the story is a male:

*Asger:* Some of the girls in my former project group were yelling at each other and crying. It was pretty mad. It was a crying orgy at every group meeting. It was like this in the group: there was someone who would sit and scream at others and cry and such, and then there were some of us, who actually were trying to work [ . . . ] so we had to do some homework instead.

**(Student interview, my translation)**

In the students' stories, the chattering and the tendency to cry were attached to the females. I didn't hear stories about male students crying or chattering. It seemed quite difficult for the female students to object to this positioning. In the above-mentioned group interview, the female student tried to resist the positioning as a possibly weak and crying student. Instead, she tried to tell a different story in an effort to create a different position for herself. Pernille is the female student:

*Ole:* There are a lot of people who start crying if you are too hard.

(soft laughter)

*Pernille:* Yes--I'm looking forward to that.

*Rune:* What do you mean? Anything special you were referring to?

*Pernille:* No, no, no, no, but I mean it can actually occur

More of the group members: Oh yes, it can.

*Pernille:* Well, I'd say we were [ . . . ] Torben in my last semester's project group told us that the reason why he said uhh so much and took so long time to express himself, was because he always got the women to cry in his groups.

*Ole:* OK!

(laughter)

*Pernille* (raises her voice): Well, I had the opposite; I felt like – OK – come on with it, come on, let's see...

(talk)

*Pernille:* It didn't happen!!

**(Student interview; my translation)**

As this quote shows, the male students did not accept the storyline about the strong, emancipated woman that the female student tried to describe. This version of the story weakens the male member's storyline, which describes the female students as weak, chattering, vulnerable, and crying. The male's story questions the female students' legitimacy and academic competence.

Crying during group discussions is considered an emotional response, which is incompatible with academic rationale. In addition, crying and chattering take time from the group's work on the project. Through these stories, the female students were questioned both as group members and as qualified students. Thus, the stories would legitimize if male students chose to discriminate against the female students to avoid joining a group of

female students. This kind of discrimination would never have been tolerated—in Denmark or at the Danish university—if it had been more explicitly verbalized. These stories were impactful and made it harder to question the tacit discrimination.

### The Dominant, Playful Boys and the Mothering Female Students

Although the male students were sought after to join groups, they were not regarded as without problems. First, some males were considered to have a tendency to dominate. In those cases, the students referred to them as alpha males, the ones who had the most access to food and sex and, thus, the ones that nature has chosen to reproduce. The alpha male also is the most aggressive and suppresses other group members.

The dominant (male) group member was regarded with admiration, envy, disdain, and fear. While some of the male students who were designated alpha males seemed to be more like an object of admiration, others seemed more an object of disdain. But the alpha males always were male students. I didn't hear stories about "alpha females." Not that the signs of domination were unilaterally connected to males. Female students, who were defined as dominating, were simply not considered to possess the alpha qualities. The strong female student was not mentioned.

Second, the male students were considered casual than the female students. This casual attitude could be found in a playfulness that took time and focus from the group work. This was at stake in an interview with a group of three students--two females and one male. The quote below follows a story told by the male member, Arne, about a former group that consisted of only male members who were playing Play Station and drinking beer instead of studying:

*Marie:* When our group meets, it is not just to play Play Station and drink beer.

G: Mmm . . . are you also doing stuff like that?

*Marie:* Nooo . . .

*Arne:* No.

*Marie:* No, we're not playing Play Station, ha, ha . . .

*Arne:* Ha, ha . . .

### (Student interview, my translation)

In this case, Marie uses irony to emphasize the illegitimacy of the male playfulness, but her message is clear. When the group meets, it is to work. Marie is setting the stage, and Arne must follow. The irony of her sentences contains a hidden thread. If Arne does not conform to the rules, he can risk exclusion from the group.

The masculine playfulness also was at stake in one of my interviews with Group A (i.e., the group of four females and one male member). Carl is the male member:

*Mette:* We have seen a lot of students spending time playing football in the last intensive and finishing phase of the project study.

The rest of the (female) group members: Yes!

*Carl:* But this is not going to happen in this group.

*Mette:* Nooo.

(loud laughter)

*Mette:* Carl will be playing solo.

### **(Student interview, my translation)**

Much like Marie in the other interview, Mette is positioning herself as the grown-up who would never be playful and take time from the group work. The interaction positions Carl as an irresponsible, playful child. This laid-back attitude could have placed Carl in a position close to lazy. But he did not seem affected. It was obvious that his good student position was not threatened. Carl was the male student mentioned earlier who was always sitting at the head of the table. Mette could not threaten his legitimacy.

As a result, the group's male supervisor began to question Mette's actions. In an interview, he told me that he considered the mothering female students as a major problem at the university. On one hand, mothering implies caring and, on the other hand, suppression and socializing the child. Therefore, mothering can be considered as a way of being dominant. But it is a way different from the alpha male students. The mother (or the grown-up, in general) can be quite annoying to the child. This was actually what the supervisor was referring to. He, too, eventually found the female students quite annoying and dominant.

Although the female students were in majority at the program, the good student, in other words, still seemed to be defined by male student performance.

### **Conclusion**

My findings indicated that the students' stories play an important role in defining what it means to be a good student. In both programs, it seemed quite easy to get a reputation as either stupid, lazy, dominant, or antisocial. Being positioned in one or more of the categories of illegitimate student would inevitably lead to problems in establishing or being accepted into a project group.

My research further indicated that gender stereotyping is involved in the inclusion, exclusion, and abjection of specific students. The female students, who were in the majority, were considered problems in different and more ways than the male students. Although the male members were deemed as having tendencies of being either too dominant or too lazy, they were in demand and were asked to be in the groups.

In contrast, the female members were either taken for granted or characterized as creating problems. Although they were considered as good group workers, they were not seen as equally important for the groups as the male members. Beyond this, the female students were considered as having a tendency to fall back into traditional female behavior that included weaknesses such as chattering, crying, and mothering. In an academic context, these behaviors are considered problematic. The stories about the chattering and crying female students legitimized the male student's exclusion of the female students from their groups.

My findings are questioning not only the academic gender blindness but also the general Danish discourse of equality according to gender. In Denmark, discrimination according to gender is illegal and considered unethical. The problem is not only that the discrimination exists among the students, but also that it is not brought into the open. Instead, it flourishes in the myths, the stories, the chatter, and the hidden practices of exclusion. When it is not brought into the open, it cannot be discussed, handled, and eliminated.

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## SUBMISSION GUIDE

### NOTES TO THE CONTRIBUTORS

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Manuscripts must be written in English and grammar and spelled-checked. Full, single manuscripts are encouraged, and multiple-part papers are discouraged. Manuscripts must include the sections listed below in the order they are presented. The entire text should be **single-spaced**, typed using 12 pt. font size and Times New Roman font face. Submitting an incomplete manuscript or a manuscript that does not adhere to the word limits will cause a delay in review.

#### 2. General Manuscript Requirement

**2.1 Format:** Files should first be submitted as a Word document; after the paper has been reviewed and returned back to the authors the final corrected paper must be proof-read to eliminate any typo. Page layout of the text must be 10” by 7”, all margins should be 1”. The final document should be returned preferable as a pdf document. Paragraph edges must be uniformly aligned as seen in this author’s guide

**2.2 Article Length:** The word limit for the manuscript is 3500--5000 words including citations and references. Article should not be more than 10 single space pages of 10” by 7” not the usual 11” by 8.”

**2.3 Article Title:** Title should be **no more than 15 words**, bold, sentence case, 14 pt. font size.

**2.4 Title Page:** Should include the following.

- a. *Author Details* (Full name of author(s), affiliation, and e-mail address of corresponding author only). Indicate corresponding author with an asterisk as superscript before surname.
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### **4. Abstract (250 words maximum):**

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### **5. Introduction (450 words maximum)**

The Introduction should briefly indicate the purpose of the study and provide sufficient background information to clarify why the research was undertaken and what hypotheses or theories were tested.

### **6. Materials and Methods**

Materials and Methods section should be sufficient to allow other investigators to replicate the research. The methodology should be clearly stated, whether quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method. References should comply with published models and procedures adopted. All companies from which materials were obtained should be listed. If materials were obtained from an individual, an affiliation for that individual should be listed.

### **7. Literature Review:**

The Literature Review section should include adequate coverage of prior research on the subject matter, if available. Outside sources, such as scholarly research and peer-reviewed articles, are encouraged to validate the study. If materials were obtained from an individual, an affiliation for that individual should be listed.

### **8. Findings/Results:**

The Findings (you may choose to use Results) section should be clear and precise. Only the vital results that establish the main points of the study should be included. Numerical data should be analyzed using appropriate statistical tests.

### **9. Discussion (1000 words maximum):**

The Discussion section should be clear and concise and must include a brief statement of the principal findings, discussion of the validity of the observations, discussion of the findings in light of other published work dealing with the same or closely related subjects, and a statement of the possible significance of the work.

### **10. Conclusion (250 words maximum)**

The conclusion should be clear and concise to summarize the entire paper.

### **11 Limitations (optional)**

The Limitation section should portray the study limitations in terms of generalizations, areas for future research, and other related factors. The limitations may be included under the conclusion.

## 12. References

The References section indicates adequate credit to authors cited in the research. *APA Publication Manual* (6th ed.) should be followed in overall formatting and referencing within the paper. References must be listed in alphabetical order. About 40% of the references should be within 5-year time frame to ensure current sources validate the research.

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### 13.1 Text Citation

All tables must be numbered independently of figures, multimedia, and 3D models, and cited at the relevant point in the manuscript text, e.g., “Table 1”, “Table 2”, and so forth.

### 13.2 Table Caption

A title should appear above the table, in 8 pt. font, flushed to the left, and in lower case font only the first letter capitalized.

### 13.3 Table Format

The formatting of Tables is required to follow APA 6th edition guidelines. For help with how to format a Table, refer to <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/19/>

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