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Factors Influencing the Ethical Conduct of Public Relations Practitioners in Commercial Banks in Namibia

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Abstract

This study examines factors that influence the ethical conduct of practising Public Relations (PR) practitioners in commercial banks of Namibia. Such factors relate to the ethical behaviour of Public Relations professionals working in commercial banks. The factors include the presence of binding codes of ethics and conduct, individual moral compasses, pressure from top management, a sense of duty towards humanity, and knowledge of ethics and professionalism. This analysis reveals that PR practitioners face ethical challenges and dilemmas from the banks' dominant coalitions, ambiguous codes of ethics, speedy communication to the public necessitated by the news media, and the clash between the core values that inform the duty of PR professionals and those that prop up organisational culture. Ultimately, the challenges and dilemmas they confront in their work determines the way they conduct themselves ethically. The study conceives that PR practitioners are torn between upholding PR values that inform their duty and standing up for organisational values as advocated for by the dominant coalition. Ironically, PR practitioners are regarded as the ethical conscience of the commercial banks who, as per recommendations of the study, are expected to practise ethically and live up to their mandate of being custodians of ethical communication.

Keywords: Public relations; ethical conduct; law; moral reasoning

Introduction

This study examines the factors that influence the ethical conduct of PR practitioners practising in commercial banks in Namibia. The historical trends which associated Public Relations (PR) with lying, bluffing, spin-doctoring and all kinds of unethical practices lie in the one-way communication models that characterised the early years of PR (Grunig and Hunt 1984).

Notably, the four models of PR as proposed by Grunig and Hunt summarise the historical development of PR. Press agentry was a one-way communication type of communication for information dissemination focusing on publicity for persuasion and attention (ibid). Further, the public information was another one-way model of communication for disseminating information from organisations to the public. The two-way asymmetrical model was an imbalanced model of

communication that was much inclined to the persuading of the public by organisations emphasising their own interest at the expense of the publics' interest. Finally, the two-way symmetrical model of communication is more balanced in terms of creating mutual understanding and has led to the current definitions of PR (Skinner *et al*. 2007).

The most widely cited definition of PR perceives the concept as the management of communication between an organisation and its public (Grunig and Hunt, 1984). According to the Public Relations Institute of Southern Africa (PRISA), PR is the deliberate, planned and sustained effort to establish and maintain mutual understanding between the organisation and its public both internally and externally (Skinner *et al*. 2007). The proponents of PR as a field of study and as a management function maintain that PR professionals are the ethics counsellors of the organisation who counsel leadership and sensitise them to public perceptions and their impact on the organisation (Skinner *et al*. 2007).

Grunig and Hunt (1984) substantiate this claim by asserting that PR practitioners should be the conscience for their organisations and that PR as a corporate conscience should be the self-identity of PR practitioners. Furthermore, PR practitioners should deliver timely analysis and recommendations for the effective governance of the stakeholder relationships by enhancing transparency, trustworthy behaviour, authentic and verifiable representation, in the process sustaining the organisation's licence to operate (Newsom *et al*. 2010). PR practitioners have the role of introducing moral values and social responsibility into organisational decisions (ibid). Therefore, PR practitioners should uphold integrity, transparency and honesty among other values, as they practise their profession.

A Historical Overview on Centrality of Ethics to Banking Business

The value of finance and the economy in general as linked to the commercial function of the banking industry can never be overstated. A healthy relationship between commercial banks and the population whose money and wealth they manage largely hinges on mutual understanding and sound relations that are promoted by the Public Relations practitioners. This mutual understanding and working relationship can only be fostered if there is trust and confidence in the way banks communicate with the public. However, not long ago the world's financial system nearly collapsed when this trust and confidence which clients had in the banks was breached. The financial crisis between 2006 and 2008 was a major blow to the fidelity, and trust between the financial institutions and their clients hit an obstacle.

According to the USA Federal Reserve Education (2012), in the autumn of 2008, American banking clients woke up to the collapse of three big financial institutions in the world economy; the Investment Bank for Lehman Brothers, the Savings and Loan Bank and the Washington Mutual. "The extensive web of connections among major financial institutions meant the failure of how one could start a cascade of losses throughout the financial system" (The USA Federal Reserve Education 2012: 35). The consequential fall of the banking industry had far-reaching effects that included the mortgage crisis and the falling of stock markets. This led to the ethical culture of banks being scrutinised. Research like the one titled: *Ethics in the Banking Industry: Identifying the industrial and external factors influencing the behaviour in the industry,* was done by Thiam (2015). Closer to home, the collapse of the SME Bank in Namibia led to the loss of nearly N$175 million (Menges 2018). Many small businesses and clients who had money in this bank lost their hard-earned cash due to unethical conduct by the bank owners. It is against this backdrop that this research seeks to explore the ethical conduct of PR practitioners who are the link between the banks and the public that they serve. Their duty and mandate is to timely, accurately and truthfully communicate with the public about the financial health of the banks.

Selected commercial banks namely, First National Bank (FNB), Standard Bank and Bank Windhoek were used in the investigation. FNB was established in 1998 out of the union between Rand Merchant Holdings and Anglo-American (FNB 2018). Notably, in Namibia FNB is ranked the top commercial bank in terms of market share, capital adequacy and profitability. On the other hand, Bank Windhoek is ranked the second top commercial bank in Namibia boasting 36 years of trading experience and local roots (Bank Windhoek 2018). Standard Bank (2018), which was opened in this country in 1915 today operates more than fifty-one (51) branches and agencies. Significantly, all three commercial banks have expressed a commitment towards building relationships within the communities they do business with; hence, they have Public Relations or Communication Managers to spearhead such trust. Public relations, marketing communication, advertising and persuasive communication are all important areas in relationship building, and persuasion used in marketing communication aims to find ways to convincingly sell products to markets. Persuasion in advertising aims to believably inform audiences about products with the intent of selling them, just as persuasion used in public relations aims to give positive images to corporations, create mutual understanding and build trust among the public (Adebayo 2018).

Commercial Banks Codes of Ethics

The selected commercial banks have codes of ethics and conduct that spell out the values or principles that they cherish. Standard Bank has a policy document or code of ethics that spells out eight values that define its existence and operations. The values are summarised as eight broad principles namely: growing our people, serving our customers, constantly raising the bar, upholding the highest level of integrity, delivering to our shareholders, being proactive, working in teams and respecting each other (Standard Bank 2018). The bank expects all its employees to live these values by being fair, applying the bank's values and principles constantly, maintaining good corporate governance, sharing accurate information, recognising human integrity, being honest and avoiding conflicts of interest, and combating unethical activities and behaviour (Standard Bank 2018).

FNB (2018) has a policy document that seeks to promote ethical business practices and standards within its ranks and provide a benchmark for all behaviour in the organisation. The bank sees the code of ethics as a provider of clear parameters about acceptable principles among the bank's employees and it acts as an important reference point that facilitates greater empowerment and faster value-based decision-making (ibid). Interestingly, all the selected banks expect their employees by obligation to seek guidance in the face of arising ethical dilemmas and challenges. All employees must comply with the written words and spirit of the code of ethics (FNB 2018). FNB's (2018) values are summarised as 'I am Helpful, I am Effective, I am Ethical, I am Innovative, and I am Accountable'.

Bank Windhoek subscribes to the values of discipline, transparency, independence, accountability, responsibility, fairness and social responsibility (Bank Windhoek 2018). As a commercial bank that is wholly Namibian, it encourages, through its ethics code, a working environment in which loyalty, integrity and trust prevails (ibid). The core values that are the pillars of the bank are documented in books, online and displayed in the working corridors of the banks to act as constant reminders of their importance to all employees.

Perspectives on Ethics in Public Relations

Questions about ethics in PR have been asked by the public, scholars and the business world. Questions such as: Are there ethics in PR? Is ethical PR possible? Are PR practitioners professional? These probing questions have led to research being done on the factors affecting

the ethical practice of PR practitioners within organisations and PR firms. More inquiry has been done regarding the latter than the former. Undoubtedly, the presence of a code of ethics tends to encourage practitioners to uphold ethics in their work and when top management in PR firms and organisations are perceived as strongly supporting the upholding of ethical principles, practitioners are likely to practice ethically (Bowen 2007). In another analysis, Bowen (2007) asserts that although the current PR practise leans heavily on the code of ethics held by professional associations, membership remains voluntary, meaning some practise without belonging to an association.

Of significance is the fact that professional experience rather than academic study comes handy when PR professionals are faced with dilemmas, paying attention to ethics before crisis befalls the organisation and affects the PR practitioners' ethical conduct. Bowen (2007) concluded that being knowledgeable about the value systems of the organisation and knowing one's values you hold and espouse as an individual and as a PR practitioner will have a direct influence on moral reasoning and ethical conduct in the face of ethical dilemmas. Idid and Arandas (2016) found that professionalism and ethics have an influence on the professional values of PR practitioners, and in addition education and length of service both influence professionalism and ethical practice. Further surveys found that few PR practitioners have the educational background or theoretical tools needed to serve as PR professionals (Bowen 2008 as cited in Grunig 2014: 14). This is critical because according to Grunig (2014) most practitioners who participated in the survey thought that PR practitioners should act as a corporate conscience.

For practitioners to do that, they need to be deeply informed about the concept of PR and the theoretical framework under which it works. Therefore, PR and communication professionals have a mandate to define an organisation's character and values and to instil responsible behaviour in individuals and organisations if their role is understood. Thiam (2015) agrees with this claim by asserting that PR practitioners should enhance transparency and trustworthy behaviour with authentic and verifiable representation, thereby sustaining the organisation's licence to operate. On the other hand, Downe, Cowell and Morgan (2016) alluded that the actions of the company leaders can be important in promoting good conduct and fostering an ethical culture in any organisation. These findings have been from research done in different fields, but few have been done on banking, particularly the ethical conduct of PR practitioners working for banks in which many clients put their trust and faith as custodians of their money. Some research was devoted to ethical issues in the banking industry in general especially after the economic crisis or financial crisis of 2007-2008 that saw several trusted or ethical banks collapsing. This present investigation seeks to fill some of the gaps in ethical communication and conduct by PR practitioners in banks.

Birkan (2009) defines a dilemma as a problem in which one is faced with two or more choices all of which are objectionable for one reason or the other. In addition, Lieber (2003) asserts that to be a successful PR practitioner requires making intelligent, split-second decisions on situations laden with ethical dilemmas whether you are working for an agency, corporation, as a solo consultant or for government's public affairs. Providing truthful information, even when it does harm to the reputation of the organisation poses a dilemma to PR professionals. In addition, offering an authentic context is a challenge on its own because an ethical communication offers more than mere facts (ibid). Kirat (2014) asserts that PR ethics consist of values such as honesty, loyalty, social responsibility, respect, fairness, integrity and responsible and forthright communication. As such, these values are tested when PR practitioners advise company leaders on ethical issues. Values may clash or leaders may be contemplating violating company values.

Additionally, Birkan (2009) identified two problems in business; the acute dilemma- when one truly does not know what the right thing to do is and the acute rationalisation when one does know the right thing to do but fails to do it. Kang (2009) substantiated the work on ethical dilemmas faced

by PR practitioners by conducting a survey on ethical conflict and 65.7 per cent of the respondents said that they had experienced ethical conflict or ethical dissonance. Public relations practitioners do not work in a vacuum; they work for people, with the people and through the people. Consequently, they face challenges that a few writers and researchers alike have noted. Bowen (2007) points out that the greatest pressure of PR practitioners comes from the management's misunderstanding of the role of PR. They believe PR always works to represent the company in a positive light. This means lies, manipulation and propaganda would become the business of PR.

Implications for Ethical Theories on Fair Practices by PR Practitioners

Three theories of ethics namely, the ethical theory, the consequential theory and the deontological ethics theory provide insight into the behaviour of PR professionals. According to Daymon and Holloway (2002), a theoretical framework can guide one's research work. Simply put, a theory contributes to the greater body of knowledge when it is re-contextualised into a variety of settings (ibid). The validity, relevance, authenticity and credibility of research work should be backed by a theoretical framework. Its principles could be applied in one's research. For ethical issues, it could be especially valid if all three theories of ethics are used. In making ethical decisions, PR practitioners find themselves drawing principles from the three depending on the two conflicting values that they are faced with.

Ethical Theory

Public relations are not only about building and maintaining relationships between a company and its public. It is a profession that is punctuated with ethical dilemmas and challenges that can only be resolved if ethical knowledge is available to the practising PR practitioners. For PR practitioners to become the corporate conscience or counsellors, they must have a strong foundation of the theoretical knowledge that governs ethical behaviour in the practise of public relations. An in-depth knowledge of these theories is of paramount importance in making rational or ethical decisions in PR. Grunig (2014) asserts that ethical theories of PR provide the principles that PR professionals employ in moral reasoning and decision making, while Day (2006) says that ethics is all about the conflict between equally compelling values and the choices that must be made between them. In other words, when two elements of a value system collide, there is the need to call upon ethical principles to come out of the ethical dissonance.

Bowen (2008) identifies three types of ethics namely, meta-ethics, normative ethics and applied ethics. "Meta-ethics examines the meanings of ethical terms such as good, right, wrong, justice among others" (Grunig 2014: 14). This means that they are descriptive in nature, thus they give meaning to the ethical language. On the other hand, applied ethics are the link between the theory and the practice. Plaisance (2009) claims that applied ethics deals with the analysis of moral issues that punctuate both private and public life, while meta-ethics are descriptive, applied normative ethics are prescriptive. Day (2006) supports this claim by pointing out that normative ethics present rules and principles that should give boundaries to practising PR practitioners' behaviour. Many researchers, on ethical conduct and issues in the work of PR practitioners, have used the normative ethics as the theoretical framework for their research work. Plaisance (2009) identifies three branches of normative ethics as, consequential or teleological ethics, deontological or duty ethics, and virtue ethics. Bowen (2008) substantiates that these branches are helpful to PR practitioners when making ethical decisions or in moral reasoning.

Consequential Ethics

According to Grunig (2014), consequentiality holds that the consequences of one's conduct are the ultimate basis for any moral judgement about the rightness or the wrongness of an act. Further, consequential ethics branches into four; utilitarianism, egoism, altruism and hedonism. Bowen (2008) asserts that utilitarianism seeks the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people or the majority. On the other hand, egoism denotes that an action is morally right if it produces favourable consequences to the individual. Grunig (2014) asserts that altruism seeks desirable consequences for everyone else except the moral agent, whereas hedonism, seeks to maximise pleasure and happiness at the expense of pain. What derives this theory is the desire to do good particularly on the part of PR practitioners in order to achieve self and public satisfaction.

Deontological Ethics

Grunig (2014) states that Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) was the proponent of duty or deontological ethics that reject the significance of consequences in decision making. Kant believed the guiding principles should define rightness or wrongness of a moral act. Simply put, one has a duty to play regardless of the circumstances or consequences. Plaisance (2009) reinforces Kant's categorical imperative that states that one should perform an act on the condition that one agrees that everyone else be allowed to act likewise. In other words, there is no consideration for cultural relativism.

Virtue Ethics

Bowen (2008) asserts that virtue ethics describe the personality of the moral agent as the drive behind ethical behaviour. In other words, virtue or moral character comes under the spotlight at the expense of ethical duties, rules or the consequences of a situation. Day (2006) substantiates this claim by saying that an act is right if a virtuous person would carry out the same under the same circumstances. The PR practitioners who are virtuous would follow values that inform their practice such as fairness, honesty, integrity, loyalty among others. Researchers have found out that practising PR practitioners employ all three branches of normative ethics because they are prescriptive to ethical dilemmas that they face. Choosing which branch to apply in ethical decision making would be determined by the kind of challenge or dilemma.

Applicability of Ethics Theory

There are practising PR practitioners who would use consequential ethics in making ethical decisions, while others either knowingly or unknowingly would employ the duty or deontological ethics. As mentioned in the introduction, it would be hard for a practising PR practitioner to ascribe to only theory of ethics because the various situations they find themselves in could call for duty, consequence or virtue ethics. The findings of the research would however highlight the commonly applied ethics by practising PR practitioners in commercial banks. As part of the data collection, the researcher would seek to find out about the ethical theories that PR practitioners use when making ethical decisions. The research would establish the rationale behind choosing one theory at the expense of the others.

Methodology and Research Design

According to Adebayo (2015), research design articulates what data is required, what methods are going to be used to collect and analyse data, and how all of this is going to answer the research question. This study took a qualitative approach guided by the interpretive research

paradigm. Qualitative research was chosen because it is commonly used in PR and marketing communications research work. Qualitative research is an interpretive research approach relying on multiple types of subjective data and investigation of the peoples' situations in their natural environment (Daymon and Holloway 2002). Ethical issues require qualitative research which can explore and present various subjective perspectives of participants (ibid). Additionally, the study of ethical conduct requires a holistic approach because of the interconnected activities, experiences, beliefs and values of the people in terms of the context in which they are situated (Christensen *et al.*, 2011). Purposeful or purposive sampling was used in the qualitative research (Daymon and Holloway 2002).

Although it was a qualitative study, the research included all the PR professionals or communication officers, in the event of the absence of PR practitioners, in FNB, Bank Windhoek and Standard Bank being the selected Windhoek commercial banks. Purposive sampling was used to identify the professionals who have the experience and knowledge required for this research. Six communication practitioners including Public Relations managers, communications managers and communication officers were interviewed. Semi- structured interviews were used as research instruments and for triangulation purposes, a key informant interview was employed. The key informant was chosen based on the experience that she possesses in the Public Relations industry.

The study sample managed to provide enough data for thematic analysis that was used in data analysis. Data was presented and discussed according to themes that emerged from the data collected. The themes were discussed based on the research questions. This means that the data collected was grouped under the five research questions that the study had identified. Subsequently, the thematic analysis was complemented by ethical theories and the literature reviewed was corroborated. The study sought to provide answers to the following questions:

i. What defines an ethical or unethical practising PR practitioner?
ii. Which factors influence the ethical conduct of PR practitioners practising in commercial banks?
iii. What are the current challenges that are being faced by PR practitioners practising in commercial banks that could influence their ethical conduct?
iv. Which ethical dilemmas uniquely confront PR professionals in the commercial banks?
v. What improvements can be made to the practise of the PR profession in commercial banks?

Data Analysis and Discussions

Participants' Understanding of Ethical and Unethical Conduct

The participants indicated that PR practitioners who align themselves with the highest standards of their code of ethics and conduct are ethical. One interviewee said, "general principles of ethical behaviour such as the focus of honesty, dignity, respect and human rights best describe an ethical PR practitioner" (Interviewee C, 12 June 2018). Chiefly, PR practitioners are paragons of ethical behaviour whose conduct in practice mandates them to be ethical counsellors of the banks (Grunig 2014). Furthermore, the respondents asserted that ethical conduct in commercial banks entails acting in the best interest of the organisation and all the stakeholders. Equally important, the participants said that ethical practitioners subscribe to the general moral principles of ethical behaviour such as truthfulness, integrity, fairness, transparency, respect, dignity and honesty among others.

It is important to realise that duty ethics give ethical PR practitioners in commercial banks a clear duty to perform regardless of the consequences of being fired by top management (Bowen 2007).

On the other hand, the respondents indicated that unethical PR practitioners do not comply with the binding codes of ethics and conduct within the commercial banks and of PRISA, the body that governs the ethical practise of PR professions under its wings. Similarly, the participants believe that the unethical PR behaviour of bribery, spin-doctoring, lying and compromising comes out of self-interest not from the desire to serve the good of the organisation, the public or the profession one stands for.

"There is a historical trend of associating public relations with all things unethical - lying, spin-doctoring and even espionage, bribery, distorting public communication channels and manipulative persuasion," another respondent noted. In other words, amoral PR professionals are motivated by egoism that allows them to justify their moral actions as right as long as they produce favourable benefits or consequences (Jung *et al*. 2012). These self-seeking PR practitioners act unethically for self-aggrandisement or personal financial gain. Additionally, the respondents assert that unethical PR conduct is characterised by espionage, propaganda, distorting public communication channels and engaging in the manipulative persuasion of the public as opposed to faithful, honest, credible, undistorted public communication and straightforward persuasion (Thiam 2015). Both ethical and unethical conduct of PR practitioners is attributed to a few factors.

Factors Influencing Participants' Ethical Conduct

Literature qualifies that the ethical behaviour of PR practitioners working in commercial banks does not happen in a vacuum. Research corroborates with the compelling evidence in literature that numerous factors play a part in the way PR practitioners conduct themselves. To begin with, participants indicated that the contractual obligation as described in the code of ethics within the commercial banks guide PR practitioners in moral reasoning and making sound ethical decisions (Thiam 2015). One respondent said, "the bank's policies, PR codes of ethics and personal conviction influence how I behave as a PR practitioner" (Interviewee A, 12 June 2018). Secondly, the respondents assert that a strong personal and ethical compass is of paramount importance in guiding one to behave ethically. Arandas (2013) delves deeper by asserting that the character of the moral agent (PR practitioner) is the driving force behind the ethical behaviour rather than ethical duty, rules or consequences.

In addition, the participants believe that the practising practitioners whose moral compasses are always switched on can reason well and handle moral questions in their job well. Equally, the interviewees claim that organisational policies and the PRISA code of ethics and practice are helpful in determining ethical conduct. By the same token, the interviewees said that a PR practitioner's good understanding of morality rules supreme in engaging in ethical decision making. Coupled with the presence of religious beliefs, knowledge of morals plays a significant role in determining ethical behaviour. Bowen (2007) further elaborates on this claim arguing that the ethical theory has it that people learn well-thought out moral reasoning by practise in the community (family, church, friends and society at large).

To put it differently, the respondents assert that PR practitioners with strong personal conviction, morals and integrity are in a better position to conduct themselves ethically in their work of communicating ethically. Knowledge of ethics in PR entails awareness of the significance of upholding integrity always. Grunig (2014) asserts that the of ethics subscribes to this line of thought and practice by substantiating that a virtuous character is part of character development that is only perfected through habitual practise, moral reasoning, repetitive moral behaviour and inculcation of the notion of good. In other words, the participants indicated that constant exposure to situations that call for the application or prescription of normative ethics influence the way PR practitioners in commercial banks deal with ethical situations. Thiam (2015) observes that in a like manner, the role of the organisational culture and the authoritative voice of top management

or the dominant coalition can never be overemphasised in directing ethical behaviour among PR practitioners in commercial banks. Important to note is that there are many challenges identified through the research that currently confront practising PR practitioners working in commercial banks in Namibia.

Ethical Challenges Facing PR Practitioners Practising in Commercial Banks

A myriad of ethical challenges that could easily sway PR practitioners into making unethical decisions are present in the working environment as alluded to by the interviewees. "Financial gain, [and] internal pressure from the employer challenges some of PR practitioners into compromising the ethical values they stand for", said one interviewee (Interviewee B, 27 May 2018). Firstly, the respondents felt that the way in which the code of ethics are crafted poses a big challenge to the practise of ethical PR. Birkan (2009) reinforces this claim by asserting that the code of ethics that PR practitioners work with are not practically oriented to help the professionals apply their principles with ease. Similarly, the interviewees indicated that internal pressure from employers to represent the banks in only a positive light directly influences the way practitioners make their ethical decisions.

Jung *et al*. (2012) substantiate this claim by conceding that what PR practitioners are demanded or ordered to do sometimes contradicts the values of forthright communication such as transparency, honesty, trustworthiness and integrity among others. The participants said that PR professionals end up misrepresenting facts or misinforming the public to follow the commands or orders of top management. As an illustration, the respondents asserted that commercial bank directors' and managers' business decisions are motivated by the desire to rake in huge financial gains and profits even if it means sacrificing organisational integrity and compromising business ethics. A point most overlooked is that the values that inform the duty of PR practitioners are mostly compromised due to pressure from the dominant coalition (Lieber 2003).

Moreover, the interviewees said that PR practitioners in commercial banks are challenged by the advent of the new forms of media that enable the public they serve to make comments about the banks that they cannot speedily respond to in order to avoid reputation damage (Kirat 2014). In this case, the participants believe that crisis management or reputation management becomes almost impossible for the PR practitioner to undertake. Kang (2009) also notes that PR practitioners end up reacting to media comments with emotions rather than ethical principles. However, the interviewees alluded that PR practitioners should communicate how nice and ethical the banks are to the community they serve. In addition to the challenges, PR practitioners face ethical dilemmas that punctuate their work in commercial banks.

Ethical Dilemmas Characterising the Work of PR Practitioners in Commercial Banks

The respondents also noted that the ethical dilemmas confronted by practising PR professionals in commercial banks have a direct impact on the way they conduct themselves ethically. Like any other PR practitioners working in other fields, there is the clash of interests of the public and the organisation represented. Values of the organisation clash with the values that guide the practice of PR such as loyalty, fairness, respect, integrity and social responsibility. "Another dilemma is the need to emphasise the positive instead of the negatives that would be overwhelming in a particular situation", said one respondent (Interviewee C, 27 May 2018). Bowen (2007) opines that PR practitioners in most cases are torn between serving the interests of the public with forthright communication and representing the commercial banks in a positive light even if it means compromising ethical values. To put it in a different way, PR practitioners find themselves in ethical dissonance (Bowen 2007).

Notably, the participants indicated that most PR practitioners practising in commercial banks do not work for independent PR agencies, rather, they are on the payroll of the banks. Inasmuch as they would like to subscribe to the values of PRISA, they have a contractual duty to serve the interests of the bank that employees them even if it means compromising ethical values. Similarly, the interviewees said that the PR practitioners become ethically numb when they are supposed to counsel the dominant coalition on ethical matters, yet they are subordinates of the top level of management in the organisation. Grunig (2014) echoes the same sentiments by maintaining that in an organisational culture, giving advice or counsel is easy when it is top to bottom not the other way around.

Equally, the respondents observed that it is morally mind-splitting or guilt-inducing for PR professionals to only highlight the positives of the banks that have negatives which the public should know about or already know about through social media. Lieber (2003) delves deeper opining that most PR practitioners will never tell the public that the bank is not performing well financially in fear of causing a client exodus to rival banks. In the end the public ends up losing millions of dollars, like the case of SME Bank stakeholders in 2017. Last but not least, the participants indicated that sometimes PR practitioners do not know exactly what the right thing is to do in a given ethical situation, or they do know what must be done but they fail to execute it (Day 2006). In the light of the aforementioned factors, challenges and ethical dilemmas surrounding the ethical conduct of PR practitioners, it is imperative to consider recommendations aimed at improving the way PR practitioners conduct themselves ethically.

Recommendations Aimed at Improving PR Practitioners Ethical Conducts

The foregoing indicates that the ethical conduct of PR practitioners can be improved by making and implementing recommendations based on the conceived factors, challenges and ethical dilemmas. Hence, it is recommended that organisational culture and the values that inform the duty of PR practitioners be aligned to avoid a clash of interests. Equally important, PR practitioners should be part of the dominant coalition in the commercial banks to enable them to give counsel to executives, directors and managers on legal and ethical matters that pertain to communicating with the public.

Downe, Cowell and Morgan (2016) challenge the dominant coalition of banks to consider Public Relations as part of the decision-making body of the organisations to make it easy for PR to play the role of the conscience of the organisation. In addition, PR practitioners should familiarise themselves with applied ethics and their application in order to help them execute their duties competently. Notably, practising practitioners should adhere strictly to the organisational and professional code of ethics to avoid compromising the values that inform their profession. In other words, integrity pays all the time. Moreover, the code of ethics should be made with accompanying enforcement articles that will help to monitor the ethical breaches or infringements by PR professionals.

Expressively, sanctions or penalties should be made the consequences of breaching or infringing the code of ethics. Lieber (2003) goes further to assert that such enforcement will act as a deterrent to would-be-unethical PR practitioners. Similarly, membership to the PR professional bodies like PRISA should be made mandatory or compulsory for every practising PR practitioner. Bowen (2007) believes that involuntary membership to professional bodies helps to nip in the bud unethical cancers that could ruin the integrity of the profession. Equally important, the code of ethics should be made with a practical orientation to make them user-friendly.

Conclusion
This examination of the factors influencing the ethical conduct of PR practitioners in commercial banks in Namibia utilised the thematic approach to analyse and reveal the major factors behind

the ethical and unethical conduct of PR professionals. The study revealed that binding codes of ethics, the work environment or organisational climate, the presence of a personal internal moral compass, a sense of moral duty towards humanity, knowledge of ethics and their application and experience in making ethical decisions largely determine the way PR practitioners in commercial banks conduct themselves. Notably, there are challenges that exacerbate the challenge for PR practitioners to practise ethically.

Organisational leadership and culture alienated to the core values of PR, ambiguously written codes of ethics and conduct, overbearing pressure from the dominant coalition, the advent of new forms of media and the daring task of executing the duty of being top management's ethical counsellors while being considered as subordinates, have a direct impact on the way PR practitioners behave. In addition to the foregoing, PR practitioners in commercial banks encounter ethical dilemmas that are mainly characterised by clashes of interest and values. Findings of the investigation further conclude that PR practitioners are torn between upholding the values of PRISA and those advocated for by the commercial banks.

In addition, PR practitioners in banks work under pressure from top management to represent the positives of the banks which have known negatives that are all over the social media. Despite the ethical challenges and dilemmas, PR practitioners in commercial banks can still practice ethically as expected of them by the public they serve. Consequently, several suggestions and recommendations were conceived by this study to improve the ethical conduct of PR professionals employed in commercial banks in Namibia. To begin with, commercial banks should align their business values with those of PRISA that inform the ethical duty of PR practitioners.

Additionally, PR professionals should be part and parcel of the decision-making body of the banks called the dominant coalition for them to more easily counsel managers, directors and executives on ethical communication issues. Further, PR practitioners must always adhere to the code of ethics that govern their practice and religiously familiarise themselves with the new developments in the field of PR that pertain to ethics. Correspondingly, the code of ethics of PRISA should have a practical orientation for easy use and application. Further to that, it should be made a prerequisite for all practising PR practitioners to subscribe to PRISA before they can be recognised as PR professionals in order to protect the integrity and standards of the Public Relations profession.

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Teachers' Characteristics and Instructional Quality in Public Secondary Schools in Nigeria

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Abstract

Worldwide, the importance of quality instruction in schools cannot be underestimated. However, over the years, the instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools seems persistently low, and worrisome based on the academic performance of students in external examinations. This has continued to be a subject of concern to individuals, the public, government, and other stakeholders. This study investigates teachers' characteristics and the instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria. A hypothesis was formulated and tested in the study. Questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers and principals, as well as to assess the instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools. A total of 2,222 respondents (1,548 teachers and 774 principals) were sampled using both simple random and census sampling techniques respectively across the 774 Local Government Areas in Nigeria. The results show that teachers' characteristics have a significant influence on the instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria. The study recommends that government should prioritise teacher professionalism and employ only certificated teachers to teach in secondary schools in Nigeria geared toward achieving an improved instructional quality.

Keywords: Teachers' characteristics; instructional quality; educational qualification; teachers' experience; teachers' professionalism

Introduction

Over the years, instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools seems persistently low and discouraging. This has become a matter of concern to individuals, the public, government, and other stakeholders. This can often be traced to various factors such as inadequate preparation of lessons, poor delivery of lessons, use of inappropriate instructional materials, poor classroom management, and poor evaluation of lessons. Akanbi (2014) and Romina (2013) share similar sentiments that the quality of education in Nigeria today is critical and cannot be compared with that obtained in the West. Alamirew (2016) further argues that the quality of instruction is fundamental to the success achieved by the school and its students. Students' performance in Nigerian secondary schools has been generally unsatisfactory as evident in the West African School Certificate Examination results for 2016–2017 considering that the goal of education is to integrate its principles, values, and practices into all aspects of teaching and learning.

Recognising that teachers' behaviour can be altered to limit harmful effects on the instructional quality delivered in the class, quality instruction has evolved to include more than just recycling the same material over the years, but encompasses how students and communities behave and

interact in the larger society. This has raised issues relating to teachers' characteristics in the public secondary schools in Nigeria. Clugston and Callder (2015) intimate that teachers have a critical and tangible role in the delivery of quality instruction, not only for improved academic performance, but to develop productive individuals who can live peacefully with members of the society. As such, teachers are expected to be professionally qualified via training, years of experience, and demonstrated professionalism with evidence from the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN).

These characteristics undergird the basis for quality instruction. Since students are considered the future leaders and decision makers, as well as the future developers of societal institutions, investing in quality instruction at the secondary school level is therefore essential to the production of complete and quality students needed to solve industrial and societal problems. Worth noting is that most previous studies used variables such as teachers (Ajaja and Eravwoke 2013), schools (Akanbi 2014), and students (Humphreys and Crawfurd 2015) respectively or jointly to establish students' academic performance as a measure of instructional quality. However, findings of UNICEF (1998), as well as Adisa's (2013), confirmed that analysing only students' performance as a measure for assessing the quality of instruction is inadequate. Studies have also established various measures of instructional quality (Eric, Rich and Shalli 2010; Adesina 2012), but none compared these measures with teachers' characteristics. Therefore, this study investigates teachers' characteristics as a determinant of instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools.

The problem of instructional quality in Nigeria seems to be appropriately associated with teachers' characteristics (qualification, experience, and professionalism). Although research abounds on factors affecting instructional quality; available studies have ignored the relative and combined effects of teacher characteristics. The search for a possible relationship between instructional quality and teachers' characteristics has therefore become imperative considering the quality of education in Nigerian secondary schools. This challenge perseveres because previous studies have not attained adequate details on the progress of issues regarding the instructional quality in the school system.

The State of Instructional Quality in Nigerian Public Secondary Schools

It has been established that the drive to improve the quality of instruction at the public secondary education level in Nigeria remains a matter of concern given the unimpressive performance of students in the final examinations conducted by the recognised examination bodies. Thus, the Federal Ministry of Education (2011) views what teachers do or not do, are able or not able to do, are willing or not willing to do, and do properly or poorly, as a great determinant of the effectiveness of the school curriculum (what students learn). This intense debate on instructional quality in public secondary schools is even more important because the outcome of the secondary school education must meet the basic requirements for entry into institutions of higher learning, especially, for students who intend to proceed further with their education.

The general trend has been to assume that the quality of education has fallen drastically. While some researchers reflect on the output of tertiary education being the university graduates to assess quality; others simply pay limited attention to the input such as the students themselves, the teachers, the facilities, and other factors that affect learners in the school. Only a few studies combine both input and output, and often the impact of teachers' characteristics in achieving a quality instruction in the school system is usually neglected. The poor quality of instruction in public secondary schools in Nigeria can be observed from the unimpressive performance of students in the West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE). Table 1 below gives a

quick look at the preceding five years (2014 to 2018) before this research goes on to explain the unimpressive performance as represented:

Examination Year	Registered Candidates	Candidates with five Credits (including English Language and Mathematics)	% of Passes	% of Failure
May/June 2014	1,692,435	529,394	31.28	68.72
May/June 2015	1,593,442	616,370	38.68	61.32
May/June 2016	1,552,758	878,040	56.55	43.45
May/June 2017	1,559,162	923,486	59.23	40.77
May/June 2018	1,572,396	786,016	49.99	50.01

Sources: West African Examination Council (WAEC Annual Reports, 2014 - 2018)

In the table above, the students' academic performance in the West African Secondary School Certificate between the years 2014–2018 in the May/June examinations shows an alarming failure rate. The statistics suggest that there are issues with instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria when one considers the debacle in students' performance. In fact, findings suggest that, as at 2008 (although not the focus of the study), the failure rate was as high as 86.24 per cent, and thereafter there was no noticeable improvement till 2018, although slight improvements were noted in 2016 and 2017 when the failure rate reduced to 43.45 per cent and 40.77 per cent respectively. However, in 2018, the failure rate regressed to 50.01 per cent. This situation is worrisome and demands the attention of parents and all stakeholders as these students are constantly faced with challenges in gaining admission into institutions of higher learning because of appalling performance.

Poor instructional quality is one of the challenges confronting secondary education in Nigeria. Having identified this as a prominent challenge, the Federal Government of Nigeria (2013) recommends that to have a world acclaimed quality instruction in schools which will manifest in students' performance; there must be recruitment and re-training of professionally qualified teachers for primary and secondary levels of education. This will assist in providing a solid foundation for quality higher education. Thus, the government recommends that teachers in Nigeria have certification from teacher training institutions. It is within this context that Ogbonnaya (2014) applauds the Federal Government's recommendation to produce qualified and professional teachers from the nation's approved teacher training institutions as a way of enhancing the quality of education at both primary and secondary schools. Also commendable is the Federal Government's effort to professionalise teaching through the registration of teachers by the TRCN before practicing.

Despite these efforts, Baikie (2015) identifies teacher absence, student non-attendance, irrelevant and culturally unresponsive curricula, poor pedagogical content knowledge, dilapidated structures, insecurity (specifically the Boko Haram insurgency in the Northeast region of the country), and inadequate funding, as other limitations to instructional quality. These factors have led to non-coverage of the curriculum for secondary schools; poor implementation of education policies; poor instructional delivery; non-incorporation of technology into all aspects of secondary education due to lack of facilities; and lack of the financial will to support instructional delivery due to poor budgetary allocation to education. Additionally, Arong and Ogbadu (2010) observe the lack of

adequate inspection and supervision as other negative factors. These defects affect public secondary schools in Nigeria.

The resulting effect of these inadequacies contribute to the lack of qualified teachers, lack of instructional materials, poor students' attitudes towards learning, and misplaced government priorities, as well as a lack of integrity among some unscrupulous education stakeholders and workers. Specifically, the lack of adequate school inspection and supervision significantly contribute to the declining nature of the quality of instruction. According to Adesina (2012), crises in secondary education result in the constantly declining quality of those sent to the classroom to train the minds of the nation. Evidently, teachers' inability to impart instructions effectively combined with ineffective interpretation of the curriculum mar students' performance. Finally, Anchor (2014) identifies the poor remuneration and working conditions of teachers as other challenges confronting instructional delivery in Nigerian secondary schools. He states that poor rewards received by teachers for services rendered in schools contributes to the debilitating standard of education as teachers' rewards are never forth coming.

Expounding Teachers' Characteristics and Instructional Quality

In the past, little was known about the significance of instructional quality in education because few studies had investigated the effect of student learning that is similar across sections of the same course. However, student learning varies systematically across institutions and this can be correlated with observed instructors' characteristics such as qualification, professionalism, and experience. This is because instructors appear to have an influence on students' learning beyond their impact on the curriculum of the subjects completed in the classrooms. It is well-documented that student learning may vary substantially across classrooms in elementary and secondary schools depending on the experience of the teachers (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2006).

Quality is always a difficult term to define and gain consensus on. This is because it is a general term that is applicable to any trait or characteristic, whether individual or generic. Hornby (2015) perceives it as the standard of something when compared to other similar items; the degree of excellence of a product or service; or the distinctive attribute or characteristic possessed by someone or something. In the opinion of Newel and Dale (1991), it is the level of achievement in five basic areas: people, equipment, methods, materials, and the environment. In broad terms that are specific to education in the context of this paper, quality can be defined as having the characteristics of being well thought out; prepared with care, and implemented with responsibility; having a firm direction but flexible enough to cope with contextual variation; and being positively responsive to comment and criticism (Peter, 2015). Thus, the focus of this study on quality includes curriculum, quality of content, qualification and experience of teachers, availability of instructional aids, motivation for users (both teachers and students), well-managed educational systems, and functional assessment techniques.

There are diverse opinions from the parents, teachers, employers of labour and the government about the quality of instruction in Nigerian public secondary schools. This perhaps shares affinity with the increasing rate of secondary school graduates who are unable to possess the minimum requirements for admission into institutions of higher learning. Clearly, quality instruction in secondary schools is a crucial tool for improving the prospects of higher education. For Eric, Rich and Shalli (2010), an academic instruction is qualitative if the learners take less time to assimilate, the learners spend a major portion of instructional time actively engaged in learning, the teacher achieves a high level of success, content coverage is achieved, the teacher proceeds through the curriculum as specified by the regulatory agencies, and individual learners gain mastery of specific

skills. Following this trajectory, one can assume that public secondary school education in Nigeria is not qualitative enough.

For this study, quality instruction is that instruction which is relevant and adapted to the needs of the society (Ndiomu, 2008). Majasan (2014) maintains that quality instruction is value-loaded with the argument that quality instruction should produce disciplined behaviour, hard work, improved cultural heritage and mutual respect within and outside the school community. Hence Akinpelu (2009) argues that education without quality instruction can be even more dangerous than no education, stressing that without quality, education instruction has no value. In a study carried out by Adebanjo (2009) it was remarked that if a teacher is incompetent, a good output cannot be expected. Thus, a competent teacher is regarded as one who has undergone relevant training in a chosen field of study and is certificated. In agreement with this view, the South African Ministry of Education (SAME, 2010) posits that the operation of unqualified and under-qualified educators in the school's system impacts negatively on the quality of teaching. The activities of qualified and competent teachers cannot be under-estimated in achieving the stated goals and quality instruction in the school.

In a study by Adeyemi (2015) on the influence of teachers' factors on students' academic performance in Lagos State secondary schools, it was found that students taught by experienced teachers outperform those taught by inexperienced ones. Jekayinfa (2007), in another similar study, notes that the quality, relevance, adequacy, and competence of teachers are in doubt and this results in a lack of confidence in the Nigerian educational system. In addition, Obanya (2010) affirms that good teachers must be quantitatively adequate, properly educated, professionally prepared and well-motivated. It has thus been established that it is necessary to provide students with an effective instruction at secondary school level as a means of providing a solid foundation for higher education.

The Theory of Educational Effectiveness

This study is hinged on the theory of educational effectiveness propounded by Creemers (1994:189). For Creemers, effective instruction starts with teachers in the classrooms and this refers to two important implications. Firstly, teachers as a central factor have to make a lot of decisions at a classroom level: about goals, the allocation of time to (groups of or individual) students, use of material, their own instruction, and behaviour management during the instructional process. Secondly, to guide the planning of the instructional process by teachers and the development of effective arrangements, central guiding ideas are of crucial importance. These can be found, next to the goals of education, in theories and research about learning and teaching, and in theories and research about the quality and effectiveness of instruction.

The theory presents a holistic view on education as it considers the outcomes of education, the input, the process, and the context in which education takes place. In this study, the outcome of education is the proportion of students transiting from secondary schools to institutions of higher learning having met the minimum criteria for admission into such institutions through examinations conducted by the WAEC. The outcome can also be the value added by secondary education to the initial attributes of students to become more useful individuals in the society. The theory consists of variables such as the background of the teacher, the method of teaching, and time-on-task which is the time students spend on school learning which can be expanded by school homework.

Importantly, the theory consists of components such as teachers' characteristics which to Creemers (1994) makes a difference between effective and non-effective instruction. At the

classroom level, the characteristics of effective instruction are related to time-on-task and opportunity to learn. The quality of teachers and materials, grouping and behaviour is in one way or another related to the time available for learning. Thus, Creemers' idea on teachers' characteristics as being integral to instructional quality serves as the theoretical backdrop for this study.

Methodology

This study adopts a quantitative research approach through a descriptive survey research design. The research design was employed for its prowess in describing characteristics of a population or phenomenon being studied, which in the case of this research, is the characteristics of teachers in public secondary schools. The entire population of the study consisted of teachers and principals in the public secondary schools located in the 774 local government areas (LGA) of Nigeria. These schools were categorised according to their LGAs. One public secondary school was selected from each of the LGAs. A census sampling technique was used to select the principal of the selected schools while a simple random technique was used to select two teachers from each of the selected schools. A total of 2,322 respondents were sampled which comprised 1,548 teachers and 774 school principals in the country. The researcher employed the use of 37 research assistants to administer the instruments, one assistant representing each of the states in the country.

Two instruments were used to gather information from these categories of respondents (one was self-designed, while one was adapted). The instruments include: The teacher characteristics questionnaire (TCQ) and the students' academic performance rating scale (SAPRS). The TCQ was designed for teachers to measure teacher characteristics variables (such as educational qualifications, teaching experience and professional qualifications). The questionnaire accurately reflects each of the teacher's personal characteristics. A test-retest method was used to ensure the reliability of the entire instrument to measure the consistency and appropriateness of the instruments. The test-retest questionnaires were administered to 24 teachers, and 12 principals in 12 public secondary schools randomly selected in the southwest geo-political zone of the country. The reliability was done item-by-item using a pre-test at an interval of two weeks in the randomly selected schools. The Cronbach Alpha method was used to measure its consistency and a co-efficient of 0.87 was obtained. The SAPRS was designed for the principals to collate the academic performance of students in the West African School Certificate Examinations pertaining to their schools from 2014 to 2018. The information collected from the principals was validated by the reports received from the WAEC as provided in table 1.

Ethical considerations were observed during the data collection process. The researcher ensured that informed consent and due permission was obtained. In ensuring informed consent in this research, consent was sought from the participants through a written means before the administration of the instrument to them. Each of the participants was given a consent form to confirm their participation in the research and they were duly notified that they were permitted to withdraw from the research at any time due to any conceivable factor or their willingness to participate. In terms of permission, approval was sought from the management of each school before proceeding with data collection. Also, the confidentiality of the participants was ensured as participants were not required to provide any form of identification. A multiple regression analysis was employed to test the only hypothesis formulated for the study at a 0.05 level of significance.

Results and Discussion

The study was predicated on the hypothetical statement that: there is no significant relative influence of teachers' characteristics (qualification, experience, and teachers' professionalism) on the instructional quality in public secondary schools in Southwest Nigeria.

Table 2: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis Showing Relative Influence of Teachers' Characteristics on Instructional Quality Coefficients

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	58.103	3.703		15.691	0.000
Edu Qualification	-0.841	2.292	-0.033	-0.367	0.714
Years Teach Exp	3.688	0.666	0.215	5.540	0.000
Professionalism	7.668	2.369	0.287	3.237	0.001

Table 2 aptly captures the findings of this study. It is revealed that professionalism has the highest significant influence on instructional quality (β = 0.29; t = 3.24; $p<0.05$). The level of professionalism is then followed by the years of teaching experience of the teachers (β = 0.22; t = 5.54; $p<0.05$) whereas, the educational qualification of the teachers has no significant influence on the quality of instruction with regard to these public secondary schools (β = -0.03; t = -0.37; $p>0.05$). As such, it is argued that two of the variables have a relative influence on instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools namely: professionalism and teaching experience. By implication, teachers' professionalism and years of teaching experience have a significantly positive influence on the instructional quality in public secondary schools. Put differently, the professional ethics demonstrated by teachers as well as the amount of experience they possess have a larger influence on instructional quality than other factors.

While the years of experience is an important factor in instructional quality, this is dictated by time, and generally there is little or no control over time. However, what can be controlled is the professionalism of the teachers seeing that it has a significant impact on the quality of instruction given to students. More importantly, training and capacity development activities should be prioritised if the professionalism of teachers is indeed expected to have enormous impact on instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools. Surprisingly however, studies focussing on teacher development and student learning outcomes are still in their infancy. A point echoed by Hermans, Sloep, and Kreijns (2017) that there is limited literature on the link between teachers' professional development and student learning outcomes.

Aspects of teachers' professional development cannot be understated in instructional quality when one considers Hermans, Sloep, and Kreijns' (2017) position that the teachers' professional development reinforces the teachers' ability to reflect on the practical implementation of the new teaching design and not merely adapt materials to their own classroom needs. As such, teachers themselves become creative and develop classroom-specific designs that allow for a more tailored teaching approach. Such continuous professional development is important as it allows such a teacher to cross-pollinate and prepare for the possible educational challenges that may exceed the individual teacher's classroom practice.

The findings of this study resonate with Ogbonnaya's (2014) perception who acknowledges the Federal Government's effort towards providing qualified and professional teachers for the purpose of quality education at the primary and secondary levels to achieve educational objectives. It is also in line with the findings of Adeyemi (2015) who submits that there is a significant difference between academic performance of students taught by professional/experienced teachers and those taught by unprofessional and inexperienced ones. This indicates that the professionalism and experience of the teachers enhances instructional quality in the public secondary schools.

Surmising from the above, teachers' characteristics can be described as an observable behaviour that indicates effectiveness, or otherwise, of instructional leaders in the classroom, school, campus, and community. Orlando (2017) stresses that a teacher with good characteristics must respect students, create a sense of community and belonging in the classroom, be warm, accessible, enthusiastic and caring, set high expectations for all students, have his/her own love for learning, be a skilled leader, able to shift position, collaborate with colleagues, and maintain professionalism in all areas relating to the teaching profession. Ajaja and Eravwoke (2013) identify the following as indices to measure teachers' characteristics: personality, attitudes, experience, aptitude/achievement, gender, and training as measured by the certificate obtained.

However, as evidenced from this study, there are other indices to measure teachers' characteristics among which are, but not limited to: qualification, experience, and professionalism. For Adeyemi (2015), it is a quality typical of a teacher that distinguishes the effective teacher from the ineffective one. Effective teachers are those who make the desired impact on the lives of the students, while the ineffective ones may not necessarily make any meaningful impact. In the view of Garikney (2013), teachers should be a role model both in the school and in the entire community as both students and the entire community look up to teachers as a standard that should be worthy of emulation.

Thus, for a teacher to be effective, the fundamental factor is to be able to deliver quality instructions, which in the interest of this study emanates from the teacher's experience and professionalism. However, several indicators such as students' performance and research studies have shown that much is needed to be done to proffer lasting solutions to existing poor instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria. For these reasons, this study filled the gap by examining the relative and combined effects of teachers' characteristics as a determinant of instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria. The study tests for any significant relative influence of teachers' characteristics (qualification, experience, and professionalism) on the instructional quality in public secondary schools in Nigeria. Ideally, the longer a teacher teaches in a school, the more experienced such teacher becomes.

Unlike the level or experience and the degree of professionalism, the educational qualification of the teachers has little or no significant relative influence on the instructional quality in the public secondary schools in Nigeria. This might also be a result of the fact that many are teaching without teaching qualifications as the teachers possess qualifications such as a Higher National Diploma (HND), degrees in Pure Arts, Humanities, and Science, without recourse to education training. In fact, having the appropriate teaching qualification is the first step towards professionalism. It is within this context that relevant bodies prioritise the involvement of these teachers in capacity-building initiatives geared towards the professional development of these teachers. The inability of these teachers to understand the nitty-gritty of teaching poses, and will continue to pose, a great risk for instructional quality. In a similar vein, Hermans, Sloep, and Kreijns's (2017) espouse that to overcome educational challenges relating to instructional quality, perfect teaching conditions must be met and this should begin with teachers as there is a significant number of teachers not

able, capable or willing to define educational challenges, design a new pedagogy and get involved in a full cycle of design inquiry.

What is evident from the topical research is that these educational challenges in Nigeria will be exposed during teacher training and necessary corrective measures will be ensured. Hence, the professionalism of teachers should be a major objective in achieving effective instructional quality in Nigerian public secondary schools. Teachers must be provided with an array of opportunities to develop themselves and they must be encouraged to utilise these opportunities in order to combat the disturbing situation of instructional quality in the country, as the continued lack of attention towards teachers' development will continue to have negative effects on students' performance. Finally, the findings of the study, as well as the interrogation of other studies, suggest that the professional development of teachers will result in educational effectiveness and consequently assist in thwarting the poor performance of students in Nigerian public secondary schools.

The characteristics of teachers in ensuring instructional quality in secondary schools cannot be overemphasised. The years of teaching experience and professionalism play a critical role in instructional quality in secondary schools. It is no doubt that quality of instruction is germane to what the school and individual students achieve and become in life. It is not only important to a student's success, it also leads to a society where the products of the school system are able to interact with and lead society with ease, with the popular notion that students become leaders, managers, and decision makers in society. As a result, the quality of instruction deserves serious attention at an early stage.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Over the years, the issue of instructional quality has been a major concern in Nigerian public secondary schools, which is evident from the academic performance of secondary school students in the externally conducted examinations. Importantly, this study reveals the desiderata. For quality instruction and improved academic performance, it is necessary to rely on the services of teachers with an educational certificate from a recognised teacher training institution and ensure uniformity in application of criteria used by the TRCN to professionalise teaching. Therefore, the study recommends that teachers must be encouraged to attend educational conferences, seminars, and in-service programmes where issues relating to quality of instruction are discussed. This will expose the teachers to practical capacity programmes on instructional development and can also form part of the promotion requirements for teachers.

Also, governments, through their various supervising ministries and agencies, should advise and ensure that qualified teachers are recruited into the teaching positions in Nigerian public secondary schools. Finally, the TRCN should ensure that there is equality of application of the standards set for teachers' professionalism across all the states of the federation. This would make it possible for a professional teacher in one state to be employed as a professional teacher in any state of the federation. As with many other studies, this study also has its limitations. Although it is beyond the scope of this study, a qualitative research study could help to fully understand the complex and behavioural processes involved in teachers' professional development *viz-a-viz* the impact of such on instructional quality. Also, more studies may be conducted to focus specifically on the different states in the country. Perhaps, through such studies, new findings that are state-specific may be generated.

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Developing a Transformational Leadership Model to Effectively Include Persons with Disabilities in the Workplace

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Abstract

The South African government has enacted various employment laws intended to promote the inclusion of persons with disabilities in the workplace. The legislation and policies are not, however, always effectively implemented, resulting in the exclusion of persons with disabilities in the workplace. Within this context, a multidisciplinary study incorporating leadership and the law is conducted to address the rationale behind the non-compliance with disability legislation. In addition, this study examines the role of transformational leadership and its contribution towards effective implementation of disability provisions. This study was conducted in a local government sector of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Data was collected through interviews with senior leaders responsible for implementing disability laws and to develop strategies to include persons with disabilities in the workplace. Employees with disabilities were also interviewed. A thematic analysis was utilised to discuss the data that arose from the interviews. Various themes have been created as a result thereof. This study finds that transformational leadership is an important approach to adopt in order to include and promote the participation of persons with disabilities in the workplace. The study therefore contributes to the development of a transformational leadership model to include persons with disabilities in the workplace.

Keywords: Transformational leadership; persons; disabilities; workplace

Introduction

Persons with disabilities have suffered and continue to suffer inequalities in the workplace. According to Van Niekerk and Van der Merwe (2013: 1) they are a disadvantaged group in society with limited prospects of employment. Various employment laws and disability provisions require workplace leaders to transform workplaces and guarantee the inclusion of persons with disabilities. In order to achieve this transformation, however, the implementation of legislation is crucial. It requires a particular kind of workplace leadership, such as transformational leadership, in order to be effectively implemented. Gathiram (2008: 151) asserts that the failure to implement legislation affects the intent to protect persons with disabilities. Warrick (2017: 55) describes transformational leadership as a process in which leaders accomplish noteworthy positive changes in individuals, groups and organisations by using inspiration, vision and skills to encourage people to go beyond their self-centredness in order to achieve a greater *purpose*. Transformational leadership is also explored in other management contexts in order to promote diversity. It appears, however, that this has not yet been explored within the disability perspective.

In this context, Sayyadi *et al.* (2015: 464) support the view that transformational leaders are receptive to employees' needs. They further affirm that transformational leaders institute radical changes for organisations through changing the mind-sets and beliefs of

individuals and creating inclusivity within organisations (Sayyadi *et al.* 2015: 464). Carter *et al.* (2014: 48) explain that transformational leaders offer individualised consideration through modified support to employees. Transformational leadership appears to be expedient in order to accomplish inclusion, equity and execution of disability legislation in the workplace. Against this background, a multidisciplinary study incorporating leadership (management studies) and the law is conducted in order to analyse the role of transformational leadership and its contribution towards the effective implementation of workplace disability provisions.

This study explores the role and impact of transformational leadership on the implementation of disability laws in the Municipality. The study further aims to address the rationale behind the non-compliance with disability related provisions. The study assesses the senior leadership's level of awareness in the role they play as transformational leaders towards accommodating persons with disabilities within the Municipality, identifies the critical factors affecting the implementation of disability related legislation within the Municipality, assesses the impact of transformational leadership on the implementation of the legislation relating to disability within the Municipality and recommends a leadership transformational model or framework that accommodates persons with disabilities within the Municipality specifically studied, the selected local government sector in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. While the local government leaders possibly understand the 'transformational' approach to disability, they do not use it when dealing with disability affairs. It is within this context that this study develops a transformational leadership model to practically equip workplace leaders to include persons with disabilities in the workplace.

Overview of Transformational Leadership

Achua and Lussier (2013: 311) contend that transformational leadership was initially expressed by James Burns in 1978 before Bernard Bass expanded thereon. According to Achua and Lussier (2013: 314) such leaders challenge the existing state of affairs and advance a persuasive case for change. They stimulate a common vision for the future, provide operational leadership during the transition and institutionalise the transformation (Achua and Lussier 2013: 314). Achua and Lussier (2013: 320) further explain that transformational leadership is composed of four behavior dimensions, namely "idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation".

According to Achua and Lussier (2013: 320) "idealised influence" relates to a transformational leadership ability to "develop great symbolic power" that is utilised to influence employees in the workplace. Inspirational motivation, as per Achua and Lussier (2013: 320), relates to how a transformational leader fervently expresses "a future idealistic goal or situation that is a better alternative to the status quo". Achua and Lussier (2013: 320) continue to explain that intellectual stimulation relates to a creative transformational leader who encourages employees to find new ways to deal with existing workplace challenges. Lastly, van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009: 221) clarify that "individualised consideration is reflected when a leader pays special attention to each individual's needs for realisation or fulfilment of his or her talent and potential, growth and performance by acting as a coach or mentor". Carter *et al.* (2014: 48) elucidate that transformational leaders offer individualised consideration through modified support to employees. According to Achua and Lussier (2013: 323) they additionally use tactical methods to deal with workplace issues.

Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009: 221) illustrate that the interests of transformational leaders are, among others, to achieve autonomy, fairness and parity. Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2009: 221) further argue that challenging the status quo becomes a regular occurrence for the transformational leader. The leadership style impacts on how the organisation is run and ultimately the organisation's performance. If leaders in the local government sector adopt a transformational leadership style, the issues of inequality and

disability discrimination can ultimately be addressed. The implementation of disability legislation requires leaders who can pay attention to the needs of disabled persons and accept individual differences. Sahgal and Pathak (2007: 265) indicate that by their behavior, transformational leaders acknowledge that people are different. Consequently, they should be employed based on individual capabilities and differences. Kensbock and Boehm (2016: 1581) state that the role of transformational leadership in supporting employees with all kinds of physical or psychological disabilities has been explored.

While research has been conducted on the role of transformational leadership in supporting employees with disabilities in the workplace, it appears that currently there is no comprehensive study on the role of transformational leadership in the implementation of the legislation governing disability in the workplace. This study addresses this gap. For the successful implementation of disability laws in the workplace, caring and supportive leaders are necessary. Transformational leaders hold a particular set of behaviours. Sadeghi and Pihie (2012: 187) find transformational leaders to "be models of integrity and fairness, set clear goals, have high expectations, provide support and recognition, stir the emotions and passions of people and get people to look beyond their self-interest to reach for the improbable". Furthermore, transformational leaders closely connect with employees. It requires the inclusion of employees in transformation plans, processes and strategies. It also involves the diagnosis of the employees' needs and capabilities in a non-judgmental way and intent listening.

The abovementioned literature underscores the importance of transformational leadership for the attainment of parity, and the promotion and safeguarding of individual rights in the workplace. It further emphasises the role of transformational leadership towards the attainment of disability equity, fairness and diversity in the workplace. The study argues that transformational leadership forms the cornerstone of organisational change and transformation. Since transformational leaders challenge the status quo, and promote justice, fairness and inclusivity, an effective implementation of disability legislation in the local government sector may be achieved. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Employment Equity Act: Code of Good Practice on Employment of Persons with Disabilities (2015) requires reasonable accommodation and the development of practical measures in order to accommodate and include persons with disabilities in the workplace. As observed from the above literature, transformational leadership possesses the necessary attributes to achieve disability inclusion and equity in the workplace.

Methodology

This research employed a qualitative approach. Whittaker (2002: 251) explains that the rationale behind choosing the qualitative research method is that it is relevant if the study investigates, *inter alia*, human conduct and functioning of the workplace. From a legal perspective, Argyrou (2017: 98) asserts that qualitative empirical legal research explores the social and factual circumstances, such as the public's view and comprehension of law and fairness. In-depth interviews were conducted in order to ascertain the senior leadership's level of awareness on the role they play as transformational leaders in including persons with disabilities in the workplace. Additionally, employees with disabilities were engaged in order to validate the information gathered from the leaders. Ethical clearance was granted prior to the interviews.

Purposive sampling was found useful in this study, particularly on the identification of the relevant senior leaders. In this regard, twelve (12) leaders were selected based on their decision-making powers influencing the day-to-day operations in their respective departments. Additionally, they are required to ensure transformation and compliance with the law which promotes disability inclusion in the workplace. Moreover, they are expected to promote and protect human rights and develop and drive an inclusive workplace culture through change

management programmes. Some of the leaders selected were involved in the formulation of strategy for inclusion of persons with disabilities. Acharya *et al*. (2013: 330) contend that purposive sampling is a method mainly utilised in qualitative research since the participants chosen are the right target to achieve the research objective. Supporting this view, Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016: 2) contend that the participants selected to participate in the study must be competent, knowledgeable and have an interest in the subject. It is for these reasons that purposive sampling was utilised to identify the leaders who participated in this study.

Due to the nature and sensitivity of the research, it was important to select employees with disabilities based on their availability and willingness to partake in this study. It was important to protect the rights of employees with disabilities and to safeguard them against prejudice as a result of the interviews. Thus, the convenience sampling technique was used to identify five persons with disabilities working in the same local government institution as the leaders chosen to participate in the study. Furthermore, as Struwing and Stead (2013: 116) explain, convenience sampling is helpful since the participants are selected according to their accessibility and willingness to participate in the interviews. In-depth, face-to-face interviews were conducted and recorded to ensure accuracy of the data. The responses that emanated from the interviews were then captured through data coding and the themes physically developed from the data through markers or highlighters. A thematic analysis was then conducted to discuss the collected data. The interview data was transcribed and thoroughly examined to gather precise data and identify common themes. To maintain confidentiality, the details of the participants are not disclosed in this study. To identify the participants, leaders are coded, for example, as "Leader 1" (L1) while employees are coded as "Employee 1" (E1). The main findings that emerged from the interviews are explored below.

Results and Discussion

This section presents a discussion on the senior leaderships' level of awareness on disability, as well as the impact of transformational leadership on the implementation of disability provisions within the Municipality. Stemming from the discussion, a recommendation is made focusing on the leadership transformational model or framework that accommodates persons with disabilities within the Municipality.

Awareness and Understanding of Disability by the Municipal Leaders

The interviews indicate that there is no consistent understanding of the term 'persons with disabilities' by the leaders. While some leaders are able to identify certain elements of the legal definition, others are unable to do so. Instead, the leaders gave various definitions and were not consistent in their responses. In this context, L12 states that: "I think there is a legal definition because there are prescripts that deal with this, but it is obviously people who are born with, or who in the course of their lives get afflicted with, illnesses or injuries which result in them not being able to be as functional as people who are abled, without the environment being responsive to their particular challenges". L1 said that persons with disabilities are "people who are abled differently". L5 describes "[P]ersons with disabilities as people that have challenges, both physical and mental, and when I say mental I mean psychological, that I can't say abnormal but I can say challenged, they are not like able bodied, able minded – so they are people with disabilities".

The lack of understanding of disability by the leaders is also commented on by the employees with disabilities who participated in this study. In particular, the identified shortcoming in the leaders' comprehension of "substantial limitation" is expressed by E5 who states that, while the leaders generally understand disability, "when it comes to making environment suitable for disabled people, I can say the process is too slow". When asked whether workplace leaders understand disability, E4 responds: "[N]o, no I actually think that management should I don't know, can you workshop them to make them more aware?" E1 remarks the following with regard to the management's understanding of disability: "[I]t depends on individual managers,

some do, some don't seem to embrace people with disabilities". The lack of understanding of disabilities is a major impediment to transformation and inclusion of persons with disabilities in the workplace. This study indicates that while leaders acknowledge the need to accommodate persons with disabilities, they do not completely understand all the elements of disability as provided for in the legislation, thus hindering the inclusion of persons with disabilities.

Additionally, the study finds that the leaders have unfounded assumptions of persons with disabilities. Their responses regarding their understanding of disability is deeply troubling - their focus is on impairment and not on the ability or competence of persons with disabilities. For example, L2 states "this is a group of people who because of their disabilities cannot be in a position to perform the jobs that are normally performed by abled persons". L3 describes a person with disabilities as "a person who is incapacitated etc. in relation to work that they are supposed to be doing" (emphasis added). Another example is L10 who remarks that persons with disabilities "will prohibit them or perceived as prohibiting them from undertaking work duties" (emphasis added). The employees who participated in the study also confirmed that, operationally, employees with disabilities are stigmatised and not afforded the opportunities given to non-disabled persons. In this regard E4 notes that "my view again is that PWD's are perceived time wasters".

A leadership model that is influential in dealing with stigma attached to persons with disabilities is required. It is argued that transformational leaders are focused on change (Von Treuer *et al*. 2018: 2). Additionally, transformational leadership is identified as a system of transforming and changing people's behaviour (Malik, Javed and Hassan 2017: 147). Thus, transformational leadership revolves around the premise that leaders can influence employees' beliefs and their conduct by appealing to the importance of workplace outcomes (Moynihan, Panday and Wright 2011: 5). It follows that transformational leadership may be utilised to deal with unfounded assumptions and stigma attached to persons with disabilities in the workplace.

Emanating from the discussion and responses of the leaders, it is clear that the medical model understanding of disability that focuses on the impairment rather than the capability of persons with disabilities continues to exist in the workplace. It is apparent that persons with disabilities are viewed as people who are incapable of doing their work due to their condition. The assessment of persons with disabilities by leaders is therefore based on the medical approach. This approach may prejudice the right of persons with disabilities to equal opportunities in the workplace. Workplace leaders must therefore change from a focus on impairment to considering the capabilities of persons with disabilities, thereby safeguarding their human right to equality. In addition, they should adopt a transformational leadership model as transformational leaders are found to have "the ability to assess, diagnose and evaluate employees' individual needs rather than treating employees as a group" (Louw *et al*. 2017: 3). This approach is found to protect and recognise the employee's needs in order to ensure that employees are equipped with the necessary skills to tackle complicated circumstances (Louw *et al*. 2017: 3).

Individualised treatment is what the notion of "reasonable accommodation" requires, not the treatment of persons with disabilities as a similar group. As stated by Hildenbrand and Sacramento (2018: 33), "among the dimensions of transformational leadership is an individualised consideration which signifies the attention leaders pay to employees' needs and concerns in the workplace". Transformational leadership may be influential in adopting an approach that considers persons with disabilities on their capabilities and performance and not from a medical perspective. In so doing, the transformational leader does not only consider the abilities of persons with disabilities but also ensures that they have the necessary individualised tools to perform their jobs, including the provision of reasonable accommodation where needed.

Factors Affecting the Implementation of Disability Provisions

While there is a level of understanding from the leaders in this study of the need to accommodate persons with disabilities, it appears that they are not ready to accommodate them. Most of the leaders raised the concern that the implementation of disability laws remains complicated. L1 states "stereotypes, socialisation… willingness not there". L2 identifies "mindset shift, less will especially from executive [also shared by L8] and poor strategy formulation" as hindrances to the implementation of disability related provisions. Disability is not a priority issue, instead "service delivery is what drives… Municipality" according to L3. In addition, "cultural and social barriers" is identified by L3 as hindrances to effective implementation of disability policies. L7 states that "political interference that is being received from our leadership impede the process of implementation". While L7, L9 and L12 raise the issue of budget constraints.

This study finds that the Municipality does not have a comprehensive policy designed to address disability issues. The Municipality relies only on its Employment Equity Plan as the strategic tool to address disability matters. This is a huge restraint on the effective implementation of disability laws. This is confirmed by most of the leaders, including L12, who notes that: "[T]he third thing it might be around the extent to which there is a comprehensive policy in place, because I am not aware other than some of the prescripts that come nationally and provincially, and the Employment Equity Plan. […] I'm not sure that we actually have got a policy document on that". Adding that, "generally for things to be successful you need to have the policy which creates an enabling environment". E1 states that: "I haven't seen policy that addresses disability, the only thing that I have seen that addresses persons with disabilities is the Employment Equity Plan, so really I don't know whether they have a policy or not, we need policy that will address issues that are faced by persons with disabilities". E5 says that "except the Employment Equity I know about, I don't know any specific policy".

Consequently, it is established that disability is not a priority issue for these leaders and disability inclusion is merely done as a 'tick box exercise' to meet legislative requirements. In this context, E3 says that "they want people with disabilities so that they will meet the targets in numbers, they want to have those targets but with regard to the main focus point of having people with disabilities in terms of accommodation and awareness, they don't focus on those kind of things". While L7 mentions that "the other issue that we are experiencing, I call it window dressing, we somehow employ a quota system when we are dealing with the issue of transformation. We do not drill down into the issues how it should be implemented but what we are chasing are numbers". L11 observes that, when it comes to persons with disabilities, workplaces "look at targets", asking "are we serious or we just there to meet the target?"

This concern raises the question whether leaders are ready to accommodate persons with disabilities in the workplace or not. For example, L2 notes that they are "relatively ready" adding that "I would not expect that an organisation like […] having been around since […] would be struggling just to reach 2% of people with disabilities". L7 says: "[W]ell, to a certain extent, yes". Thus, for transformational change to materialise, there is a need for a committed and influential leadership to drive transformation in the workplace. Transformational leadership has been described as influential organisational change which encompasses the development and execution of the organisational vision (Singh 2003: 33). Transformational leaders question assumptions, reframe challenges and approach the general state of things in a different way (Van Aswegen and Engelbrecht 2009: 2). They not only challenge the status quo but also create platforms to explore new ways of doing things and create new opportunities to learn (Carmichael, Collins, Emsell and Haydon 2011: 126). The responses of the participants suggested that there is a need for transformational leadership in order to change the existing state from one that does not accommodate persons with disabilities to one that includes and accommodates them.

A transformational leader is identified as a 'visionary leader' by the participants in the study. While the focus of the study is not on visionary leadership, it is apparent that there is a strong connection between a visionary leader and a transformational leader. In this context, L2 states that a "transformational leader is visionary for starters, is one of the ingredients of a visionary leader". L4 notes that as a transformational leader "you have to have a vision that we as followers need to abide by". Thus, transformational leaders respond to workplace challenges with a vision of changing the environment to a better future state. Within the disability context, a transformational leader's vision is to guarantee a future workplace that promotes and protects human rights, including those of persons with disabilities.

Mthethwa (2011: 110) asserts that "transformational leaders are visionary leaders of potentially historical significance who react to a crisis with great vision and great ideas, and possess a willingness to foster grand experiments in solving great problems of the day". Givens (2008: 9) argues that transformational leaders give special importance or value to new prospects and promote a compelling vision of the future. It can be said, therefore, that by being visionary, a transformational leader is guided by the concept of a future state of the organisation that caters for every employee in the workplace. This characteristic is found to be pertinent to this study as the ultimate goal is to observe persons with disabilities being accommodated and included in the workplace through the effective implementation of disability laws.

Transformational Leadership and the Implementation of Disability Provisions in the Workplace

It is the argument of this study that transformational leaders are change agents. This is a critical element pertinent to the study as there is a need for leaders to advocate for change in the workplace and guarantee the inclusion and promotion of human rights for persons with disabilities. For instance, L2 notes that "if you are a transformational leader, you should be an agent of change". L8 is of the view that a transformational leader is someone who "embraces change". L3 says "with transformational change you need transformational leadership and unless that exists then change will never happen". The successful execution of disability laws and inclusion of persons with disabilities requires leaders who are committed to transform the workplace by focusing on critical developmental issues affecting persons with disabilities. Shanker and Bin Sayeed (2012: 470) describe transformational leaders as change agents who tend to nurture the idea of receptivity to the organisational transformation process. Accordingly, in order to manage and lead change in relation to the inclusion of persons with disabilities in the workplace, transformational leadership is essential to initiate and drive the change management process.

It is interesting that change management dominates most responses from the leaders regarding the effective implementation of disability laws in the workplace. In this regard, L2's view is that "if you want to be successful in implementing any changes within the environment for accessibility and acceptance of people with disabilities, you need to have a change management action plan in place". L5 says that what is needed is "development programs, diversity interventions – anything to do with change management". In addition, L11 observes that there is a need for "change management for senior management and for the staff to accept individuals, people with disabilities in the workplace".

Deschampts (2016: 196) asserts that transformational leadership is associated with successful organisational change and the promotion of an environment imbued with organisational justice. Accordingly, this study recommends an effective change management framework (explored below) that is designed to ensure commitment by executive leaders to prioritise and include persons with disabilities in the workplace by executing disability laws. Among the key findings of the study is the positive role that transformational leadership may play in the implementation of workplace disability laws. This study finds that workplace leaders

are not utilising transformational leadership principles despite understanding that they should be transformational in performing their duties. Consequently, there is a need to develop a transformational leadership approach in the workplace. The following is the recommended model for developing transformational leadership to implement disability initiatives in the workplace.

Recommended Model for the Development and Implementation of Transformational Leadership in the Workplace

Figure 1 focuses on the development and implementation of transformational leadership in the workplace. Before leaders can adopt any strategy or policy and be committed to the inclusion of persons with disabilities, they must adopt a transformational leadership approach. Additionally, the environment must be ready and conducive to include persons with disabilities. Although leaders have some understanding of what transformational leadership is and its importance to disability inclusion, they are not necessarily in practice applying the principles of transformational leadership to disability inclusion. Disability issues are not a priority and there are not enough resources to reasonably accommodate persons with disabilities. As this study demonstrates, transformational leaders are influential and challenge the status quo. It is these particular qualities that enable leaders to challenge the status quo and bring about change. It is contended that leaders require the aforementioned qualities in order to drive disability initiatives and effectively implement legislation governing disability in the workplace.

Figure 1: Developing transformational leadership practically to implement disability initiatives in the workplace.

There is a need for the development of a transformational leadership approach through education and training. Such initiatives aim to ensure the leaderships' understanding of disabilities and a commitment to disability inclusion. Once that is achieved, leaders have to focus on organisational development by creating a workplace culture that is inclusive of persons with disabilities. In so doing, leaders have to create a robust and influential change management framework to address the shortcomings identified in this study, including the negative attitudes towards persons with disabilities. It is essential that a single clearly defined leadership approach on disability inclusion is communicated to all leaders. This can ensure a common understanding and approach to disability affairs and demonstrate the leaderships' commitment to disability inclusion and the promotion of the human rights of persons with disabilities in the workplace.

Once the environment is ready to include persons with disabilities, leaders must formulate a disability policy and strategy to drive the inclusion of persons with disabilities. By that time, it may be easier to implement the strategy and policy formulation as all leaders will

then ideally be leading through a transformational leadership approach. Furthermore, transformational leadership may be instrumental in ensuring that there is sufficient budget and resources to drive disability initiatives in the workplace. The following figure is a recommended transformational leadership model that demonstrates how transformational leadership influences the organisation towards implementing disability laws and inclusion of persons with disability.
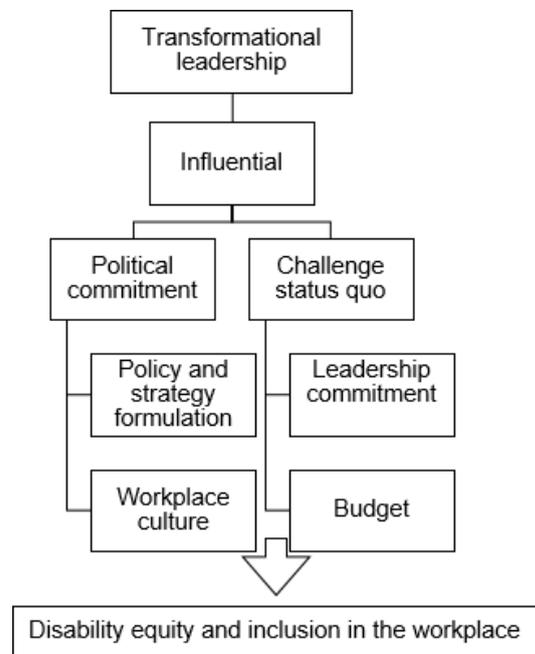
Figure 2: Transformational leadership model designed to include persons with disabilities in the workplace.

Figure 2 above places transformational leadership at the centre of all issues relating to disability inclusion in the workplace. The rationale behind placing transformational leadership at the centre is that transformational leaders possess critical attributes necessary to ensure the inclusion of persons with disabilities. As explored in the literature, transformational leaders are influential, visionary and committed leaders who challenge the status quo. Achua and Lussier (2013: 311) explain that transformational leaders have the ability to motivate employees to commit to a new vision and potential through effective communication skills. According to Achua and Lussier (2013: 313), they are the champions of workplace transformation, particularly if the change improves the status quo. Achua and Lussier (2013: 323) clarify that transformational leaders are tactical in dealing with workplace situations. Transformational leadership develops an influential change management strategy designed to include persons with disabilities at all occupational levels and ensures that the environment and culture are conducive for them. In this study it is established that transformational leaders promote human rights. Transformational leadership may also ensure that the rights of persons with disabilities are promoted and protected in the workplace.

As change agents, transformational leaders ensure that a strategy is developed and a disability policy adopted to include persons with disabilities and secure their effective implementation through enforcement, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Transformational leadership utilises a strategic approach to prioritise disability in the workplace by ensuring that there is a budget adequate to fund reasonable accommodation measures for persons with disabilities. By so doing, transformational leadership guarantees the effective implementation of disability laws, thereby achieving equality for persons with

disabilities. There is a relationship between each factor identified in the recommended model. For instance, without influential transformational leadership, there is no commitment from the executive leadership to include persons with disabilities.

Importantly, Vohra *et al*. (2015: 328) identify leadership as a key factor for ensuring inclusivity in the workplace. Vohra *et al*. (2015: 328) characterise an inclusive leader as "one who visibly champions diversity and initiatives linked to it, seeks out and values employees' contributions, demonstrates a collaborative leadership style, has the ability to manage conflict, embodies merit-based decision-making, possesses cultural competency, and creates a sense of collective identity". Clearly, without the executive leadership commitment, persons with disabilities are excluded from the workplace as there is no leadership dedicated to develop practical measures to ensure reasonable accommodation of persons with disabilities. Thus, disability laws are not effectively implemented. Ultimately, the identified attributes of transformational leadership are required to change the current status quo in relation to persons with disabilities in the workplace. Transformational leadership will foster commitment by leaders, thereby overcoming one of the principal obstacles to inclusion of persons with disabilities in the workplace. It is for these reasons that the model recommends the adoption of transformational leadership.

Conclusion

This study established that persons with disabilities are not practically included in the Municipality due to the lack of effective implementation of disability provisions. Although participants in this study do have some understanding of what a transformational leader is and the 'transformational approach', in practice these leaders do not utilise a transformational approach, due to several identified factors. Consequently, it is apparent that the Municipality fails in its constitutional and international mandate of substantive equality, particularly for persons with disabilities. The lack of disability inclusion initiatives and a questionable understanding of disabilities are further confirmed by the employees with disabilities who participated in this study. The study confirms that transformational leaders can have a tremendous impact on the workplace culture, strategy and policy implementation and that such a leadership approach is very influential on matters affecting the workplace. A transformational leadership model should be developed to assist leaders to practically achieve disability inclusion in the workplace.

Placing transformational leadership at the centre of all disability initiatives will guarantee leadership commitment to disability inclusion, resulting in the effective implementation of disability laws and achieving disability equity in the workplace. Consequently, workplaces should utilise transformational leadership as a tool to effectively implement legislation governing disability and to include persons with disabilities in the workplace. Among the findings of the study is that workplace leaders continue to focus on impairment and not the ability or potential of persons with disabilities. Future research may, therefore, focus more on transformational leadership and the capability approach to disability. Since this study was conducted using a qualitative research methodology, a follow-up mixed-method approach may be used to determine senior leaders' and operational (junior) managers' understandings of persons with disabilities in the workplace. Such a study may also include employees with disabilities in order to determine their perspective on the capability approach and transformational leadership. This study has developed a new research interpretation (transformational leadership within the law context) which reveals the need for further development in future studies.

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Impact of Multimedia Technology on the Teaching and Learning of Oral English in Osun State Secondary Schools, Nigeria

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Abstract

The paper sets to examine the impact of multimedia technology in the teaching and learning of oral English in secondary schools in Osun State. The researchers' main objectives are to determine the availability of multimedia technology in secondary schools and also find out the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) skills possessed by oral English teachers. Further, the study explores strategies to improve on the usability of multimedia technology in secondary schools. Data were collected through questionnaires distributed among 80 teachers in Osun State central senatorial district. The results and discussions of findings are presented based on the demographic information of the respondents as well as their views towards the utilisation of ICT. Recommendations are made to the language planners, government, and the relevant agencies in the education sector as it was observed that challenges in pronunciation were not limited to students alone; it also affected teachers. This study further suggests that refresher courses be organised periodically for oral English language teachers and particularly, that the teaching of oral English should start at a primary school level.

Keywords: Impact; multimedia technology; oral English; teaching; schools

Introduction

Education has been, and will always be, a vital component in the development of any given society. Innovations on how teaching and learning could be improved in order to bring about the desired change and have the expected results have become a daily occurrence. Therefore, technological tools are being used by instructors, researchers, and learners to achieve greater things in education, as it was observed. Technology has produced an undeniable influence in virtually every aspect of human life and endeavour. It has the enormous potential to reshape and transform the way in which people organise their lives, interact with each other and participate in various spheres of society (Osunrinde 2002; Abimbade, Aremu and Adedoja 2003; and Aleburu 2008). According to these authors, the practical combination of information, communication, and technology with relevant attendance to various issues and challenges in different spheres of life is known as multimedia technology or Information and Communication Technology (ICT).

The use of multimedia technology has revolutionised education and training by changing the way teachers teach and train as well as how students learn (Mupinga, Comer and Ding 2010: 33). To corroborate this position, Adedoja and Oyedeko (2012: 505) remark that teaching with multimedia

technology has always yielded positive results by way of improving academic performance in almost all subject areas. This is because multimedia technology has moved from being a technology to a curriculum creating and delivery system for teachers and learners. Akinjobi (2015) raised some fundamental questions concerning the deteriorating state of English language teaching in Nigeria. Are our students who will ultimately become trainers and users adequately trained in English? Are they exposed to the language with mother tongue contents? Are they committed and diligent? This author previously noted that the generation of Soyinka, Okigbo, Clark, and Achebe had the opportunities this generation does not have. Soyinka's generation were adequately trained, some of them, if not most, in Britain where English is a first language. They acculturated, making contact with the language in the mother tongue setting, they were taught by native speakers, they were good readers, and they were diligent and committed English students with less distractions than this generation of cyber and text messaging twists of English words and expressions.

Therefore, it becomes imperative for researchers to urgently review the teaching of English in Nigerian schools, which is ebbing away, especially in the area of phonetics and phonology, and by extension oral English in general. As English is spoken around the world by different peoples, there are variations in English pronunciations which are referred to as accents. The use of technology in the world is in geometric progression and several activities and assignments are now being done through the use of technology as relevant to education. It is important to state here that majority of Nigerian English language teachers are not models in this area. This research hopes to change the orientation and the attitude of teachers towards the teaching of oral English in Nigerian secondary schools through the use of multimedia technology. The study examines the best methods of teaching and learning of oral English using multimedia technology. Multimedia technology is a new technological innovation in Nigeria and teachers have not fully utilised it in the teaching and learning of oral English. This study avails the teachers of the information that will enable them to utilise multimedia technology in the teaching of oral English with commendable results. As such, the study intends to: (i) to examine the availability of multimedia facilities for teaching and learning of oral English in secondary schools; (ii) appraise the ICT skills possessed by oral English teachers; (iii) evaluate the use of ICT facilities by oral English teachers; and finally (iv) examine the benefits of the use of multimedia technology in teaching and learning of oral English.

Multimedia Technology within the Context of Oral English Teaching in Nigeria

Technology can mostly be defined as the entities, both material and immaterial, created by the application of mental and physical effort in order to achieve some values. While Zhang (2016) defines multimedia as the use of computers to present text, graphics, video, animation and sound in an integrated way. In this sense, technology refers to tools and machines that may be used to solve real world problems. Imogie (1998) and Minsheng (2017) assert that technology can be seen as the systematic application of scientific or organised knowledge to a practical task. It is a completely integrated process for analysing problems, controlling and evaluating solutions to those problems. Wakama (1987) also states that technology is the selective adaptation of one or more of the processes identified and described by science and their embodiment in services designed to serve the needs of mankind on the progress from savagery towards advanced evolution. From the above assertions, it shows that various tools can be deployed for use by instructors, researchers and learners, but the newest tool being used is technology. Technology has produced undeniable influence in the area of education. It has made teaching and learning more convenient. Teaching and learning of oral English is not an exception.

In oral English teaching, students are the implementers, while teachers play different roles during this process. Teachers are conductors, guiding students to start activities. Languages are taught primarily for common confirmed purposes. By extension, teaching and learning of oral English should be given attention because this aspect teaches us how words are spelt and pronounced,

unfortunately, teaching and learning of oral English in Nigeria has not been accorded due priority in schools. The Nigerian child is exposed to the heterogeneity of languages being spoken in Nigeria. Most times, they substitute both consonant and vowel sounds of their mother tongues with consonant and vowel sounds of the English language. This is called interference which is seen as inter-influence as described by Olugbo (2012), and Abonyi (2014). In the Nigerian context, it refers to the influence of the indigenous languages on the English language.

In the process of learning a second language (L2), the system of acquiring the first language interferes with the system of learning the second language. This interference occurs at different levels. However, this study is concerned with the area of phonetics and phonology, or the oral English. Hence, in the learning of English, the Nigerian children need competent teachers to teach them correct pronunciation and intonation. Through this, they will more fully understand a native speaker's interpretation of English. The extensive use of multimedia technology in education in recent times has affected the teaching and learning of oral English in advanced countries. Akabogu (2007) argues that technology can provide students with language experiences as they move through the various stages of language acquisition. She further reiterates that students are exposed to online databases in order to have access to the native speaking of English which allows the second language learners (L2) to emulate the voice patterns of their speech with that of a native speaker. Similarly, Abonyi (2014) points out that the role of technology as a resource for the instruction of second language learners is becoming inevitable. Otagburuagu and Eze (2007: 29) equally posit that computer programmes like Microsoft Word, Power point, Corel draw and Microsoft Publisher are useful tools for language learning. Pedagogical innovation is becoming inevitable in this contemporary time in the teaching and learning of oral English in schools.

Methodology

The researchers employed a quantitative research approach and data were gathered via self-administered questionnaires. Quantitative research is an approach that explains phenomena according to numerical data which are analysed by means of mathematically based methods, especially statistics (Yilmaz, 2013). The research targets Osun central senatorial district in Nigeria. English language teachers from secondary schools were randomly selected from the district, and ninety-five (95) teachers were wholly identified and given the prepared questionnaires, out of which eighty (80) were retrieved for the purpose of analysis. A pre-test and post-test randomised group experimental design was also used for data collection. This design is considered appropriate because it is one of the experimental designs suitable for comparing participants' responses and measuring the degree of changes occurring as a result of treatments or intervention.

The research assured all ethical considerations in the process of the data collection. First, informed consent was ensured and the researchers obtained necessary permission before commencing with the collection of information. Consent was sought from the participants through the form of a letter before the administration of the research instrument (questionnaire). The participants were provided with consent forms which clearly stated the confirmation of their participation in the research with the understanding that they would be permitted to withdraw from the research at any time due to any unforeseen reason. Also, the researchers sought the permission of the schools' management before administering the questionnaires to the participants. All collected data were subsequently treated with utmost confidentiality by not citing any identifiable information of the respondents.

Interpretation and Discussion of Results

This section presents the results of the analyses, and discussion of the findings on oral English language teaching in Osun central senatorial district secondary schools, Osun state, Nigeria. The results and discussion of findings are presented based on the demographic information of the

respondents, research questions, and research hypotheses. The questionnaires are presented using a Likert scale: strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD).

Table 1: Demographic information from the respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	45	56.3
Female	35	43.8
Total	**80**	**100.0**
Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
1-40 years	31	38.8
31-40 years	32	40.0
41-50 years	11	13.8
51years and above	6	7.5
Total	**80**	**100.0**
Professional Association	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN)	8	10.0
English Teachers Association (ETA)	3	3.8
Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages (TESOL)	3	3.8
Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT)	20	25.0
Languages Teachers Association of Nigeria (LATAN)	1	1.3
Mass Communication	1	1.3
Not Indicated	44	55.0
Total	**80**	**100.0**
Teaching experience	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
5-9 years	44	55.0
10-14 years	19	23.8
15 years and above	17	21.3
Total	**80**	**100.0**

The table above demonstrates that a wide and rather balanced variety of participants were consulted. This implies that the researchers sought data from a wide spectrum of participants in order to give credence to the quality of data gathered. Most of the respondents possess diverse features. As shown in the table, 45 (56.3%) respondents are male, and 35 (43.8%) are female. Further, 31 (38.8%) respondents are less than 30 years old, 32 (40.0%) are in the age range of 31-40 years, 11 (13.8%) are between 41-50 years, while 6 (7.5%) respondents are over 50 years old. Also, 8 (10.0%) of the teachers belong to the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria; three (3.8%) are members of the English Teachers Association; 3 (3.8%) are members of JESOL; while 20 (25.0%) are part of the Nigeria Union of Teachers. In addition, one (1.0%) respondent is a member of LAN, 1 (1.0%) belongs to mass communication, while 44 (55.0%) did not indicate their professional association. Finally, 44 (55.0%) respondents have 5-9 years' experience, 19 (23.8%) have 10-14 years of experience, while 17 (21.3%) respondents have 15 years and above.

Table 2: Summary of results on the use of multimedia equipment for teaching oral English

Duration	Frequency	Percent (%)
1-2 years	11	13.8
3-4 years	22	27.5
5-6 years	15	18.8
More than 6 years	32	40.0
Total	**80**	**100.0**

As indicated in Table 2, 11 (13.8%) respondents have used multimedia equipment for between 1-2 years, 22 (27.5%) have used the equipment for between 3-4 years, 15 (18.8%) have used it for between 5-6 years, while 32 (30.0%) have used the equipment for more than six years. This means that most of the respondents have used multimedia equipment for more than six years. The result implies that most English language teachers in Osun State had been using multimedia equipment for a considerable number of years in order to teach oral English at secondary school level. This become more interesting considering Patel's (2013) observation that the new era has assigned new challenges to modern teachers and that the use of technology in teaching has made it more interesting and productive in terms of improvements is in agreement with the research respondents' responses. Solanki and Shameel (2012), Gilakjani (2017), and Ahmadi (2018) corroborate Chirag's views by noting that language teaching has changed due to technology thereby becoming more interesting.

The duration in which the teachers in Osun State have been using technology clearly indicates that it has been a long time since the transition from traditional teaching methods to modern methods has commenced. This has enhanced the teaching and learning of oral English in the State. Also, it is obvious here that although they have been using it for almost six years, issues surrounding inaccessibility to these facilities makes their knowledge inadequate.

Table 3: Summary of results showing knowledge on the use of multimedia equipment for the teaching of oral English

Question Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Std. Dev.
It is not imperative for an English language teacher to be computer literate.	9 11.3%	17 21.3%	28 35.0%	26 32.5%	2.11	0.99
English cannot be effectively taught without the use of computer.	15 18.8%	23 28.8%	31 38.8%	11 13.8%	2.53	0.95
A computer is an indispensable tool in teaching oral English/speech work.	20 25.9%	42 52.5%	17 21.3%	1 1.3%	3.01	0.72
Computer application in English language teaching is a must-have and it makes teaching more effective.	28 35.9%	34 42.5%	14 17.5%	4 5.0%	3.08	0.85
I am computer literate but cannot use a computer to teach oral English.	10 12.5	19 23.8%	37 46.3%	14. 17.5%	2.31	0.91
Computers can be used to teach almost all aspects of English.	25 31.3%	36 45.0%	16 20.0%	3 3.8%	3.04	0.82
The use of a projector to teach oral English enhances students' concentration in class.	46 57.5%	26 32.5%	5 6.3%	3 3.8%	3.44	0.78

Weighted Mean = 2.79
Criterion = 2.50

As shown in Table 3, 9 (11.3%) respondents strongly agree that it is not imperative for an English language teacher to be computer literate, 17 (21.3%) agree, 28 (35/0%) disagree, while 26 (32.5%) strongly disagree. In addition, 15 (18.8%) respondents strongly agree that English language cannot be effectively taught without the use of computer, 23 (28.8%) agree, 31 (38.8%) disagree, while 11 (13.8%) strongly disagree. Furthermore, 20 (25.0%) respondents strongly agree that a computer is

an indispensable tool in teaching oral English/speech work, 42 (52.5%) agree, 17 (21.3%) disagree, while only 1 (1.3%) strongly disagrees. Besides, 28 (35.0%) respondents strongly agree that computer application in English language teaching is a must-have and it makes teaching more effective, 34 (42.5%) agree, 14 (17.5%) disagree, while 4 (5.0%) strongly disagree.

In the same vein, 10 (12.5%) respondents strongly agree that while they are computer literate, they cannot use a computer to teach oral English, 19 (23.8%) agree, 37 (46.3%) disagree, while 14 (17.5) strongly disagree. Furthermore, 25 (31.3%) respondents strongly agree that computers could be used to teach almost all aspects of English, 36 (45.0%) agree, 16 (20.0%) disagree, while three (3.8%) strongly disagree. Also, 46 (57.5%) respondents strongly agree that the use of a projector to teach oral English enhances students' concentration in class, 26 (32.5%) agree, 5 (6.3%) disagree, while 3 (3.8%) strongly disagree.

It was revealed that the obtained weighted mean value of 2.79 is higher than the criterion of 2.50, hence, it can be inferred that English language teachers have an adequate knowledge on the use of multimedia equipment for the teaching of oral English. The outcome of the finding was evident through the responses of most respondents that a computer is an indispensable tool in teaching oral English/speech work; and that computer application in English language teaching makes teaching more effective. Ahmadi (2018) affirms that technology has always been an important part of the teaching and learning environment and that its use facilitates learners' learning.

Table 4: Summary of results showing the skills for teaching oral English

Question Items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Std. Dev.
Oral English (phonetics and phonology) as an aspect of the English language can be taught effectively without a functional language laboratory.	6 7.5%	27 33.8%	10 12.5%	37 46.3%	2.03	1.06
Oral English is the pedestal of English language teaching, but it is extremely difficult to teach.	11 13.8%	35 43.8%	12 15.9%	22 27.5%	2.44	1.04
I feel comfortable teaching oral English and students enjoy it and assimilate quickly.	24 30.0%	44 55.0%	8 10.0%	4 5.0%	3.10	0.77
Oral English is the most crucial aspect of language skills but difficult to handle.	17 21.3%	38 47.5%	6 7.5%	19 23.8%	2.66	1.07
All aspect of Oral English is easy for me to handle effectively.	15 18.9%	41 51.3%	13 16.3%	11 13.8%	2.75	0.92
Oral English as an aspect of the English language is too wide, but I teach it effectively.	21 26.3%	41 51.3%	11 13.8%	7 8.8%	2.95	0.87
Schools must at least have designated teachers for the teaching of oral English for effective productivity.	52 65.0%	18 22.5%	2 2.5%	8 10.0%	3.43	0.95

Weighted Mean = 2.79
Criterion = 2.50

As shown in Table 4, 6 (7.5%) respondents strongly agree that oral English (phonetics and phonology) as an aspect of English Language can be taught effectively without a functional language laboratory, 27 (33.8%) agree, 10 (12.5%) could not decide, while 37 (46.3%) strongly disagree. In addition, 11 (13.8%) respondents strongly agree that oral English is the pedestal of English language teaching, but it is extremely difficult to teach, 35 (43.8%) agree, 12 (15.0%) could not decide, while 22 (27.5%) strongly disagree. Furthermore, 24 (30.0%) respondents strongly agree that they feel comfortable teaching oral English and that students enjoy it and assimilate quickly, 44 (55.0%) agreed, 8 (10.0%) could not decide, while 4 (5.0%) strongly disagree. Also, 17 (21.3%) respondents strongly agree that oral English is the most crucial aspect of language skills but is difficult to handle; 38 (47.5%) agree; 6 (7.5%) could not decide, while 19 (23.8%) strongly disagree.

The table reveals that the obtained weighted mean value of 2.78 is higher than the criterion of 2.50; hence, it can be inferred that English language teachers in the state have the adequate skills to teach oral English. The possession of adequate skills by teachers here indicates that they are aware of the importance of the use of multimedia technology in teaching of oral English. Guan, Song and Li (2018) observe that the transition from traditional methods of teaching of oral English into multimedia-assisted English teaching has a numerous advantage. These include the changing of abstract content into concrete ideas for easy comprehension and to stimulate students' interest in learning. The responses from respondents indicate that they are aware of these advantages and consequently motivated to use the new skills acquired to a reasonable extent.

The outcome of the findings on skills required to teach oral English was affirmed through the responses of most respondents that, they feel comfortable while teaching oral English. Also, it was affirmed by most respondents that oral English is the most interesting part of language skills to teach; while students enjoy it and assimilate quickly. The acceptance of this style of teaching by both the teachers and students affirmed the position of Zhang (2016) that many students consider the traditional method of teaching oral English obsolete. Teachers who have adopted the new method of teaching oral English find it more interesting and comfortable to teach.

Table 5: Summary of results showing the level of job satisfaction of English language teachers

Question items	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	Std. Dev.
A higher paid job can necessitate my resignation from the teaching profession.	52.5%	24 30.0%	9 11.3%	5 6.3%	1.71	0.90
Good incentives and a welfare package can enhance my productivity.	58 75.2%	19 23.8%	0 0.0%	3 3.8%	1.35	0.65
All oral English language teachers in my school have benefitted from staff training programmes.	14 17.5%	20 25.0%	24 30.0%	22 27.5%	2.19	0.94
I have attended sponsored conferences, seminars and workshops organised for English language teachers.	22 27.5%	28 35.0%	23 28.8%	7 8.8%	2.19	0.94

English language teaching becomes more effective and interesting if teachers are exposed to the use of modern technology in teaching.	54 67.5%	22 27.5%	2 2.5%	2 2.5%	1.40	0.67
I have much passion for teaching oral English and cannot take any other job again.	7 8.8%	15 18.8%	39 48.8	19 23.8%	2.86	0.88

Weighted Mean = 2.03
Criterion = 2.50

As shown in Table 5, 42 (52.5%) respondents strongly agree that getting a better paid job can necessitate their resignation from the teaching profession, 24 (30.0%) agree, 9 (11.3%) disagree, while 5 (6.3%) strongly disagree. In addition, 58 (75.2%) respondents strongly agree that good incentives and welfare package can enhance their productivity, 19 (23.8%) agree, while 3 (3.8%) strongly disagree. Besides, 14 (17.5%) respondents strongly agree that all oral English language teachers in their school have benefitted from staff training programmes, 20 (25.0%) agree, 24 (30.0%) disagree, while 22 (27.5%) strongly disagree. Moreover, 22 (27.5%) respondents strongly agree that they have attended sponsored conferences, seminars and workshops organised for English language teachers, 28 (35.0%) agree, 23 (28.8%) disagree while seven (8.8%) strongly disagree.

In the same vein, 54 (67.5%) respondents strongly agree that English language teaching becomes more effective and interesting if teachers are exposed to the use of modern technology in their teaching. This is in agreement with Alkamel and Santoshe's (2018) views that today ICT is being used as a tool for improving the quality of life. That accounted for the acceptability of the use of computers to teach oral English by many teachers in Osun State. Also, 7 (8.8%) respondents strongly agree that they have much passion for teaching oral English and cannot take any other job again, 15 (18.8%) agree, 39 (48.8%) disagree, while 19 (23.8%) strongly disagree. The table further reveals that the obtained weighted mean value of 2.03 is lower than the criterion of 2.50; hence, it can be inferred that the level of job satisfaction among English language teachers in Osun State is low.

Table 6: Summary of regression on the influence of multimedia equipment use on the teaching of oral English

Variables	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		Sig.	
	B	Std Error	Beta (β)	t	(p value)	Remark
(constant) Multimedia equipment use	12.668	.619		20.476	.000	
	1.805	.355	.499	5.084	.000	Signature

Table 6 shows multimedia equipment use, the unstandardised regression weight (β), the standardised error of estimate (SEβ), the standardised coefficient, the t-ratio and the level at which the t-ratio is significant. As indicated in the table, multimedia equipment use (=0.423, t=6.529, p<0.05) tested significant on the teaching of oral English. This implies that the use of multimedia equipment has a significant influence on the teaching of oral English at secondary school level in Osun State. The development of modern educational technology to teach does not only influence the teaching of oral English but also promotes educational thinking and models (Zhang 2016). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected. The finding of the study on the use of multimedia equipment use may be as a result of the effective use of multimedia equipment in the teaching of oral English at secondary school level in Osun state.

Table 7: Summary of regression in the influence of possession of computer gadgets by English language teachers in the teaching of oral English

Variables	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig. (p value)	Remark
	B	Std Error	Beta (β)			
(constant)	15.239	1.262		12.072	.000	
Possession of computer gadgets	1.805	.401	.023	.203	.840	Not Sig.

Table 7 reveals the possession of computer gadgets at home and in the office by English language teachers, the unstandardised regression weight (β), the standardised error of estimate (SEβ), the standardised coefficient, the t-ratio and the level at which the t-ratio is not significant. As indicated in the table, possession of computer gadgets (β=0.023, t=0.203, p>0.05) did not test significant on the teaching of oral English. This implies that the possession of computer gadgets at home and in the office by English language teachers does not have a significant influence on the teaching of oral English at secondary school level in Osun state. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted.

The findings of the study on the possession of computer gadgets at home and in the office by English language teachers may be as a result of the inability of such teachers to use the possessed computer gadgets regularly and effectively while at home and perhaps in the office. However, Rotimi (2012) posits that while technology in the 21st century has changed so rapidly through the widespread use of computers, the availability of computers at home or in the office without adequate knowledge does not make the owners computer literate. The inability of some teachers in Osun state to use computer competently may be as a result of their negligence.

Table 8: Summary of regression in the influence of possession of computer gadgets by students on the teaching and learning of oral English

Variables	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig. (p value)	Remark
	B	Std Error	Beta (β)			
(constant)	16.009	.596		26.855	.000	
Possession of computers by students	.119	.115	.116	1.030	.300	Not Sig.

Table 8 reveals the possession of computers by students, the unstandardised regression weight (B), the standardised error of estimate (SEβ), the standardised coefficient, the t-ratio and the level at which the t-ratio was not significant. As indicated in the table, possession of computers by students (β=0, 116, t=1.030, p>0.05) did not test significant on the teaching and learning of oral English. This implies that possession of computers by students does not significantly facilitate the teaching and learning of oral English at secondary school level in Osun State. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted. The findings here may be as a result of the inability of such students to regularly and effectively use the possessed computers to facilitate their teaching and learning of oral English.

Table 9: Summary of regression of direct access of students to computers on the teaching and learning of oral English

Variables	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig. (p value)	Remark
	B	Std Error	Beta (β)			
(constant)	18.173	1.680		10.820	.000	
Direct access of students to computers	1.404	.863	.181	1.627	.108	Not Sig.

Table 9 shows the direct access of students to computers, the unstandardised regression weight (β), the standardised error of estimate (SEβ), the standardised coefficient, the t-ratio and the level at which the t-ratio was not significant. As indicated in the table, direct access of students to computers (β=0.181), t=0.108, t=0.108, />0.05) did not test significant on the teaching and learning of oral English. This implies that the direct access of students to computers does not have significant influence on the teaching and learning of oral English at secondary school level in Osun State. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted. The findings of the study on the direct access of students to computers may be associated with the inability of such students to regularly and effectively utilise

the opportunity of their accessibility to computers for the teaching and learning of oral English. However, not only are the students not utilising the opportunity they have effectively the only problem, other factors such as lack of motivation, inadequate classroom conditions, poor quality teaching and learning materials, and the unavailability of specialists could also be contributing factors (Dansieh, 2018).

It is evident from the analysis that there are various issues that are germane to the teaching of oral English in secondary schools in Nigeria. It was observed that teachers who are relatively young in the profession are the ones that must be re-trained to help them perform more efficiently. Some of these young teachers have been using computers for different purposes before taking up the appointment and this has really helped them. The unavailability of professional teachers to handle the teaching of English is another serious problem that needs urgent attention. Teachers who never had any interaction with a language laboratory before or after graduation are the ones handling the course in schools, especially the public schools. Schools should be equipped with relevant multimedia equipment to teach oral English. This will definitely make the products from these schools compete favourably with their counterparts across the globe.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The new era of technological advancement assigns new challenges and duties on the modern teachers, in particular the mode of English language teaching has been drastically changed with the remarkable entry of technology. Technology provides many options to make the teaching of the subject, especially oral English, more productive in terms of improvement. Through such technological innovation, the authors of this paper are of the opinion that teachers and students will be able to compete favourably with their counterparts in other countries where English is taught and learnt as a second language. Importantly, the following multimedia technology facilities should be provided in schools to ameliorate the teaching and learning of oral English. Such facilities include: computers, internet services, software programmes, e.g. mentor tutor, voice synthesiser/recognition, and projectors, pitch meters, VCD, DVD and bluetooth headsets etc.

It is evident that the provision of the above-mentioned equipment in schools coupled with competent hands to handle it, will improve the teaching and learning of oral English tremendously. It is recommended that refresher courses be organised periodically for oral English language teachers to update their knowledge. Also, the adoption of a practical approach to the teaching of oral English should be encouraged. It is further recommended that the teaching of phonetics and phonology at senior secondary school level should be adopted, while the basic teaching of oral English should start at the basic school level in order to allow for the learners to develop the oral English skills at an early stage.

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The Role of Creative Industries in Economic Development: The Human Factor Development Approach

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Abstract

In most cases economic development is measured using monetary value, in terms of Gross Domestic Product (GDPs), Gross National Product (GNPs), and per capita income. Economic development cannot only be associated with monetary figures. Against this aspect, creative industries are also a driving force in economic development. This paper demystifies the notion that economic development is hardly measured through art. Using the human factor development approach, this article debates the role of creative industries in economic development. This model assumes that human beings are an important component in enhancing economic development through the creative industry as it is a more sustainable approach. Sustainability is enhanced by incorporating personal and human efforts to define standards in terms of creativity, hence, contributing to sustainable economic development. Further, the article argues that the employment of human factor development to enhance economic development through creative industries is of paramount importance as it allows indigenous people to take part in the developmental process of their economies. Data were collected using a qualitative research methodology and a purposive sampling of selected art industries to establish the contribution of the creative industry to economic development.

Keywords: Human factor development; creative industries; economic; development

Introduction

The role of creative industries in economic development has received attention from various circles in academia. Serrano *et al.* (2014) argue that there is a bidirectional causality between per capita GDP and employment intensity in the cultural and creative industries. This means that there is a symbiotic relationship between the two. Serrano *et al.* (2014) highlight that there is a virtuous circle between cultural creative industries and economic development. This means that there are issues involved starting within the higher education, urbanisation, and human capital stock sectors, among others. In this regard, the above-mentioned areas matter for a successful creative industry to be achieved. As a result, they came to the conclusion that economic development and cultural creative industries are a tale of causality where many issues are involved for its success to be registered. However, whilst the above authorities have come to that conclusion, the researcher in this article emphasises that creative industries are a force to reckon with in regards to economic development, especially from a human factor development perspective.

Gouvea and Vera (2018) acknowledge that creative goods and services have been recognised as an important pathway to economic development. They further admit that both transnational organisations and natural governments have been paying more attention to creative

industries. Using a sample from 57 European countries as well as a single index model to analyse the export performance of countries, Gouvea and Vera (2018) came to conclusion that there are vast differences in the export performance of countries. They indicate that the composition of a country's creative export portfolio has a direct impact on the performance of the export portfolio of creative products. This means that besides other benefits of creating employment among others, creative industries contribute to the economy of a country through these exports. Similarly, the current research agrees with Gouvea and Vera (2018) but moves on to examine how human factor development is an aid to the above scenario.

In the same vein, Drab-Kurowsk (2018) discusses state intervention in the context of creative industries. Drab-Kurowsk (2018) is coming from the background of understanding how much creative industries can contribute to a country's economy. Drab-Kurowsk (2018) further indicates reasons why the state should continue such efforts. Possible areas and measures of influence with reference to the Polish creative sector are suggested. While not focussing on state intervention, Drab-Kurowsk (2018) contributes much to the present research as the researcher emphasises the ability of human capital to add value to economic growth through creative industries in the Zimbabwean context.

In the context of the present research, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) describes cultural industries as those industries that combine creation, production, and commercialisation of contents which are intangible and cultural in nature (World Forum on Culture and Cultural Industries, 2014). This means that any product that goes on the market through creative works, like playwriting, acting, and singing (music), among others, are considered to be goods or services that come along as a result of the cultural industry. Under the same concept of creative industries, there are other terms, such as creative economy, creative clusters, and others (Byrnes 2015). This means that one cannot deliberate on issues of creative industries without making reference to the creative economy.

Hartley (2005) notes that the creative industry's idea brought creativity from the back door of the government, where it had sat for decades, holding out a tin cup for arts subsidies, miserable, self-loathing, and critical, but unwilling to change. The industry was brought around to the front door, where it was introduced to the wealth, creating portfolios, emergent industry departments, and the enterprise support program. The creative industry has been lying unnoticed by the government and yet it constitutes a huge number of participants who can equally contribute to a massive portion of the country's economy. Thus, this article explores the contribution of the human factor development approach to economic development through creative industries. The focus of the article, therefore, is to identify and discuss the role of these commodities in regard to economic development. In other words, a human factor development approach to economic development is critical in as far as cultural industries are concerned as it is more sustainable.

The sustainability of creative industries is cherished in the innate and indigenous creativity of the participants. The United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP, 2012) defines indigenous knowledge as, the knowledge that an indigenous (local) community accumulates over generations of living in a particular environment. This definition encompasses all forms of knowledge technologies, know-how skills, practices, and beliefs that enable a community to achieve stable livelihoods in their environment. However, the notion of indigenous creativity has to be well guarded and looked after so that the sustainability component may benefit future generations as most products from the creative industry are a result of indigenous knowledge. This is because most indigenous knowledge practices are undocumented (Lekhi, 2019), hence, for future generations to continue to enjoy and learn from them, there is need to guard them jealously through artefacts. At the same time continuing the commercialisation of these products contributes to the economic development of a country.

Understanding Creative Industries

The term 'creative industries' has been generally described as businesses with creativity at their heart, for example, design, music, publishing, architecture, film and video, crafts, visual arts, fashion, TV and radio, advertising, literature, computer games, and the performing arts. This means that at the centre of it all, is creativity. This entails a human effort in coming up with novel things in the different areas cited above. More broadly, however, creative industries are hard to define, as is creativity itself. Academia struggles to keep up with the growing global interest in 'creative' ideas (De Beukelaer, 2015). Lee (2015: 141) argues that a creative industry is defined by its "unpredictability, rapid shift in trends and fashions", products that are innovative and novel, satisfying the rapidly changing needs and demands of a globalised society. Lee (2015) identified two common strands of creative industry research. The first focuses on the development of creative industries and the second on place promotion; using arts and culture to promote or rejuvenate urban areas.

The UK Government's Department for Culture, Media, and Sport (DCMS, 2005: 5) defines creative industries as *"Those industries which have their origin in individual creativity, skill and talent and which have a potential for wealth and job creation through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property."* The definition clearly points out that these industries emerge from human capabilities to create and use their innate talents to earn a living through creating 'artifacts'. It also highlights that these creations are preserved so that owners can generate income from their efforts thereby creating jobs. According to the DCMS (2001), there are thirteen sub-sectors under the term creative industries, and these are:

x)   advertising;
xi)   architecture;
xii)   the art and antiques market;
xiii)   crafts;
xiv)   design;
xv)   designer fashion;
xvi)   film and video;
xvii)   interactive leisure software;
xviii) music;
xix)   the performing arts;
xx)   publishing;
xxi)   software and computer games;
xxii)   television and radio.

These sectors were updated in 2015 and reduced to nine, (DCMS, 2015: 32).

In general, creative industries are seen as having three roles in contributing to the innovation potential of an economy (Müller *et al.*, 2009; Reid *et al.*, 2010; UNCTAD, 2008; Bakhshi *et al.,* 2008; Chapain *et al.*, 2010; Fleischmann *et al.*, 2017: 123). These include:

i.   Producing ideas and the commercialisation of these ideas which contribute (directly or indirectly) to the generation of new services and products.
ii.   Providing innovation impulses to technology producers because creative industries are intensive users of technology and often demand adaptations and new developments of technology.
iii. Offering creative services which can contribute to innovative activities of businesses and organisations within and outside creative industries.

Be that as it may, economic development can be observed through creative industries as the commercialisation of human ideas which culminate into products and services. This, therefore, means, human effort is at the centre of the creative industry as their skills and knowledge generate the required imputes for economic development.

The creative industries sector is also referred to as creative and cultural industries, creative and digital industries, or the creative industry within the creative economy. Most recently, they have been called the Orange Economy (*La Economía Naranja*) in Latin America and the Caribbean. The terminology can be confusing but, broadly speaking, the term creative industries refers to a range of economic activities that are concerned with the generation and commercialisation of creativity, ideas, knowledge, and information. The creative economy is an evolving concept based on creative assets potentially generating economic growth and development (Parish, 2011). The industry can foster income-generation, job creation, and export earnings while promoting social inclusion, cultural diversity, and human development. Based on the above submissions, creative industries, for the purposes of this article, refers to creative works and ideas based on the talent and knowledge of human efforts. They are industries that produce cultural goods and services. This means that any product that goes on to the market as creative works, like playwritings, acting, and singing, among others, are considered to be goods or services that come along as a result of the cultural industry.

The Human Factor Development Approach

Human Factor Development (HFD) is an agenda to empower people in an area of value, skill, and knowledge bases in society. In doing so, these skills and this knowledge should be able to aid them to contribute to the economic development of the nation. Thus, the article supports the Human Factor Development approach to economic development through creative industries. According to Anyawu (1998), Human Factor Development is a human centred development approach with an agenda to develop the creative potential in Africans so that they can rely on their own efforts and initiatives to develop themselves and their economy. Human Factor Development is a developmental approach that can be used to initiate developmental projects in communities and mitigate societal challenges. The approach provides independence, full responsibility, and accountability to Africans, for the successes as well as failures of the development programmes and agendas they initiate (Adjibolosoo, 1995).

The concept was propounded by Adjibolosoo (1995) in the 90s as a framework that can be used to counter development theories in Africa. Other development theories have proved to be unfeasible in Africa, thus, the above authority resorted to the application of human factor in dealing with African countries' problems. Adjibolosoo (1995: 33) defines human factor development as, "a spectrum of personality characteristics and other dimensions of human performance that enable social, economic and political institutions to function and remain functional over time". This means that the approach offers a wide range of dispositions that various people have and other efforts that make them capable of carrying themselves through life and its challenges. Adjibolosoo's submission postulates that a human being is not a rigid person. The definition above alludes to the fact that a society offers people with challenges and opportunities that makes them functional over a period of time. Thus, Human Factor Development is a multidimensional approach to development that every aspect of human life is centred on, be it social, political, or economic. There are six primary components of Human Factor Development which include spiritual capital, moral capital, aesthetic capital, human capital, human abilities and human potentials. In other words, for sustainable economic development through creative industries, such an approach would be feasible as it gives indigenous people the requisite platform to use their talent and give value to their capabilities hence enhancing economic development.

Streeten (1994) states that Human Factor Development, also known as Comfort Design, Functional and Systems, is the practice of designing products, systems, or processes to take proper account of interactions between said products, systems, or processes and people who use them. It is the study of designing equipment, devices, and processes that fit in with the human body and its cognitive abilities. Thus, in relation to creative industries, the human factor development approach suits very well as it is all about human capabilities and the availability of resources in the environment that they live in. In other words, human factor is a scientific

discipline concerned with the understanding of the interactions among human and other elements of a system. The framework can be approached in three different types of phases. According to Mc (2004), one of these phases is the imparting of skills for survival. With its emphasis on a user or person-centred design, Human Factor Development can help ensure that healthcare in homes suits the people, the tasks, and the environment involved, and that the care involved is safe, efficient, and effective to enhance the impartation of needed skills.

Another approach to Human Factor Development is that humans should be agents of economic development. Humans are active agents of economic development because they are the ones that exploit natural resources and use them. They should be leaders and take charge in the economic development agendas of their communities. With creative industries in mind, the approach is unequivocally appropriate as it enhances local people's abilities to make use of their surrounding resources to earn a living, hence, establishing themselves economically. In other words, Human Factor Development entails that humans should manipulate and use the environment to their advantage, (Hall *et al*., 2015). The last phase amongst the three is the impartation of values, *ubuntu*. This means that men and women are expected to relate with each other ethically. As such, through their creative works they should be able to impart good values to their intended audience and target market. It is against the above exploration of the concept of Human Factor Development that the approach is used in the article.

Methodology

This article is guided by the qualitative research approach grounded in Denzin and Lincoln's (2005) definition that qualitative research aims to gather comprehensive understanding of human behaviours and the resources that govern it. This highlights that qualitative researchers study cases in an effort to make sense of or strive to interpret occurrences according to implications people afford them in their natural settings. More so, the choice of the research paradigm is necessitated by Creswell (2003) who argues that a qualitative study is, "an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants, and conducted in a natural setting" which is contrary to quantitative research. In this regard, the researcher seeks to understand human behaviour in as far as their creative initiative is concerned.

The creative industry as a source of livelihood should help people show a certain degree of understanding, hence, the researcher evaluates how the Human Factor Development approach necessitates sustainable development in the creative industry. The selected creative industries, which contribute to the population of the study, were sampled using both convenience and purposive, or judgemental, sampling. The selection of these industries was based on the assessment of various works done in the industry and the performers themselves. The researcher interviewed selected dress makers and sculptors among others to assess their behaviours and approaches in the work that they do. Some songs were also analysed to assess the message being put across by musicians. Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability sampling which involves the selection of the sample most convenient and readily available but drawn from part of the population under study. Some of the works assessed were conveniently sampled as they were readily available, and a generalisation of the outcome was made. Thematic analysis allowed the researcher to identify themes from the gathered data in relation to the study's objectives.

Economic Development and Creative Industries

Economic development is the process by which the economic well-being and quality of life of a nation, region, or local community is improved. Osakwe (2010) defines economic development as changes in the use of resources that results in the potential continued growth of the national income per head in a society. Economic development can thus refer to the increase in capacity of an economy to produce goods and services from one period of time to

another. Therefore, in the context of this paper, economic growth can be referred to as a process by which the economic wellbeing and quality of life of a people is enhanced through human capabilities and how this remains functional overtime.

The role of human resources in development has been widely acknowledged by many scholars. Harbison, as far back as 1973, notes that human resources constitutes the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. With regards to creative industries in Zimbabwe, human factors play a pivotal role as they allow various individuals to exploit their talents in a bid to make a living. Daubaraite and Startiene (2017) aver that creative industries aim for financial profit. It is through these financial profits that economic development is enhanced because the wellbeing and the quality of life of people improves through their creativity.

Cultural and creative industries are generally inclusive. People from the indigenous to the elite participate in this economy as producers and customers. This means that others come up with the idea and create a work of art that the next person would consume. It could be one's totem, it could be a sculpture, or music. As long as the other person is a consumer then contribution to economic development through creative industry is witnessed. Creative industries empower people to take ownership of their own development and stimulate innovation that can drive inclusive, sustainable growth. If well-nurtured, the creative economy can be a source of structural economic transformation, socio-economic progress, job creation, and innovation while contributing to social inclusion and sustainable human development. According to Thangavel (2019), creative industries have become an increasingly important contributor to the GDP of a country. Most researches over the past 15 years show that the creative economy is not only one of the most rapidly growing sectors of the world economy, but that they are also transformative in generating income, jobs, and exports.

More so, in relation to creative industries and economic development, Gibbon (2011) postulates that creative industries are a set of economic bodies that employ personal creativity, skills, and talents in order to create wealth and jobs. These industries are based on individual and collective creativity, skills, and talents which, by way of generating and utilising intellectual property, are able to increase their welfare and create jobs. Anyanwu (1998) further poses that, a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and utilise them effectively in the national economy, will be unable to develop. Thus, a nation's natural resources must be supported by the appropriate manpower capability if it is to achieve socio-economic development.

Creative Industries in Economic Development: The Human Factor Development Approach

Human Factor Development has three key elements that are emphasised and these are going to be the rallying points of discussion under this section. These elements include the impartation of values (*'ubuntu'*), humans as agents of economic development, and imparting skills for survival. To start with, the impartation of values is critical in creative industries as it has everything to do with moral manners. This implies that people have to relate in an ethical manner; their belief systems, history, and culture is critical for them to achieve the desired economic growth. As creative industries are a driving force in economic development, in terms of job creation, this impartation of values play a critical role as it fosters cohesion in the way people come up with creative works. Their belief systems and their cultures are manifested through their creative works. For example, the sculptures that are displayed by various artists speak to these people's values, like a woman pounding in a mortar. Speaking to the particular sculptor about the woman in their piece, the artist emphasised that *"imwe midziyo yaishandiswa makare kare haizivikanwi nevana vemakore ano. Zvakare tinenge tichiedza kuratidza kuti mabasa aiitwa nevarume ndeaya evakadzi ndeaya"* (Some of the utensils that were used long back are not known by this generation of kids. Also, we will be trying to show that men and women had different roles and jobs to do.)

The sculpture communicates the tools that were used to pound traditionally in the past. This is part of the heritage of other generations who did not live in the bygone era. Besides being part of their history and heritage, the cultural roles of men and women are also communicated through the sculpture. One finds a sculpture with a man making hoes and a woman pounding and it is thus communicated the roles that were expected of these people by the community, hence, their values are upheld. In the process of showcasing the sculptures, people buy art for display in their homes and others export them to the international market, thereby, generating income for their upkeep. Thus, Gibbon (2011) postulates that creative industries are a set of economic bodies that employ personal creativity, skills, and talents in order to create wealth and jobs. These industries are based on individual and collective creativity, skills, and talents which, by way of generating and utilising intellectual property, are able to increase their welfare and create jobs.

Through music and dances, various artists impart values to their communities and show their skills for survival, thereby, creating employment for themselves and others, and enhancing their lives for the better. Potts (2011) asserts that creative industries are significant, not in just job creation, but also in facilitating economic evolution by their contribution to behavioural, social, and institutional evolution. Through various songs and dances people's values are imparted. For example, in African culture children are taught to respect their parents and be able to take care of them, especially in their old age as they did to them when they were young. Such teachings are transmitted through songs like in Leonard Zhakata's song, *Batai Mazwi*. The artist in the song is imparting the values that are enshrined in the proverb, "*chirere chigokurerawo*" (look after him so that he will do the same). In the song, the artist reminds the child of the responsibility he is expected of. He sings;

> *"Ndaitika chirere chichazokurerawo… akura zvake mwana ave kuzvishandira, nhasi*
> *opembera nenyika yeZimbabwe ini*
> *ndichingotamburawo nanhasi….ziva midzi yako mwanangu kani,*
> *dzamisa ndangariro uringe shure kwako …Mwanangu usakanganwe*
> *uhu hupenyu"*

> (I was hoping that, if he grows up, he will take care of my life. Now he
> has grown up and he is free to take care of himself, going around the whole
> country of Zimbabwe, while I am still living in poverty, he may be forgetting
> me…know your roots my son, reflect and look where you came from…
> My son, this is life, don't forget)

In the song, the singer imparts very important issues in the Shona culture and African culture in general, that children should reflect on their past and cherish where they come from. In the same vein, the Urban Groove artist, Freeman, also has a song titled *Big life* in which he reiterates the same message. He sings;

> *…mama vako vakakutakura nine months havana dollar*
> *rekutenga bhanduru…usakanganwa kuti wakabva nepi, pawaikura*
> *mama vaikupfekedza nappy. Pazvinovaremera vakavhire gap*
> *minamato yavo ndoinouya nemablessings.*

> (…your mother who carried you for nine months does not have money
> to buy a bundle…don't forget where you have come from, when you were
> growing up she used to put you in a nappy. When things are not ok for her,
> come to her rescue, her prayers are the source of blessings for you.)

These artists go out of their way to teach and impart the lessons, through proverbs in this case, using an appropriate example of a mother who is lamenting for care from her son whom she has struggled to raise, expecting that he will now do the same to her in old age. In the latter song, another child is counselling his brother not to forget their mother for it is their duty to take care of her. This is an important teaching that the African and Shona people, to be specific, value the most. Thus, creative works are used to impart such teachings and at the

same time create employment. Through music one can generate income as well as create jobs for themselves and others. Thus, substantiating the role of creative industries in economic development through human factors. To this effect, Thorsen (2004) notes that music is a way of interpreting life, a way of seeing things and making sense of the world. In this regard, it is through creativity that one comes up with a song that speaks to a people's lives, thereby contributing to a country's economic development.

Furthermore, creative industries enhance economic development through profiteering from individual creativity. Individual creativity is considered human agency when viewed from a human factor perspective. Humans are considered to be active agents in economic development because they are the ones that exploit the available resources. Agency is a fundamental aspect of African people's lived experiences. Black people have the capacity to participate in their own affairs and hence become agents of social, political, and economic change. Bennett (2011) says human agency is embedded in optimism as the greatest virtue that human beings should possess as they sail through the challenges of life. He argues that;

> "If optimism is an attitude of the mind involving both cognition and affect,
> and specific future that are actually imagined, then it becomes possible to
> consider optimism as a particular mode of viewing the future" (Bennett, 2011: 56).

In this case, optimism is at the centre of human agency. Agency is based on one's positive attitudes about the future. This means that people should not just sit back and wait for others to act upon their situation. With a high rate of unemployment in Zimbabwe, indigenous people are expected to be goal setters and goal achievers. This means that when they take the lead in creating their own pottery, establishing their dancing groups, or performance groups, for example, they create establishments that generate profit, hence, contributing to economic development. Thus, Thangavel (2019) asserts that creative industries have become an increasingly important contributor to GDP growth. Over the past 15 years, data shows that the creative economy is not only one of the most rapidly growing sectors of the world economy, but is also transformative in generating income, jobs, and exports. Besides accumulating profit, they are showing their skills and imparting their values in an environment where recipients and audiences understand their message, thereby substantiating the sustainability of their activities to economic development.

Whilst contributing to economic development, the use of indigenous knowledge and creativity needs to be legitimised as it exposes the cultural richness inherent in them. There is also a need for quality control, as well as the moderation of legislation, such that the negative narratives and perceptions associated with the industry may be corrected. This is as a result of the postcolonial thinking where some indigenous ways of surviving are looked down upon. Mbah and Fonchingong (2019) rightly put it when they say that postcolonial society has aided the loss of indigenous knowledge and practices through the predominance of the Eurocentric knowledge taught in schools. This has altered the habitus of indigenous people and sectors, such as farming, has been affected. Mbah and Fonchingong (2019) went on to point out that agricultural yield, for example, and the ability of local stakeholders to produce sustainable practices in their livelihoods, have been tampered with due to modern interference. The other important point the two brought home is the lack of documentation when it comes to indigenous knowledge, which is also perceived to be a challenge associated with the long-term catalytic effect of indigenous practices toward sustainable development. Following Human Factor Development, this may be a challenge to continue working on as the impartation of values to future generations may be compromised due to a lack of proper knowledge.

Furthermore, creative industries resist economic crises; in other words, they quickly recover in times of economic challenges. This role is significant to economic development as most of the work is based on human creativity so the agency to create products that are relevant to the market at a particular point in time lies with individuals. This is because when an idea or

product fails to sell on the market, the skills and agency through human abilities and capabilities come into play and new products are created that suit the needs of the market. This is the reason why musicians continue to develop new songs and albums that are released after a certain period of time as a response to various situations in communities that they live in. The same can be said of fashion designers. Once a fashion trend is recognised, designers create more designs that suit the market in order to remain relevant. That way, the industry continues to contribute to economic development that is sustainable, because creativity prevails, which means economic development remains functional over time.

In as much as creative industries contribute to sustainable development, MacVeill (2020) posits that the world that is assumed at the base of indigenous sustainable development is one that is *naturacultura* (continually shifting). This could be misinterpreted as unstable, which would be a misrepresentation of issues. *Naturacultura* is always embedded in a history and culture that structures the possibility of its form. Thus, creative industries have a lot of creativity and are largely embedded in a cultural context, hence, creativity opens new opportunities in trade. It is the novelty in cultural ideas that allows creativity within the industry continues to attract more consumers because products are not common or universal to everyone. For example, one may visit a place like Binga, where the value that the BaTonga people place in *Nyaminyami* will be reflected through their carvings and sculptures. So those skills suit the environment, hence, attracting every person who visits for the first time. Economic development is enhanced as a result.

In this regard, Kohode (2016) notes that it is generally accepted that sustainable development calls for harmony between the two pillars of economic development, social equity, and environmental protection. Thus, investing in the sculpturing of *Nyaminyami* suits the two pillars mentioned above. The same can be seen in music, playwriting, or poetry. New ideas are necessitated by the cultural values that one wants to put across, thus, these works of art continue to attract new trade as there is no monotony in indigenous creativity.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the paper captured the roles of creative industries to economic development through Human Factor Development. The article established that Human Factor Development is an approach that is sustainable in creative industries and viable as it allows people to exploit their resources and potential to enhance economic development. Although the study established that Human Factor Development contributes significantly to economic development through creative industries, it must be pointed out that the approach has its own short comings. As long as it is a human resource principle, people are subject to change. The values that are imparted through these creative industries may not be compatible with the intended audience during that particular time, hence, affecting market forces. An example can be drawn from various songs that are sung by the so-called Zimdancehall artists in contemporary Zimbabwe. This type of music may not be the same music that is enjoyed by the elderly.

The same also applies to fashion designs. These move with time; hence, some types of clothing may not be compatible with certain times and generations. Against this perspective, the research recommends that the industry should be closely monitored under a government department so that whatever may be produced should be screened to fit various age groups. More so, the article adds to existing literature in the discipline by spelling out the contribution of Human Factor Development to creative industries. After all, has been said and done, of importance to note is that the creative industry is a fast-growing industry in Zimbabwe and other countries and contributes to the sustainable development of world economies.

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Entrepreneurship or Paid Employment: The Post-School Job Preference of Undergraduates in Nigerian Public Universities

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Abstract

Post-graduation employment has been of great concern to students, teachers, and parents. This is because of the stiff competition in the contemporary labour market. The job preference of students informs their post-graduation expectations and interests. This study, therefore, assessed the post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities using the survey approach of quantitative design. The population was the six south-west states of Nigeria having 17 public universities in the zone, and comprising of 12,890 male and 13,966 female final year undergraduates of the universities. Using the simple random sampling technique, three public universities were selected. Furthermore, 1,500 final year undergraduates were selected using the criterion purposive sampling technique. The Undergraduates' Job Preference Scale (UNJOP-S), a 20-item questionnaire, was designed and administered. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to answer the research question and hypothesis respectively. The study found that paid employment was the most preferred job of undergraduates. It equally showed a significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and measures of undergraduates' job preference. Consequently, entrepreneurial content should be incorporated in every discipline to shape the undergraduates' job preference towards entrepreneurial endeavours after graduation, as this will change their orientation for entrepreneurial activities and facilitate the school-to-work transition.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; employment; job preference; undergraduate

Introduction

Undergraduates' job preferences determine their intentions, expectations, and interests in the labour market. It is conceptualised in this study as the desire of undergraduates for the career path they are likely to develop professionally. Studies have observed that this professional development could be related to the degree they pursue in the university and can also be borne out of their enthusiasm while in the university (Adebakin 2017; Oyewumi and Adeniyi 2013; Shumba and Naong 2012; Simeon-Fayomi 2011). Often, undergraduates wish to put into practice the knowledge and skills acquired during their studies in the university. Their job preference is entrenched when it comes to future career probability which is important for their educational attainment and occupational choice (Adebakin 2017). In recent times, however, it is observed that

graduate job seekers in the formal sector are having it tough because employers are keeping their most talented and trained individuals, leaving little or no room for hiring newly certified graduates.

The underlying problem in the views of Adebakin (2017) as well as Adebakin and Akinola (2018), is the fact that the training which undergraduates receive has not been fully successful in equipping them with desirable soft skills and competencies required either by employers or for job creation, self-employment and self-reliance, as evident by the high rate of unemployment in the country. This is exacerbated by the mismatch of employers' desired skills and graduates possessed skills which have led to the unemployment of many Nigerian graduates today. This 'skills-gap' therefore, has become an issue of concern to governments, institutions, organisations, public and human resource managers, who expect undergraduates to possess relevant and necessary skills that would enable them to secure jobs and fit into the world of work after their formal schooling (Adebakin, Ajadi and Subair 2015).

Meanwhile, countries such as China, Japan, Italy, Germany, Canada, Russia and the USA that are today acknowledged as developed nations have attained this status because they operate education policy templates that favour self-reliance and independence (Pop and Barkhuizen 2010; Simeon-Fayomi, Chetan and Oludeyi 2018). Although, this does not necessarily mean that they have a comparative advantage in all areas, the emphasis of these countries' education is placed on skills acquisition. Perhaps the reason is that technical training and university education have been the focal point of developed nations specifically for the nations' human capital development and socio-economic benefits. The challenge of the tough labour market and high rate of graduate unemployment in Nigeria suggests a paradigm shift from employment seeking to self-employment as many graduates still wallow in their quest for jobs. Hence, this study has found it expedient to empirically assess the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. Therefore, the aims of this study are to: (i) assess the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities; and (ii) compare entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities.

Undergraduates' Job Preferences: Some Empirical Evidence

Undergraduates assume that their qualifications after graduation will be the gateway to high salaries and management positions (Pop and Barkhuizen 2010), and this has somehow made them reluctant to learn the relevant skills that form the foundation of employment (Adebakin, Ajadi and Subair 2015). Pop and Barkhuizen (2010) further observe that undergraduates believe they do not need to start at the bottom by virtue of being highly qualified, in contrast to permanent workers who do not have equal credentials. More significantly, new graduates consider it their right to be treated impartially and at par with their more experienced peers. In line with this, Olufunso's (2010) study on graduate entrepreneurial intentions in South Africa, using a sample of 701 students in the final class, indicate that the entrepreneurial intentions of the graduates were very weak, and that most respondents preferred to work for private companies or public establishments.

Another study conducted in Ghana on undergraduates' career intentions report that majority of the respondents (64.5%, n=20) aspire to work in the employment of others. It was also interesting to note that 25.8 per cent (n=80) of the respondents aspired to work for themselves following the exposure to entrepreneurship education in the university. The correlation co-efficient between students' exposure to entrepreneurship and career preference suggests a significant relationship between the variables (Owusu-Ansah and Poku 2012). Apparently, a career in the employment of others represents the major intentions and aspirations of respondents in both studies. Undergraduate students tend to believe that they will find a good job after completing their degree (Adebakin and Akinola 2018).

In an Anglo-Dutch study conducted by Jenkins (2001) on students' future perceptions, 77.5 per cent of the respondents, who were studying a hospitality degree in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, believed that after graduating from their course, they would find a job in the hospitality industry. Jenkins (2001) finds that 70 per cent of students expected to be employed as a corporate manager ten years after graduating, and 65 per cent of students expected to be a department manager five years after graduating. Slavtchev, Laspita and Patzelt (2012) investigate the impact of providing entrepreneurship education on students' intentions to follow an entrepreneurial career path. They distinguish between short-term intentions (immediately after graduating) and long-term intentions (five years after graduating). Drawing on data collected from two student surveys in 2006 and 2008 respectively at the University of Otago in New Zealand, Slavtchev et al. (2012) identify students completing both surveys and used a difference-in-difference approach to analyse changes in their entrepreneurial intentions in relation to attending entrepreneurship classes.

In order to control potential selection, the study of Slavtchev et al. (2012) limit the analysis to students who had no entrepreneurship aspirations either prior to enrolling on the course, or who had not previously attended such courses. The result shows that the intention to become an entrepreneur or self-employed immediately after graduation was 9.1 per cent lower for students taking entrepreneurship courses in relation to the control, although this result was not statistically significant. Fifty per cent of students taking the course developed entrepreneurial aspirations compared to only 21.1 per cent of the reference group. The difference in this data was significant and indicated that 28.9 per cent more students taking the course intended to become entrepreneurs or self-employed in the long term relative to those not taking such courses. In line with Oosterbeek, Praag and Ijsselstein (2010), these results suggest that entrepreneurial education strengthens or weakens the intentions to become entrepreneurs and further that the consistency of signals received affects changes in students' intentions to become entrepreneurs.

In a study carried out in Turkey, Collins (2002) stresses that undergraduates are expected to enter a management position after graduating from their course, but employers thought that graduates were not suitable to occupy a management position. This, according to Collins (2002), is because some managers consider graduates as having a 'know-it-all' patronising attitude, and that they lacked resilience when coping with the hectic industrial environment. In another study, Harkison (2004) notes that students were realistic in terms of the management goals they could achieve following their graduation. Students tend to have a plan to apply for middle management positions, such as in the supervisory and trainee areas after graduation. To achieve their goals, they must have a precise career plan, which is very important for success in their career development. However, Jenkins (2001) also finds that no students wanted their own business five years after graduation, and only 70 per cent of students expected to own a business 10 years after graduation. This means that not many students consider starting their own business after completing their university education.

Job preferences of undergraduates are most times informed by certain factors which may vary from one individual to another. These factors were confirmed in the study of Shumba and Naong (2012) on factors influencing students' career choices and aspirations in South Africa. It was found that families, parents, and guardians in particular, play a significant role in the occupational aspirations and career goal development of their children. Various studies (Knowles, 1998; Mau and Bikos, 2000; Wilson and Wilson, 1992) have shown that undergraduates cited parents as an important influence on their choice of career. Some of the variables that influence undergraduates' job expectations include the family, level of parental education, school, peers, personality, and socio-economic status (Crockett and Binghham, 2000; Wilson and Wilson, 1992). There are varying opinions and findings as to which specific family characteristics influence job preference. Simoen-Fayomi (2011) reports that entrepreneurial behaviour of students is significantly

influenced by parents' financial status, students' perception of employment, prospects of disciplines and entrepreneurial motivation.

Mau and Bikos (2000) discovers that both parent education and income influence job preference, while some studies (Hossler and Stage, 1992; Wilson and Wilson, 1992) show that only parent education has an influence. Lazorenko (2007) confirms that students with educated fathers have higher short- and long-term job preferences. The study by Lazorenko (2007) also clarifies that academic performance and previous work experience has a positive effect on job preference. Other family variables that have been shown to influence job preference include, the parents' occupation (Trice, 1991), and family size (Downey 1995). Solesvik (2007) investigates the intentions to become an entrepreneur among Ukrainian university students. The study reports a higher level of intention to become an entrepreneur among students who had entrepreneurial parents than those who did not. This could be explained by higher perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy among students having successful self-employed parents and also the possibility of joining a family business.

Brunello, Lucifora and Winter-Ebmer (2001) sample the opinions of 6,829 students across ten European countries on job preference. The study showed that job preferences of undergraduates were significantly related to their various fields of study, gender, age, seniority in college, perceived relative ability of the student, and family background. The study further states that job prospects are dependent on the field of study and family background. Moy and Luk (2008) conduct a tracer study on exploring the career choice intent of Chinese graduates by extending a psychologically based model of new-venture creation that encompasses people, processes, and choices. This integrative model helps to understand the intricacy of the entrepreneurial career choice intent in developed as well as developing economies. The study shows that gender and parental role have a positive effect on career choice and preference, with entrepreneurial self-efficacy significantly and partially mediating their relationship. Entrepreneurial alertness was found to moderate the relationship between some self-efficacy sub-items and career choice intent. It was therefore suggested that training on improving the responsiveness and alertness to entrepreneurial opportunities would help foster an entrepreneurial culture among graduates.

Job preference has also been linked to the gender of undergraduates. A study by Pitcher and Purcell (1998) note that over one third of students expected to obtain a career-related position immediately after graduating, with more males (42%) than females (30%) expecting this. Dominitz and Manski's (1996) findings based on the results of a survey completed by 110 high school and college undergraduate students in the United States, indicated that the future earnings expectations of high school and university, male and female students were similar, *ceteris paribus*. There was however, a significant variance in the job expectations of students within these groups indicating that there is widespread uncertainty among students regarding their future earnings. Overall, literature has been largely established on students' job preferences as several studies have been conducted on the variables with indices such as expected income/salaries, work environment and parents' education (Hossler and Stage 1992; Mau and Bikos, 2000; Wilson and Wilson 1992).

It is worth noting that none of the studies has observed a variable such as entrepreneurship or self-employment as a measure. Other studies also examined factors (gender, parental income, peer influence and background) influencing job preference (Crockett and Binghham, 2000; Pitcher and Purcell, 1998; Wilson and Wilson, 1992), but none has considered entrepreneurship education as an influencing factor. Furthermore, no study has compared entrepreneurship education with job preference. Consequently, this study aims to fill these apparent gaps in the literature by establishing the relationship between entrepreneurship and paid employment as measures of job preference, with a view to adequately providing information on undergraduates' job preferences in Nigeria.

Methodology

The quantitative design was adopted using a survey approach in order to have an in-depth assessment, analysis, and opinion of undergraduates' post-school job preference in the selected Nigerian public universities. The efficacy of this design, according to Creswell (2014), is in the ability to use quantitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem and present a complete understanding of the variables as they pervade among undergraduates. Consequently, the researchers were able to have an in-depth assessment and analysis of the Nigerian public universities' undergraduates' opinions for the purpose of describing and interpreting their preferences for entrepreneurship practices or otherwise. The population for this study comprises 12,890 male and 13,966 female final year undergraduates (as at 2018/2019 academic session) from 17 public universities in six Southwestern states of Nigeria. The South-west geopolitical zone of Nigeria comprises six states and 17 public universities which are: Lagos, Ogun and Oyo having one federal and two state owned universities each; Osun and Ekiti with one federal and one state owned university each; and Ondo with one federal and three state owned universities (National Universities Commission, 2019).

The sample frame consists of 1,500 final year undergraduates from three public universities in three Southwestern states of Nigeria. The simple random sampling technique was used for the selection of the public universities to give an equal chance of selection, while the criterion of purposive sampling was used to select only those final year undergraduates who had been offered entrepreneurship education as coursework, and who the researchers assumed would have developed an independent mind for choosing a career option. These students were selected across ten randomly chosen faculties from each university. A 20-item questionnaire titled 'Undergraduates' Job Preference Scale (UNJOP-S)' was designed for the study. The UNJOP-S was measured on a 4-point Likert-type rating scale with appropriate response structures and coded 4, 3, 2, and 1 for ease of administration and data analysis. The administration of UNJOP-S was done jointly with three trained research assistants, one for each university. These assistants were trained on the procedure involved in the administration of the instrument, bearing in mind and being cognisant of research ethical standards. Collected data were analysed quantitatively using version 20.0 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages were used to answer the research question, while the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) was used to analyse the research hypothesis.

In terms of ethical considerations, the researchers obtained a letter of authorisation from the relevant institutions. The letter was distributed to the Deans and Heads of the selected faculties and departments, respectively. This is with a view to giving them prior notice of the research visit by the research assistants and researchers. Consent from all participating respondents was also sought before engaging them in the completion of the instrument, and they were assured of the strict confidentiality of their opinions as data gathered would be used for this study.

Results and Discussion

This section addresses the assessment of post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities and also compares the relationship between entrepreneurship education acquired in school and post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. It further presents the practice and policy implications of the findings and highlights the contributions of the study to prior knowledge. To this end, undergraduates' preferences for either entrepreneurship or paid employment were measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale (4 - Strongly agree, 3 - Agree, 2 - Disagree, 1 - Strongly disagree) to show their extent of agreement or disagreement with the measuring items. However, for the purpose of interpretive clarity, the responses are categorised into 'Agree' (SA and A) and 'Disagree' (D and SA).

Frequency counts and percentages are used to analyse the data, and the results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of Undergraduates' Job Preference

Job Preference	Items	SA	A	D	SD
Paid Employment	I would prefer to work for a salary	470 (31.3)	549 (36.6)	300 (20.0)	181 (12.1)
	I cannot cope with the risks in business	238 (15.9)	564 (37.6)	468 (31.2)	230 (15.3)
	A salaried job earns one a better social status	390 (26.0)	554 (36.9)	377 (25.1)	179 (11.9)
	Inadequate information about business operations is my challenge	333 (22.2)	690 (46.0)	346 (23.1)	131 (8.8)
	Starting a new business could be difficult	366 (24.4)	770 (51.3)	267 (17.8)	97 (6.5)
	Government policy is not supportive of business growth	404 (26.9)	764 (50.9)	273 (18.2)	59 (3.9)
	I prefer to work for a large company for better career prospects	511 (34.1)	681 (45.4)	236 (15.7)	72 (4.8
	N = 1, 500;			**Weighted Average = 3.14**	
Entrepreneurship	I would prefer being an employer of labour	58 (3.9)	216 (14.4)	621 (41.4)	605 (40.3)
	I have plans of starting a firm because of unemployment in the formal sector	176 (11.7)	644 (42.9)	648 (43.2)	32 (2.2)
	A self-owned business will earn me more money than a paid job	36 (2.4)	201 (13.4)	724 (48.3)	539 (35.9)
	Entrepreneurial schemes and government policies are encouraging	81 (5.4)	302 (20.1)	471 (31.4)	646 (43.1)
	I already have previous experience in business activities	52 (3.5)	323 (21.5)	477 (31.8)	648 (43.2)
	My professional goal is to be an entrepreneur	54 (3.6)	283 (18.9)	569 (37.9)	594 (39.6)
	I would feel restricted being tied down to tightly organised work activities	90 (6.0)	683 (45.5)	428 (28.6)	299 (19.9)
	N = 1, 500;			**Weighted Average = 2.86**	

Note: *Figures in parentheses are in percentages*

Table 1 shows the distribution of responses on the job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. The results show that 1,019 (67.9%) respondents prefer working for salaries, 802 (52.5%) said they cannot cope with the risks in business, while 944 (62.9%) saw salaried jobs as a way of earning a better social status. Furthermore, 1,023 (68.2%) respondents dreaded the challenge of inadequate information about business operations, 1,136 (75.7%) were of the opinion that starting a new business could be difficult, 1,168 (77.8%) agreed that government policy is not supportive of business growth, while 1,192 (79.5%) preferred to work for a large company for better career prospects. These results show that undergraduates are mostly interested in paid employment as evident by a 3.14 weighted average.

To measure the respondents' interest in being entrepreneurs, 1,226 (81.7%) disagreed with the preference of being an employer of labour, 820 (54.6%) had plans of starting a firm because of unemployment in the formal sector, and only 237 (15.8%) agreed that a self-owned business earns more money than a paid job. Majority of the respondents, 1,117 (74.5%) did not agree that entrepreneurial schemes and government policies are encouraging, while 1,125 (75%) respondents did not have previous experience in business activity and 1,163 (77.5%) did not want to set a goal to be an entrepreneur, while 773 (51.5%) claimed that they would feel restricted being tied down to tightly organised work activities. This weighted average (2.86) shows that respondents had a low desire for entrepreneurship.

The results are further substantiated with the weighted average of the two constructs where choice of paid employment outweighed entrepreneurship. The indication of this result is that undergraduates in the selected universities would prefer earning monthly salaries through white collar jobs than going through the rigours of initiating new business ideas that would engender self-employment and possible job creation. This finding shows that the post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities is paid employment. Corroborating this, Zain, Akram and Ghani (2010) mention that this could be as a result of unfavourable government policies towards business development and the orientation that self-owned businesses do not necessarily earn more money than paid employment. Other possible reasons for this finding could be a lack of the required capital, inadequate preparation to face the demands of running businesses, and the negative attitudes of Nigerians towards supporting locally made goods and services (Simeon-Fayomi 2011). In addition, the study by Akpomi (2009) reveals that only 12.4 per cent of undergraduates did not aspire to own businesses upon graduation because there is no 'take-off' funds or sponsorship to face the demands of running businesses.

Test of Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. To test this hypothesis, respondents' opinions were scored and computed using the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation. This statistic was used to compare the relationship between entrepreneurship education course received and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities.

The results are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Relationship between Entrepreneurship Education and Post-School Job Preference

N=1500		Entrepreneurship Education	Job Preference	
			Salaried Job	Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship Education	r	1		
	$\overline{X}$	63.12		
	Sd	7.932		
Job Preference — Salaried Job	r	0.343*	1	
	$\overline{X}$	25.16		
	Sd	3.874		
Entrepreneurship	r	0.134*	0.092	1
	$\overline{X}$	20.03		
	Sd	3.707		

*Significant, P ≤ .05, df =1498

Table 3 presents the results of the relationship between entrepreneurial education and the post-school job preferences of undergraduates in Nigerian public universities. The results show a significant, though low, relationship between entrepreneurship education and measures of

undergraduates' post-school job preference. The results further indicate a high positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and salaried jobs (r = 0.343) and a low positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship as a career (r = 0.134). The correlation (r) values were computed at 1,498 degrees of freedom and a 0.05 level of significance. This result means that there was a low link between undergraduates' post-school job expectations and entrepreneurship education received in school. It also implies that entrepreneurship education as coursework does not really influence the choice of undergraduates towards entrepreneurship as a career and that undergraduates still desire jobs in the formal sector. This finding shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigeria public universities. This indicates that students mainly envisage life as employees as the dominant choice at the moment in a wage-earn culture.

Contrarily, Charney and Libecap (2000) contend that there is a positive correlation between knowledge and career aspiration. This implies that before anybody engages in a particular career, there should be in-depth knowledge of such, as the previous knowledge provides the foundation for career prosperity. According to Oyewumi and Adeniyi (2013), knowledge contributes to success in career development. This is because knowledge provides foundation for every career's prosperity. However, entrepreneurial knowledge alone may not be enough to encourage the entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduates, but also a measurable attitudinal change towards self-employment and possible job creation. In contrast, Simeon-Fayomi (2011) intimate that entrepreneurship education had no significant influence on entrepreneurial intention. Studies have also reported similar results where students showed a preference for being employees rather than becoming entrepreneurs (Adebakin 2017; Adebakin and Fasanmi 2019; Norasmah and Faridah 2010). Olufunso's (2010) study also finds that entrepreneurial intentions were very low among South African undergraduates and the reasons he attributed to this result were lack of access to capital, lack of competency, poor government support, fear of risk and the macro-economy environment.

Contrary to the above is the result of Zain et al. (2010) study in Malaysia where more graduating students had a desire to pursue entrepreneurship and were influenced by entrepreneurial courses they had taken, family members who were entrepreneurs and academics who were in business-related disciplines. Apart from the possible reasons adduced above for undergraduates' job preference, studies have also identified other variables that influence undergraduates' job preferences such as family and parental education (Shumba and Naong 2012); parents' financial status and entrepreneurial motivation (Simeon-Fayomi 2011). Other family variables that have been shown to influence job expectations include the parents' occupation (Trice 1991) and family size (Singh et al., 1995). While some authors agree with these influencing variables (Adebakin and Akinola, 2018; Mau and Bikos, 2000), others argue that parental education is the only influence (Hossler and Stage 1992; Wilson and Wilson, 1992). Thus, findings of this study have far reaching implications for educational policy, planning, practice, as well as research. The findings provide a depth of high-quality quantitative data, the analysis of which has highlighted the value of entrepreneurship for employment prospects of university undergraduates. However, the following are different policy implications from the study.

There are lessons for policy makers to learn about the contribution of entrepreneurship education in developing potential entrepreneurs. It is interesting to note that subjective norms influence attitudes and explain a portion of the variance in entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduates. As Peterman and Kennedy (2003) point out, undergraduates' desire for entrepreneurship as a viable career option can be influenced. Deliberate steps to highlight entrepreneurial success stories in the media could have a positive impact on undergraduates' preferences for entrepreneurship. The use of local case studies in the teaching of entrepreneurship would be instructive regarding the feasibility of entrepreneurship as a career. In the same breath, role models and the publication of

their stories could also have positive implications on the perceptions of desirability and preference. Policy makers benefit from the understanding that government initiatives will affect business formations only if these policies are perceived in a way that influences undergraduates' attitudes in terms of interest and desire. Two growing societal trends make this more than a sterile academic exercise. Downsizing and outsourcing currently dominate the Nigerian corporate landscape, especially in the face of economic recession. Recognition is growing among policy makers that economic and community development hinges on growing one's own businesses. Government officials and the larger community should also see entrepreneurial activity as desirable and feasible.

The main practical implication for entrepreneurship education in Nigeria is that, knowledge and resources could increase the likelihood of success for those whose job preference is entrepreneurship after graduation. This may be the inspiration needed to improve the attitudes and intentions and increase the chances that undergraduates will eventually attempt an entrepreneurial career. This implies that if the target is to increase the number of entrepreneurs from the student population, then the inspirational part of the course has to be designed purposefully. The practical implication is that lecturers should receive training not only on pedagogical approaches to teaching entrepreneurship, but also on how to change 'hearts and minds'. As a result, charismatic lecturers who can communicate their enthusiasm for entrepreneurship through non-verbal expressiveness will ultimately inspire their students towards a higher entrepreneurial preference.

The practical suggestion is that universities' managers should not only assess or evaluate how much their undergraduates learn about entrepreneurship or whether they are satisfied with the courses, but also whether they are inspired by the course. A feedback from measuring inspiration from the course will highlight their desirability and preference for it as a career. In responding to the challenges of unemployment, this study contributes substantially to theory and practice and proffers new insights into the ongoing discourse on the disposition towards entrepreneurship education by undergraduate students in relation to their preference and expectations for employment after graduation. The study provides empirical evidence on issues associated with the practice of entrepreneurship education in universities, and specifically serves as a veritable source of information on the value of entrepreneurship education in ensuring undergraduates' self-employment after graduation, with a further view to reducing the graduates' unemployment rate in Nigeria.

The findings of this research could serve as feedback to stakeholders such as government, university managers and administrators, as well as lecturers on how to improve entrepreneurship education through reorientation of undergraduates towards entrepreneurship as a career. It is also useful for entrepreneurially well-informed parents and university counsellors to guide undergraduates in shaping their job preference, expectations and career intentions. Furthermore, this study enriches the existing knowledge and hence could be of interest to researchers who seek to explore and carry out further investigations and thereby provides a basis for further research. The study has further filled the apparent gap in the literature in order to add to the existing knowledge on the subject matter. Finally, various governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) will find the report of this study as a useful guide in the implementation and evaluation of entrepreneurship education in higher education institutions (HEIs) in Nigeria and beyond.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The post-school job preference of undergraduates in Nigeria has largely steered towards paid employment. This is in spite of the entrepreneurship education offered in the Nigerian universities which is aimed at initiating new business ideas that can engender self-employment and possible

job creation. This preference appears to have been informed by having a poor capital base, inadequate preparation to face the demands of running businesses and the fear of Nigerians' attitude towards supporting indigenous goods and services. In the global arena, Africa is increasingly taking its place as a continent of potential growth and development opportunities. Yet, this is not devoid of critical challenges such as poverty, loss of values and ultimately, unemployment. This necessitates the need to build a cadre of home-grown entrepreneurs to be able to access global markets and drive sustainable economic growth. Consequently, it was recommended that entrepreneurial content should be redesigned and/or incorporated in every discipline so as to shape undergraduates' job preferences towards entrepreneurial endeavours after graduation. This will also raise undergraduates' awareness and knowledge of the relevance and applicability of classroom-based learning, change their orientation for entrepreneurial activities and also facilitate the school-to-work transition.

The limitations of this study suggest direction for future research efforts. In the course of this study, a number of issues, as related to its focus, were touched upon and yet still demand further investigation because they lie outside the content and geographical scope of this study. Such issues, as entrepreneurship curriculum design and content, can be addressed by future researchers to gain a different perspective in relation to a more elaborate understanding of the challenges of job expectations among Nigerian undergraduates. This study has mainly covered public universities in Southwestern Nigeria. By implication, future research may cover a wider range within the Southwestern Nigeria by conducting the research in private universities and possibly comparing private and public universities from other zones of the country. This study did not measure intervening variables that might have informed undergraduates' apathy for entrepreneurship as a career, though, literature highlighted some. This may also call for further research in this area.

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Job Demands and Burnout – The Moderating Effect of Psychological Capital amongst Call Centre Employees in Windhoek, Namibia

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Abstract

The call centre industry has been growing each year. Growth in the industry puts pressure on call centre employees as the job becomes highly demanding and their tasks increase. Introducing the positive aspects of psychological capital allows for someone to better deal with the daily challenges of a highly demanding job. The relationship between job demands and psychological capital is lacking in literature as it has not been extensively studied. The paper explores the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between burnout and job demand amongst a selection of call centre employees in Windhoek, Namibia. Questionnaires were distributed to call centre employees and n=156 employees participated in the study. Results showed that job demand was significantly negatively correlated to burnout (r= -1.79; p= 0.028); Psychological Capital (PsyCap) was significantly positively related to job demands (r= 0.425; p= 0.000); psychological capital and burnout (r= 0.013; p= 0.873) did not yield a significant difference; the linear regression model yielded a significant level of F statistics (F= 2.888; df= 2; P=.046; R^2=0.39.). The researchers recommend that organisations and human resource managers invest in these intangible resources in order to enhance employee coping mechanisms to counter burnout in highly demanding occupations.

Keywords: Psychological capital; job demands; burnout; call centre employees; Windhoek

Introduction

Rapid globalisation has created immense pressure on organisations to be more efficient while keeping costs at a minimum; this has resulted in a rise in employee expectations (Rothmann and Joubert 2007). As employees give more in terms of time, effort, skills, and flexibility; job security, career opportunities and lifetime employment are diminishing (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter 2001). This heeds a call for researchers to increase scientific enquiry based on job demands and burnout to be empirically tested within a developed world context. The call centre environment is characterised by high pressure (Molino *et al*. 2016; Dhanpat, Modau, Lugisani, Mabojane and Phiri 2018) where staff are highly monitored and overly standardised, and many lack incentives; which all combine to increase the prevalence of burnout (Dhanpat *et al*. 2015). High job demands

are the main factor leading to fatigue, exhaustion and later burnout, especially amongst service professionals as their jobs are centred on absolute client satisfaction (Olusa 2015).

Call centre employees have no individualism on the job, they have to meet strong requirements and suppress negative emotions caused by unfriendly or angry customers as well as follow stringent procedures, and this may cause burnout due to being dehumanised (Molino *et al*. 2016). Bakker and Costa (2014) proffer that employees with high job demands can become burnt-out when their accumulated tiredness results in a self-undermining attitude which leads to disruptive behaviour such as high conflict in the work place. Job demand complexity impairs employees' work health and is positively related to burnout (Nahrgang, Morgeson and Hoffmann 2011). Increases in job demands (i.e., overload, emotional demand, and work-home interference) predicts burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen 2009) and which affects work engagement, and subsequent absenteeism due to sickness. Job demands consist of workload, resources, organisational support, job security, and opportunity for advancement. Work pressure and emotional demands are the most important antecedents of the exhaustion component of burnout, which later relates to disengagement (Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke 2004). Aspects of job demands such as task difficulty, confusion, rapid decision making and cognitive overload are enormous job stressors (Kar and Suar 2014). In shift work, as observed by Winwood, Winefield and Lushington (2006), there is a high occurrence of work-related fatigue that develops into burnout. This arises because as shifts increase, the level of job demands increase which effect a person's balance between work and private life. Exhaustion is a result of an excessive workload with little time to execute the tasks set (Maslach *et al*. 2001).

Introducing the positive aspects of psychological capital (PsyCap) allows for someone to better deal with the daily challenges of a high job demand. PsyCap is a construct of positive psychology that was penned by Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007). It is a relatively new addition to positive psychology and has extant literature in the Namibian context. It refers to the positive outlook of an individual about his/her job and organisation; it emphasises strengths and virtues as opposed to weaknesses (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). It has four main components: hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience (Luthans *et a*l. 2007). Sithole (2005) states that call centres are one of the fastest growing service industries in South Africa. In Namibia, information on the industry and academic literature is scarce to non-existent on industrial psychology variables, and the researchers should heed the call to expand on the literature. Literature on burnout in high demanding occupations in Namibia exists amongst nurses and police officers; (Pieters and Hasheela 2018; Pieters and Van Heerden 2018), and on PsyCap (Amunkete and Rothmann 2015) in state-owned organisations.

Taking into consideration that there is little to no research based on the Namibian population, especially on the call centre environment, there is a need to expand the literature to the Namibian context for relevance within Namibia. There are numerous challenges in the workplace amongst the call centre employees regarding burnout and their high job demands. The study explores how a call centre can improve its service delivery and general health and wellness of its employees by taking into account job demands, burnout and how introducing psychological capital will positively affect it.

Literature Review

In today's work settings, to effectively manage human resources the focus on a positive standpoint is essential (Bitmiş and Ergeneli 2015). The concept of psychological capital is acknowledged as the individual qualities supporting the employee's competency (Kaplan and Bickes 2013). There are four aspects: resilience, self-efficacy, hope, and optimism, which explain

the concept of psychological capital (Kaplan and Bickes 2013; Luthans *et al.* 2007). The dimensions of PsyCap works in the following ways:

- Hope is a multidimensional construct that is made up of an individual's willpower, which is one's determination to achieve set goals and a way of power which is the way in which one is able to formulate contingency plans in order to achieve a goal even when faced with adversity (Snyder *et al*. 1991). An employee who has a high level of hope is able to persevere because they have the motivation to ensure success even in difficult times and are less likely to burnout (Yousaf, Yang and Sanders 2015).
- Optimism is a construct especially in positive psychology. It is a construct that is seen as dynamic and can be developed and learned by individuals (Avey, Wernsing and Luthans 2008). Rothmann and Essenko (2007) contend that optimism has a direct effect on exhaustion and cynicism which are two main components of burnout. Optimism forms a vital part of a call centre employee's resource capacities as this optimistic take on their work allows them to overcome challenging situations and potentially meet their work goals effectively (Medlin and Faulk 2011).
- Resilience is the ability of an individual to manipulate an environment so as to successfully protect oneself from negative or adverse events. Resilience allows for one to move on after experiencing an adversity in the workplace. Research has shown that resilient workers are better equipped to bounce back after a difficult situation and are less likely to experience burnout (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman and Combs 2006).
- Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's ability to mobilise motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action necessary to accomplish set tasks or goals (Stajkovic and Luthans 1998). The way an individual perceives and interprets events has a heavy influence on how they deal will challenges and how they similarly deal with stress (Bandura 2000). Rothmann (2003) states that positive psychology constructs such as self-efficacy have a mediating role on occupational stress and burnout.

Psychological capital is a significant aspect in accomplishing the desired organisational goals (Kaplan and Bickes 2013). Employees with high psychological capital have a positive perception towards their job demands, while employees with a low psychological capital have a low perception towards job demands and therefore have an increased possibility to experience burnout due to a high job demand (Bergheim, Nielsen, Mearns and Eid 2015; Fouché 2015). Employees with a high psychological capital have a low rate of burnout which includes exhaustion and cynicism, compared to employees with a low psychological capital - these employees have a high rate of burnout (Laschinger and Fida 2014). Moreover, psychological capital moderates the impact of stress on employees. Psychological and physical tension in employees is experienced due to a high job demand caused by workload demands and a lack of psychological capital in oneself. Psychological capital is vital in ensuring a high rate of personal achievement in performing duties (Kaplan and Bickes 2013). Burnout is said to be one of the major occupational hazards that affect employee wellbeing and productivity, it results in ill health, absenteeism, and high turnover (Schaufeli and Enzmann 1998).

Burnout has also been recognised as a major occupational hazard in client-centred or service jobs, and intervention strategies are constantly being sought in order to alter the effects (Maslach and Leiter 2008). With positive human resource and psychological capacities, job performance and wellbeing can be measured, developed, managed, and improved (Luthans, Avey, and Patera 2008). A positive outlook of an individual about his or her job and organisation; emphasises strengths and virtues as opposed to weaknesses (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). Bitmis and Ergeneli (2015) investigate how psychological capital influences burnout amongst nurses and revealed that psychological capital affects burnout negatively. Additionally, Demerouti and Bakker

(2011) suggest that personal resources such as PsyCap modifies the work environment making burnout less likely to affect employees; therefore, it can be inferred that equipping employees with the agents of PsyCap will in the long run reduce the occurrence of burnout. Research has shown that PsyCap provides the most efficient and successful resource than the different agents individually (Sweetman and Luthans 2010). Employees that have a high self-efficacy are optimistic, resilient and are better equipped to handle stressful situations, therefore limiting the occurrence of burnout.

Leiter and Maslach (2009) reinforce that burnout is a psychological syndrome with increased feelings of emotional exhaustion and depleted mental energy which can be controlled or even eliminated by mobilising a person's positive resources as a coping mechanism. It was observed by Cherniss (1993) that the lack of confidence in one's competence greatly promotes the development of burnout. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) declare burnout as the strain of job stress which is as a result of the negative effects of work demands and stressors. Additionally, Luthans *et al.* (2001) also reiterates the pivotal role PsyCap plays on burnout. It has been a recommendation of most studies in this field that organisations and human resource managers invest in PsyCap in order to reduce the occurrence of burnout amongst employees (Bitmis and Ergeneli 2016).

Call centre agents' work has unpredictable job demands that may negatively affect their commitment and assigned work to the organisation. This disassociation from the organisation may be reversed or controlled by introducing the constructs of psychological capital (Armony and Maglaras 2004). Psychology as a discipline has generally focussed on the negative aspects of humanity, but there has been a shift recently with growing interest in positivity, making psychological capital a growing idea in positive organisational behaviour (Norman, Avey, Nimnicht, and Graber-Pigeon 2010). As psychological capital gains momentum in the field of industrial psychology, it is being researched extensively. Many studies have in fact confirmed that high levels of PsyCap are positively related to employee performance and satisfaction, especially in service-centred organisations (Abbas, Darr and Bouckenooghe 2014; Luthans *et al*. 2007; Luthans *et al.* 2008).

Janse van Rensburg and Boonzaier (2013) note an increase in job demands and how this was negatively affecting the call centre agents; introducing different aspects of psychological capital allowed them to better deal with these growing job demands and flourish in their given tasks. There is a growing need to improve or enhance employees' positive psychological states as this is one way of successfully dealing with the growing job demands that may at times become overwhelming (Pillay, Buitendach and Kanengoni, 2014). Additionally, a study conducted by Avey *et al.* (2008) finds that employees' positive emotions and attitudes set the tone for their performance in the organisation and this can be closely related to their PsyCap. Another study carried out in China shows that PsyCap is closely linked to the performance of the workers as it allows them to cope with what may be deemed difficult situations or high job demands in the workplace.

On the constructs of job demands, literature affirms that a high workload is positively associated with work burnout (Upadyaya, Vartiainen and Salmela-Aro 2016; Wang, Huang and You 2016). Vander Elst *et al.* (2016) further note that workload is positively related to burnout when the level of social support is considered. Personal resources are key as they mediate the relationship between job resources and job burnout (Wang *et al.* 2016). Job demands can be very taxing on employees and usually end up in burnt-out employees who are less productive and have an extremely low level of job satisfaction (Rossing 2014).

Psychological capital has been a mediator between job demands and occupational stressors that result in burnout (Li *et al.* 2015) amongst employees in service-centred organisations. High job demand environments result in even higher levels of stress that will eventually cause burnout. There are two ways in which this can be dealt with, the first being by decreasing the causes of the stress and the other would be to increase the stamina of employees when faced with stressful situations (Çelik 2018). The first intervention points to reducing job demands, while the second is suggestive of psychological capital as it equips employees with the skills to face and overcome difficult situations. A work environment that places high demands on its employees is likely to harbour a stressful environment in which most employees are burnt-out (Jennings 2008). However, if employees are equipped with the right tools such as those of psychological capital, they are more likely to be able to overcome these feelings of being burnt-out or even better manage their high job demands.

The call centre industry has been growing each year (Gilmore 2001). Growth in the industry puts pressure on call centre employees as the job becomes highly demanding and their tasks increase (Wilk and Moynihan 2005; Zapf *et al.* 2003). The relationship between job demands and psychological capital is lacking in literature as it has not been extensively studied in Namibia. With a growing interest in how best to achieve satisfied and well-adjusted employees so as to ensure healthy organisational growth, a link between these two variables needs to be explored. This further affirms the importance and need for this study, especially in the Namibian context.

On the basis of the argument above, the following hypotheses are proposed for investigation:

> H_1 There is a statistically significant relationship between job demands and burnout
> H_2 There is a statistically significant relationship between job demands and psychological capital
> H_3 There is a statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and burnout
> H_4 Psychological capital moderates the relationship between job demand and burnout

Methodology

The aim of this research is to investigate whether psychological capital moderates the relationship between job demand and burnout. A field survey using questionnaires was conducted in order to test the hypotheses. The data of this study was collected via questionnaires from 156 call centre employees, who work in Windhoek, Namibia. Survey questionnaires were distributed to 250 call centre employees and a total of 156 questionnaires (62% response rate) were returned. The study participants were from the telecommunication and entertainment sectors in Windhoek. Some of the questionnaires were discarded due to the outliers and missing values, resulting in 156 useable questionnaires in total.

The constructs in this study were developed using measurement scales adopted from prior studies. The study made use of the *Psychological Capital Questionnaire* that was developed by Luthans, Avolio and Avey (2007). It consists of a total of 24 items that are subdivided into four sections with each section having six items. The response options were measured on a six-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The reliability of the measure was generally good with a Cronbach alpha of 0.855, which is indicative of an above conventional standard. A '*Job Demands-Resources*' questionnaire was then introduced to the participants. This model works using two underlying assumptions; job demands and job resources. Job demands measures the effort of a physical and psychological nature, while job resources refers to those aspects of a job that are related to achievement of goals and that

improve skills development (Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli 2007).

The scale consisted of 46 items that cover five areas, being: workload (do you have too much work to do?), resources (does the job offer opportunities for personal growth and development?), organisational support (looks at their relationship with supervisor), job security and opportunity for advancement. Reliability for the constructs were; workload (0.762), resources (0.792), organisational support (0.883), job security (0.720) and opportunity for advancement (0.749). The overall Cronbach alpha was relatively good at 0.845. Lastly, the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was presented to the participants. The inventory consists of 16 items and covers questions on exhaustion, cynicism and professional efficacy. The MBI is used to measure burnout as an occupational stressor (Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli 2002). The instrument had a Cronbach alpha of 0.784. The Cronbach alpha rating usually ranges at 0.90 for emotional exhaustion and 0.76 for both depersonalisation and personal achievement. These numbers illustrate that the instrument had good reliability.

Results and Discussion

From Table 1 below; the majority of respondents (63%, n=98) were female, while male respondents made up the remaining 37 per cent of the sample (n=58). The majority of the respondents were aged 26-30 years and accounted for 34 per cent (n= 53) of the sample. A total of 27 per cent (n= 42) were below the age of 25 years while the 31-35-year range accounted for 18 per cent (n= 28) of the sample. An additional13 per cent (n= 21) of the sample comprised of the 36-40-year olds and the remaining 8 per cent (n= 12) was above the age of 41 years. As for years of experience; 45 per cent (n= 71) accounted for those with less than five years of experience, 35 per cent (n= 54) had between five to ten years of experience, while those with 11 to 15 years were 9 per cent (n= 14). Employees within 21 and above years of experience accounted for 6 per cent (n= 9), and the remaining 5 per cent (n= 8) had between 16 and 20 years. The sample consisted of 72 per cent (n= 112) single people while 23 per cent (n= 36) are married, 4 per cent (n= 6) are divorced and 1 per cent (n= 2) widowed.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics

Description	Item	Frequency
Sex	Male	58
	Female	98
Age	<25	42
	26-30	53
	31-35	28
	36-40	21
	41+	12
Highest qualification	Certificate	57
	Diploma	47
	Bachelors	42
	Masters	10
Tenure	<5	71
	5-10	54
	11-15	14
	16-20	8

	21+	9
Marital status	Single	112
	Married	36
	Divorced	6
	Widowed	2

Table 2: Pearson Correlation Analysis

Variable	Psychological Capital		Burnout	
Opportunity for Growth *(JDR)*	p=0.000	r=0.477**	p=0.000	r= -0.335**
Job security (JDR)	p=0.000	r=0.612**	p=0.742	r= -0.027
Organisation support (JDR)	p=0.000	r=0.673**	p=0.008	r= -0.212**
Resources (JDR)	p=0.000	r=0.703**	p=0.016	r= -0.193*
Workload (JDR)	p=0.000	r=0.450**	p=0.029	r= 0.177*
Combined Job demands	p =0.000	r =0.425*	p =0.028	r =-0.179*
Psychological Capital	1		p =0.873	r = 0.013

* Correlation is remarkable when the significant level is 0.01(Two-tailed test).

Table 2 presents Pearson correlations for the measures of job demands, burnout and PsyCap. Opportunity for growth was significantly related to PsyCap (p=0.000; r=0.477**) and significantly negatively correlated to burnout (p=0.000; r= -0.335**). Job security was significantly related to PsyCap (p=0.000; r=0.612**) and had a negative relationship, although not significant (p=0.742; r=-0.027). Organisation support was significantly related to PsyCap (p=0.000; r=0.673**) and significantly negatively correlated to burnout (p=0.008; r=-0.212**). Resource was significantly related to PsyCap (p=0.000; r=0.703**) and significantly negatively correlated to burnout (p=0.008; r=-0.193**). Workload was significantly related to PsyCap (p=0.000; r=0.450**) and significantly correlated to burnout (p=0.029; r=0.177**). The overall correlation shows that job demands is significantly negatively correlated to burnout (r=-1.79; p=0.028). Also, PsyCap is significantly positively related to job demands (r=0.425; p=0.000). However, there was no relationship between PsyCap and burnout (r= 0.013; p= 0.873).

Table 3: Linear Regression Analysis

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistic					Durbin-Watson
					R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1.	.196a	.39	.025	.99753638	.39	2.88	2	144	.059	1.777

a. Predictors: (Constant), Zscore (job demands), Zscore: overall PsyCap

b. Dependent Variable: Zscore: burnout

Table 4: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis

	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	65.433	10.584		6.183	0.000
Overall PsyCap	0.284	0.141	0.284	2.011	0.046
pyscap_jobdem	-0.367	0.153	-0.339	-2.402	0.018

Table 3 above entails a linear regression analysis of psychological capital as a moderator on the relationship between job demand and burnout was conducted. The overall $R^2=0.39$ indicates that there is 39 per cent resultant model which explains the variation on the dependent variable. The value 2.981 shows the variance inflation factor (VIF) of each independent variable. The standard of statistical testing implies that the variance inflation factor (VIF) less than 10 and tolerance greater than 0.1 showed that a collinear point problem is non-existent between the variables, therefore in the regression model's collinear point problem is non-existent between variables.

Studies on positive psychology constructs in the call centre environment are still in their infancy and in the Namibian context especially because of limited literature texts. Results in Table 4 show beta values of 0.284 and -0.339 and significant figures of 0.046 and 0.018, these values reflect that that psychological capital has no moderating effect on the relationship between job demand and burnout; with these results a null hypothesis can be accepted. This statement can be reinforced by the $R^2 =0.39$ suggesting that there is 39 per cent variance between the variables which work in the favour of no moderating effect from psychological capital on the relationship between job demand and burnout. There is no published literature thus far that confirms nor denies the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between job demand and burnout.

All of the Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were relatively high. The findings indicate that job demand had a significantly negative relationship to burnout with values (r= -1.79; p= 0.028). These findings concur with Karasek (1979) who mentions that job burnout occurs when the employee experiences a high degree of job demand. However, these results contradict Nahrgang *et al.* (2011) observations that job demands positively relate to burnout. Bakker *et al.* (2004) investigates how job demands and resources predict burnout among telecom managers, and they found a positive correlation between the two variables. The study shows that an increase in job demands can predict burnout. The call centre environment is highly demanding and employees are heavily monitored. When they are absent from work or leave an organisation, this could arguably be a symptom of 'burnout'. The study seeks to extend ways in which organisations enhance productivity and effectiveness by enhancing employee welfare. Study findings concur with Upadyaya *et al.* (2016); Vander Elst *et al.* (2016) affirming that a high workload is positively associated with work burnout.

These findings correlate with literature as a study on call centre agents found that employees that had high levels of PsyCap were better equipped at dealing with job demands than those who scored lower in PsyCap (Rensburg and Boonzaier 2013). In China, nurses recorded a positive relationship between PsyCap and job demands (Avey *et al.* 2008). Pillay *et al.* (2014) also

recommend that there is a growing need to enhance PsyCap in the workplace so that the employees can better deal with high job demands that may be overwhelming without this development of PysCap. Literature indicates that psychological capital is associated with preferred results such as obligation to the organisation as well as coping with the job demands (Larson and Luthans 2006). This implies that if an employee has a high psychological capital, they have the ability to cope with the demands of the job and therefore cannot affect the employee negatively. Positive psychology is introduced as a low-cost mechanism which organisations can invest in to enhance employee welfare and productivity.

The results of the study contradict findings by Bitmis and Ergeneli (2015) who recommend increasing PsyCap in order to curb burnout. Additionally, there is more literature that contradicts the study like that of previous studies that investigated PsyCap's influence on burnout implied that resources such as PsyCap modify the work environment making burnout less likely to affect employees (Demerouti and Bakker 2011). Research has also shown that PsyCap provides the most successful and efficient resource to curb burnout (Sweetman and Luthans 2010). Cherniss (1993) observes that a lack of confidence in ones' competence promotes the development of burnout and the constructs of PsyCap help build this confidence. Job demands are associated with certain physiological benefits such as performance, and psychological disadvantages such as burnout (Bakker, Demerouti and Euwema 2005).

Results show beta values of 0.284 and -0.339 and significant figures of 0.046 and 0.018. These values reflect that psychological capital has no moderating effect on the relationship between job demand and burnout; with these results the null hypothesis is accepted. This statement can be reinforced by the R^2 =0.39 indicating that there is a 39 per cent variance between the variables which work in the favour of no moderating effect from psychological capital on the relationship between job demand and burnout. There is a lack of literature thus far that confirms nor denies the moderating effect of psychological capital on the relationship between job demand and burnout in contexts similar to this study.

Conclusion

The study's findings contribute to the development of a more comprehensive understanding of the call centre environment in Namibia. Researchers' sentiments concur with literature that when the job is demanding, and an employee invests in PsyCap, the effects of burnout are not felt by the employee. Investing in internal resources serve as coping mechanisms in highly stressful environments. Study results reveal that burnout was negatively related to some constructs of job demands. The implications of these negative relationships are: that an increase in resources will decrease the level of the burnout syndrome, an increase in opportunity for growth will decrease the level of the burnout syndrome, an increase in job security will decrease the level of the burnout syndrome, and an increase in organisational support will decrease the level of the burnout syndrome.

From this study, adding PsyCap had a 39 per cent moderating effect on the relationship between job demands and burnout. Although the effect is below 50 per cent, there is a need for more studies in order to validate the study claims. Employers in the call centre environment do not need to be hired for being intellectual, but rather for their ability to display sincerity and concern for the consumer (Chu and Murrmann 2006). It is recommended that call centre agencies should work towards improving the intangible resources of their employees to curb the negative influence of job demands. Whilst PsyCap did not emerge as a moderator in the relationship between job demands and burnout, it was found to be of value to developing support interventions that foster deep acting managing techniques in the call centre environment. This type of motivation can help cope with burnout; a vital feature of burnout is amplified emotional state of emotional exhaustion

(Maslach and Jackson 1981). Positive psychology provides the opportunity for employees to interact with others and advocate for healthy lifestyles. Literature affirms that employees with high PsyCap are better adjusted to deal with stress that arises from job demands and other factors in the workplace. Admittedly, some results of the study did not correspond with other literature, but it did show the high job demands and general exhaustion amongst the call centre employees.

The study thus recommends that management look into avenues to ensure the wellbeing of their employees by improving the work requirements (job demands) in order to prevent burnt out employees with constructs such as positive psychology and PsyCap in particular. Burnout inhibits competency development and stunts personal development growth. When the job is demanding and employees invest in PsyCap, the effects of burnout are less harmful to employee wellbeing. Investing in internal resources serves as a coping mechanism for employees. The absence of academic literature within the study context inspired the researchers to explore the relationship between the variables, as Namibian organisations are 'unique'. This as noted by literature that the study environment (call centre) is highly demanding. The researchers propose that when call centre employees display positive emotions to the customers, the outcomes for the organisation are likely to be positive. Thus, the employees must not only be competent and friendly but also productive. Employers are encouraged to invest resources on the right factors which are necessary to promote the general wellbeing of their employees at work.

Relating to the Namibian context, for future studies, the researcher recommends more empirical studies which break down the study constructs i.e. job demand (workload, resources, organisational support, job security, opportunity for advancement) and psychological capital (hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resiliency) in order to explore the effects of the constructs in the specifically Namibian context. More work is required on an in-depth understanding of psychological capital and job demands, how it relates to employees' welfare and how it can be used to improve the employees' performance. Additionally, future studies within the study context must be qualitative so as to acquire experiences which are unique to the Namibian context.

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Urbanisation and Urban Governance in Ghana: Identifying Key Actors and their Roles

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Abstract

The rapid increase in the urban population in Africa has created many urban challenges, including informalities, waste management problems, increased health risks, and growing urban poverty. With the unplanned spatial patterns and informalities that exist with the current urban population, this raises the question of whether African cities are ready to host more than 1.3 billion people by 2050 and still achieve urban sustainability. Using Ghana as a case study, this research undertook a critical review of urban population trends and their relation with economic growth. It identified the actors of urban governance in Ghana, as well as their roles, contributions and level of participation in urban governance processes. Findings indicate that most urban management decisions in Ghana are made by the government and exclude the non-governmental actors and citizens who bear the outcome of such decisions. This has resulted in deficiencies in actualising local needs, thus hindering the provision of urban services. The study proposes an inclusive and participatory form of urban governance with active participation of non-governmental actors and a paradigm shift from the existing urban management approaches to a more sustainable one that delivers socioeconomic benefits for more inclusive and sustainable cities in Africa in the future.

Keywords: Urbanisation; urban governance; inclusive; participation; Ghana

Introduction

In recent decades, Africa has been urbanising rapidly. According to the UN-Habitat (2016), the continent is urbanising at an average rate of 3.44% per year. This has put the continent on the trajectory of becoming the fastest urbanising region in the world (United Nations 2012). Of the 2 billion people expected to be added to the world population between 2019 and 2050, 52% (1.05 billion) could come from Sub-Saharan African countries alone (United Nations 2019). It is therefore projected that Africa's population will reach 2.44 billion by 2050 (United Nations 2012). Although the continent is predominantly rural, the population in urban areas is expected to surpass 50% by 2035 (UN-Habitat 2016). At the time of writing this paper, three African cities (Cairo, Lagos and Kinshasa) have already surpassed a population of 10 million and will be joined by Luanda, Johannesburg and Dar es Salaam in the next few years.

From a theoretical perspective, an urbanising area should result in socioeconomic growth and innovations that transform and improve the general wellbeing of urban dwellers (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). On the global scale, cities are major drivers of economic growth; however, in Sub-Saharan Africa, urbanisation is not accompanied by the level of per capita income (World Bank 2015). Urban population growth in Africa is outpacing urban economic growth since there is no equivalent increase in formal employment, leading to growing urban

poverty and increased urban vulnerability (Bryceson and Potts 2006). For example, Sub-Saharan Africa became 40% urban in 2013 with gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of $1,018, whereas East Asia reached the same level of urbanisation in 1994 with GDP per capita of $3,617, and Latin America and the Caribbean reached this level in 1950 with per capita GDP of $1,860 (World Bank 2015). The consequences of the rapid urbanisation and inadequate capacity for planning and managing cities in Africa are leading to informalities, inequalities, and increasing health risks (Smit 2018). Proper city planning is always hindered since in Africa, development is always ahead of planning. As a result of this and its associated urban governance challenges, many scholars including Cohen (2006), Cobbinah, Erdiaw-Kwasie and Amoateng (2015) and Smit (2018) express some concerns about the level at which the urban population of the continent is increasing. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2019), however, some of the fastest-growing economies in the world are from Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire, and Uganda.

Although Africa has the potential and opportunities for urban development and innovations as noted by Smit (2018), it has been dominated by huge urban challenges, such as growing slums and increasing poverty and inequality coupled with weak government capacity (Myers 2011, cited in UN-Habitat 2014). These challenges call for improved urban planning and urban governance, improved infrastructure, increased productivity and employment opportunities while bridging inequalities to achieve more inclusive and sustainable cities in Africa in the future. Recent studies have shown that Ghana is using the potential of urbanisation to foster urban development and providing social and economic services to urban residents (Amoateng, Cobbinah and Ofori-Kumah 2014; Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016; Cities Alliance 2017). The World Bank (2015) reports that Accra's poverty incidence was reduced by 20% between 1991 and 2012 mainly because of the increasing urbanisation in the country. Moreover, there has been an increase in educational and healthcare services (Cities Alliance 2017). These affirmative descriptions of the Ghanaian cities have been acknowledged and echoed by many researchers (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016; Cities Alliance 2017).

Notwithstanding the various achievements highlighted above, the planning authorities in Ghana are still battling with limited skilled manpower, weak capacity, inadequate logistical support and funding, bureaucratic fragmentations, and ways of ensuring a reasonable equilibrium between population growth and infrastructure provision (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). Urban governance and decisions influence urban development, and whether the influence will be positive or negative depends on the urban policy, capacity and coordination among policymakers, urban planners, local governments, actors, and all other stakeholders of urbanism. According to Smit (2018), the roles in key urban governance issues in many African countries, including Ghana, are mostly fragmented among a large number of government institutions with different interests and there is usually a lack of participation of citizens.

Recently, urban governance researchers including Cobbinah (2017), Amoah, Owusu-Sekyere and Angmor (2019) and Asante (2020) affirm that there is low participation of citizens in contemporary urban governance in Ghana. However, globally, participation is a key operational issue in the process of actualising the ideals of urban governance (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). Participation in this context should therefore focus on consensus and civic engagement where governance transcends government and authorised agencies to include urban residents (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). This research was conducted to review the urbanisation trends and their relation with economic growth in Ghana. Furthermore, taking into account the rapid urban population growth in Ghana and its implication for urban governance, the study identified the actors of urban governance in Ghana, as well as their roles, contributions and level of participation in the urban governance system.

Methodology

This study was based on desktop research and a literature review of available secondary data on urbanisation and urban governance in Ghana. The materials for this study were retrieved from scientific databases that included academic and grey literature from African Journals Online, Taylor & Francis, Routledge, Springer, ResearchGate, Google Scholar, Sage, Elsevier, and websites of prominent organisations such as the World Bank and UN-Habitat. Keywords and phrases such as 'urbanisation', 'urban governance', 'inclusive and participatory urban governance', 'urbanisation in Africa', 'urbanisation in Ghana', 'urban governance in Ghana' and 'economic growth in Ghana' were included in the web search. More than 300 publications were retrieved from the web search. Although many of the articles were considered potentially significant, 59 were selected for the study. Factors considered for the inclusion were the relevance of the article to the study, articles within the African and the Ghanaian context, and peer-reviewed journal articles and edited books on urbanisation and urban governance.

Urbanisation Trends in Ghana

In the last decade, Ghana's urban population has witnessed progressive growth (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). With the current average urban population growth rate of 4.5% per annum (Cities Alliance 2017), Ghana's urban population is projected to reach 72% by 2035 (Government of Ghana 2015). The 2010 Population and Housing Census in Ghana indicated that the country's urban population (50.9%) had exceeded the rural population (49.1%) (Ghana Statistical Service 2012). The census also revealed that two regions in Ghana, Greater Accra and Ashanti, were urbanising rapidly with an urban population of 90.5% and 60.6% respectively (Ghana Statistical Service 2014). Moreover, previous censuses indicated that the urban population recorded more rapid growth than the rural population (Ghana Statistical Service 2012). For instance, during the period 1960–1970, the urban population grew by 4.7% per annum, declined to 3.3% during the period 1970–1984, and increased again to 4.6% during the period 1984–2000 while the rural population recorded growth rates of 1.6%, 2.3% and 1.5% per annum during the periods 1960–1970, 1970–1984 and 1984–2000 respectively (Ghana Statistical Service 2014).

Furthermore, the total population that lived in urban settlements in Ghana in 1931 was 9.4%, which increased to 13.9% in 1948, 23.1% in 1960, 28.9% in 1970, 32.1% in 1984, and 43.8% in 2000 (Songsore 2009). The urban population growth was largely influenced by the country's development strategy, which was based on industrialisation, modernisation, economic diversification, and indigenisation of the economy after Ghana's independence (Ghana Statistical Service 2014). During the post-independence era, Ghana saw the emergence of an industrial core region made up of Kumasi, Accra and Sekondi-Takoradi, which together accounted for 86% of all registered industrial enterprises in the country (Songsore 1979). Owusu (2005) notes that the introduction of cocoa centres and decentralisation also contributed to the growth and proliferation of urban centres across the country. In addition, government projects such as the building of hospitals, schools and railways increased the population in the urban centres (Ghana Statistical Service 2014).

Table 1: Percentage of the urban population in Ghana from 1960 to 2010

Year	1960	1970	1984	2000	2010
Percentage of urban population	23.1	28.9	32.1	43.8	50.9

Source: Population and Housing Census 1960, 1970, 1984, 2000, 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service 2012)

More recently, urbanisation in Ghana has been influenced by three main factors, namely the natural increase, rural–urban migration, and reclassification as villages are classified as towns once they attain the threshold population of 5,000 or more, which is the census definition of an urban centre in Ghana (Songsore 2009). The natural increase is defined as the excess births over deaths at a given time. In Ghana, the mortality rate is declining faster than the fertility rate, thereby increasing the total population each year and subsequently increasing the urban population (Ghana Statistical Service 2014). For instance, Ghana's fertility rate increased from 4.0 children per woman in 2008 to 4.4 children per woman in 2010, with projections indicating a further increase in the foreseeable future (Ghana Statistical Service 2013). Conversely, infant mortality rates declined from 77 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1988 to 66 in 1993, 57 in 1998 and 50 in 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service 2012). The urban population growth due to the natural increase accounted for 59.3% of the total urban population increase between 2000 and 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service 2014). Rural–urban migration is another influential factor in Ghana's urbanisation.

In Ghana, the level of development and availability of services differ when comparing living conditions in rural and urban areas, with the rural population being disadvantaged (Songsore 2009). Consequently, many people relocate to the cities to search for economic opportunities, higher education and better services, including healthcare, quality water, and the internet (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). For example, a report on the distribution of inflows indicated that 78.9% of all projects registered in the first quarter of 2011 were located in Accra (Ghana Statistical Service 2014). This shows that the majority of business establishments in the country are located in the cities, which encourages many people to relocate to the urban centres. Although the major driving factors of urbanisation in Ghana are rural–urban migration and the natural increase, reclassification of villages as towns led to an increase in the number of urban areas (towns, cities, municipalities and metropolises) from 364 in 2000 to 636 in 2010 (Naab, Dinye and Kasanga 2013), thus influencing the number of the urban population.

Urbanisation and Economic Growth in Ghana

According to the IMF (2019), Ghana is one of the fastest-growing economies in the African continent. The country's economy is expanding and its GDP grew by 6.3% in 2018 (World Bank 2019), placing it in the sixth position of the fastest-growing economies in the world (IMF 2019). Although the economic growth can be attributed to the booming oil sector, non-oil sectors also witnessed progressive growth from 4.6% in 2017 to 6.5% in 2018 (Government of Ghana 2020). For example, the introduction of the agricultural initiative Planting for Food has boosted the agricultural productivity, leading to a food boom in the country (Government of Ghana 2020).

Furthermore, Ghana is second in the world in terms of cocoa exportation (Food and Agriculture Organization 2018), which contributes significantly to its GDP (Government of Ghana 2020). Since the Bank of Ghana's banking sector clean-up, 23 Universal banks, 144 Rural and Community banks and non-banking financial institutions, and 25 savings and loans companies remain (Bank of Ghana 2020). This repositioned the economy of the country, leading to single-digit inflation (9.8) in 2018 (Centre for Affordable Housing Finance [CAHF] 2019). The country has also started implementing a digitisation system in some sectors of the economy, for example, the digital addressing system, paperless port clearing system, and mobile and electronic payment systems such as 'mobile money' (Government of Ghana 2019). The paperless port clearing system has helped in the prevention of corruption within the Ghana Port and Harbour Authority (Government of Ghana 2020).

Despite the economic growth, a significant number of people (48.4% of the population) still live below the poverty line, leading to inequalities (CAHF 2019). This is due to the fact that in

many African countries, an increase in the per capita income does not necessarily mean an increase in the standard of living (Songsore 2009). As noted by Bryceson and Potts (2006), there is a mismatch between urban population growth and urban economic growth in many African countries since there is no equivalent increase in formal employment, leading to growing urban poverty and increased urban vulnerability. Currently, over one third of urban dwellers in Ghana still live in slum conditions (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016) because of low incomes coupled with a housing backlog of more than 1.7 million units (CAHF 2019). Moreover, there is increasing unemployment and underemployment, which, according to Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie (2016), has led to social disquiet, crimes, an unstable socioeconomic structure, and perennial youth unrest in various cities in Ghana.

The rapidly urbanising nature of Ghanaian cities presents daily urban governance challenges (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016). Various challenges such as informal settlements, air and water pollution, poor sanitation, increased urban poverty and several other demeaning conditions have become commonplace in Ghanaian cities (Amoako and Cobbinah 2011). Land use patterns in cities such as Accra, Kumasi, Sekondi-Takoradi and Tamale have altered considerably as a result of the increased urban population and physical expansion (Naab, Dinye and Kasanga 2013). Urban planning efforts to provide adequate infrastructure and ensure the best use of land resources become futile as institutional collaboration is weak, private sector participation is underdeveloped, and urban residents' role in urban planning remains largely unknown (Naab, Dinye and Kasanga 2013), which requires an extensive review of the roles of actors and their contributions and level of participation in the urban governance system in Ghana.

Urban Governance: Principles and Concepts

In describing urban governance, first, it is important to understand the meaning of governance. Governance, as defined by the World Bank in one of its earliest publications, is 'the manner in which power is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development' (World Bank 1992: 1). This definition of governance placed more emphasis on how a central government can use the available resources to develop the country by focusing on efficiency and accountability. This was mostly linked to the concept of 'good governance'. However, this definition was criticised by UN-Habitat (2016: 10) as 'a mainly administrative and managerialist interpretation of good governance'. It was further criticised as there was no distinction between the definition of 'governance' and 'government'.

Rhodes (1997: 652) highlights that 'governance should be seen as a change in the meaning and description of government because it is a new process and new method of governing a society'. Many scholars have made the distinction by incorporating civil society into the definition of governance, making it different from the definition of government. This is consistent with McCarney, Halfani and Rodríguez's (1995) definition, describing governance as a relationship between civil society and the state, between rulers and the ruled, the government and the governed. The United Nations (1997: 2) defines governance as 'the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences'. Here, governance is perceived as consultation, coordination and cooperation among all stakeholders to reach a consensus on how a problem is defined and solved.

Recently, the term 'good governance' has gained popularity and its dimensions have been applied in many fields of study. The application of good governance dimensions in the urban economy has been championed and promoted by UN-Habitat, which considers it as a method for reducing urban poverty, improving social inclusion and providing an equal share of economic resources. UN-Habitat has therefore promoted the principles of 'good' urban governance, namely, subsidiarity, civic engagement and citizenship, sustainability, efficiency, transparency and accountability, equity, and security. These principles are interdependent and

mutually reinforcing (UN-Habitat 2016). With the recent introduction of the Sustainable Development Goals, the approaches to sustainability have been introduced in every aspect of human life, not excluding the urban environment. Many terms relating to sustainability, such as sustainable cities, smart cities, future cities, and creative cities, have been introduced. Sustainability is one of the recent indicators of good urban governance introduced by UN-Habitat. According to Badach and Dymnicka (2017), the concept of good urban governance requires continuous updating since a single new model of urban governance that takes into account the rapid contemporary economic, cultural and social transformations does not exist.

Urban Governance Actors in Ghana

The increasing global population has created large and dense cities around the world, especially in Africa. According to Harrison and Donnelly (2011), large and dense cities can be highly innovative, productive and have 'very green' per capita income, and therefore they are desirable for the future. However, the rapid influx of the urban population presents overwhelming challenges, such as informal development, waste management, traffic congestion, crime, and inadequate infrastructure (Harrison and Donnelly 2011). According to Cobbinah, Erdiaw-Kwasie and Amoateng (2015), the process of urbanisation in Africa, including Ghana, is mostly associated with socioeconomic stagnation, unplanned spatial patterns, and unsustainable environmental management. These challenges therefore require effective urban governance and better-informed choices among the various stakeholders and actors of urban governance. The responsibility for resolving these contemporary urban issues in Ghana rests on the following actors: the government, private sector, civil societies, traditional leaders, and international agencies.

Figure 1: Urban governance actors in Ghana
Source: Author's construct

Table 2: Actors of urban governance in Ghana and their constituent/components

Actors of urban governance in Ghana	Constituent/components/examples
Government	Ministries Local government (Metropolitan, Municipality and District Assemblies [MMDAs]), Sub-metropolitan, district, urban, zonal and area councils, Assemblymen/women and Unit committee Town and Country Planning Department Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) Environmental Protection Agency The Lands Commission
Private sector	Association of Ghana Industries Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU) Private Road Transport Owners Association (PROTOA) Ghana Employers Association National Entrepreneurship and Innovative Plan Microcredit Association of Ghana Ghana Real Estate Developers Association (GREDA) Individuals, etc.
Civil societies	Centre for Development Partnerships and Innovations Rocha Ghana ABANTU for Development Ghana AMURT Ghana African Institute for Development Policy Youth Empowerment Synergy (YES Ghana) Rural–Urban Partnership for Africa, etc.
Traditional leaders	National and Regional House of Chiefs Paramount chiefs Divisional chiefs Sub-divisional chiefs Caretaker chiefs Family heads Customary landowners, etc.
International agencies	World Bank United Nations agencies (e.g. UN-Habitat) IMF German Development Cooperation (GIZ) African Development Bank (AFDB) Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), etc.

Source: Author's construct 2020

The Government

Globally, urban governance mainly involves the consensus of all stakeholders; however, in Ghana, the government plays a significant role in the decision-making and implementation stages (Obeng-Odoom 2013). There is a decentralised system of government in Ghana where power and functions are transferred from the central government to the local level. The central government performs a supervisory role mainly through an appointed minister over the local government, which is classified as MMDAs. Ghana's local government system has an element of a mixed system combining the 'prefectoral style' of the rule of a traditional district assembly that is responsible to the central government and democratic authority over local service delivery (Crook and Manor 1998). Decentralisation in Ghana can be traced back to the colonial period following its usefulness as a developmental tool and a method of de-concentration (Kyei 2008). Although there is a multiparty democratic system in Ghana, most of the appointments in the various levels of government are from and within the ruling political party (Smit 2018).

The political landscape is dominated by clientelist political parties that only provide to their constituents, with most research suggesting that they are less likely to improve the quality of public services than parties with coherent and consistent positions on policy issues (Smit 2018).

Mayors are appointed by the President to oversee the administration of the metropolitan areas in Ghana together with the elected assembly members. Recent studies, including Obeng-Odoom (2011), Adaawen and Jørgensen (2012), and Asante (2020) show that mayors are often autocratic in their decision-making and accountable to only the appointing authority and not to the local people. Many scholars have therefore proposed that Mayors, Municipal Chief Executives (MCEs) and District Chief Executives (DCEs) should be elected. However, Resnick (2010) suggests that the election of Mayors, MCEs and DCEs is not necessarily the best option since the central government may be reluctant to fund urban developmental projects in areas occupied by an opposition party. Ghana's urban governance and development has therefore been influenced by political affiliations and unhealthy competition between political parties, which has led to poor urban service delivery. Poor urban service delivery in Ghana has also been linked to a lack of adequate funds within the MMDAs. According to Cities Alliance (2017), local governments in Ghana are financially anaemic and functionally subdued as there is political determination of fund flows, poor internal revenue generation, and a lack of predictability of intergovernmental transfers.
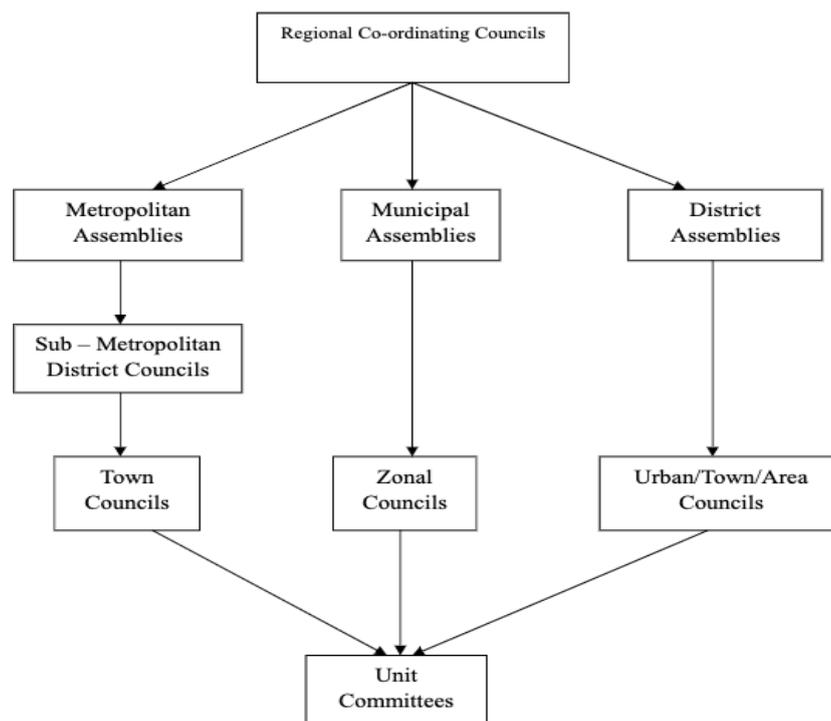

Figure 2: Local government structure in Ghana
Source: Forkuor and Adjei (2016)

Although an RCC has been established in each region in Ghana to promote coordination and provide institutional and human capacity among the various MMDAs within a particular region, there is still an overlap in functions and weak coordination among the various government institutions and the MMDAs (Obeng-Odoom 2017). Policies and directives are always from the top government bodies to the local level with little or no participation of local communities (Asante 2020). The roles of each of the government institutions are not specifically determined and participation of the people in urban development is limited, which means that thecountry

is not likely to benefit from a comprehensive urban intervention if there is no active participation of the people (Asante 2020).

The Private Sector

The private sector has a major influence and plays a significant role in the socioeconomic development of any city (Devas 2001). In Ghana, the private sector employs the majority of the people, thereby reducing the unemployment rate in the country (Ghana Statistical Service 2015). For example, an integrated business establishment survey conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service (2015) shows that privately owned establishments accounted for 85.6% while state-owned establishments constituted 14.4%. Furthermore, the private sector contributes to the delivery of public infrastructure (Inkoom 2014). In addition, most of the failed government initiatives in Ghana have been revitalised by the private sector. For example, taking into account the failed affordable housing initiatives in recent years, the government's agenda on housing was not fruitful (CAHF 2019).

Although the country is struggling with an overwhelming housing deficit of more than 1.7 million units (CAHF 2019), the contribution of GREDA in housing provision cannot be underestimated. Moreover, with the absence of an adequate public transport in Ghana, urban transport services are largely provided by private transport unions (Cities Alliance 2017). The major private urban transport unions in Ghana are the GPRTU and the PROTOA. An uncountable number of individuals also have commercial vehicles that operate daily in the cities. In addition, the private sector supports the government in the provision of educational and health services to urban residents (Cities Alliance 2017). Nevertheless, recent studies have shown that there is low participation of the private sector in urban decision-making. For example, the studies conducted by Inkoom (2014) and Asante (2020) show that in the development of market spaces in the cities in Ghana, traders are not usually invited to participate in the decision-making process. This reveals and supports the argument that there is low participation of citizens in contemporary urban governance in the country (Cobbinah 2017; Asante 2020). Even when there is participation of citizens, it is usually those in high-class neighbourhoods (Cobbinah 2017). Local government authorities justify the exclusion based on the limited time for implementation, the technical nature of the projects, and the fear of objections by the citizens (Asante 2020).

Civil Societies

Civil societies play an important role in the urban governance process by ensuring that the government focuses its attention on social, economic and environmental matters, which usually affect the vulnerable or the minority in society. Civil societies comprise people with a common interest in adhering to values such as inclusion, tolerance, equality, and cooperation (Ghaus-Pasha 2005). In Ghana, civil societies play a significant role in achieving socioeconomic development in societies (Frimpong 2017). According to Court, Mendizabal, Osborne and Young (2006), civil societies in countries such as Zimbabwe, Kenya and Ghana provide about 40% of all educational and healthcare services. Efforts of civil societies in Ghana date back to the pre-independence era, where the main objective of the societies was to protect indigenous resources and attain political independence (Frimpong 2017). Most of these civil societies were led by African elites and traditional leaders. In the post-independence era, efforts of civil societies were mainly related to media freedom, individual rights and freedom of speech, which were restricted under the military regime (Frimpong 2017).

More recently, civil societies' efforts have been mainly related to the vulnerable in society, such as the urban poor, women, and children. This makes them important organisations that should not be excluded from the urban governance system. In addition to being the mouthpiece for the vulnerable in society, they support many communities with the provision of potable water, toilet facilities, schools and hospitals and make donations to charity homes.

They also act as watchdogs, holding governments accountable for the use of the country's resources, thereby preventing corruption and embezzlement of public funds. However, civil societies still have a limited impact on public policy processes and practices in developing countries (Court et al. 2006). Furthermore, many civil societies are financially handicapped, which affects their activities and restrains the smooth operation of their objectives (Ghaus-Pasha 2005). In Ghana, the link between civil societies and the government is not clearly defined (Frimpong 2017), and they do not actively participate in urban governance.

Traditional Leaders

In Ghana, traditional leaders are considered as key figures in society and they are actively involved in most socioeconomic development initiatives in the country. They usually act as advisory bodies to developmental projects in many communities in Ghana. They also represent their community and put forward their interests and needs to the government. There is an established National House of Chiefs in Ghana that comprises members appointed from the Regional House of Chiefs. The National and Regional House of Chiefs unite all the traditional leaders within a particular jurisdiction to ensure peace and unity among their people and promote social, economic, cultural and political advancement in the country. In Ghana, 80% of the entire lands are under the customary tenure regime while the remaining 20% are managed by the state or under the statutory tenure regime (Bugri 2012). Since there are limited state lands that are not sufficient for most developmental initiatives, the government always has to consult traditional leaders for the release of community lands for developmental projects.

The 1992 Constitution of Ghana and the local government laws shows the intention to include traditional leaders in the local government system; however, their role is not clearly defined (Mahama 2009). Although the functions of traditional leaders and the MMDAs constitute different components of the same agenda, neither the Constitution nor the Local Government Act has made a provision for the representation of chiefs in the District Assembly or sub-district structures (Mahama 2009). One of the reasons for the non-participation of chiefs in the District Assembly system is the provisions prescribed in Article 276(1) of the Constitution, which prevents chiefs from playing an active role in politics. However, Ayee (2006) argues that in Ghana, projects are not successfully implemented without the involvement of chiefs within the project areas. Therefore, there should be involvement and active participation of traditional leaders in the planning and implementation of development projects in their communities (Seini 2006).

International Agencies

International agencies have played an instrumental role in urban development projects and public infrastructure provision in Ghana. Most of the urban infrastructure and regional projects in Ghana are mainly financed by international agencies (Cities Alliance 2017). Active international agencies in Ghana include the World Bank, United Nations agencies (e.g. UN-Habitat), the IMF, GIZ, AFDB and CIDA. Each of these agencies has its strategies and area of interest, and they sometimes form a partnership to execute their programmes. Their contributions to the development agenda in the country have improved many sectors of the urban framework, including health services, education, sanitation, housing, and jobs (Cities Alliance 2017). Ghana has not only benefited from the international agencies on a monetary basis, but also in policy formulation and implementation, urban and regional development initiatives, and protection of the rights of the minority, vulnerable and marginalised groups in the society. International agencies in Ghana have recently focused their attention on the Sustainable Development Goals, which address urban-related problems through policies, instruments and strategies that are pro-poor, gender-equitable and sustainable.

Towards Inclusive and Participatory Urban Governance

Many studies assert that urban management decisions in developing countries, including Ghana, are usually made by the government (Cobbinah 2017; Asante and Helbrecht 2019; Asante 2020) and exclude non-governmental actors who bear the outcomes of urban management decisions (Obeng-Odoom 2013, 2017). Although the actors of urban governance in Ghana are identified as directly or indirectly involved in urban governance processes, this research argues that all the actors should have active participation. The democratic feature of urban governance demonstrates that decision-making processes and responsibilities of urban redevelopment initiatives should be shared among all the actors of urbanism (Yeboah and Obeng-Odoom 2010; Asante 2020). Moreover, taking into account the rapid increase in the urban population, there should be a paradigm shift from the existing urban management approaches to a more sustainable one that delivers socioeconomic benefits, promotes equity, involves participation, and ensures accountability (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2016).

Furthermore, regarding decentralisation, the central government's functions should be clearly distinguished and should target area-wide matters such as regional public transport planning and water and electricity provision (UN-Habitat 2010). Local governments should be autonomous, only accountable to the local people and actively involve them in the decision-making process. In addition, multi-level decentralised urban management should be based on democracy, participation and community self-help initiatives that will respond to local needs (UN-Habitat 2010). With much political influence on urban management in Ghana, active participation of all the actors of urban governance will limit the political control and promote inclusive and participatory urban governance. In addition, taking into account the contributions of the private sector, international agencies, civil societies and traditional leaders in urban infrastructure provision, active participation of these groups in urban governance will help significantly in meeting urban infrastructural needs considering the rapid growth of the urban population in Ghana.

Conclusion

Ghana's urban population has witnessed progressive growth in recent decades and is projected to increase in the coming years. This has exerted much pressure on the limited urban infrastructure in the country and created many urban challenges, including informalities as a result of unplanned spatial patterns and waste management challenges leading to increased health risks and growing urban poverty, which has led to inequalities. These challenges have implications for urban governance and therefore require improved urban infrastructure, increased productivity and employment opportunities while bridging inequalities to achieve more inclusive and sustainable cities in the future. This study identified five key urban governance actors, namely the government, private sector, international agencies, civil societies, and traditional leaders.

Findings indicate that urban management decisions in Ghana are mostly made by the government and exclude the non-governmental actors. However, the contributions of the non-governmental actors in terms of infrastructure provision and urban development cannot be underestimated. Findings also show that there is low participation of citizens in urban governance processes, which has resulted in deficiencies in actualising local needs, thus hindering urban service provision. Consequently, the study suggests the implementation of inclusive and participatory urban governance where the non-governmental actors can actively participate in urban governance. Furthermore, taking into account the rapid expansion of the urban population, the study proposes that there should be a paradigm shift from the existing urban management approaches in Ghana to a more sustainable one that delivers socioeconomic benefits.

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Staff Relationship Strategies and School Effectiveness in Public Secondary Schools: Depicting Kwara State, Nigeria

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Abstract

This study examines the influence of staff relationship strategies adopted by school principals and their effectiveness in Kwara State Public Secondary Schools (KSPSS). The study population comprises principals and teachers from the 64 public secondary schools in Ilorin metropolis, where 20 were selected randomly. From each of the 20 schools, ten teachers were selected randomly using a convenience sampling method while the school principal and a vice principal in each sampled school were purposively selected. Questionnaires were used to obtain data from 240 respondents. The descriptive statistics technique was used to answer the research question while the hypotheses which were formulated were tested using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation. The result shows a high level of school effectiveness in Ilorin metropolis' public secondary schools. Furthermore, the four hypotheses tested showed strong positive relationships between: communication and quality leadership, shared goals and school discipline, motivation and staff satisfaction, and career development or work balance and student academic performance. It was concluded that public secondary schools in Ilorin metropolis are effective and that a strong relationship exists between staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness. The study recommends that schools should improve on their organised environment to increase its contributions to school effectiveness.

Keywords: Staff relationship; school effectiveness; quality leadership; organised environment

Introduction

Management of people at work is an integral part of the management process. Proper staff management is an important determinant of the success or failure of any educational institution (Ofoegbu and Ofoegbu 2017). The survival and prosperity of an educational institution in today's competitive environment depends mainly on the quality of its staff. This quality is a reflection of a principal's knowledge of the tasks which need to be performed by teachers, requiring engaging, competent staff (Worlu *et al*. 2016). Industrial actions usually embarked upon by teachers, especially in the public secondary schools, are becoming a worrisome phenomenon in the

educational sector. This is due to the fact that several times within an academic session classes have been shortened down in response to government failure to make adequate provisions for effective job performance. Among many the factors that ultimately lead to workplace conflict within the secondary schools is the issue of poor staff relations (Nwosu 2017). The continued existence and sustainability of schools in a competitive environment requires the provision of a stimulating staff-management relationship. The fulfilment of effective staff relationships will ultimately lead to staff commitment and their increased involvement and in turn result in heightened school effectiveness (Worlu *et al*. 2016).

Staff relationship strategies come in many forms and they have been found to be an important ingredient in effective schools. Effective use of communication among staff members goes a long way to bringing teachers to understand the school goals, just as the use of motivational strategies encourage teachers to do more for the organisation. When good workplace relationships exist among teachers, the teachers, students, and principals feel secure and satisfied, which will, consequently, lead to higher school performance. The level of commitment from teachers and overall school effectiveness is a function of staff relation strategies employed by school leaders in both public and private secondary schools. School effectiveness requires "confidence, trustworthiness, respect, commitment, analytical thinking, conceptual thinking, and drive for improvement, information seeking initiative, flexibility, accountability, and passion for learning among the stakeholders in the school community" (Ramberg *et al*. 2018:5). All these factors constitute an important foundation for promoting the quality of teacher relationships with students.

The success or failure of any school depends greatly on the type of leadership it has, and the relationship strategies adopted by the leader. Leaders translate all other resources in schools into visible services. It is important that schools pay extra attention to their staff in order to attain optimum efficiency and effectiveness in the workplace. School administrators take specific measures to facilitate employee performance growth over time. Administrators' management strategies intend to ensure optimal performance and enforce the productivity of employees and that of the organisation at large. However, public secondary schools in Kwara State are plagued with inadequate staff participation in school decision making, insufficient welfare services, long working hours, poor relationships with supervisors and colleagues, and low teacher morale, which has made these schools prone to incessant industrial action, class boycotts by teachers, and poor levels of job commitment and performance. The generally low level of public-school effectiveness in KSPSS is a result of poor staff relationships between school leaders and staff has especially prompted this study.

A school's viability or effectiveness is the degree to which the set objectives or goals of a school programme are practiced. A school would be viewed as successful if school forms bring about observable positive results reliably over some undefined time frame. The parameters for measuring the effectiveness of a secondary school includes the level of discipline tone in the school, the school's climate, teacher performance, and the number of students who successfully pass their school-leaving certificate examinations (Cohen *et al*. 2009). The characteristics of effective schools differ depending on the methodology, considerations, and theoretical starting points. Ekundayo (2004) proposes five salient features of effective schools that recur in most studies: a strong administrative leadership, high student achievement, a conducive atmosphere for learning, an emphasis on skill acquisition, and the regular monitoring of students' progress.

Recent investigations have set a more noteworthy accentuation on school principals regarding their ability to verbalise a dream for the school and to make the mutual significance and shared objectives which the school is expected to achieve in this vision. Some parameters for measuring school effectiveness include staff satisfaction, student academic performance, school discipline, and quality leadership. It is within this context that the topical study sets out to investigate staff

relationship strategies as a factor that contributes to school effectiveness, specifically in relation to the Kwara State in Nigeria.

Relevant Prior Contributions

Psychologists agree that many aspects of behaviour are determined by motivation (Fieldman, 2017). This is why motivation is often described as those factors which energise and give direction to one's behaviour. Usually, a motivated person engages in an activity more vigorously and more efficiently than an unmotivated one (Latham 2005). Nwosu (2017) presents motivation as a concept for a very complex phenomenon which influences almost every sphere of an organisation, ranging from the behaviour of an employee on the job, to the organisation's stability. Each educational institution endeavours to rouse their labourers or tutor them in order to push the establishment forward. To rouse or motivate essentially means to encourage someone to enact a certain activity or activities. It has to do with making individuals work productively without being coerced.

Persuasive and motivational methodologies embraced by school principals can emphatically or adversely affect the attainment of the school objectives. Producing exceptionally energetic, cognisant, and reliably successful classroom teachers should be the objectives of every school administrator. Motivation depends very importantly on the goals which are to be achieved and the enabling conditions for achieving them. Principals should strive to instil self-generated factors that influence teachers' behaviours (intrinsic motivation), because, more often than not, they have little or no influence over external motivation (extrinsic motivation), such as increased pay or promotions. Staff motivation has always been a perennial problem for school administrators because of their inability to exercise powers over external things that could motivate workers in their work environment. The shortage of these extrinsic motivations leads to job place avoidance and, at times, employees leaving the organisation (Vinay, 2014). Generally, workers come to organisations with expectations of their personal needs being met by the organisation. The extent to which such needs are met determines the workers' levels of motivation and, hence, their performance and commitment to work (Locke and Latham, 2004).

A major school effectiveness variable is one's organised environment. Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004) identify three major leadership practices; developing people and enabling teachers and other staff to do their jobs effectively; offering intellectual support and stimulation to improve work; and providing models of practice and support, setting directions for the organisation, developing shared goals, monitoring organisational performance and promoting effective communication, and redesigning the organisation by creating a productive school culture or by modifying organisational structures. Brueckners and Burton (2005) recognise the impact that an enabling environment has on the morale of teachers and their job satisfaction as well as their classroom performance. The key factors in this study were: workload (number of pupils and work time), condition of classrooms, level of collegial and management support, location, living arrangements, and distance to work. In countries such as Ghana, Nigeria, and Zambia, it is noticeable that teachers in rural areas do complain of poor working conditions.

Effective teacher development contributes to increased productivity, greater job satisfaction, and lower turnover. It can enhance the understanding of their work and creates a greater ability to cope with changes in the organisation. Thus, a principal needs to facilitate their teachers' development to increase efficiency. Effective teacher development has been acknowledged to have short and long-term benefits in resource management. Principals in effective schools, therefore, involve themselves in ensuring that teachers get opportunities for in-service training. It is important for the school principal to be aware of the training needs of the teachers. As an instructional pioneer, the principal improves the instructional programme in his or her school by guaranteeing that instructors have the necessary training.

Furthermore, the form and way of communication used in a given school affects the way people interact, and it has an impact on the general atmosphere of the school, which in turn might affect the general quality of instruction that students receive (Akinola 2013). Communication influences the way people behave in organisations. As such, school principals are expected to set direction, set school goals, and prepare everyone for the attainment of said goals. Successful school leaders set and communicate the direction for their schools. Setting and negotiating directions in schools has a great impact on teachers and a good school leader employs the most effective means of communicating the school directions and goals to the teachers in order to get their support (Latham, 2005). With appropriate communication patterns, school principals may be in a good position to realign and modify teachers, students, and school community attitudes towards achieving school goals.

It should be noted that a school's overall performance is a function of both teacher and student input, and it is usually described based on the marks obtained by the individual students and their overall school performance in the subject. Since the hallmark of a school's effectiveness is determined by a student's performance, the authors of this study argue that both the latter and the former are capable of being influenced by relationship management strategies, especially teacher development programmes. In a similar vein, according to Abdulkadiroglu *et al*. (2020), if the goal is to improve educational effectiveness, parents' choices must result in rewards for effective schools and sanctions for ineffective ones. The authors contend that school choice may lead to improvements in school productivity if effective schools are rewarded and ineffective ones are punished. This mechanism requires parents to choose schools based on causal effectiveness rather than peer characteristics.

A Conceptual Model on Staff Relationship Strategies and School Effectiveness

A conceptual model for the study was proposed by the authors, based on the school effectiveness models of Creemers (1994) and Scheerens (1993). The Creemers model explains variance in outcomes in terms of essential factors of learning theory, such as time, opportunity, and quality. Placing more emphasis on the classroom and teacher, Creemers (1994) focuses on the teaching-learning process in the classroom, where all the factors or variables that contribute to educational outcomes exist. The quality of instruction in the classroom depends on three components, namely curriculum, grouping procedure, and teacher behavior. Amongst them, the most important factor is teacher behaviour, because all other factors depend on how a teacher runs his or her lesson. In other words, it is how teachers implement the curriculum that determines student outcomes, not the curriculum itself. Even grouping which positively influences outcomes can be realised through the teacher's ability. The Scheerens model discusses factors associated with student outcomes in school in terms of education production function. Their models account for the relationship amongst clusters within the educational system.

Considering the above, the conceptual model of this study, depicted below as figure 1, highlights the relationship between staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness.

Figure 1: Proposed conceptual model on staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness

A staff relationship strategy is seen as an important means of bringing teachers into school programmes through effective communication. Communicating with teachers regularly will help them grasp the mind-set of school leadership and align with their plans and programmes regarding student academic accomplishments. Communication provides an effective channel of feeding information back to management about the progress and problems teachers might have encountered in the class. When principals carry their staff along using effective communication channels in the school, the staff will feel cared for and repose high confidence in the school leadership, and thus see school programmes and activities as their own. Sharing school goals and aspirations with teachers gives them a sense of belonging and encourages them to be a part of the attainment of said goals and aspirations through shared responsibility exhibited through staff commitment and discipline.

The effective use of motivation as a relationship strategy in schools produces staff that feel loved, cared for, and appreciated. These feelings tend to increase their commitment towards school activities and the attainment of school goals. School goals at this level are expressed and measured by how well students perform in both internal and external examinations. Effective staff motivation engenders satisfied and accomplished staffers. A school head that is proactive in staff career development will constantly show concern for staff welfare, a conducive workplace, and a secure and warm school climate, for which they will always in return receive the required support from teachers working under them. This support and commitment will be displayed through their preparedness to embrace innovation and change in the school system.

Based on the conceptual model above, the study raised one research question on the level of school effectiveness in KSPSS and formulates four hypotheses which will be explored to fully grasp the relationship between staff relationship strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS. These hypotheses were all null hypotheses emphasising no significant relationship between communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS, no significant relationship between shared goal strategies and school discipline in KSPSS, no significant relationship between motivational strategies and staff satisfaction in KSPSS, and no significant relationship between career development or work balance strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS.

Methodology

This study adopts the correlation research design. This design is considered appropriate because it allows the use of correlations among variables in assessing the theoretical propositions about the variables. The population of this study comprises all teachers, principals, and vice principals of KSPSS. Specifically, the study involves schools in the Ilorin Metropolis. Thus, 20 schools were selected randomly through a lottery method from the 64 public secondary schools in Ilorin Metropolis. From each of the schools, ten teachers were selected using the convenience

sampling method to make up a total of 200 respondents, while in each sampled school one school principal and one vice principal were purposively selected from the 20 sampled schools to participate in the study. The total sample for the study, therefore, stands at 240.

The research instrument titled, "Staff Relationship Strategies and School Effectiveness Questionnaire" was used to obtain information for the study. The four-point Likert Scale was adopted because respondents' specific opinions are essential. In establishing the validity of the questionnaire, experts in the researcher's area of study at the University of Ilorin, Nigeria, were consulted to validate content of the drafted items. Based on the comments and suggestions from these experts, items that seemed to be misleading or vague were either modified or removed to ensure clarity. To affirm the reliability of the questionnaire the internal consistency Cronbach Alpha method of testing reliability was used. The instrument was administered to 20 teachers and four principals selected outside the sample area and the analysis yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.67. Descriptive statistics was used to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents and in answering the research questions raised in the study while Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient was used in testing the formulated hypotheses at an alpha level of 0.05.

Results and Discussion

As earlier mentioned, this study is interested in the level of school effectiveness in KSPSS and formulates four hypotheses to be able to fully grasp the relationship between staff relationship strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS. These hypotheses are all null hypotheses, emphasising no significant relationship between communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS, no significant relationship between shared goal strategies and school discipline in KSPSS, no significant relationship between motivational strategies and staff satisfaction in KSPSS, and no significant relationship between career development or work balance strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS.

Responses on school effectiveness in KSPSS were summed and subjected to mean analysis. The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Level of School Effectiveness in KSPSS

S/N	Variables	Mean	SD	Remark
1	School Discipline	16.23	1.89	High
2	Quality Leadership	15.35	1.32	High
3	Staff Satisfaction	15.59	1.76	High
4	Organised Environment	12.00	0.86	High
	Grand Total	**14.79**	**0.86**	**High**

Keys: Low Level = 01 – 11   High Level = 12 – 20

Results in Table 1 show the level of school effectiveness in KSPSS. As shown in the table, the level of school effectiveness in KSPSS is high, with grand mean score of 14.79.

Hypothesis One

H₁: There is no significant relationship between communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS.

Table 2: Pearson Product Moment Correlation of the Relationship between Communication Strategies and Quality Leadership in KSPSS

Variables	N	X	r - cal.	p-value	Remark

Variables	N	X		r - cal.	p-value	Remark
Communication Strategies	240	17.84				
				0.18	0.00	Significant
Quality Leadership	240	15.35				

Results in Table 2 show an r-calculated value of 0.18 and significance value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05 (0.00 < 0.05). Since 0.00 is less than a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was not accepted. This means that there was significant relationship between communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS.

Hypothesis Two

H_{O3}: There is no significant relationship between shared goal strategies and school discipline in in KSPSS.

Table 3: Pearson Product Moment Correlation of the Relationship Between Shared Goal Strategies and School Discipline in KSPSS

Variables	N	X	r - cal.	p-value	Remark
Shared Goal Strategies	240	15.64			
			0.28	0.00	Significant
School Discipline	240	16.23			

Results in Table 3 show an r-calculated value of 0.28 and significance value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05 (0.00 < 0.05). Since 0.00 is less than a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means that there was significant relationship between shared goal strategies and school discipline in KSPSS**.**

Hypothesis Three

H_3: There is no significant relationship between motivational strategies and Staff Satisfaction in KSPSS.

Table 4: Pearson Product Moment Correlation of the Relationship between Motivational Strategies and Staff Satisfaction in KSPSS

Variables	N	X	r - cal.	p-value	Remark
Motivation Strategies	240	11.79			
			0.64	0.00	Significant
Staff Satisfaction	240	12.00			

Results in Table 4 show an r-calculated value of 0.64 and significance value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05 (0.00 < 0.05). Since 0.00 is less than a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means that there was significant relationship between motivational strategies and staff satisfaction in KSPSS.

Hypothesis Four

H$_{O4}$: There is no significant relationship between career development/Work balance strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS.

Table 5: Pearson Product Moment Correlation of the Relationship between Career Development/Work balance Strategies and Student Academic Performance in KSPSS

Variables	N	X	r - cal.	p-value	Remark
Career Development /work balance Strategies	240	12.15	0.21	0.00	Significant
Students' Performance	240	39.22			

Results in Table 5 show an r-calculated value of 0.21 and significance value of 0.00, which is less than 0.05 (0.00 < 0.05). Since 0.00 is less than a 0.05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This means that there was significant relationship between career development/work balance strategies and student academic performance in KSPSS.

This study investigates staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness in KSPSS. It was revealed that the level of school effectiveness in KSPSS was high. This means that the levels of staff satisfaction, secured school environments, school discipline, and quality leadership in KSPSS were high. This result confirms the findings of Odeyemi and Roland (2015) who report a high level of school effectiveness in public secondary schools in Nigeria. Staff satisfaction denotes having a pleasurable and positive emotional state of mind after the careful appraisal of one's job experiences (Locke 2004).

Nwankwo (2014) also holds the view that the more the needs of the workers are met in an organisation, the more they are motivated to work harder. It, therefore, follows that a satisfied worker in an organisation is operating at two levels of satisfaction, namely the satisfaction of his own needs and the satisfaction of the needs of the organisation. In a proper work balance, professional development of teachers and effective staff training programmes are critical to creating an effective school (O'Brien and Macbeath,1999). As such, every school head should regard the continuous training and retraining of its teachers as an essential part of its task; schools should continue to review their effectiveness to reassure stake-holders of their responsibility. Principals often serve as the conduit through which teachers can achieve their career and personal goals.

The study shows a significant connection between staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness in KSPSS. This means that good staff relationship strategies promote school effectiveness in KSPSS. This is, however, only possible where the teachers and the school principal work in relation to the staff relationship strategies in place in their respective schools. According to Hameed (2009), there is a significant association between staff relationship strategies and school effectiveness. Good staff relationships, especially in schools, ensures that employees are given the necessary information and guidance in the performance of their duties (Brigid, 2013). The school principal performs many tasks within a short duration of a school day. Their tasks range from dealing with the parents of a sick pupil to attending to teachers' and students' needs. The most crucial of all these tasks involves providing ongoing support to teachers and other school staff members (Wilson 2007). A supportive relationship allows principals to perform all roles and responsibilities in an effective and professional manner, thus, creating mutual trust and confidence through an exchange of information that produces a working environment that is conducive to high quality services.

Staff relationship strategies within the reach of school principals includes career development strategies, communication strategies, motivation strategies, and shared goal and work balance strategies. Staff relationships have become a vital ingredient for enhancing performance and the productivity of an organisation. The management and co-ordination of human activities has become the cornerstone for achieving organisational survival. Staff relationships largely focus on the prevention of conflict and solving problems in the workplace (Aluko 2007). The relationship can be between fellow workers, between a worker and their superior, or between two members of school administration. When employees share a good relationship with each other, they are able to deliver their best to the organisation. In business management, it is usually referred to as employee relationship management. In other words, the management of interactions with employees with the aim of achieving set business goals and objectives (Leigh 2010).

Good work balance implies proper synergy between work and lifestyle. Good work balance involves separating work from pleasure and knowing when to deal with health-related issues as well as family matters. A satisfactory work balance is capable of dictating the job satisfaction of an organisation's staff. Odeyemi and Roland (2015) consider staff satisfaction as the degree to which personal needs, both material and psychological, are realised by the individual while performing the task assigned to them. According to Odeyemi and Roland (2015), individuals commonly seek job satisfaction. Workers want pleasant superiors and colleagues, responsibilities, interesting work security, adequate pay, adequate status with prospects for promotions, tasks which are commensurate with their abilities, and pleasant surroundings with good working conditions. A look at the above concept poses a challenge to personnel managers, including principals of secondary schools, as many factors can influence the job satisfaction of workers, including teachers.

The results revealed that there is a significant relationship between staff communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS. This means that good communication strategies should promote the cross-fertilisation of opinions between the school head and the staff. It should foster mutual understanding and allay unwarranted fear within the school management and the staff. Adequate and purposeful communication strategies will bring about quality leadership in work environments. This result is in line with the earlier work of Akinola (2013), who found that good leadership communication correlates with quality management. Adopting a power influence model of communication for different school circumstances would be a plus for any school principal. Direct power that involves persuading people to implement tasks which they would ordinarily not have been willing to do would be appropriate in propelling lazy teachers to work; while indirect power, that involves setting agenda and programme for teacher professional growth and progression, would motivate teachers with positive attitudes to work more (Waheed 2012). Principals need to make themselves available to staff members, whether they are busy or not. They need to provide needed advice, directions, support, and other forms of assistance whenever possible. They need to communicate and converse with their staff responsibly and effectively when the opportunity presents itself. If a principal establishes a pattern of not being available, teachers may lose confidence and trust in their leadership (Wilson 2007).

The study also finds a striking relationship between staff motivational strategies and organised public secondary schools in Kwara State. This means that motivation leads to an organised school environment. This result is possible where staff comport themselves as a result of the motivational indices available in their schools. Nwosu (2017) has correctly argued that motivation triggers good behaviour. Thus, it is established that there is an interconnection between shared goal strategies and discipline. This means that when organisational goals are shared, there is discipline in the work environment. Also, there is a strong relationship between career development strategies for teachers and high student performance in KSPSS. This implies that when the staff members of a school are given the opportunity for career development, it improves the academic performance of their students. This coincides with Ekundayo's (2004) view that the advancement of the career

of teachers influences student performance. Lastly, this foregrounds an association between good work balance strategies and staff satisfaction in KSPSS. In other words, good work balance strategies promote staff satisfaction. This is in tandem with earlier studies by Nwankwo (2014) and Taiwo (2010) that state that there was a significant association between good work balance strategies and staff satisfaction.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that the level of school effectiveness in respect to the staff relationship strategies adopted by principals in KSPSS was high. The study also noted that there was a significant relationship between communication strategies and quality leadership in KSPSS, motivational strategies and staff satisfaction in KSPSS, shared goal strategies and school discipline in KSPSS, and career development or work balance strategies and high student performance in KSPSS. Nonetheless, the study recommends, first, that school administrators should continue to work harder at creating a better organised school environment, especially reinforcing a productive school culture so that its mean contribution to school effectiveness can increase. Also, it is hoped that school administrators do not relent in the uses of various staff relationship strategies that work for them and rather equip themselves with emerging trends in human resources management.

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Identity Politics and National Integration in Nigeria: The Sexagenarian Experience

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Abstract

Nigeria celebrated sixty years of political independence in 2020 despite sustaining an array of gains and losses, especially regarding the nation's inability to manage the several identities it houses and the potential they portend for national integration. Although, having plural identities should provide an opportunity for diversity-induced development, especially having stayed together since the cultural amalgamation 106 years ago (1914-2020), and since the country's independence sixty years ago (1960-2020). This should have provided enough time frame to enable the region to solidify its cultural, lingual, ethnic, and religious differences to move towards national integration. However, the reality is contrasting, wherein peaceful coexistence and respect for rule of law are conspicuously inconsistent. This paper, thus, adopts a descriptive approach to dissect Nigeria's sixty years of independence and the role identity politics has played in instituting national integration. The paper concludes that identity politics is as a result of colonial amalgamation and is indeed the bane of national integration in Nigeria. As a result, it is recommended that the arrangement of Nigeria's governance should be restructured to represent a more united front, where the views, demands, choices, dreams, cultures, and aspirations of all groups are captured through a constitutional conference.

Keywords: National integration; identity politics; amalgamation; independence

Introduction

There is no gainsaying that in a multi-ethnic, multicultural, multi-religious, and multilingual state, such as Nigeria, serious, and mostly undue, attention is paid to diversities such as where you hail from, what your beliefs are, and more ridiculously, what language you speak. These primordial affinities are often used as a basis for power acquisition, power consolidation, and, of course, power sharing. Beyond this, there are also attendant factors that determine one's access to resources, and, in extreme cases, societal influence. This is not to posit that plural identities, *inter alia*, are solely responsible for unhealthy power contestation and/or ethnic conflagration, neither does it berate the conscious efforts and progress made by states with multiple identities. For Jega (2000: 14), identities are unifying factors in society and are instrumental in fostering dynamism in social action. They are used to direct political comportment and formulate political agendas as well as to influence political behaviour. Identities also serve as civil society tools used to check the intemperance of the state.

This paper is an attempt to appraise the Nigerian experience and its tortuous journey from political independence towards national cohesion. Nigeria, in its six-decade struggle of gaining power from the previous colonial masters, has been grappling with the attendant, albeit disintegrative, tendencies that greeted the newly formed country at independence. This is, however, not unconnected with the forceful marriage of formerly autochthonous groups, all of whom struggled, and are still struggling, for relevance, dominance, and, of course, political supremacy. This is because, in a bid to satisfy their economic thirst and further their imperialistic stronghold, the British overlords ignored the diverse religious, ethnic, cultural, and lingual orientations of the existing ethnic groups. The result of this has not been far-fetched from the unhealthy entrenchment of identity politics, an ethnic crisis, marginalisation, civil war, coups, counter-coups, assassination, political instability, mutual suspicion, threats of secession, and, more disturbingly, national disintegration. This view was echoed by Ojo (2014: 6), who avers that the forceful merger of the various groups in Nigeria under the coordination of the British colonialists for administrative convenience engendered political discordancy, with each group left in a state of fait accompli.

The result of this dissociated stance toward the creation has continued to fan the embers of disintegration, violence, and commotion, which threatens to put the country in to a state of political comatose. Ebegbulem (2011: 76) in explaining the prevalence of identity consciousness in Nigeria posits that the colonial tripartite apportionment of Nigeria prevented the aforementioned groups from developing a national identity and, instead, became a motivation for stressing geographical borders and other peculiarities, such as religion and ethnicity, for the acquisition of political power. This trend gave rise to ethnic nationalism, regional politics, and ethno-political consciousness. There is no doubt that the British administration, in a calculated attempt, exalted ethnic nationalism to truncate the rise of a national identity. Beyond the consequent political exhaustion that goes hand in hand with domination, the south is also behind the curve in terms of political representation, thus, giving impetus to unhealthy contests for power with far-reaching implications for national integration.

The idea flowing from the submissions above is that as a plural society, Nigeria, is home to distinct ethnic, religious, and cultural groups, all of which contend for resources and seek to assert their identities, sometimes at the expense of the others. The result is that this unpleasant trend continues to plunge the country into a cesspit of an intractable political chasm which, not only threatens the prolonged existence of political union, but also debilitates national integration. The study introduces the colonial heritage of amalgamation as the precursor to identity politics, which in turn threatens national integration in Nigeria. This paper adopts a descriptive approach and relies on secondary data, primarily sourced from textbooks, journal articles, conference papers, government publications, and newspapers for relevant information. It is argued that in an effort to assert their interests, groups espouse identity politics to protect said interests, often to the detriment of other groups. This practice, which is capable of inciting conflict, violence, or violent-conflict, is not only inimical to democratic tenets, but as seen in the Nigerian case, is detrimental to national integration (Lenshie 2014: 158).

Clarification of Concepts

Identity – Your identity is not just who you assume yourself to be or the ideals you nourish, it is who you are. Elebeke (2010: 22) defines identity as a two-edged process which lays at the core of an individual and is pivotal to their communal beliefs. Identity connotes the possession of distinctive identifying characteristics exclusive to an individual or a thing. In other words, it is a typical denominator by which a person or thing is perceived. According to Wonah (2016: 4), identity surmises selfsameness and identicalness. When expounded, this portends that an

individual or an ethnic group may have defining features, qualities, cultural mannerisms, economic status, and realities, among other things, to which they are attached. These cursors tell a particular group apart from several other groups and, of course, becomes an underlying factor in the group's identity projection.

Onyibor (2016: 2) maintains that identity is a sense of individuality which becomes ingrained as a child distinguishes itself from its parents and family to assume a definite societal role. It refers to the consciousness of oneself and self-significance. Identity emanates from class, sexuality, ethnicity, and nationality, among other things. Identity could as well be individualised or affiliated to social groups with whom the individual identifies. Identity may be defined as a sense of belonging shared by a group of people having common history, beliefs, and values exhibited towards attaining a common goal. It is the notion of who we are, contrasted against who we are not. It is a sense of 'us', a sense of 'they', and a sense of 'self', often acquired at birth and exhibited throughout one's lifetime, and in the midst of several other identities.

Identity politics – Given that identity attracts the struggle for relevance, competition thus becomes an integral part of the relationship between various groups in society, with each group keenly pursuing its interests. These interests, when not managed and coordinated, are capable of disrupting the political system and jeopardising the mutual existence of the varied interest groups. It is upon this premise that identity politics is engendered. Identity politics is the deliberate attempt by a group to assert its identity and protect its interests above other contending interests (Wonah 2016: 5). Alubo (2006: 65), avers that identity politics is used to signify the process in politics of grouping and classifying people into clusters given their shared and apparent parallels. The point of vocalisation is that identity, apart from the collective trait, generally raises questions on the uniqueness of citizen-based communal values and dogmas because of its inclusive and exclusive nature.

Although, it would be over simplistic to opine that in all cases, identity politics promotes selfish interest. If properly managed, identity politics can be a stabilising force in a plural society by creating much-needed awareness and the objective conditions necessary for national integration (Oni 2008: 330). Yet, it is obvious that identity politics is a peculiar feature of Nigerian politics. This is mainly the result of inequity in terms of power and resource distribution in post-colonial Nigeria. As put by Obi (2001: 14), in Nigeria, the results of amalgamation have been precarious and exacerbated by socioeconomic crises, dictatorship, and inequality, which characterises the unequal distribution of power in an ethnically plural and oil-dependent state. These constraints have not only fuelled identity politics but have knitted it with violence and conflict.

National integration – Osimen *et al*. (2013: 80) define national integration as the bringing together of people of different racial or ethnic groups into unrestricted and equal association, as in society or an organisation. It is the process through which people living within the geographic boundaries of a country forget their difference of race, religion, and language and feel the spirit of unity and allegiance to their nation. National integration reduces socio-cultural differences or inequalities and strengthens national unity and solidarity, which is not imposed by any authority. People share ideas, values, and emotional bonds. It is the feeling of unity within diversity wherein a national identity is supreme. National integration in Nigeria is the bringing together of the different ethnic, racial, religious, economic, social, and political groups into unhindered, equal, and balanced association on national issues.

According to Onyibor (2016: 3), national integration refers to the growth of an incorporated and lucid national identity and awareness in a mixed society in which all citizens are given a fair

chance to achieve their maximum potential. Members are given a sense of belonging, irrespective of where they come from. National integration enhances the chances of creating firmer loyalties that displace parochial loyalties to ethnic cleavages. National integration in a multi-ethnic society, theoretically, is a process of building a new society and social order based on justice and fair play to all its members, no matter their ethnic group, language, or religion. According to Ibodje and Dode (2007: 3), integration connotes the pre-existence of heterogeneity, whether ethnic, political, economic, sociocultural, or lingual; the lack of which can impede the process of building a sense of national homogeneity. National integration describes a situation whereby the various ethnic groups understand the adequacies and otherwise of the groups and are willing to put up with each other in an ambience of compromise and reciprocity. Therefore, national integration is the ability of the groups in Nigeria to stay committed to the ideals of unity by guaranteeing equal opportunities and promoting the affirmation of the identities of the various groups.

Identity Politics in Nigeria as a Corollary of British Amalgamation

The ordeals of identity politics in Nigeria did not start today. Rather, its complexities bear root in an experiment carried out in 1894 by Lord Lugard, who was reassigned to the British government from the Royal East African Company, having worked with the East Indian Company (Ojo 2014: 3). Before May 1906, the North, East, and West of Nigeria had distinctive administrative structures, as overseen by the British Empire. In an attempt to correct this administrative difference, the 1914 amalgamation engendered another anomaly by drawing an erroneous boundary which, as seen during Biafra agitation, gave rise to internal demarcation challenges. The 1914 experiment, overseen by Lord Lugard, has no doubt attracted many unsatisfactory appellations, such as the, "mistake of 1914" by Ahmadu Bello (1953), the Sardauna of Sokoto, and "a mere geographical expression" by Chief Obafemi Awolowo (1947). Meanwhile, General Yakubu Gowon (1966) also retorted that, "the basis of unity was no longer there" (Mohammed 2013: 450 and Obi-Ani *et al*. 2016: 30). Mohammed (2013: 451) notes that, as a result of Northern and Southern provinces' amalgamation in 1914, an indirect rule system, which was operational in the Northern province, was replicated in the South thus furthering colonial rule in all of the provinces.

The political formation of Nigeria by the British was not purposed for the creation of a nation-state in its real sense. Rather, it was a ploy to make easy the daunting task of administering the provinces. As Ojo (2014: 6) puts it, the effects of the amalgamation in local administration was felt more in the north compared to the south. In other words, the north stood at an advantaged point where it benefitted from the prosperity of the south, even though the south had to watch and learn from the north's political experience and know-how. Beyond this, amalgamation resulted in an unbalanced topographical dispersion between the north and south, whereby the north was apportioned a larger artificial land boundary which it took advantage of in resource allocation. This placed the south at a great disadvantage. A cursory look at the Nigerian geographic landscape and its eventual partition shows, without a doubt, that more than half of the entire topography is allotted to the Northern region. This unequal partitioning gave the north undue advantage of political representation, and this has been a major motivation for ethnic rivalry and political contention in the country.

For instance, the political impropriety arising from this is found in the present Nigerian National Assembly, of 109 member, and House of Representatives, of 360 members, where the majority of the seats belong to politicians of Northern origin, thus making it difficult for the Southern representatives to influence a bill as the north repeatedly uses its numerical strength to either kill or influence the passage of a bill, depending on how well it aligns with its interests. Unfortunately,

this did not begin today. In 1950, there was a disagreement between the North and South (consisting of Eastern and Western regions) over the former's demand for half of the seats in the House of Representatives and the use of population as the basis for revenue allocation, which occurred at the Ibadan general conference. Of course, these demands were strongly opposed to by both the Eastern and Western regions. In spite of their resistance, the conference allocated half of the seats in the central legislature to the Northern region, thus, invariably creating a strategic concession of power to the North (Akinbade 2008).

This aberrational arrangement of political anomaly gave rise to most of the post-independent challenges faced in the country in the modern age, such as military interregnum, ethnic tension, ethnic agitation, and identity politics. According to Adegbami and Uche (2013: 60), there has been a recurring contest for power by various ethnic groups in Nigeria. These contests are either fought by the dominant ethnic groups (Hausa, Yoruba, and Igbo) or by the minorities (Niger Delta communities, communities in Kaduna, and communities in the Middle-Belt) over an unrestricted access to the control of natural resources, both at state and national levels. The implication of this is that each group has only minded and fought to protect its own interest and identity, without regard for national integration or national identity, whilst deepening the wounds of disintegration and making it difficult to heal. It is as a result of this that several groups within the polity have used marginalisation as a defence in their calls for a breakup, breakaway, or secession from the union. The Nigerian elite, rather than sheath its sword of domination, has favoured the use of coercion through the state apparatus to increase political gain, whilst seeking refuge in ethnic affiliation and whipping up sentiments rooted in identity politics to cover up its actions (Bariledum and Serebe 2013: 169).

Furthermore, another consequence of amalgamation is the formation of ethnic-based political parties, whereby, ethnic groups team up against one another so as to control the political affairs of Nigeria. During the Second Republic, Northern led political parties joined forces against Chief Obafemi Awolowo of Action Group (AG) in Southwestern Nigeria, labelling it a Yoruba political ethnic group; and this was the case with other regions. The Northern Elements Progressive Union (NEPU) and Northern People's Congress (NPC) was dominated by politicians of Northern origin, while the National Council for Nigerian Citizens (NCNC) was formed by the Igbos in the East, giving basis for ethnic politics and ethnic nationalism (Ebegbulem 2011: 76). All of these transcended the political domain and cascaded into other areas in the country. For instance, there was an unprecedented prevalence of sectionalism in appointments, promotions, and transfers, especially in the military. These occurrences provoked identity consciousness and mutual suspicion among major and minority ethnic groups. According to Adegbami and Uche (2015: 65), merit was jettisoned for a quota-based system for admission of students and the appointment of head teachers into schools. As a result, junior teachers from the North were placed ahead of their seniors in the South. The military also did not help matters, as it deliberately subverted and eroded democratic principles and amplified the already rife ethnic apprehension and trepidation. This, no doubt, birthed violent conflicts that foreshadow the tearing apart of the country.

As Mbalisi (2017: 83) puts it, the period between 1945 and 1959 saw the desire for power at its high and the era became branded by scheming, as political leaders at this time were more interested in advancing their financial and political empires, thence sacrificing nationalism for regionalism and identity politics. The political scenery at this time was dominated by Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe and Chief Obafemi Awolowo. Dr. Azikiwe, Zik as he was popularly called, joined the National Council of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC), which was made up of two trade unions, two political parties, eight professional bodies, eleven social clubs, and 101 tribal unions. The Yoruba in the NCNC were petrified of Igbo domination and denied Zik the opportunity to represent the

Western House in the Federal House in 1951, a position he would have attained with ease. This practice of identity politics pushed Zik far and he went home and expelled Eyo Ita from the NCNC in 1952. As a result, Eyo and his people left the party (Ogugua 2004: 121). This situation was to play out in successive elections and had gravitated Nigeria towards civil war. During the post independent era, most, if not all the political parties had subscribed to identity politics. For instance, the Nigerian Peoples Party (NPP), National Party of Nigeria (NPN), and the Unity Party of Nigeria (UPN) were all tribal parties initially. Each was formed by a group of people from the east, north, and west, respectively (Ojo 2014: 16).

Above all, the peaceful atmospheric ambience that would have otherwise been enjoyed by the various ethnic groups in Nigeria was truncated by the British colonial amalgamation, which forced them together into a non-consensual union of British convenience. This has dealt an indelible blow of colossal proportion to the integration of these diverse, distinctive, and plural groups; as each group has repeatedly accused one another of being a predator denying access to equitable representation in Nigerian democratic politics.

Identity Politics and the Challenge of National Integration in Nigeria

In spite of the nation's rich endowments in both human and natural resources, Nigeria is still being characterised by its underdevelopment and is yet to be unclassified as a third world country or developing country. As Onyibor (2016: 4) notes, one of the factors that has prevented this is Nigeria's lack of national integration and its weak national identity. His argument is hinged on the presumption that national identity is necessary for progress and development, and every country needs the support and cooperation of its citizens. With a unified or national identity, the country will be better suited to work with its citizens to assert its place in the continent and defend its big brother role, as well as justify having the biggest economy in Africa. This is possible considering the vast human and natural resources that the country possesses. Indeed, to assume our role as the "giant of Africa", Nigeria needs to forge and project a national identity.

Citizens' apathy and structural weakness becomes increasingly pronounced in a heterogeneous society like Nigeria when citizens become detached from and dispirited towards their country. The resultant indifference and apathy are inimical to progress and entrenches underdevelopment. Indeed, the progress and development of a nation is inherent in citizens' participation and commitment to the country. It is in realisation of this that the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, as amended, states that, "the fundamental objectives and directive principle of the government policy should be to promote the people's welfare and that the people are supreme and that is to say sovereignty belongs to the people" (Onyibor 2016: 4). It further states that, "the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government". Conversely, the bitter politics of identity ingrained by colonial rule has inhibited political advancement in Nigeria, causing groups and their members to believe that they have unmistakable and persistent enemies in the country, leading to incessant calls for disintegration (Raheem *et al*. 2014: 166).

Meanwhile, the calls for disintegration seems to be longstanding. For instance, as Obi-Ani *et al.* (2016: 29) document, the demand for the disintegration of Nigeria dates back to the era of nationalist movements in Nigeria. Many ethnic groups in Nigeria had called for the divorce of this union. From pioneers of independence movements to this present generation, the agitations for separatism have continued unabated. In the early 1940s, at the peak of nationalism, some had already lost faith in this union called Nigeria. Comments and attacks against the union remain

predominant. According to Meredith (2011: 77), in 1948, Sir Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, who was to become the Prime Minister of Nigeria, commented that:

> "Since 1914 the British government has been trying to make Nigeria into one country but the Nigerian people themselves are historically different in their backgrounds, in their religious beliefs and customs and do not show themselves any signs of willingness to unite… Nigerian unity is only a British invention."

Meredith (2011: 77) also records that, Chief Obafemi Awolowo, the doyen of Western Nigerian politics, wrote in a book that:

> "Nigeria is not a nation. It is a mere geographical expression. There are no "Nigerians" in the same sense as there are 'English', 'Welsh' or 'French'. The word Nigerian is merely a distinctive appellation to distinguish those who live within the boundaries of Nigeria and those who do not."

The above signifies the condemnations of the nationalists who had vast followers that looked up to them to navigate the ship of this country to a safe and unified harbour. Such comments, rather than unify, tend to deepen disunity and our differences. The differences in culture and political institutions of the various groups added to the ethnic and religious tensions and rivalries. The crack in this union has been noticeable since the merger in 1914. Even the colonial administrators after Lugard shared such cynical views about the insolubility of the Nigerian state. The British administrators from 1922 to 1948 saw that the amalgamation was never intended to unite the various component units. They did not anticipate that a united and independent Nigeria could emerge for a very long time. Obi-Ani *et al*. (2016: 30) states that:

> "The day when Nigeria from being a name written on a map by Sir George Goldie and an administrative framework put together by Lord Lugard becomes a true federation still more a nation is still far away."

According to Obi-Ani *et al.* (2016: 31), the asymmetrical development of the various groups is yet another factor that has set the stage for the demands for dissolution. Due to its formation, western influence has unequally impacted upon the people of Nigeria. It was from Lagos that western influence spread into the western region from as early as the 1860s. The result of the protective policies of George Goldie, Lord Lugard, and their successors were that such influences had very little impact upon the Muslim North. These spatial differences in western penetration in the areas of communication, hospitals, education, housing, public works, sanitation facilities, and other aspects of modern civilisation had bred identity competition and rivalry between the late comers and early starters. The result was that, as Nigeria moved towards self-government, some politically exposed leaders became aware of the positions of the groups and regions on such westernising influences.

The above events still haunt Nigeria a century after and the thrust for integration seems weakened with the passage of time. The calls for dissolution resonate at every corner, giving impetus to the bourgeoning of identity politics. It is, therefore, imperative to appraise other factors that have culminated into present-day national integration, or disintegration. National integration in Nigeria is expressively threatened by persistent struggles for the control of national wealth by the ethnic groups in the country, which makes the absence of homogeneity a preeminent national problem. Nigeria, a miscreation which exemplifies the vestige of colonial arrogance, has sectionalism as the blight of its development. This finds interpretation in the historic system of rule and domination

created by the colonial powers which enabled the colonialists to arrogate power to itself whilst bloating ethnic identity formation and its consequent political use (Anugwom 2000: 71; Onyibor 2016: 5; and Orji 2001: 482).

What is being iterated here is that the British colonialists adopted the policy of divide and rule for political-cum-administrative subjugation, and in the process, truncated the fluidity of identity consciousness between and among the various tribes and regions in Nigeria to create an intransigent identity relation between these groups. This was made possible by the Colonialists' reliance on the subjective research of Nigeria's anthropologists who ranked the ethnic groups according to their characteristics and cultures as believed to be seemly for political ascendancy (Oni 2008: 46 and Onwudiwe 2011:1).

Identity politics and its attendant implications for national integration can also be viewed in the context of the activities of the political elites. The ruling elite, using their various groups, laid the foundation for the bolstering of an ethnic group dichotomy which has repeatedly strengthened mutual distrust, suspicion, and fear among the various ethnic groups in Nigeria. This has also made the efforts towards forging a platform for national identity and integration in Nigeria exhausting and less rewarding. This stands at the core of identity consciousness, identity chauvinism, and identity politics by each group to secure a place in the control of the nation's resources. To be specific, the political-cum-economic struggle by various ethnic groups in Nigeria over the control of political power and natural resources has not waned. This has continued unabated since the attaining of independence in 1960, six decades ago (Ebegbulem 2012: 17; Nnoli 2008; and Ter-Abagen 2016:18).

Raheem *et al*. (2014: 164) posit that the political-economic activities of the few Nigerian elites and petit bourgeoisie who took over the administration of the country after political independence in 1960 undoubtedly perpetuated the development of spatial inequalities. This, coupled with identity, has now taken shape as different forms of violence and periods of crisis in. As a result, these spatial identity-based politics created fears during the 1950s in the period preceding independence. As Chukwuma *et al*. (2018: 66) aver, the anxiety of domination and the struggle among rival groups over the issues of power sharing is a non-negligible part of the causes of identity politics in Nigeria; which comprises of groups competing, not only for resources within the political landscape, but also for the assertion of their various identities.

Commenting on the place of regional inequalities, as the cause of identity-based politics in Nigeria, Raheem *et al*. (2014: 164) asserts that the present overwhelming regional inequalities that are products of agitations are likely to have evolved during a one hundred-year (1861-1960) period in Nigeria. The implication is that any society where the regional imbalance is noticed, there is the tendency for agitations by groups which are traceable to the cumulative activities of the ruling elites in that society. Chukwuma *et al.* (2018: 66) argues that identity politics is nothing new because politics, at its emergence in human history, is based on identities, and all identities are political. Therefore, what underlines the rationale for every decision in politics, whether in the developed or developing countries, is identity. That is why identity politics have constituted the fulcrum of all human history as related to the governance of men. Odeyemi (2014: 87) concludes that the failure of the various tribal groups to negotiate their amalgamation is the root of many tribal wrangling and agitations, ethnic hues, and cries of marginalisation, greed, controversy and inconclusive censuses, vote rigging, stagnated economic growth, and nepotism in Nigeria, and not necessarily its huge territory and population size with its multifarious ethnic groupings.

Although, it would be unfair to state boldly that the political elites are oblivious of the challenges to national integration and have not made efforts to curtail them. For instance, in a bid to address these challenges in Nigeria, laudable steps have been taken, such as the creation of states and the institutionalisation of land use decreed to strengthen Nigeria's unity; the creation of National Youth service Corps (NYSC) to promote the interaction among graduates in the country; the initiation of Federal Character Principle for fair representation in positions of power; the relocation of the Federal Capital Territory from Lagos to Abuja; readjusting the revenue sharing formula to quell the violence ravaging the oil rich Niger Delta; the National Policy on Tertiary Education; the establishment of unity Schools; and the introduction of a uniform Local Government system in Nigeria (Ojo, 2009: 392; Onifade and Imhonopi 2013: 78; Ugoh and Ukpere 2012: 6775).

As expected, identity politics keeps rearing its ugly head to thwart each of the aforementioned efforts or programmes. For instance, in spite of the Land Use Decree, Nigerians are discriminated against from buying certain pieces of land on the grounds of their ethnic and religious identity. Even the revered NYSC scheme has been troubled by cronyism and favouritism in the posting of corps members. The Federal Character Principle is fraught with mediocrity, corruption, and seen as stimulating volatility rather than integration. The siting of the FCT at Abuja is regarded as, "a revenge project" belonging to the north. Admission to Nigerian tertiary institutions and the Unity schools are characterised by quota systems with undue preferences given to the educationally disadvantaged, mostly from the north (Ojo 2009: 392; Ugoh and Ukpere 2012: 6778; Onifade and Imhonopi 2013: 78).

By implication, identity politics has engendered a deep-seated structural inequality in the distribution of resources, employment, education, and the sharing of power, resulting in uneven development, resource and power imbalance, sheer distrust, and unhealthy competition for resources. This continually puts national integration in Nigeria at its brink.

Discussion and Recommendations

To be sure, the first step towards filling the missing link or providing research answers is identifying the problem. Having traced identity politics in Nigeria to British amalgamation, it is only reasonable to recommend the renegotiation of collective existence. A conference should be held to decide on the need to continue living as a Nation. The opportunity of setting the terms of the country's union, which conspicuously eluded us in 1914, should be given while the grievances of the various identity groups can be addressed with the view of engendering an environment that recognises such distinctiveness. In line with this context, the authors propose the restructuring of the Nigerian arrangement to a more united front where all groups' views, demands, choices, dreams, cultures, and aspirations are captured in a new constitutional conference that reflects the willingness of all the participants to stay together. Indeed, this will change the narrative of blaming the 1914 British experiment.

More so, a broad-based reorientation should be organised to annihilate the trees of discord that have grown so much, as planted by our founding fathers, who were raging ethnic nationalists, and thus correct the 1914 abomination of proportional consequence. This reorientation exercise should have, as its major focus, the Nigerian youth who have been erroneously indoctrinated into identity politics, identity differences, and national disintegrative discourse. The 774 Local Government Areas in Nigeria should establish and fund leadership institutes. In addition to this, the usefulness of the institutes should be emphasised for the Nigerian youth so as inform them of the relevance of the institute for societal and political rehabilitation, with national integration as the ultimate goal.

The culture of economic, political, and administrative responsibility should be entrenched in all government offices, either at the local, state, or federal levels. This will reduce widespread corruption to a minimum. This is attributable to the fact that the competitive rivalry displayed by various identity groups is due to the perceived benefits accruable in politics in Nigeria. Reducing these benefits will make politics unattractive to the greedy political elites. Serious emphasis should be placed on a merit system against the quota system currently being used in the admissions process to Unity schools and for securing appointments in federal government parastatals and agencies. Rather than stressing the oddity of state of origin, state of residence should instead be entrenched in Nigeria. Doing this will de-emphasise separatism and identity politics as well as promote homogeneity and foster a national identity.

Sequel to the above, a priority should be placed on developing a national identity where the emphasis is no longer on identifying with one's family, ethnic group, or religion, but on national identity as a belief in one's membership of a nation state. With this, people will no longer look at themselves as belonging to any component unit within the country but as belonging to the country (Nigeria). When a person is endeared to their country and is ready to sacrifice their personal interests for the sake of national interest, patriotism will increase and the efforts towards national integration will be greatly rewarded. Good governance and equity should become the nation's target. The challenges of identity politics, ethnic crisis, marginalisation, civil war, coups, countercoups, assassination, political instability, mutual suspicion, threats of secession, and national disintegration, as previously identified, are partly as a result of bad governance. A country enmeshed in bad governance is a breeding ground for poverty, armed robbery, kidnapping, militancy, insurgency, ethnic cleansing, and terrorism, as is currently being experienced in Nigeria. As a result, government should ensure equity in the delivery of social services to the citizens by engaging the services of civil society organisations.

The practice of federalism in Nigeria suffers due to the absence of fiscal federalism, unproductive states, an over-centralisation of power, and the absence of a state police, among other things. More significantly, federalism in Nigeria has failed to guarantee national integration on one hand and fails to guarantee local rule on the other hand. Thus, attention should be paid to devolution of powers to the constituent units to make them viable, productive, and competitive while fiscal federalism should be the watchword. As such, government should commit to the practice of federalism in its true form by creating a platform for an all-inclusive dialogue between the various ethnic nationalities in the country. Equitable distribution of resources between the federating units and the decentralisation of power should also be ensured. The principle of self-determination and creation of more states should be encouraged to allow for a balanced federation and improved grassroots development.

Grassroots development and improved service delivery should be ensured. This will, in addition to engendering a healthy democracy, improve living standards which will ultimately reduce people's resentment for the government. This is important because local governments influence the civic spaces in which people live, work, and interact, and is thus close to the people and more appropriate for the improvement of essential services delivery. If there is any time to restructure, it is now. Government should de-emphasise its reliance on oil and invest more in human capital. By so doing, the country will adequately take advantage of its teeming population for inclusive development. A serious commitment to all of the afore-stated policy recommendations are a noteworthy sexagenarian gift.

Conclusion

As a country, Nigeria has come a long way in spite of the circumstances surrounding its formation. It is unquestionable that, in creating Nigeria, the various ethnic groups were lumped together without regard for their consent, interest, or approval. With respect to the objectives of this paper, identity politics is as a result of colonial amalgamation and is indeed the bane of national integration in Nigeria. Meanwhile, the overwhelming challenges of identity politics makes national integration problematic. The political scenery has been dominated by an unrepentant breed of selfish and avaricious political elites who, in their bid to compete for and elongate their hold on power, stress the identity differences of their group whilst demonising other groups. This, coupled with endemic corruption, has deepened the alienation and estrangement among several identity groups in the country. A classic example of this is the constant daily banter and e-wars that Nigerian youth engage in on the pages of social media. The danger here is that Nigerian youth who should be instructive in the drive towards national integration have been prematurely conscripted into identity wars that predate their conception; who then will see to the realisation of the integrative dream?

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