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Threaded Discussions in the Online and Hybrid Learning Format: An Examination of their Effectiveness from the Students’ Perspective

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Abstract

With more and more institutions of higher education offering approximately 30% of their courses in the online format, there is an ongoing effort to improve the delivery and quality of course instruction. This study focused on one aspect of online course design in particular—namely, threaded discussions. Nominal and ordinal data were gathered through a researcher-developed, QuestionPro 23-item survey. Efforts were made to draw comparisons between instructional effectiveness and student appreciation of threaded discussions in both the Fully Online and the Hybrid format. Results indicate that students generally enjoy engaging in the required threaded discussions but are somewhat neutral about their effectiveness and usefulness. When given the option between a written assignment or a threaded discussion, students showed a clear preference for threaded discussions. The study results also indicate a greater preference for the use of threaded discussions in the fully online format as opposed to the hybrid format; however, when students are confronted the option of with taking a course in either the traditional, face-to-face format or an online or hybrid format, a definite preference was shown for the traditional course format.

Keywords: Online learning, Blended learning, Hybrid course, Full online course, Synchronous, Asynchronous, Learning Management Systems (LMS).

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


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**INTRODUCTION**

Online learning, since its early beginnings, has included two formats for faculty-to-student interaction: Synchronous and Asynchronous. ‘Synchronous learning’ refers to a learning environment where everyone takes part at the same time. Before the advent of online learning, the classroom lecture was an example of synchronous learning in a face-to-face environment, with learners and teachers all participating in the same place at the same time. In the online learning environment, synchronous instruction can be replicated through Chat Rooms and real-time video connections like SKYPE, Wimba and Blackboard’s Collaborate. ‘Asynchronous’ means that, although the inputs are posted in near real time, the distribution of the students’ availability spreads out their interactions over time. The postings cumulatively build on each other even if their inputs are not always sequential. By definition, a threaded discussion is an online, asynchronous, usually faculty-led, student exchange forum. By nature of their construction, interactions in threaded discussions should be as immediate as any verbal discussions in a classroom. Threaded discussions, when done correctly, however, should be more deliberate and insightful than a chat room or real-time video exchange. By contrast, synchronous applications result in exchanges that tend to be fast, shallow and not fully thought-through (Bouchat, 2006).

The threaded discussion platforms that are built into any of the Learning Management Systems (LMS), such as eCollege, BlackBoard Desire2Learn, reinforces the academic discussion and Socratic method by saving all postings for later review, reflection and discussion. These LMS systems are also used to deliver course content in a hybrid format along with the fully online format. Hybrid or Blended are names commonly used to describe courses in which some traditional face-to-face instruction has been replaced by online learning activities. Although the definition of a ‘hybrid course’ differs from institution to institution, it is generally accepted that the amount of online instruction should be in the range of 30-40%. The purpose of a hybrid course is to take advantage of the best features of both face-to-face and online learning. The fundamental difference between a hybrid and a fully online course, aside from the face-to-face instruction, is in the use and applications of the various instructional tools available in the LMS platform. Generally speaking, hybrid courses tend to do less of the synchronous instructional activities, such as live video and chat rooms. They do however, make extensive use of other instructional tools like dropboxes, gradebooks and asynchronous applications like threaded discussions.

This threaded discussion structure should allow students to easily navigate, participate, and reference items during the discussion. A number of studies have been completed in recent years comparing the online learning format to the traditional, face-to-face classroom. Most of these studies reported that the online learning format compared favorably in areas of interest, motivation and student academic success (Shelley et al., 2008; Swartz et al., 2010). Seventy-seven percent of academic leaders rate the learning outcomes in online education as the same as, or superior to, those achieved face-to-face (Sloan Report, 2012). A report on discussion boards and online learning from the University of Oregon (2010) indicates that online educators who use threaded discussion boards estimate that their interaction with students can be three times greater than in traditional face-to-face student discussions.

Threaded discussions will certainly increase in usage for both the connectivity of online cyber students and the learning outcomes and assessment of the individual course content. All of the major LMS systems in use in higher education today offer extensive tools, applications and the functionality to develop high-quality and effective threaded discussions in both fully online and hybrid courses. It is the responsibility of the course instructor to post and design threaded discussion forums that provide provocative questions or scenarios. This should be followed by a student’s initial posting and then ongoing interaction with their classmates. The course instructor, after setting up a logical pre-planned forum that is tailored to each discussion, then becomes the lead facilitator who needs to set up a logical pre-planned forum that is tailored for each discussion. It is ultimately the responsibility of the course instructor to make the necessary discussion summaries and student evaluations and assessments. The students’ contribution to the exchange is also similar to that of a traditional in-classroom lesson, where the students are actively engaged in the
discussion. In other words, students prepare beforehand to discuss the topics intelligently and make an effort to participate by directly addressing the questions as posted. Students should build upon other students’ inputs, and further extend the discussion through reasoned debate. Threaded discussions tend to be more productive when they include relevant personal experiences and additional references.

Asynchronous threaded discussions basically alter the typical course-related time factor. A traditional classroom discussion on a given topic among students may require from a few minutes to an hour; yet, that same group of students in an online or hybrid class might take seven days or more to complete the same discussion asynchronously. The positive aspect of the online threaded discussion is that it affords busy students the opportunity to integrate their academic course requirements with their personal and professional lives.

In a study that drew some comparisons between traditional classroom discussions and online threaded discussions (Meyer, 2003), it was found that students liked the expanded time element of the threaded discussion; however, they also occasionally became frustrated by the length of time over which they were required to check and recheck the postings as they accumulated. Students concluded that an online forum allowed them to prepare better responses as well as repost and modify their positions; however, they complained that they sometimes lost interest due to the drawn-out nature of the communication and commitment to the forum. The students also indicated an appreciation for the online threaded discussion in that it allowed them a chance to freely have their say and defend their position(s). The students in this study also appreciated being able to think and reflect before posting in the online format. Students and instructors also appreciated being able to participate in an ongoing discussion online as opposed to the sometimes-frequent scenario of the class ending before the discussion had reached its conclusion (Raleigh, 2000).

When correctly constructed, threaded discussion forums and/or discussion boards should be viewed by students as a community. For the discussion to be effective and meaningful, the entire class must be fully engaged and become major contributors to the discussion. By their very nature, threaded discussions create the community or “virtual gathering” necessary for the construction of knowledge (Kymes, 2005). In a study done by Wosley and Grisham (2006), it was determined that the quality of student responses in threaded discussions build better learning communities than those in the traditional face-to-face classroom discussions. A similar study by Bouchat (2006) reported that threaded discussions can create discourse among students that actually builds knowledge and keeps their learning focused. Other positive factors include the anonymity that it affords to students, which may promote honesty and more personal responses. Also, if the instructor wishes, messages can be composed, posted and revised as needed. Often, as the discussion evolves, students will want to modify or change their previous positions on a topic.

As online learning – in both fully online and hybrid course offerings – has become increasingly commonplace in higher-education academic programs, national projections are showing that they currently comprise approximately 30-35% of university course offerings on average. The 2012 Survey of Online Learning found that the number of students taking at least one online course has now surpassed 6.7 million. Thirty-two percent of higher-education students now take at least one course online (Allen & Seaman, 2012). With this obvious trend toward more academic offerings in the fully online format, there will certainly be more and more research done that examines the effectiveness and the academic integrity of this learning format.

There has been an ongoing debate concerning the effectiveness and overall student learning that results from threaded discussions in both fully online and hybrid course offerings. One of the negative aspects pointed out by researchers is the lack of normal human interaction, i.e., facial expressions and physical gestures associated with regular discussions. In addition, long extended threaded discussions can become overwhelming and hard for some students to follow. These students may begin to feel detached and uninvolved in the discussion, thereby causing low participation (Kreijns et al., 2002). Chen and Zimitat (2004), in addition to finding a greater degree of overall participation in threaded discussions than in traditional classroom discussions, also found that participation was often limited to the instructor’s basic requirements. In other words, many of the participants did just the minimum number of requirements to
satisfy the instructor’s assessment of the thread. Vonderwall (2002) found that students frequently chose not to add anything new to the discussion because their ideas were similar to those, which were already posted. It seems that the threaded discussion, by its very nature, may encourage students to agree with each other and not challenge the conventional thinking or popular theme in an online discussion (Kanuka, 2006). It was the intent of this study to ascertain students’ perception of the effectiveness and usefulness of threaded discussions in both the fully online and the hybrid formats.

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Sample and Population

The 23-question survey was administered to students at the graduate and undergraduate levels in two universities. Participants included students from a Private University with an enrollment of over 6,000 students and one State University with an enrollment of over 7,000 students. Of the 414 students who were given the survey, 385 completed it; thus, a completion rate of 92% was achieved. Ninety percent of the participants completed the survey using a desktop or laptop computer; 4% of the participants completed the survey on a Smartphone and 6% on a selected Tablet.

The first three questions were demographic in nature. Of the 414 students completing the survey, 325 (78.50%) were full-time and 89 (21.50%) part-time; there were 92 (22.28%) male and 322 (77.72%) female. The majority of participants were graduate students (31.31%) with the remainder distributed almost equally from freshmen through seniors. A small percentage (2.67%) of doctoral students also completed the survey. The breakdown of the current academic level of participants is displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Academic levels of survey participants

The data for this research study was gathered from a 23-question structured survey designed by the researchers. The survey was developed using QuestionPro, which also provides data analysis and interpretation (see Appendix A). The survey was used in a pilot project in the summer of 2013 and refined for this study. In addition, it was reviewed and validated by the Internal Review Board (IRB) experts at both participating institutions. Further analyses were performed using SPSS and Excel. Participants were invited to participate through instructor solicitation and via emails. The students’ involvement in the study was completely voluntary and autonomous.
Only those participants who had participated in one or more Fully Online course(s) and one or more Hybrid course(s) were targeted for this study. Questions 5 and 6 asked participants how many Fully Online and Hybrid courses they had taken, respectively. If the participant answered “0” to either or both of these questions, then the survey ended and took them to a “Thank You” message. The remainder of the survey dealt directly with aspects of threaded discussions in course applications and student learning. There was a final, open-ended, qualitative question that allowed participants to provide written comments on their personal experiences with threaded discussions in online or hybrid courses.

This study focused on eight major research questions (RQ):

RQ#1: Do university-level students have a preference in regard to the content and design of threaded discussions in a Fully Online or Hybrid course format?

RQ#2: Do university-level students feel that threaded discussions add to or enhance their learning of the subject matter in Fully Online and Hybrid courses?

RQ#3: How much time (in minutes) do university level-students spend on the preparation and completion of threaded-discussion-related assignments in Fully Online and Hybrid courses?

RQ#4: When given a choice between written assignments or threaded-discussion-related assignments in a Fully Online or a Hybrid course, which do university-level students prefer?

RQ#5: Do university-level students enjoy the use of threaded discussions in Fully Online or Hybrid courses?

RQ#6: How useful do university-level students find threaded discussions in Fully Online and Hybrid courses?

RQ#7: How willing are university-level students to schedule a Fully Online or a Hybrid course when the instructor is known to use a relatively high percentage of threaded discussion assignments?

RQ#8: If university-level students are given the option of taking the same course in a Fully Online or Hybrid format, as opposed to the traditional face-to-face format, which will they choose?

All of the quantitative data and analysis in this study is displayed in Tables and Figures. The written responses in the final, open-ended question were examined, and the participants’ responses were grouped and discussed based on consistency and theme.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Survey questions 1 through 4 were demographic in nature. Questions 5 and 6 determined which participants would complete the entire questionnaire. Question 5 asked, “How many fully online courses have you taken to date in your academic program?” One hundred nineteen students (28.67%) responded 0, 152 (36.63%) had taken 1-3, 88 (21.20%) had taken 4-7, 25 (6.02%) had taken 8-10, and 31 (7.47%) had taken more than 10 fully online courses.

Question number 6 asked, “How many Hybrid (partially online) courses have you taken to date in your academic program?” One hundred forty three (48.64%) responded 0, 107 (36.39%) had taken 1-3, 28 (9.86%) had taken 4-7, 7 (2.38%) had taken 8-10 and 8 (2.72%) had taken more than 10 fully online courses. Even with a clearly higher number of students taking Fully Online as opposed to Hybrid courses, for the
purposes of this study, they needed to have experience with both course formats. Based on responses to questions 5 and 6, the sample of participants was reduced to 125 who qualified to complete all 22 survey questions (n=125).

Survey questions 7 and 8 sought to identify a preference in threaded discussion content and design (RQ#1). The students were given six possible options:

1. Threaded discussions looking for a specific answer
2. Your opinion based on an instructor’s example or scenario
3. Your response to a controversial issue
4. A role-playing scenario that puts you in a decision-making position
5. I like all of them about the same.
6. I really don’t like any of these formats.

Question 7 focused on Fully Online courses. Of the 125 responses, options 1, 2 and 3 were very close selections; Option #1 was selected by 27 (21.43%), Option #2 was selected by 25 (19.84%), and Option #3 was selected by 25 (19.84%). Option #4, role-playing, was selected by 12 (9.52%) participants. The option most commonly selected was #5, I like them all about the same, with 33 (26.19%) participants. The option selected least was #6, I really don’t like any, with 4 (3.17%) participants.

Question 8 focused on Hybrid courses. Of the 124 responses, the breakdown varied widely; Option #1 was selected by 30 (23.62%), Option #2 was selected by 26 (20.47%) and Option #3 was selected by 18 (14.17%). Option #4, role-playing, was selected by 15 (11.81%) participants. The option selected most was #5, I like them all about the same, with 34 (26.77%) participants, while the option selected least was #6, I really don’t like any, with 4 (3.15%) participants.

In both formats – Fully Online and Hybrid – students showed a clear tendency to like all potential threaded discussion options about the same; (Fully Online=26.19%) (Hybrid=26.77%). It was also evident that most students like one or all of the 1-5 options with only slightly more than 3% selecting Option #6, indicating that they did not like any (See Figure 2)
Figure 2: Given the choice of Threaded Discussions in a Fully Online or Hybrid course, as a student, which format would you prefer?

Survey questions 9 and 10 asked, “In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do threaded discussions add to or enhance your learning of the subject matter (RQ#2)?” Question 9 applied to Fully Online courses, and there was a clear preference with 53 (42.52%) selecting option number 4 – *To some degree, somewhat helpful*. (See Figure 3.1)

![Figure 3.1: Do Threaded Discussions add to or enhance your learning of the subject matter in a Fully Online course?](image1)

Question ten applied to Hybrid courses, again a preference was evident with 39 (31.50%) selecting option number 4 – *To some degree, somewhat helpful*. However, there was also a strong response to *Very Useful* (option #5) in Hybrid courses (23, 18.90%) and Fully Online courses (29, 23.62%). Students in both formats – Fully Online (66.14%) and Hybrid (50.40%) – either thought that the threaded discussions were somewhat helpful or very useful (See Figure 3.2).

![Figure 3.2: Preferences for Hybrid courses](image2)
Figure 3.2: Do Threaded Discussions add to or enhance your learning of the subject matter in a Hybrid course?

Survey questions 11 and 12 asked: “In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, how much time do you spend preparing and completing assignments for each threaded discussion (RQ#3)?” The continuum ranged from 0 to 61 minutes and longer. The amount of time most frequently selected in both formats was 31-45 minutes. In question #11, 35 (28%) participants selected this option. In question #12, 37 (29.60%) participants selected this option in the Hybrid format. Apparently, the majority of students spend more time on preparing their responses to Threaded Discussion assignments in the Fully Online format. In Fully Online courses, 62.4% of the students indicated that they spend from 31 to 61 minutes in preparation. In Hybrid courses, 53.6% of the students indicated that they spend between 31 minutes and 61 minutes in preparation (See Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Spent on Threaded Discussion Assignments</th>
<th>Fully Online Course Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Hybrid Course Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-15 minutes</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.20%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-30 minutes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25.60%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45 minutes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-60 minutes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 minutes or longer</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Question 13 asked, “Given the choice between a regular written assignment and a threaded discussion in a Fully Online course, as a student, which form of assessment would you prefer? (RQ#4)” There was a strong preference for the threaded discussion with 51 (41.13%) selecting that option. Forty-three students (34.68%) indicated that they would prefer the written assignment. Twenty-seven (21.77%) indicated that they liked both forms of assignment about the same.

Question 14 asked, “Given the choice between a regular written assignment and a threaded discussion in a Hybrid course, as a student, which form of assessment would you prefer?” Again, there was a strong preference for the threaded discussion over the written assignment; however, the preference was somewhat less than that which was indicated in the Fully Online course, with 49 (39.20%) selecting that option. Forty-two (33.60%) indicated that they would prefer the written assignment. Twenty-three (18.40%) indicated that they liked both forms of assignment about the same (See Table 3).

Questions 15 and 16 examined the level of student satisfaction with the use of threaded discussions in a Fully Online or a Hybrid course (RQ#5). Students responded to the

Table 3: Given the choice between a regular Written Assignment and a Threaded Discussion, as a student, which form would you prefer?
Question concerning Fully Online courses, indicating that the majority (38, 30.65%) enjoyed them somewhat at times. Thirty-three (26.61%) indicated that they enjoyed them to some degree. Twenty-one (16.94%) of the participants indicated that they enjoyed them very little, or really did not like them. Twenty-five (20.16%) of the students indicated that they always enjoyed the threaded discussions in the Fully Online course. Only 21 (16.94%) responded by saying that they really did not like threaded discussions. (See Figure 4.1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions #13 &amp; 14 Options</th>
<th>Fully Online Number (n=124)</th>
<th>Fully Online Percentage</th>
<th>Hybrid Number (n=125)</th>
<th>Hybrid Percentage</th>
<th>Combined Number (n=249)</th>
<th>Combined Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I really don’t like either form of assessment</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.42%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.40%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think they are about the same, I really don’t have a preference</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.77%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18.40%</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. No opinion</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.40%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I would prefer the Written Assignment</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>34.68%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>33.60%</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>34.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I would prefer the Threaded Discussion</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>41.13%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>39.20%</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40.16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1: In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do you enjoy the use of Threaded Discussions in a Fully Online course?

Based on students’ responses to the question concerning the Hybrid courses, the majority, (33, 25.61%) responded that they usually enjoyed them. Thirty-two (25.81%) indicated that they enjoyed them somewhat at times. Twenty-four (19.35%) indicated that they enjoyed them very little, or really did not like them. Nineteen (15.32%) indicated that they always enjoyed the threaded discussions in Hybrid courses. Sixteen (12.90%) had no opinion on the question (See Figure 4.2).
Figure 4.2: In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do you enjoy the use of Threaded Discussions in a Hybrid course?

Questions 17 and 18 examined students’ attitudes toward the use of threaded discussions in Fully Online and Hybrid courses (RQ#6). Students could select from the following responses: 1) A waste of time, 2) Somewhat useful, 3) No opinion, 4) Usually an important part of the course, and 5) A critical and important learning activity in the course.

Question 17 focused on the Fully Online format. Fifteen students (12.10%) responded that threaded discussions are a waste of time. Thirty-three (26.61%) responded that they are somewhat useful. Seven (5.65%) students had no opinion. The majority (48, 38.71%) felt that threaded discussions were usually an important part of the course. There were 21 (16.94%) who felt threaded discussions were a critical and important learning activity.

Question 18 focused on the Hybrid format. Fifteen students (12.10%) responded that threaded discussions were a waste of time. This was exactly the same proportion as in the Fully Online responses. The highest option was number two with 43 (34.40%) responding that they were somewhat useful. Eighteen (14.40%) students had no opinion. Thirty-seven (29.60%) felt that threaded discussions were usually an important part of the course. The least selected option was Option 5 with only 12 students (9.60%) feeling threaded discussions were a critical and important learning activity in a course (See Table 4).

Table 4: Based on your past experiences with Fully Online and/or Hybrid courses, do you find Threaded Discussions ……. 
When the Fully Online and Hybrid responses are examined together, it is evident that 65% of students feel that threaded discussions are a somewhat useful or important part of the course. Only 13.25% of the total respondents felt that threaded discussions were a critical and important learning activity. This was just slightly more than the 12% that felt threaded discussions were a waste of time.

Questions 19 and 20 examined the likelihood of a student enrolling in a Fully Online or Hybrid course where the instructor is known for using threaded discussions as a relatively high percentage (25-40%) of the course requirements (RQ#7).

Question 19 examined this issue for Fully Online courses. Five (4%) students indicated that they would “Never” enroll in this course. Thirty-seven (29.60%) indicated that they might because of scheduling times. Seven participants (5.60%) had no opinion. The largest response was from 48 (36%) students who said they would probably schedule the course, it makes little difference. Thirty-one (24.80%) indicated that they would prefer this type of course (See Table 5).

Question 20 examined this issue for Hybrid courses. Eight (6.45%) students indicated that they would “Never” schedule this course. Thirty-seven (29.84%) indicated that they might because of scheduling times. Fourteen (11.29%) had no opinion. The largest response was from 41 (33.06%) students who said they would probably schedule the course, it makes little difference. Twenty-four (19.35%) indicated that they would prefer this type of course (See Table 5).

Table 5: Would you schedule a Fully Online or Hybrid course if you knew that the instructor used Threaded Discussions as a relatively high percentage (25-40%) of the course requirements?
When the combined responses are examined, it is evident that a strong emphasis on threaded discussions would probably make little difference for most participants (34.54%) when scheduling a Fully Online or Hybrid course. This percentage was followed closely (29.71%) by respondents who indicated that they would register for one of these courses if they had to because of their scheduling limitations. Almost a fourth (22.09%) of the students indicated that they would actually want this type of course. Very few (5.22%) indicated that they would never schedule one of these courses.

The next two questions, 21 and 22, examined student’s preferences when scheduling Fully Online and Hybrid courses as opposed to traditional face-to-face courses (RQ#8).

Question 21 examined student attitudes toward choosing between the same course in a Fully Online or traditional face-to-face format. A large majority (62, 52.10%) of the students indicated that they would take the traditional face-to-face course. Twenty-three (19.33%) students indicated that either format would be fine. Only one student (.84%) had no opinion. Thirty-three (27.73%) of the respondents said that they would prefer the Fully Online course.

Question 22 examined student attitudes toward choosing between a Hybrid course and the same course in a traditional face-to-face format. Again, a majority (47, 37.60%) – although somewhat less than Fully Online – of students indicated that they would take the traditional face-to-face course. Thirty-nine (31.20%) of the students indicated that either format would be fine. Six (4.80%) had no opinion. Thirty-three (26.40%) said that they would prefer to take the Hybrid course (See Table 6).

Table 6: Given the option of taking the same course in the traditional face-to-face format or in the Fully Online/Hybrid format, which would you prefer?
When the combined percentages are examined, it becomes clear that participants preferred the traditional face-to-face course format. There is a smaller preference when the traditional course is compared to the Hybrid course selection; Hybrid=31.20% vs. the Traditional=37.60%. About one-fourth (25.41%) of students indicated that they had no preference.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The intent of this study was to answer some basic questions concerning university-level students’ perceptions of threaded discussions in Fully Online and Hybrid courses. The researchers were surprised to find that, out of the original 414 participants in the sample, only 125 had ever taken a Fully Online or a Hybrid course.

One of the areas examined was students’ preferences in the design of threaded discussions (RQ#1). In both Fully Online and Hybrid formats, the largest proportion of responses indicated that they liked all options about the same; however, three of the other options – 1) Specific Answer, 2) Instructor’s Scenario, 3) and Controversial – had about the same level of student preference. Role-playing was the option least selected.

When students were asked if the use of threaded discussions added to or enhanced their level of learning (RQ#2), the majority of students indicated that it was somewhat helpful. Approximately one-fourth of the participants felt that threaded discussions were very useful. The smallest proportion of responses indicated that threaded discussions were of little use.

Over 50% of the students indicated that they spend, on average, between 31 and 61 minutes in preparing and completing their threaded discussion assignments (RQ#3). When given a choice between a written assignment and a threaded discussion assignment in a Fully Online or Hybrid course, students indicated a strong preference for the threaded discussion (RQ#4). However, about one-fifth (slightly less than 20%) of the students indicated that they liked both forms of assignment about the same.

When asked to rate their level of enjoyment of threaded discussion assignments, the majority of students indicated that they enjoyed them somewhat at times (RQ#5). The students had a less favorable response toward the use of threaded discussions in the Hybrid format. This may possibly be explained by the amount of face-to-face time required in a Hybrid course, which is usually 50% or more. It seems in the Hybrid course that students may have preferred the live in-class discussions over the asynchronous discussion format.

When the students were questioned as to the usefulness of threaded discussions (RQ#6) in both the Fully Online and Hybrid formats, the majority of responses indicated that they were usually an important part of the course. About 12% of the students felt that threaded discussions were a waste of time. About an
equal number of students indicated that the threaded discussions were a critical and important learning activity in both Fully Online and Hybrid courses.

The next aspect of the survey examined students’ willingness to enroll in a Fully Online or Hybrid course when the instructor was known to have a strong emphasis on threaded discussions (RQ#7). More specifically, such a course would have about 25-40% of the course requirements based on threaded discussions. Over one-third of the participants indicated that this would make little difference when deciding their term schedules. Another one-third said they would register for such a course if their schedule required it. Almost one-fourth of participants said that they would actually prefer to schedule this type of course. Very few (i.e., less than 6%) of the students indicated that they would never schedule this type of course.

The survey’s final question asked participants which format they would choose if given a choice between the same course in a Fully Online and/or Hybrid or the traditional (face-to-face) format (RQ#8)? The majority (i.e., slightly over 50%) of the students indicated that they would prefer the traditional course format. About one-third indicated that either format would be fine. Slightly over one-fourth indicated that they would prefer the Fully Online or Hybrid course format. This data was somewhat of a surprise as it indicated that – even with all of the recent emphasis on online and mobile learning – students still favor the traditional face-to-face course option almost two to one.

Very few students took the opportunity to make a written statement at the end of the survey; however, of the six that did, three indicated that they enjoy the threaded discussion format but, at times, are frustrated by the lack of interaction among their peers and classmates and the lack of a high level of engagement from the instructor. Three other participants expressed the feeling that threaded discussions are often just “filler” in a course and really serve no purpose. Unfortunately, with only 6 out of the 125 participants leaving comments, it was difficult to observe any trends or draw any conclusions from this subset of data.

Finally, this study found that students basically still like the threaded discussion format; however, their attitudes are somewhat neutral when it comes to their personal enjoyment and preference for threaded discussions in both the Online and Hybrid course formats. Participants also indicated that they thought threaded discussions enhanced the learning of the subject matter but only to a limited extent. Overall, the participants were more positive towards the use of threaded discussions in the Fully Online course as opposed to the Hybrid course format. If given the option to choose between a traditional written assignment and a threaded discussion assignment, the majority of the students in both formats indicated a preference for the threaded discussion. The majority of students indicated a preference for the written assignment. In addition, given a choice, the majority of students would still prefer to take a course in the traditional face-to-face format. When scheduling university-level courses, the students in this study were not greatly influenced by the amount of threaded discussion requirements in a particular course.

**Recommendations for Future Study**

Future studies would benefit from focusing on the design and application of threaded discussions. This study provides evidence that students basically enjoy and consider threaded discussions useful and important course components; however, the implementation and ongoing monitoring and assessment of threaded discussions should still be examined in greater detail. Perhaps with all of the new video applications that are available now in Learning Management Systems, such as Wimba and Collaborate, the threaded discussion has lost some of its original energy and interest appeal?

**REFERENCES**


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1 Daniel J. Shelley, Ph.D., Professor of Education at Robert Morris University, Moon Township, PA. Dr. Shelley earned his BS in Elementary Education from Penn State University in 1971. He completed a Masters Degree in Social Science with an emphasis in American History at Penn State in 1972. He earned his PhD in Education at the University of Pittsburgh in 1986. Dr. Shelley is also a certified Elementary Principal and a Curriculum Program Specialist. His research interests include enhancing pre-service teacher’s skills and expertise in applying educational technology to their teaching, and the integration of technology into classroom settings. In addition, in recent years, his research focus has included social media and online learning. He has presented papers at international conferences in numerous countries including, England, Spain, Costa Rica and the USA.
Appendix A

Hello Participant:

You are invited to participate in our research survey. In this survey, approximately 400-500 students will be asked to complete a survey that asks questions about their experiences with Threaded Discussions in their Fully Online and Hybrid classes. For the purpose of this research a Hybrid course will be defined as those courses that have 30-50% or more in the online format. A Fully Online course is defined as a course that is taken completely in the online format. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project. However, if you feel uncomfortable answering any questions, you can withdraw from the survey at any point. It is very important for us to learn your opinions. Your survey responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate. Your information will be coded and will remain confidential. The survey will not identify you by name but only as a participant. If you have questions at any time about the survey or the procedures, you may contact Dr. Linda Best (lbest@edinboro.edu) or Dr. Daniel J Shelley (shelleyd@rmu.edu). Thank you very much for your time and support. Please start with the survey now by clicking on the Continue button below.

Are you a full time or part time student?

1. Full time
2. Part Time

Are you male or female?

1. Male
2. Female

What is your present academic level?

1. Freshman
2. Sophomore
3. Junior
4. Senior
5. Graduate Student
6. Doctoral Candidate

How many Fully Online course(s) have you taken to date in your academic program?

1. 0
2. 1-3
3. 4-7
How many Hybrid course(s) (partially online) have you taken to date in your academic program?

1. 0
2. 1-3
3. 4-7
4. 8-10
5. More than 10

For the next two questions we will assume that the typical Threaded Discussions in both Hybrid and Fully Online courses follow one of the following four types: 1. Requires a specific answer or answer
2. Requires your opinion based on information given by the instructor
3. Controversial issue(s) that requires you to post and defend your position, 4. Role-playing, this puts you in the situation of a decision maker. For example, you are an advisor to Thomas Jefferson as he writes the first draft of the Declaration of Independence

If given the choice of Threaded Discussions in a Fully Online course, which format do you prefer as a student?

1. Specific Answer
2. Your opinion on an instructor's example or scenario
3. Your response to controversial issues
4. Role playing scenario, puts you in a decision making position
5. I like all of them about the same
6. I really don't like any of these formats

If given the choice of Threaded Discussions in a Hybrid course, which format do you prefer as a student?

1. Specific Answer
2. Your opinion on an instructor's example or scenario
3. Your response to controversial issues
4. Role playing scenario, puts you in a decision making position
5. I like all of them about the same
6. I really don't like any of these formats

In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do Threaded Discussions add to or enhance your learning of the subject matter in a Fully Online course?

1. Very little
2. Somewhat, they help a little
3. No opinion
4. To some degree, somewhat helpful
5. Very useful

In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do Threaded Discussions add to or enhance your learning of the subject matter in a Hybrid course?

1. Very little
2. Somewhat, they help a little
3. No opinion
4. To some degree, somewhat helpful
5. Very useful

In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, how much time do you spend preparing/completing assignments for each Threaded Discussion in a Fully Online course?

1. 0-15 minutes
2. 16-30 minutes
3. 31-45 minutes
4. 46-60 minutes
5. 61 minutes and longer
6. I have never taken a Fully Online course

In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, how much time do you spend preparing/completing assignments for each Threaded Discussion in a Hybrid course?

1. 0-15 minutes
2. 16-30 minutes
3. 31-45 minutes
4. 46-60 minutes
5. 61 minutes and longer
6. I have never taken a Hybrid course

Given the choice between a regular Written Assignment and a Threaded Discussion Assignment in a Fully Online course, as a student, which form of assessment do you prefer?

1. I really don’t like either form of assessment
2. I think they are about the same, I really don’t have a preference
3. No opinion
4. I would prefer the Written Assignment
5. I would prefer the Threaded Discussion

Given the choice between a regular Written Assignment and a Threaded Discussion Assignment in a Hybrid course, as a student, which form of assessment do you prefer?

1. I really don’t like either form of assessment
2. I think they are about the same, I don’t really have a preference
3. No opinion
4. I would prefer the Written Assignment
5. I would prefer the Threaded Discussion

In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do you enjoy the use of Threaded Discussions in a Fully Online course?

1. Very little, I really don’t like them
2. Somewhat, at times I enjoy them
3. No opinion
4. To some degree, I usually enjoy them
5. I always enjoy the Threaded Discussions in my Fully Online courses
In your opinion, based on your prior coursework, do you enjoy the use of Threaded Discussions in a Hybrid course?

1. Very little, I don’t really like them
2. Somewhat, at times I enjoy them
3. No opinion
4. To some degree, I usually enjoy them
5. I always enjoy the Threaded Discussions in my Hybrid courses

Based on your past experiences with Fully Online courses, do you find Threaded Discussions.....

1. A waste of time
2. Somewhat useful
3. No opinion
4. Usually an important part of the course
5. A critical and important learning activity in the course

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5. A critical and important learning activity in the course

Would you schedule a Fully Online course if you knew that the instructor had a relatively high percentage (25-40%) of the course requirements based on Threaded Discussions?

1. Never
2. I might, if I had to because of scheduling
3. No opinion
4. Probably, it makes little difference to me
5. Yes, I would want this type of course

Would you schedule a Hybrid course if you knew that the instructor had a relatively high percentage (25-40%) of the course requirements based on Threaded Discussions?

1. Never
2. I might, if I had to because of scheduling
3. No opinion
4. Probably, it makes little difference to me
5. Yes, I would want this type of course

If given the option of taking the same course in the traditional face-to-face format or in the Fully Online format, which would you prefer?

1. Traditional, Face-to-Face
2. Either one is fine with me
3. No opinion
4. I would prefer to take the Fully Online course
If given the option of taking the same course in the traditional face-to-face format or in the Hybrid format, which would you prefer?

1. Traditional, Face-to-Face
2. Either one is fine with me
3. No opinion
4. I would prefer to take the Hybrid course

Optional:

Use this space to make any additional comments on your experiences with Threaded Discussions in the Fully Online or Hybrid formats!

1. Academia, Online Learning and Threaded Discussions
Effective Conduct of Government Business in a Trust-Deficit Environment

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Abstract

In the third world countries, mechanisms for checks and balances are very weak leaving room for unnecessary manipulations and wanton circumvention of ground rules and regulations necessary for regulating public morality and crusading against corruption. In this paper, we adopted a new approach to tackle the menace of corruption so as to manage effectively government business. We opined that the management of government business boils down to the management of the synergy and the work arrangement among the executive, the legislature, the judiciary and the Public service that serve them all. Whenever, work arrangements strike any major problem, the overall performance of the government will suffer in respect for the other. This paper examined the management issues that may influence performance of the organization and observed inter alia that public officers may have wide discretion but little accountability where policies may be poorly designed and implemented with manifest indifference in Nigeria. Thus, we concluded that, to tame and/or minimize corruption and effectively manage government business; Government has to adopt a multifaceted approach by using words as well as actions. Thus, we recommended inter-alia that policies should be reviewed periodically to close any gap and to catch-up with events in the society and the strategy for communicating and managing the reform process must be robust and people centered. Hitherto, a strong national oversight structure should be established to ensure accountability and performance at all levels of governance.

Keywords: Corruption, Government Business, Management, Performance, Public service.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:

INTRODUCTION

It is important to characterize the trust-deficit environment that exists in Nigeria where poor implementation of policies is evidenced by poor budget performance and elite corruption have been pervasive and where credibility and often legitimacy of the government have always been questioned. This environment is characterized by weak electoral processes that disfranchised many; producing a weak responsive government. According to Idumenge (2012), the trust deficit index of leaders in Nigeria is so high that the best of government intentions are misconstrued. This is because of ideological bankruptcy at the level of politics, self-aggrandizement at the level of managing the economy and dishonesty at the level of policy implementation. Today, Nigeria is full of probe panels and more than 30% of former public officers either have cases with the anti-graft agencies or the people they served. Some of them run away days before their official tenures expire. The institutional mechanisms for checks and balances are very weak leaving room for unnecessary manipulations and wanton circumvention of ground rules and regulations necessary for regulating public morality and crusading against corruption.

Let us begin by positing that there are many unresolved problems in Nigeria, but the issue of Effective Conduct of Government Business in the face of corruption is troubling. The damages corruption has done to the polity are astronomical. The menace of corruption leads to slow movement of files in offices, police extortion tollgates and slow traffics on the highways, port congestion, queues at passport offices and gas stations, ghost workers syndrome, election irregularities, ineffective power supply, among others. Even the mad people on the street recognize the havoc caused by corruption - the funds allocated for their welfare disappear into the thin air. Thus, it is believed by many in the society that corruption is the bane of Nigeria irrespective of the efforts to end the menace by President Goodluck Jonathan. Consequently, the issue keeps reoccurring in every academic and informal discussion in Nigeria as it affects the effective management of government business!

Some writers say that corruption is endemic in all governments, and that it is not peculiar to any continent, region and ethnic group. It cuts across faiths, religious denominations and political systems and affects both young and old, man and woman alike. Corruption is found in democratic and dictatorial politics; feudal, capitalist and socialist economies. Christian, Muslim, Hindu, and Buddhist cultures are equally bedeviled by corruption. And corrupt practices did not begin today; the history is as old as the world. Ancient civilizations have traces of widespread illegality and corruption. Thus, corruption has been ubiquitous in complex societies from ancient Egypt, Israel, Rome, and Greece down to the present (Lipset & Lenz, 2000, pp. 112-113). This does not, however, mean that the magnitude of corruption is equal in every society Some countries are more corrupt than others! As George Orwell notes in his widely read book, Animal Farm: All animals are equal, but some animals are more equal than others (June, 1996, p. 109).

This paper, therefore, adopts a new approach to tackle the menace of corruption so as to manage effectively government business in Nigeria. What then is government and its business in the face of corruption? Government is best viewed as an organization that exists to achieve certain objectives. When the organization is well managed, it will function well in its corporate approach to the fulfilling of its objectives. Thus, government includes all the agencies through which the program of government is operated.

CORRUPTION DEFINED

Perhaps, because corruption has received an extensive attention in communities, maybe, due to the fact that it has been over-flogged in the academic circles, it has received varied definitions. Corruption has broadly been defined as a perversion or a change from good to bad. Specifically, corruption or corrupt behavior involves the violation of established rules for personal gain and profit (Sen, 1999, p. 275). Corruption is efforts to secure wealth or power through illegal means private gain at public expense; or a misuse of public power for private benefit (Lipset & Lenz, 2000).

In addition, corruption is a behavior which deviates from the formal duties of a public role, because of private [gains] - regarding (personal, close family, private clique, pecuniary or status gains. It is a behavior
which violates rules against the exercise of certain types of [duties] for private [gains] - regarding influence (Nye, 2007). This definition includes such behavior as bribery—use of a reward to pervert the judgment of a person in a position of trust; nepotism—bestowal of patronage by reason of ascriptive relationship rather than merit; and misappropriation—illegal appropriation of public resources for private uses (Banfield 1961). To the already crowded landscape, Osoba (1996) adds that corruption is an anti-social behaviour conferring improper benefits contrary to legal and moral norms, and which undermine the authorities to improve the living conditions of the people. Corruption is probably the main means to accumulate quick wealth when managing government business in Nigeria. Corruption occurs in many forms, and it has contributed immensely to the poverty and misery of a large segment of the Nigerian population.

THE NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CORRUPTION

Some studies have taken a holistic (broader) approach in the discussion of corruption by dividing it into many forms and sub-divisions. These are:

i) Political Corruption (grand);
ii) Bureaucratic Corruption (petty); and
iii) Electoral Corruption.

Political corruption takes place at the highest levels of political authority. It occurs when the politicians and political decision-makers, who are entitled to formulate, establish and implement the laws in the name of the people, are themselves corrupt. It also takes place when policy formulation and legislation is tailored to benefit politicians and legislators. Political corruption is sometimes seen as similar to corruption of greed as it affects the manner in which decisions are made, as it manipulates political institutions, rules of procedure, and distorts the institutions of government (NORAD, 2000; The Encyclopedia Americana, 1999).

Bureaucratic corruption occurs in the public administration or the implementation end of politics. This kind of corruption has been branded low level and street level. It is the kind of corruption the citizens encounter daily at places like the hospitals, schools, local licensing offices, police, taxing offices and on and on. Bureaucratic petty corruption, which is seen as similar to corruption of need, occurs when one obtains a business from the public sector through inappropriate procedure (see NORAD, 2000).

Electoral corruption includes purchase of votes with money, promises of office or special favors, coercion, intimidation, and interference with freedom of election [Nigeria is a good example where this practice is common. Votes are bought, people are killed or maimed in the name of election, losers end up as the winners in elections, and votes turn up in areas where votes were not cast]. Corruption in office involves sales of legislative votes, administrative, or judicial decision, or governmental appointment. Disguised payment in the form of gifts, legal fees, employment, favors to relatives, social influence, or any relationship that sacrifices the public interest and welfare, with or without the implied payment of money, is usually considered corrupt (The Encyclopedia Americana, 1999). Other forms of corruption include:

a) Bribery: The payment (in money or kind) that is taken or given in a corrupt relationship. These include kickbacks, gratuities, pay-off, sweeteners, greasing palms, etc. (Bayart, Ellis& Hibou, 1999, p.11).

b) Fraud: It involves some kind of trickery, swindle and deceit, counterfeiting, racketing, smuggling and forgery (Bayart, et.al 1999, p.11).

c) Embezzlement: This is theft of public resources by public officials. It is when a state official steals from the public institution in which he/she is employed. In Nigeria the embezzlement of public funds is one of the most common ways of economic accumulation, perhaps, due to lack of strict regulatory systems.

d) Extortion: This is money and other resources extracted by the use of coercion, violence or threats to use force. It is often seen as extraction from below [The police and custom officers are the main culprits in Nigeria] (Bayart et. al 1999, p.11).

e) Favoritism: This is a mechanism of power abuse implying a highly biased distribution of state resources. However, this is seen as a natural human proclivity to favor friends, family and anybody close and trusted.
Nepotism: This is a special form of favoritism in which an office holder prefers his/her kinfolk and family members. Nepotism, [which is also common in Nigeria], occurs when one is exempted from the application of certain laws or regulations or given undue preference in the allocation of scarce resources (NORAD, 2000; Amundsen, 1997; Girling 1997) also see Fairbanks, Jr. (1999).

For effective control of corruption in Nigeria, the society must develop a culture of relative openness, in contrast to the current bureaucratic climate of secrecy. And a merit system (instead of the tribal bias, state of origin and nepotism or favoritism, which has colored the landscape) should be adopted in employment and distribution of national resources, etc. More importantly, the leadership must muster the political will to tackle the problem head-on (see report on Second Global Forum on Fighting and Safeguarding Integrity, May 28-31, 1999). Regardless of where it occurs, what causes corruption or the form it takes, the simple fact remains that corruption is likely to have a more profound and different effects in less developed countries like Nigeria, than in wealthy and developed societies like United States of America. This is due to a variety of conditions, which cannot deviate significantly from the nature of their underdevelopment (Kolade, 1999). Because of the corrosive effects of corruption in national development, and given the relative limited resources or poverty in the region, Africa, and indeed Nigeria, can least afford to be corrupt.

THE CAUSES OF CORRUPTION

Why is corruption a viable enterprise in the Third World, nay, Nigeria? The causes of corruption are myriad; and they have political and cultural variables. Some evidence points to a link between corruption and social diversity, ethno-linguistic fractionalization, and the proportions of country’s population adhering to different religious traditions (Lipset and Lenz, 2000). Some studies noted that corruption is widespread in most non-democratic countries, and particularly, in countries that have been branded neo-patrimonial, kleptocratic and prebendal (NORAD, 2000). Thus, the political system and the culture of a society could make the citizens more prone to corrupt activities. However, we shall focus on the fundamental factors that engender corrupt practices in less developed nations, including Nigeria. Some of the factors include:

1) Great inequality in distribution of wealth;
2) Political office as the primary means of gaining access to wealth;
3) Conflict between changing moral codes;
4) The weakness of social and governmental enforcement mechanisms; and
5) The absence of a strong sense of national community.

The causes of corruption in Nigeria cannot deviate significantly, if at all, from the above factors. However, obsession with materialism, compulsion for a shortcut to affluence, glorification and approbation of ill-gotten wealth by the general public, are among the reasons for the persistence of corruption in Nigeria (Ndiulor, 2009). It has been noted that one of the popular, but unfortunate indices of good life in Nigeria, is flamboyant affluence and conspicuous consumption. The lack of ethical standards throughout the agencies of government and business organizations in Nigeria is a serious drawback. According to Thom-Otuya and Tamuno (2011), ethics is action, the way we practice our values; it is a guidance system to be used in making decisions. The issue of ethics in public sector [and in private life] encompasses a broad range, including a stress on obedience to authority, on the necessity of logic in moral reasoning, and on the necessity of putting moral judgment into practice (Bowman 1991). Unfortunately, many officeholders in Nigeria (appointed or elected) who should be in better position to effectively manage government business do not unfortunately, have clear conceptions of the ethical demands of their position. Even as corrupt practices are going off the roof, little attention, if any, is being given to this ideal.

Other factors are poor reward system and greed; Nigerians reward system is, perhaps, the poorest in the world. Nigeria is a society where national priorities are turned upside down; hard work is not rewarded, but rogues are often glorified in Nigeria. The trouble with Nigeria is not that our capabilities are inadequate. It is that our priorities are wrong (Lipset & Lenz, 2002). Peer community and extended family pressures, and
polygamous household are other reasons (Onalaja & Onalaja, 1997). The influence of extended family system and pressure to meet family obligations are more in less developed societies. Harrison (2005) acknowledged that “the extended family system is an effective institution for survival, but notes that it poses a big obstacle for development” (p.7).

**THE MISSION OF GOVERNMENT**

Our preferences for democratic governance mean that government is put together via a political process. This has definite implications for the structure that emerges, and for the approach that government takes in seeking to fulfill its mission. In Nigerian democratic experience so far, we have tried the Westminster model and the executive version of the Presidential model. We have discovered that each one has specific implications for the internal management of government. For instance, the role of the Civil service in the management of government business is addressed differently in each model, and the operating conditions of that service have witnessed ups and downs that have come partly from those differences. In this paper, government is viewed as an organization that exists to achieve certain objectives. When the organization is well managed, it will function well in corporate approach to the fulfilling of its objectives. When government is functioning well, this fact will become evident from the result that it registers. In particular as pointed out by Kolade (1999), the performance of the national economy is a reliable yardstick for measuring the performance of government and confirming its success. Under a well-managed government, society will be provided with an economic and social environment that enables and empowers citizens to express their productive potential to the full. The signs should be clear for all to see.

**Government as an Organization**

Government is aimed at establishing conditions which citizens are enabled to give full expression to their productive resources. What then is our assessment of the capacity of government, as an organization, to achieve this objective? Two arms of government, the executive and the legislature, shares the responsibilities of formulating the nations’ objectives, and establishing the strategies and policies is carried out by the officials of the public service under the direction of the President, Ministers and other members of the executive team. The judiciary, the third arm of government, has the adjudicator’s job of providing comfort to the rest of us that the laws passed by the legislature are, indeed, just and appropriate. Everyone should have access to the judiciary whenever it becomes necessary to resolve a dispute in this regard.

Thus, the management of government boils down to the management of the interrelationships and the work arrangement among these four – the executive, the legislature, the judiciary and the Public service that serve them all. Whenever, those interrelationships and work arrangements strike any major problem, the overall performance of the organization (i.e. government) will suffer in respect for the other a case in point is the crisis beclouding the appointment of the Chief Judge in Rivers State since 2013. So it is important to examine the management issues that may influence performance of the organization. Public officers may have wide discretion but little accountability. Policies may be poorly designed and implemented with manifest indifference. Formal rules are in place, but they may be superseded by informal conventions. Even where a code of conduct is supposed to exist, hardly anyone may read it or refer to it. There may be multiple layers of red tape causing delays and increasing levels of insecurity for stakeholders. The consequences of been caught and punished for corrupt behavior may be low relative to the benefit. Leaders and supervisors may shy away from asserting their proper disciplinary authority.

Individuals wanting to carry out their functions with efficiency and integrity may find themselves isolated and endangered; they may be perceived as potential whistle-blowers. External instruments restraint such as, for instance, an independent judiciary, may be deliberately marginalized and weakened. These practices and others create confusion in the management of government business and disable it in such a way that the capacity for managing the economy towards a positive turnaround becomes a dare dream.
Accountability: the Key to Success

The most powerful key to open the door of success is accountability. Indeed, we may go so far as to suggest that a government that does not pay topmost attention to being accountable organization cannot be justified in claiming to be well managed. Regrettably, Nigeria has had more than its fair share of governments that were either accountable to the wrong people, or to no one at all! The people must be able to insist on proper accountability from office holders; otherwise, even a well-managed government cannot fully succeed in its governance assignment. Good governance requires a competent government that respects the constitution and the rule of law, and that practice sound leadership. It also needs institutions that counterbalance governmental power and hold office holders accountable. Above all, there should be a strong body of public opinion that is consistently and dynamically expressed, such that it becomes the main element that keeps office holders faithful to their responsibility. A virile public opinion should be effective in educating public figures to understand that they have no choice but to obey the laws for which they are elected guardians, and to take the oath of honor without any prolonged prompting from members of the public. In truth, the failure or inability of public opinion to insist on a culture of accountability from public office holders has been a larger contribution to the under-performance of our national economy.

The Effects of Corruption on Effective Management of Government Business

The effects of corruption on a nation’s socio-political and economic development are myriad. The negative effects impact economic growth as it, among other things, reduces public spending on education (Mauro, 2007 and 2005). Lipset and Lenz noted that the effect on growth is in part, a result of reduced level of investment, as it adds to investment risk. The effect of corruption on education comes from the fact that the government spends relatively more on items to make room for graft (Shleifer & Vishny, 1993; Lipset & Lenz, 2002). And corrupt government officials would shift government expenditures to areas in which they can collect bribes easily. Large and hard-to-manage projects, such as airports or highways, make fraud easy. In addition, poverty and income inequalities are tied to corruption (Lipset & Lenz, 2000). Development projects are often made unnecessarily complex in Nigeria to justify the corrupt and huge expense on it.

Despite the immoral aspect and pernicious effects of corruption, some scholars have argued that corruption can be beneficial to political development or "political modernization" (Mauro, 2007). Political modernization or development means growth in the capacity of a society's governmental structures and processes to maintain their legitimacy over time (presumably in time of social change) by contributing to economic development, national integration and administrative capacity, and so on (Lipset & Lenz, 2002). We would not get entangled with the different scales used for measuring political development. Nevertheless, Max Gluckman opined that scandals associated with corruption sometimes have the effect of strengthening a value system of a society as a whole. This is probably true in relation to Nigeria.

The Evils of Corruption

Many studies have been conducted that show the evils or consequences of corruption. And corruption has taught the Nigeria a dangerous and wrong lesson that it does not pay to be honest, hard working and law-abiding. Through corrupt means many political office holders acquire wealth and properties in and outside Nigeria; and many display their wealth (which is beyond the means), but the society does not blink. This has made politics a big business in Nigeria, because anything spent to secure a political office is regarded as an investment, which matures immediately one gets into office (The Guardian, July 14, 2002).

Corruption wastes skills as precious time is often wasted to set up unending committees to fight corruption, and to monitor public projects. It also leads to aid forgone. Some foreign donors do not give aid to corrupt nations. For instance, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) has withdrawn development support from some nations that are notoriously corrupt. And the World Bank has introduced tougher anti-corruption standards into its lending policies to corrupt countries. Similarly, other organizations such as the Council of
Europe and the Organization of American States are taking tough measures against international corruption (OECD, 1997). Corruption is politically destabilizing, as it leads to social revolution and military takeovers. Most "post-coup rationalizations" in less developed worlds point to corruption.

Corruption causes a reduction in quality of goods and services available to the public, as some companies could cut corners to increase profit margins. Corruption affects investment, economic growth, and government expenditure choices; it also reduces private investment (Mauro 1997). Bribery and corruption, the culture of late payment, delays or refusal of payment for services already done, are according to the Lord Bishop of Guilford, David Peck, scaring away British investors from Nigeria. He noted that those who fail to pay companies for services done seem to forget that the life blood of any company is its cash flow. And rightly points out that the price of corruption is poverty (Daily Trust, July 9, 2002).

Corruption discourses honest effort and valuable economic activities; and it breeds inefficiency and nepotism. Corruption leads to possible information distortion as it cooks the books; and a high level of corruption can make public policies ineffective (Sen, 1999). Above all, corruption can tarnish the image of a country. As we have seen, Nigeria suffers more than most nations from an appalling international image created by its inability to deal with corruption and bribery.

Corruption is also destructive of governmental structures and capacity. Corruption can destroy the legitimacy of a government. Corruption may alienate modern-oriented civil servants and may cause them to reduce or withdraw their service or to leave the country. Corruption is one of the reasons for the 'brain drain' phenomenon in Nigeria (talented professionals leaving the country in search of employment somewhere else). In Nigeria, you can hardly enter an office and get your 'file signed except you drop' some money. Even the security personnel at the door of every office will ask for tips (bribe). In other words, corruption leads to slow moving files that get through the desk of officers once the interested parties have compromised themselves. It also leads to missing files that (would) resurface immediately the desk officer is settled... ’ (Oloja; 2002).

Succinctly, corruption diverts scarce public resources into private pockets, literally undermines effective governance, endangers democracy and erodes the social and moral fabric of nations. As it has been noted the lust for power and corruption (and dash) as gift known in Nigeria, is not strictly a Nigerian problem. Corruption is a global phenomenon and manifest in both Petty and Grand forms. Will it be possible for Nigeria to effectively tame the scourge of corruption in the society and manage effectively government business?

Effective Control of Corruption and Management of Government Business

Some human ailments could require many doses of medicines to be treated. Similarly, the menace of corruption, which has eaten deep into the fabric of Nigeria, would require all the necessary medicines to effectively control it. In other words, no single and simple remedies will do it; and the problem cannot be solved overnight, because, as we have noted, corruption has been ingrained into the fabric of the society. Nigeria has, in theory, the solutions in the book to tackle corruption; but like other issues (poverty, etc) bedeviling the nation, implementations of the laws are the Achilles heel (a vulnerable point) of the society (The Guardian, July 10, 2002). Osoba (1996) noted that one of the reasons why the measures against corruption have not been fruitful in Nigeria is that they have operated at a level [of mere] symbolism. Yes, corruption has defied all measures adopted to combat it in Nigeria, apparently, because those wagging the corruption-wars are themselves corrupt. In the name of turning Nigeria into a corruption-free society, the nation has experimented with many policies. It has tried the judicial commissions of enquiry, the Code of Conduct Bureau. It had wrestled with the Public Complaints Commission to no avail. Also it fiddled with the Mass Mobilization for Social Justice and Economic Recovery (MAMSER), and the National Open Apprenticeship (NOA), but corruption instead blossomed. Then, General Buhari clobbered Nigerians with his horsewhip branded the War Against Indiscipline and Corruption (WAIC), without success. The civilian administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo instituted an Independent Corrupt Practices Commission (ICPC), which seems to have power only over the corrupt poor.
Any society faced with the challenges of corruption will continue to find ways to break the circle. Dike, (2002) has argued that Nigeria cannot effectively control the menace of corruption in the nation by merely instituting probe panels. It was suggested that to tame the surge of corruption in Nigeria, the general population should be re-orientated to a better value system. This is because Nigerians have for long been living on the survival of the fittest and grab-whatever-comes-your-way mentality (Dike, 1999). The re-orientation of the youth in Nigeria to a good value system could help in the war against corruption. The World Values Surveys of 1990-1993 had a lot of attitudes and values information, which notes a relationship between values and corruption (World Values Study Group, 1994). Preaching the gospel and practice of virtue is the ultimate solution to behavioral change and reduction in corruption. Their productivity could increase, which would mean enough goods and services, prosperity and economic growth, and which would in turn allow the citizens the freedoms to live a meaningful life. Some of our leaders are doing everything they can to make the work of the police impossible. Big men are the greatest criminals and except you go after the big criminals and bring them to book, the rate of crime may not reduce.

To effectively manage government business and win the war on corruption, adherence to ethical standards in decision-making must be the foundation of the nation’s policies. Without ethics – i.e. set of moral principles or values or principles of conducts governing an individual or a group (Websters New Collegiate Dictionary, 1980, p. 389), in the conduct of the affairs of the nation (public and business), the apparent wars on corruption in Nigeria will not be successful. In other words, without ethics, any money budgeted toward fighting corruption in Nigeria is a thing cast to the wild cat. Nigeria has to make laws and implement them to the letters. As Aristotle insists, the aim of ethical philosophy is practical - to make us better men - (The Philosophy of Aristotle, Bambrough (ed.), p. 280; This Day, May 26, 2002). And to win the war on corruption, Nigeria has to fortify the institutional checks and balances among the country’s major social forces and the separation of powers within the government (Dahl 1998). The nation has to make sure that those entrusted to execute the war on corruption are men and women who recognize and always do what is right.

Armed with ethics and virtue, the nation should then set out to reduce personal gains to corrupt behavior with tough penalties on the culprits. Making tough rules with vigorous enforcement can deter corrupt behavior. The nation should not grant too much discretionary powers to officers who are in position to grant favor to others (businessmen in particular), such as officer who issue out licenses and passports (These officers often create artificial scarcity to attract bribes from the desperate public). There is the temptation to be corrupt when the officials who have a lot of power are themselves poor (Sen 2000, pp. 275-276). The Nigerian police should be upgraded in status, and be well trained, well equipped and well paid (and on time too). The police should become an elite profession, which would be open only to those with good moral character. If the police and other security agents (for instance, customs and the military), will learn and understand their limits (not to harass and kill innocent citizens) and follow the rules, things might improve in Nigeria.

This is not to suggest that upper level officers could not be corrupt. Top bureaucrats with excessive powers could abuse them. The effects of power on those who wield it are well stated in 1887 by Lord Acton, who noted that Power tends to corrupt; absolute power corrupts absolutely (Dahl 1998, p. 73). Before this time a British statesman, William Pitt, observed in a speech that unlimited power, is apt to corrupt the minds of those who possess it (Sen, 2000, p. 73). The mass media has a crucial role to play in the campaign to educate the people of their rights as citizens, and in exposing the rogues. Nothing chills nonsense more than exposure to thin air. The nation should erect permanent structures in the society to constantly tackle corruption, instead of setting up ad-hoc corruption-panels here and there. The citizens have a role to play in the war against corruption so as to effectively manage government businesses: they should always try to resist the temptation to offer bribes to corrupt government officials, as it takes two to tango.

To deal with corruption in ancient, many bureaucrats were paid a corruption-preventing allowance yang lien- as incentive to remain clean and law-abiding (Alatas, 1980; Klitgaard, 1988). To Amartya Sen a payment system of this kind can help reduce corruption through what he calls its income effect, as the officer who gets this payment may be less in need of making a quick buck. This type of payment will also have
what he calls substitution effect. The officer receiving the payment would know that corrupt behavior may involve serious loss of a high-salary employment if things were to go bad (that is, if he or she is caught with his or her hand in the cookie jar) (Sen, 2000). In some cases, how people behave in a society depends on how they see and perceive others behave. If the prevailing behavior in a country is bad, others could imitate the behavior. However, the lousy argument would be that others do the same. This was one of the cited reasons for corrupt behavior when the Italian parliament investigated the linkage between corruption and the Mafia in 1993. Thus, corrupt behavior encourages other corrupt behavior, moreover when the culprits go unpunished. But respect for rules, honest and upright behavior is certainly bulwark against corruption in many societies (Sen, 2000).

Sadly, corruption is now a high-profile issue in Nigeria; and those who are to manage the government business and have political power are the main culprits. News of corruption always oozes out from the National and States Assembly, but nobody has been prosecuted. And many of them often engage in frivolous oversea trips while civil servants in their states go for months without getting paid their salary and lecturers are persistently on strike for non implementation of agreements. It is appropriate to emphasize the importance of good and enforceable policies toward controlling corrupt behavior and manage effectively government business. Policies should be reviewed periodically to close any loophole and to catch-up with events in the society. Toward this, Robert S. McNamara, former presidents of the World Bank and Ford Motor Corporation, has argued that for any campaign against corruption to be successful in Sub-Saharan Africa, certain characteristics should be common in the plans against corruption. His suggestions on how to control corruption in the region include to:

1) Require direct, clear and forceful support of the highest political authority: the president or prime minister;
2) Introduce transparency and accountability in government functions, particularly in all financial transactions;
3) Encourage a free press and electronic media to forcefully report to the public on corrupt practices in the society;
4) Organize civil society to address the problems of corruption brought to light by the process of transparency and the activity of the media;
5) Introduce into government watch-dog agencies - anti-corruption bureaus; inspectors general; auditors general and ombudsmen [government official appointed to receive and investigate complaints made by individuals against abuses or capricious acts of public officials, etc] - which will identify corruption practices and bring them to public attention;
6) Minimize and simplify government regulations, particularly those involving the issuance of licenses, permits and preferential positions, thereby restricting opportunities for rent seeking by corrupt means.
7) Insert anti-bribery clauses into all major procurement contracts and with the assistance of both international financial institutions and bilateral aid agencies insist that international corporations, bidding on African procurement contracts, accept such clauses and the penalties associated with their violation.
8) Introduce similar anti-bribery clauses into contracts relating to privatization of government enterprises, and the development of natural resources.
9) Ensure that enforcement is predictable and forceful;
10) To criminalize the acts of bribery; prohibit the deduction of bribes for tax purposes; and erect barriers to transfer to western financial institutions of financial gains derived from corrupt practices
11) Declaration of Assets: The state should require that all high-level Nigerian officials (Presidents, Ministers, Legislative officers, Central bank governors, Police and Customs Chiefs, Military Generals), sign a statement granting permission to banks (both local and foreign), real estate or investment house to disclose any personal assets they may hold. Breaking this veil of secrecy, it has been argued, is crucial if assets declarations are to be verified and accountability enforced (Diamond, 1992);
12) *Withholding of Aid:* International donors (the IMF and World Bank) can be helpful by cutting off completely distribution of assistance to any country marked for high-level corruption;

13) *Scrutiny for sources of income:* As was pointed out above, scrutinizing individual depositors of huge sum of money, by financial institutions for sources, would go a long way to curbing looting of national treasury by civil servants.

**CONCLUSION**

Radical approach to policy-making in a trust deficit environment is not likely to be successful. In such an environment, policy reform should follow a process of open consentience building with a leadership that understands citizens’ rights. Nigeria cannot be seen as secure and free until the people's human rights are respected and protected by the government. Thus, the world cannot be considered secure if many people lack the elementary condition for life worthy of man. Similarly, Nigeria cannot be considered secure if millions of people go hungry, do not have a roof over their heads and to be jobless and sick indefinitely, with the most basic human right, the right to life is disregarded. Through it all, to tame corruption and effectively management government business, Nigeria has to use words as well as actions as a multifaceted approach. Finally, good governance, transparency, accountability and the rule of law are the keys to tackling corruption in our society and effectively manage government business in Nigeria.

**Recommendations**

Nigerians can still reduce the trust deficit index in governance by emphasizing accountability of public office holders. Policies should be reviewed periodically to close any loophole and to catch-up with events in the society. Thus, Accountability in any society begins by holding institutions and their leaders’ accountable, building mechanisms to comply with the terms of accountability and transparently reporting on performance. Accountability is a necessary adjunct to the power that government exercises in our society. If corruption is the most damaging disease that any organization must confront, then accountability and transparency are the major cures. In the practical operation of governance, accountability connotes that government should be run in such an open manner as to encourage participation seen as the competitive tendering of government contracts. The success of public governance will ultimately be judged by the citizens not by those in governments. It is people (citizens) who are demanding greater transparency and accountability from government as well as greater public participation in shaping policies that affect their lives. The strategy for communicating and managing the reform process must be robust and people centered. That in a federation a strong national oversight structure should be established in order to ensure accountability and performance at all levels of governance.

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Indecent Dressing and Awareness of Health Problems: A Study of ‘Sagging’ Dress Pattern Among Selected Male High School Students in Bayelsa State

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Abstract

The study explores the effects of indecent dressing habit on the impending body deformity among selected male ‘A’ Level students in Bayelsa State. Survey research design was utilized for the study. Modernization theory was adopted as theoretical framework of analysis. One hundred and eighty (N = 180) male students participated in the study in a non-probabilistic sampling technique. Findings indicated that though ‘sagging’ as a form of indecent dress habit among selected male ‘A’ Level students was prevalent particularly among those in the age bracket 15-20 years old, those that are of Christian religion, as well as those who were of urban centres due to the influence of television/internet and friends; the reasons for the new dress pattern were unclear to the respondents despite the frowning of those in authorities and parents on the new dress pattern among the respondents. So also, the study revealed that the negative health related impacts are yet to be known and understood by the respondents. Policy implications were provided in the study so as to create awareness campaign especially on the health related negative consequences of the act, as well as facilitating stringent measures to curtail the act among the adolescence male youths across board.

Keywords: Health Problems, Higher School Students, Indecent dressing, Modernization and Sagging.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:

INTRODUCTION

Globalization and modernization’s effect in the third world countries has permeated almost all facets of indigenous values and norms. It has become so obvious that if you don’t behave, dress or speak like the Europeans, you are seen as primitive, unexposed, and sometimes a deviant. One major social category that the craze for modernization has transformed is the youths. The youths in Africa now want to be exactly like their European counterparts in dressing, speaking, and behavior, etc.

This undoubtedly has several implications on the indigenous culture and social values as well as the health well being of the people. Most worrisome of these however, is the adaptive culture of the youths, manifested in indecent dressing both in public gathering and around their environment which is strongly contrary to the traditional socio-cultural values of dressing. Indeed, the dressing pattern of undergraduate youths in Nigeria has gone from bad to worse as each year passes by. Most of them seem to have become addicted to indecent dress patterns. This act is fast spreading to even the prospective University undergraduates who have joined in the millennium fashion of crazy dressing pattern. Formerly, female youths were seen to be the worst gender among whom indecent dressing is found (Anadi, Egboka and Aniorobi, 2011; Igbinovia, 2005), but recently, their male counterparts are trying to meet up with them as the male are going almost naked too calling it the fashion of ‘Sagging’. Yet, the health implications to those who engage have not been understood.

In Nigeria for example, ‘sagging’ is a recent phenomenon. At the down of the 21st century, there was hardly anything like ‘sagging’ of pants. But from around 2009 to date the dress pattern seems to have overtaken the youths in Nigeria especially those in the higher institutions of learning. From observation, out of every ten young people in the street, 2 to 5 sag their trousers (pants). This has led to cultural adulteration as it erodes our religious and moral values and norms which is the very essence of the African society. The trend is fast spreading to even the secondary school students in both private and public schools. This trend is fast threatening the values of Nigerian society as the youths are the major drivers of development in all ramifications. If the youths continue to go naked in the street, the Nigerian government may have more problem at hand than trying to solve the problems of unemployment or poverty due to its health related consequences.

Writing on this, Igbinovia (2005) in a study stated that 60% of female undergraduate students of the University in Nigeria dress indecently. Similar to this, Anadi, Egboka and Aniorobi (2011) opined that it is the overwhelmingly indecent dresses of the girls that attract much public concern and emphasis on the part of the girls. Others who have focused their studies on female indecent dressing patterns include Anadi and Egboka (2007) who investigated indecent dressing among female undergraduates of Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Nigeria; So also, Ogidefa (Cited in Anadi, Egboka and Aniorobi 2011), carried out a research on indecent dress on Nigerian campuses, including types of dress and effects of the exposure, etc. Yet, little or no study has shown much concern on the linkage between indecent dressing habit and the tragedy of body deformity especially on ‘sagging’ as a dress pattern.

Although, few studies have been made to reveal the link between indecent dress pattern and sexual harassment among females (e.g., Olagunju, 2010), study to link indecent dressing to health related problems have not been given much attention especially among the male students of higher learning. In fact, such studies with empirical evidences are yet to be read in health or sociological literature. It is on this note that this study aims to fill the gap through an investigative analysis of the impact of indecent dressing on the body posture and other health related issues, as well as ascertaining the spate of the new dress pattern (new fashion) among selected male higher school students in Bayelsa State, Nigeria.
ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Modernization theory is a description and explanation of the processes of transformation from traditional values system to modern values system. In other words, modernization is the process of change towards those types of social, economic, and political systems that have developed in Western Europe and North America from the seventeenth century to the nineteenth and have then spread to other European countries and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to the South American, Asian, and African continents respectively (Armer & Katsillis, 2000). In modernization theory, an attempt has always been made to erode almost all the traditional values either good or bad so as to embrace the modern ones, hence, the primary attention of this theory has been made to focus on ways in which past and present premodern societies become modern in all facets of lives (i.e., Westernized) through processes of economic growth and change in social, political, and cultural structures usually termed to as globalization. Modernization theorists study the social, political, and cultural consequences of economic growth and the conditions that are important for industrialization and economic growth to occur. Yet the underlying cultural consequences, as well as its health related consequences have not been provided with considerable explanations.

Armer & Katsillis (2000) contributing to this theory averred that the underlying description of social features and changes that are thought to characterize modern urban industrial societies are theoretical assumptions and mechanisms to explain the shift from traditional to modern societal types. As such, these explanatory systems draw upon the dominant theoretical perspectives in the 1950s and 1960s, growing out of classical evolutionary, diffusion, and structural-functionalist theories.

Interestingly however, as modern structures and institutions spread around the world and created economic, political, social, and cultural linkages, awareness of global interdependence and of the ecological consequences of industrial development and modern lifestyles has grown. It is now clear that finite natural resources and the nature of the global ecosystem could not sustain worldwide modern conditions and practices of European and North American societies even if modernization theory assumptions of evolutionary national development were correct. Thus, new visions and interpretations of national and global development have already begun to replace classical modernization theory.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Concept and Origin of ‘Sagging’

The term ‘sagging’ also known as low-riding or pants down is a fashion adopted by mainly youths where trousers (slacks, shorts, pants or Jeans) are worn in a manner that the top is significantly below the waist, sometimes revealing much of underwear. Sagging is predominantly a male fashion. Women’s wearing of low-rise jeans to reveal their G-string underwear (the whale tail) is not generally described as sagging (BBC News 2010). Sagging according to Greg Mathis of the “Judge Mathis” show (cited in Christian 2007), transitioned from prison culture. According to him:

In prison you aren’t allowed to wear belts to prevent self-hanging or the hanging of others. They take the belt and sometimes your pants hang down...many cultures of the prison have overflowed into the community unfortunately.

Still talking about sagging, Mathis noted that ‘sagging’ of pants also has sexual connotations especially for those inmates who deliberately pull their pants down. In his exact words, he stated that: “Those who pulled their pants down the lowest and showed their behind a little more raw, that was an invitation’.”
Indeed and by implication, the origin of the word ‘sagging’ is traceable to the inmates in the United States of America. In fact, someone who has been in prison for about 30 years and who comes out of prison and does not know that ‘sagging’ is now a fashion among youths might think that sagging is an open invitation to sexual activities. Other accounts of the origin of ‘sagging’ however, which still has its root in prison observed that after the prisoners were barred from using belts they started ‘sagging’ as a sign of revolt against the Authorities. Still a final account observed that Prisoners sagged their trousers as a way of signifying that they were other prisoners’ properties (Onoja 2013).

In addition, sagging became popular in the 1990s after when in 1992 Calvin Klein (fashion house founded by Calvin Klein) had a major underwear advertisement with Mark Wahlberg (An American actor, model and former rappers). The commercial featured Mark Wahlberg wearing Calving Klein boxer briefs and ‘sagging’ his pants low enough for the famous logo to show. After that advert according to reports, Calvin Klein’s underwear sales skyrocketed. Women loved the muscular, Wahlberg and men wanted to show off their Calvin Kleins (Miller 2012).

In recent times, sagging has even gone worse than it was in the 90s. The trend has been amplified. Young men have been sagging their pants way lower than Mark Wahlberg in those infamous commercials. In some cases men and young men alike have been known to sag their Pants to their knees. It became worst in recent times as sagging of pants are the fashion pattern of the hip-hop artistes. And as it is, most of these hip-hop artistes are idolized by their fans that mainly compose of male youths. These youths dresses like their so called rap mentors thereby ‘sagging’ their trousers.

**Legislation and Campaign against Sagging**

In trying to curb this problem of sagging, different legislations and campaigns have been launched by concern authorities, groups, parents and individuals alike, especially in America where the menace originated from. Take for instance, during the first decade of the 21st century, many North American Local Governments, school systems, transit agencies, and even airlines passed laws and regulations against the practice of wearing sagging pants as well as Federal and State Government banned the practice (Thomas, 2008).

In 2007, the town Council of Delcambre, Louisiana, passed an indecent exposure ordinance, which prohibited intentionally wearing trousers in such a way as to show underwear (Siddique 2007). Similarly, in march 2008 the Hahira, Georgia City Council passed a controversial clothing ordinance, in the name of public safety, that bans citizens from wearing pants below the waist that reveal skin or undergarments (Fulton, 2008). Furthermore, on November 23, 2010, Albany, Georgia passed a city ordinance that banned the wearing of pants or skirts with top more than three inches below the top of the hips, and imposed a fine of $25 for the first offense, increasing up to and $250 for subsequent offenses. By September 2011, city attorney; Nathan Davis reported that 187 citations has been issued and fines $3,916 collected, WYFF-TV (cited in Wikipedia 2013).

Still, WPLG Local 10 reported that on December 8, 2010, the city of Opa-Locka Florida voted unanimously on a $250 fine or 10 hours of community service for individuals who did not pull their pants up. Additionally, Fort Worth, Texas, the local transportation Authority implemented a new policy in June 2011 that prohibited any passenger from boarding a bus while wearing sagging pants that exposes their underwear or buttocks. Signs were posted on buses saying “pull em up or find another ride” according to the communications manager; the first day the policy was implemented, 50 people were removed from buses for wearing saggy pants, (Forsyth 2011).

In 2011, Florida State passed a law which took effect from 2011-2012 school years banning the practice of sagging while at school. Pupils found in violation receive a verbal warning for the first offense,
followed by parental notification by the Principal for the second offense, which will require the parents to bring a change of clothing to school. Students afterwards faced in-school suspension, (Valero, 2011).

Again on June 12, 2013, Marcius, Stephen and Daniel (2013), reported that the Wildwood, New Jersey (Southern Jersey shore, between Atlantic city and Cape May) Town Council voted Unanimously to ban sagging pants from the town’s boardwalk. In a recent bill in Arkansas; Governor Mike Bebe signed a bill prohibiting sagging pants in public schools (Davey, 2011).

Apart from the above and more laws prohibiting sagging of clothes, several campaigns have also been embarked on by different media houses, corporations and individuals to obliterate this social anomaly. 64-year old Robinson, founder of the Nanas and Papas raising grands organization has launched a campaign to end sagging. She started a belt collection for young men called “pull up your pants -- need some help, here’s a belt” (Christian, 2007).

As a result of sagging, University of New York player Deshon Marman was removed from a U.S Airways Flight bound for Albuquerque New Mexico. In a few months later Green Day singer Bilie Joe Amstrong was removed from a Southwest Airlines Flight from Oakland to Burbank, California for the same reason (US Magazine 2011). In the same vein, Japanese snow boarder Kazuhiro Kokubo was barred from participating in the opening ceremonies of the 2010 winter Olympics in Vancouver due to dressing sloppily, including a loosened tie, shirt hanging out and sagging pants AFP.

The music industries that made sagging popular have not been left out in cleaning her mess. Sagging has been ridiculed in music videos. First in the 1996 song: ‘back pockets on the floor’ performed by the Green Brother of Highland Park Michigan. Another song in 2007 by Dewayne Brown of Dallas, Texas entitled “pull your pants up” has a similar message. On January 13, 2010, ‘General’ Larry Platt performed “pants on the ground” during auditions for the ninth season of American idol in Atlanta, Georgia. In 2012 a 9-year old rapper named Amor “ Lilman” Artega wrote a song titled “Pull ya pants up,” and made music video with an appearance by Brooklyn President Marty Markowitz (Weichselbaum, 2012).

On the parts of individuals, people have refused to either sell or attend to customers who are sagging their pants. People with saggy pants; have been sent out of offices, work places, etc. The campaigns against saggy pants have not received the same momentum in Nigeria that is supposed to be at the forefront of defending her social values of decent dressing. Though there have been few campaigns against indecent dressing patterns, these campaigns have been focused on the girls alone giving less attention to boys. Some private universities have really done a good job in banning indecent dressing which include sagging in their campuses with stiff penalty ranging from suspension to expulsion. Very few public Universities in Nigeria takes such a drastic measure. This no doubt might be responsible for the increasing number of male undergraduate sagging their pants.

In some cases where public Universities enact a dress code, students disobey these rules and no punishment is meted out on them. For instance, Olori (2003) reported that at the University of Abuja, rules were made that any dress won must not expose the breast, stomach, navel and bare chest but on this very campus, students still dress indecently. He further stated that the introduction of a dress code in Kogi State College of Education, Anpka, seems to have been misinterpreted by students to mean they should dress indecently. Similarly, in the Niger Delta University, Bayelsa State, the school authority under Prof. Chris Ikporukpo as Vice-Chancellor and Dr. (Mrs) D.D. Bawo as Dean Students Affairs made rules prohibiting students from dressing indecently inside the campuses or to lecture halls. The penalty was a mere refusal to allow such students to enter a particular lecture or disallowed from entering the campus and nothing else. As at presents, such policy no longer have a binding effect on the students again as student have returned to their craze of indecent dress pattern without sanctions. Commenting on this Omede (2011) observed that one is not surprised because what is typical of most Nigerian administration is always a wide gap between policy formulation and execution. At the State and Federal levels there appear to be no law at all regarding indecent dress pattern which researches has shown is correlated with sexual harassment, ritual killings, tendency to
steal, lying, HIV/AIDS explosion, poor performance in school work, and sin against God and humanity (Omede, 2011).

Sociological and Health Related Implications of ‘Sagging’ as Dress Pattern

Sagging of pants does not only elicit a social nuisance and non-conformity to social values, but also has health implications to those who sag. According to a study carried out by National American Medical Association, NAMA, ‘sagging’ has a prolonged health risk. Corroborating this, Dr. Aaron Parnell, a posture and vitality expert stated that one of the biggest problems is severe bad posture. According to him, those who sag in trying to keep their pants from falling down are forced to walk in an awkward manner. They rotate their legs inwardly at the knees and turn their feet outward to keep balance. This however, creates bad posture. Furthermore, he noted that walking with saggy pants can also lead to hip degeneration and low back problems, and that if one continues rotating legs like that everyday, it can lead to life-long knee misalignments and bunions (Davey, 2011).

Moreover, as Dr. Mark Oliver Mansbach of NAMA also added, the continuous wearing of sagging pants severely impact sexual performance. According to the study, it was revealed that sagging pants wearers are 70% more likely to prematurely ejaculate during intercourse. Still from their findings, there are increasing number of cases of men as Young as 23 having severe cases of Erectile Dysfunction. The cause has been traced back to the constant mis-aligning of their hips and lower torso from the gait (people’s walking patterns) which are Symptomatic to sagging pants. Mansbach estimated that 75 - 82% of the men who wear saggy pants have some sort of sexual dysfunction (Davey, 2011). In support of the sexual dysfunction the study revealed, another study titled “Wearing saggy pants linked to erectile dysfunction and other health issues”, has it that walking consistently with sagging pants lead to hip issues and problems with the human backs (cf. Miller, 2012).

MATERIALS AND METHOD

The study was conducted among selected Male ‘A’ Level students of Bayelsa State College of Arts and Science, Yenagoa, Bayelsa State Nigeria between October and December 2013. The research adopted survey design. One hundred and eighty male students participated in the study ($N = 180$). Due to the nature and goal for which the study was set to achieve, non-probabilistic sampling technique was used in the selection of respondents. The choice of this sampling technique (accidental sampling technique) however, was motivated by the researchers to select male students who were seen in that mode of dressing style – ‘sagging’ in the school premises so that such a participant would be administered questionnaire to answer after seeking his consent and voluntary participation in the study. In fact, the respect of participants’ fundamental human rights subject to research ethics was duly observed throughout the study by the researchers relatively to the assurance of participants’ anonymity and confidentiality. Data collected were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to ensure high level of validity and reliability (Chronbach’s alpha of 0.73). Variables were presented and analyzed using simple percentage in table format.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-demographics

Socio-demographically, the study revealed that the largest percentage (71%) of the age of students who participated was between 15-20 years, 24% of them were of the age range of between 21-25 years, while the least percentage of the age range of the respondents who participated in the study were above 25 years old.
This invariably implies that male students who are of the age range between 15-20 are more vulnerable to the phenomenon under investigation. This is can also be confirmed by the nature of the study locale where students who just graduated from secondary schools enroll in preparation for higher schools of learning.

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Socio-demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequencies (N = 180)</th>
<th>Percentages (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25+</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident Area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ATR=African Traditional Religion

Moreover, in terms of the residential area of the respondents, the table also revealed that the larger percentage of the respondents were of the cities or urban centres as their residential areas compare to only 3% of them who were of the countryside. In order words, it means that among the respondents who participated in the study, those who reside in the cities or urban centres are more likely to be vulnerable to ‘sagging’ as dress pattern in the study areas. On the account of the religion of the respondents, table 1 also indicated that the largest percentage (98%) of the respondents were of the Christian religion in contrast to only 1% of those in Islam, as well as the 1% of those in ATR. This is undoubtedly implies that respondents who engage more in ‘sagging’ as a dress pattern are Christians. This may also be attributable to the study area where Christianity as a religion dominates their religious activities compare to other categories of religion.

Other Categories of Responses

Respondents were asked the reasons why they sag their trousers, the result in table 2 showed that 20% of the respondents indicated ‘to show off’, 30% of them said they saw ‘others do it’, 36% of indicated ‘for fashion’, 7% said they ‘just feel like’, 4% of them said ‘it is an habit’, while only 3% of them indicated ‘don’t know’. In this however, it means the new dress pattern by the respondents has no cogent reasons for them to have been involved in such type of dress pattern even with the largest percentage of the respondents (36%) who indicated ‘for fashion’, that is the negative effect of globalization and modernization, as well as the 30% of them who indicated that ‘they saw others doing it’, that is the influence of peer pressure or social influence.

In a further investigation from the respondents as to their perception of ‘sagging’ as normal dress pattern, the largest percentage of them 84% wittingly said ‘no’ in contrast to 10% of them who agreed to say ‘yes’ and the few of them (6%) who said ‘don’t know’ or undecided (see table 2). This suggests that despite their perception of the largest percentage of respondents to the new dress pattern as ‘not normal’ they still engage in such dress pattern. In the light of this however, respondents were further asked when they normally sag, the largest percentage (57%) indicated that ‘when going to party’, 26% said ‘whenever going
out’, 11% of them said ‘when around their environment’, while the least of them (6%) said ‘anytime’. This equally suggests that the largest percentage (57%) of them who indicated ‘when going to party’ were still in one way or the other influenced by peer pressure, as well as some of the categories of respondents in this variable (see table 2).

Table 2: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by other Categories of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N = 180)</td>
<td>(%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for 'sagging'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show off</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others do it</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Fashion</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just feel like</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is an habit</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceiving 'sagging' as normal dress pattern</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t Know</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When do you normally sag?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When going to party</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whenever going out</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When around my environment</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anytime</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How often do you sag your trousers?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most times but not always</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did you learn how to sag as a new dress pattern?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer group/friends</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television/internet</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hip Hop artistes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the reactions from your parents/guardian when 'sagging'?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They have never seen me sag</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angered and cautioned me to stop it</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They see it to be fashion so they don’t react</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any warning from those in authority when found sag?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you aware that 'sagging' has health related negative effects?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to ascertain the frequency of ‘sagging’, male respondents were asked how often they sag their trousers: the largest percentage (73%) of respondents indicated that ‘most times but not always, 18% of them said ‘rarely’, while only (9%) of them indicated ‘always’. This however suggests that respondents sag their
trousers ‘most times’ as indicated by the largest percentage of respondents (73%) ‘most times but not always’.

Furthermore, in an attempt to ascertain where respondents got encultured with the new pattern of dress, they were asked where the dress pattern was learnt from, the largest percentage of the respondents (52%) indicated through ‘television/internet’, 43% of them said through ‘peer groups/friends’, while only 4% of them indicated ‘hip hop artistes’ (see table 2). This invariably implies that the impact of globalization and modernization in this type of new dress pattern among the male respondents are very significant as revealed by the 52% of them who indicated ‘through ‘television and internet’. This also alludes the fact that those in the urban centres who have access to these facilities are more likely to be more vulnerable than their rural counterparts.

In ascertaining the reactions of parent/guardians on the new pattern of dressing among the male respondents, respondents were asked ‘how their parents/guardians react when found in the new dress pattern’: table 2 showed the summary of the result and therefore, indicated that 25% of them said ‘they have never seen them sag’, 71% of them indicated ‘angered and cautioned me to stop it’, while only 4% of them said ‘they see it to be fashion so they don’t react’. This invariably suggests that the largest percentage (71%) of the respondents who said ‘angered and cautioned me to stop it’ frowned at the new dress pattern in contrast to other categories of respondents in this variable. In addition to this, respondents were further asked whether any warning or arrest had been received from those in authority when found in that dress pattern, the larger percentage (91%) indicated ‘yes’ compare to only 9% of them who said ‘no’ (see table 2). This means that apart from informal way of discouraging the new dress pattern, formal way of discouraging it is also in vogue.

As to whether the respondents were aware of the negative health related effects of the new dress pattern on those who engage in its practice, 98% of them indicated ‘no’ in contrast to only 2% of them who said ‘yes’ (see table 2). Interestingly, this study reveals ignorance of the health or body related negative effects on those who engage in the new pattern of dressing which is the major focus of the study.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The central objective of the study was to carry out an investigative analysis of the impact of indecent dressing pattern on impending body deformity among selected male ‘A’ level students in Bayelsa State, while the specific objectives of the study was to examine the spate of the dress pattern among male youths in the study area. In this however, the findings of the study indicated that among the selected male ‘A’ Level students age range between 15-20 years were more prevalence in ‘sagging’, including those who resided in the urban centres in contrast to their rural counterparts, as well as those who were of Christianity religion in contrast to other religion.

Similarly, study revealed that reasons for ‘sagging’ by the respondents were ranged from ‘just to show off’, ‘because others do it’, ‘for fashion sake’, ‘just feel like’ and ‘it is an habit’ were all accounted for the reasons for ‘sagging’ among the respondents. But the reasons ‘others do it and for the sake of fashion’ were more prevalent as reasons. In terms of their perception on sagging as normal, study revealed that among the respondents who said ‘no’ were more prevalent.

Moreover, findings on the frequency of sagging among respondents showed that it is more prevalent when going to party as well as those who wear it ‘most of the time but not always’ are more prevalent. Findings on where the new dress pattern was learnt indicated that television/internet even peer groups/friends as where respondents learnt it were more prevalent. In terms of the reactions of parents/guardians and those in authority towards the attitude of sagging among adolescent male youths, findings indicated that angered and cautioned them to stop it by parents as well as receiving warning from those in authority were more prevalent than those who condole the practice among the male respondents.
Interestingly in the findings on the awareness of health related negative effects of the new pattern of dress among the selected male adolescent, it was revealed that they were not aware of the health related negative consequences as it was indicated in table 2.

The study has shown that ‘sagging’ as a new dress pattern is prevalent among the selected male ‘A’ Level students in the study area as indicated by the findings of the study. But of more interesting to the findings of the study which is the central focus of the study is the limited awareness of the respondents to the health related negative consequences of ‘sagging’ as a new dress pattern among the respondents. Despite the review of literature on the negative health consequences of ‘sagging’ on bad body posture (Davey, 2011); sexual performance dysfunction or erectile dysfunction (Miller, 2012); as well as caution and warning received from parents/guardians and those in authority respectively, the impending body deformity resulting from indecent dressing habit of ‘sagging’ among the male respondents have not been known among the selected male youths.

Fundamental to this study however, is the limitation of the findings of this study, nevertheless this study have a lot of policy implications. In view of the findings of the study which has revealed that Ignorance of health related problems caused by ‘Sagging’ seems to perpetuate the dressing pattern among youths, it has become imperative in order to curtail this problem, the need for Government, Public and Private Schools alike, and other stake holders to sensitize the youths through campaigns and public education on the implication of ‘sagging’ on their health. Clinical experts should be encouraged to take samples of individuals for study overtime in order to gather more empirical evidence as to the human body postural and sexual performance of ‘sagging’ youths. Similar to this, the need for parents/guardians as well as those in authority – school authority and other relevance agencies should facilitate and strengthen their efforts to stop the youths from such dress pattern by putting in place more stringent measures to stop this menace.

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Mother–Tongue Education in Botswana

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Abstract

The paper examines mother tongue education in Botswana. For comparison purposes the paper includes a discussion of mother tongue education in some countries in sub-Saharan Africa, especially those in Southern Africa. The paper is a survey of the research in these countries. The research reveals that mother tongue education is generally confined to the first two years of primary school after which a former colonial language, such as English takes over as the medium of instruction. The paper also reveals that studies in this region point to the fact that there are some serious impediments to mother tongue education, which include the colonial legacy of these countries. Their colonial heritage includes challenges such as linguicism and the hegemony of the former colonial languages such as English, which limits the domains of use of the local languages. The paper concludes that the extension of mother tongue education in Botswana to the fifth year of primary school could go a long way in helping students enjoy its benefits at this crucial foundational stage.

Keywords: Colonial language, Mother tongue education, Hegemony, Indigenous children, Competence, Vernacular.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


INTRODUCTION

The paper examines mother tongue education in Botswana. For comparison purposes the paper includes a discussion of mother tongue education in some countries in sub-Saharan Africa, especially those in Southern Africa. The paper is a survey of the research in these countries. It also discusses mother tongue education in the light of the belief that students tend to learn best when taught in their mother tongue. It argues that while research in Botswana and other Sub-Saharan countries has shown that in many of these countries English medium or French medium or Portuguese medium education may be a problem for primary school pupils (Arthur, 1994, 1998; Heugh, 2003; Phaswana, 2003; Bamgbose, 1991; Adegbija, 1994), mother tongue education beyond primary school may lead to the further marginalization of the countries in the light of the hegemony of these languages in these countries, especially English, which has assumed global hegemony.

The purpose of this study is to make education practitioners, policy makers, mother tongue education advocates, senior government officials and other stakeholders in education to be aware of the challenges that mother tongue education is facing, which is advocated world-wide. Mother tongue education can be used to overcome challenges in educational development.
The implementation of mother tongue education with maximum benefits and minimal adverse effects is beneficial for educational development. It is hoped that this paper will contribute towards extending education to indigenous and minority groups in Botswana, whose access to education is currently limited by lack of mother tongue education, and suggesting ways it could be introduced.

**BENEFITS OF MOTHER TONGUE EDUCATION**

Mother tongue is regarded as crucial for the education of the child. For instance the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) policy regarding migrant education states that the mother tongue plays a very important part in a child's identity and self-esteem (OECD, 2010). It further says that the mother tongue provides the basis for the child's ability to learn. The child finds it easier to learn their second language and other school subjects. It is of considerable advantage to society if many people are multilingual. It has also been argued that children should be taught mainly through the medium of their mother tongue in school for the first 6-8 years (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009; Stegen, 2005; Phongsathorn & Person, 2013).

The reason many language learning scholars support mother tongue in the early years of schooling is that when children come to school, they can talk in their mother tongue about concrete everyday things in a face-to-face situation in their own environment where the context is clear: they can see and touch the things they are talking about and they get immediate feedback if they do not understand (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). They speak fluently, with a native accent, and they know the basic grammar and many concrete words. They can explain all their basic needs in the mother tongue and they have basic interpersonal communicative skills. This is usually adequate for the first grades in school where teachers are still dealing with things that the child knows. But later in school children need abstract, intellectually and linguistically much more demanding concepts; they need to be able to understand and talk about things that are not within their immediate environment, such as geography or history or things that cannot be seen such as mathematical and scientific concepts, honesty, constitution, fairness, democracy. They need to be able to solve problems using just language and abstract reasoning, without being able to do concrete things. Skutnabb-Kangas (2009) asserts that the cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP) that is needed to handle school subjects in later grades in primary school, in secondary school and later in life, develops slowly. Children need to develop these abstract concepts on the basis of what they already know in their mother tongue. Skutnabb-Kangas (2009) further asserts that if the development of the mother tongue CALP is cut off when the child starts school, s/he may never have an opportunity to develop higher abstract thinking in any language.

If teaching is in a language that the indigenous/minority child does not know (e.g. Setswana), the child sits in the classroom the first 2-3 years without understanding much of the teaching, he/she may repeat mechanically what the teacher says, without understanding, without developing her capacity to think with the help of language, and without learning almost anything of the subjects that s/he is taught (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009). This is why many indigenous/minority children leave school early, not having learned much Setswana or any of the majority languages, not having learned properly how to read and write, not having developed their mother tongue, and almost without any school knowledge (Mokibelo & Moumakwa, 2006; Mokibelo, 2010; Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009)

Scholars have argued that if the child has the mother tongue as the teaching language, he/she understands the teaching, learns the subjects, develops the CALP in the mother tongue, and has very good chances of becoming a thinking, knowledgeable person who can continue the education (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2009; Phongsathorn & Person, 2013).

**THE PRICE OF SUPPRESSION OF INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES AND CULTURES**

Phongsathorn and Person (2013) contend that suppression of indigenous languages and cultures often results in the exclusion of indigenous peoples from basic social services, such as health care and education, lack of access to land and resources, and limited employment opportunities. This is
particularly true with education. Forced to study unfamiliar concepts in a language they do not understand, indigenous children fare worse than their non-indigenous peers in terms of school enrolments, retention rates, literacy levels and academic achievement. Mokibelo and Moumakwa (2006) and Mokibelo (2010) found Phongsathorn and Person (2013) assertion to be true in their study among both primary and secondary Khoe learners from Motsehegaletau, a remote village in Botswana.

MOTHER TONGUE EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

In many African countries, at primary school level or during the first years of primary school, mother-tongue education is the norm, followed by second language education, mostly an ex-colonial language like English, French, or Portuguese (Bamgbose, 1991). With regard to South Africa, (Heugh, 2003) argues that mother tongue education should be implemented in South Africa as students tend to learn best when taught in their mother tongue. She argues that despite the inequitable intent of Bantu education (Bantu Education was intended to give Africans an education that made them docile servants of white South Africans), the school leaving pass rates of African language speaking pupils steadily increased after its introduction, with eight years of mother-tongue education. She further contends that after a revolt against Bantu education in 1976, the change from mother tongue to second language medium (mostly English) was brought back to the fifth year of school. She goes on to argue that instead of pass rates improving, as many parents expected, they began a downward trend. Though the value of mother-tongue education cannot be denied, it is rather simplistic to blame the downward trend of pass rates after 1976 in former apartheid South Africa, solely on the bringing back of mother-tongue education from the eighth year of school to the fifth year.

After the student revolt of June 16, 1976, the educational climate in South Africa never really stabilised for normal educational activities to go on. Chick (1996,p. 34) claims that the uprising “spread to the rest of the country, almost assuming the proportions of a full-scale civil war”. Chick (1996) also maintains that the Bantu education system made it a point that most of the teachers in the home-lands like Kwa-Zulu, did not speak English with confidence or fluency, used outmoded materials, and had almost no contact with English speakers. She also makes the point that following the shift to English as medium in primary schools from the fifth year onward, no changes were made to the syllabus for English to prepare the ground linguistically and conceptually for its use across the curriculum. As a result black primary school students were not adequately prepared for the sudden transition to English after the fourth year of schooling concurrently with the broadening of the curriculum to ten subjects.

She further argues that the English competence required for reading content subject text books in the fourth and fifth years of schooling, was far beyond the English competence that might have been expected from a student who had optimally benefited from English as a second language teaching materials then used in junior primary schools. Because of this situation, Chick (1996) argues, teachers tended to resort to providing notes that the students were required to memorise. She further asserts that in 1989, while 100% of teachers in schools for whites were professionally trained, in the sense that in addition to having at least matriculation or higher academic qualifications, they also possessed teachers’ certificates or diplomas, only 20% of teachers in black primary schools and 10% in black secondary schools were professionally qualified. Therefore, in view of the above points raised by Chick (1996) many factors beside the language one may have contributed to the downward trend of pass rates after 1976. Valid though Chick’s (1976) arguments are, they do not discount the fact that with mother education students performed better in their examinations, despite the evil intent of Bantu education.

BARRIERS TO MOTHER TONGUE EDUCATION

The Hegemony of English

Bourdieu (1991) offers an interesting aspect to the relationship between language and power. He contends that the linguistic relation to power is not completely determined by the prevailing linguistic forces alone. He asserts that by virtue of the languages spoken, the speakers who use them and the groups defined by possession of the corresponding competence (ability to speak a language), the whole social
structure is present in each interaction (and thereby in the discourse uttered). He further argues that what happens, for instance, between an employer and an employee or in a colonial situation between a French speaker and an Arabic speaker or in the post-colonial situation between two members of former colonized nation, one Setswana speaking and the other English speaking—derives its particular form from the objective relation between the corresponding languages or usages, that is, between the groups who speak those languages.

Bourdieu (1977) further expands on the above point by asserting that a language is worth what those who speak it are worth. He argues that at the level of interactions between individuals, speech always owes a major part of its value to the person who utters it. Language cannot be viewed independently of the speaker’s social status; the evaluation of competence takes into account the relationship between the speaker’s social properties and the specifically linguistic properties of his/her discourse, i.e. the match or mismatch between language and speaker. According to Bourdieu sometimes the dominant class can make deliberately or accidentally lax use of language without their discourse ever being invested with the same social value as that of the dominated. What speaks, according to him is not the utterance, the language, but the whole social person. Perhaps this might explain why in Botswana, in the past and to a lesser extent even now in certain schools, most private English medium primary and secondary schools where the dominant classes or the ruling elite send their children preferred to employ first language teachers of English either from the United Kingdom or the United States to teach in their schools. English first language speakers from these countries are symbols of the power of those countries.

During colonisation of countries in Africa, Asia and South America the Other, the subjugated oppressed colonised peoples internalised racist discourses and started to see themselves in the stigmatised light their oppressors saw them. Bourdieu (1991) also asserts that in order for one mode of expression or language among others to impose itself as the only legitimate one, the linguistic market has to be unified and the different class or regional languages or ‘dialects’ have to be measured practically against the legitimate language. This implies that important linguistic markets such as education, administration or government have to be unified in promoting the dominant language. This was exactly the case in colonial times where in the important linguistic markets only the colonial languages were promoted, and the languages of the colonised peoples were stigmatized as dialects, vernaculars, and patois.

The colonised peoples accepted their stigmatised position and in order to better their lot began to strive to be like the norm, i.e. the Self. In many African countries, especially in so-called French and Portuguese Africa, there were many Africans who gained the coveted status of ‘assimilado’ by learning the language and culture of their colonial oppressors. Gaining this status literally meant one had joined the oppressors/master through gaining the citizenship of the colonial power (Adegbija, 1994). The British policy tended to be subtler than the assimilation policies of the French and Portuguese, in that even though competence in English did give Africans in the colonies power and influence among their own people they were never really trained to identify with and to behave like their British masters. Nevertheless those in the British colonies who strived hard to learn the English language and culture gained prominence in the eyes of their fellow Africans because of having learned the language of power and gaining employment in the colonial administrative system as clerks and teachers in the primary schools (Adegbija, 1994). This is the background of why former colonial languages, such as English in Botswana, have continued to be regarded as languages of power and hence the emphasis on their teaching, and local languages not regarded as that important and hence their neglect in education.

**Linguicism**

Linguicism is defined as ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, regulate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources (both material and immaterial) between groups which are defined on the basis of language (Phillipson 1992 & Skutnabb-Kangas 2000). In Botswana linguicism, operates at two different levels. First it operates at the level where English is used as the official language and language of education while local languages are seen as vernaculars, dialects or patois. While English is the language of power used by the ruling elite, the local A team (who are linked to the A team in the developed countries) and the Centre of the Periphery and those holding prestigious jobs in the Civil Service and the Private Sector or are entrepreneurs, the local languages are
used by the Periphery of the Periphery constituting the urban working class and rural folk who do not have much access to power and material resources.

Secondly, linguicism operates with regard to the relationship between Setswana, the language of the largest ethnic group, which plays the role of national language and the other local languages that are excluded and not even recognised as languages by the government. The very same discourses that were used by western imperialist powers to discredit and stigmatise African languages are used by the local A team or the local Centre in the Periphery that is in Botswana. A hierarchical opposition between Self, Us (speakers of a language, Setswana; therefore worthy of a nation-state of our own called Botswana) and Other, Them (speakers of dialects, vernaculars or patois, such as Ikalanga, Shekgalagari, Sesubiya, Sebirwa and others; therefore to be subsumed under a nation-state) has been created. All the other local languages are regarded as dialects or patois and only Setswana is regarded as a language worthy of recognition and support by the government. Therefore, Setswana speakers are regarded as a nation, and speakers of other local languages as tribes. It should be noted that there is a grading of languages in Botswana as far as their functions are concerned. English is given first priority in that it occupies important linguistic markets such as education, administration and government; Setswana is given the second priority as the national language and local lingua franca; and other local languages are given the least priority and do not occupy any important linguistic markets.

It should be noted that the support given by the A team or the local Centre to the development of the national language, Setswana, is only a token one. This is indicated by the fact that the ruling elite has firmly refused to expand the use of Setswana to more domains, such as the Public Service, Government, Judiciary and Education. This is not unique to Botswana, as Myers-Scotton (1990) has observed that in most sub-Saharan Africa a local elite (the local A team) has taken over political power from the former colonial ruling elite and they continue to use the same tools to exclude the poor majority from the corridors of power, including language. Pennycook (1994) also argues, in relation specifically to the hegemony of English in education, that in many educational systems around the world, language has become the power tool of inclusion into or exclusion from further education, employment, or social positions. In many former British colonies, he further contends, particularly in Africa, small English-speaking elites have continued the policies of the former colonial elite, using access to English language education as a crucial distributor of social power, prestige and wealth. So English is used by the ruling elite to exclude the majority of the people in Botswana, who are not competent in English, from participating fully in the economic and social affairs of the country. One of the aims of BGCSE English syllabus, which is to prepare students “for their personal, social and economic future so that they can make a full contribution to a democratic society” (Education, 2000),p. ii), lend support to this view, since it implies that one needs to know English in order to make full contribution in society.

Batibo (2005) has identified 28 languages that are spoken in Botswana and has categorized them into four groups according to their status and prestige in the country. The first group consists of the ex-colonial language with the highest prestige and status, the second of the nationally dominant language which is second in status, the third of a really or regionally dominant languages, and the fourth one of the minority languages. In the Botswana language situation English has the undisputed supremacy as the sole official language and would therefore give advantage to those who happen to be proficient in it when it comes to participation in the public, economic and political life of the country.

Even in South Africa, where there is a multilingual policy, giving official status to nine African languages alongside English and Afrikaans, the elite seem to have found a way around that policy and use English to exclude the overwhelming majority from participating fully in the affairs of the country. For example, Phaswana (2003) found that in spite of the multilingual policy, of the speeches given by Members of Parliament (MP), the majority of whom represent speakers of the nine African official languages, 80-90 per cent were delivered in English, 10 per cent in Afrikaans and the balance in African languages. Phaswana interviewed the MPs to find out why they were ignoring the language policy. Some MPs said that the language policy was just an ideal that does not work in practice. One of the MP is reported to have also said that a speaker of any African language is perceived as uneducated and uncivilised whereas speakers of English are perceived to be well informed and better educated. He is also reported to have said that people do not feel honoured when using their African languages. He is further
reported to have said that because of colonisation Black South Africans see themselves as inferior to their white counterparts.

Kamwangamalu (1997) reporting the experiences of black students and teachers in South Africa quoted one student saying:

“In my school, if you know English, you are everything. We identify education with English. Once you see a person reading Zulu, you think that person is not educated” (p. 243).

The above comment reveals the tendency by many former colonised people of equating proficiency in an ex-colonial language, such as English, with being educated. As discussed earlier on these kinds of attitudes towards African languages by the Africans themselves and also towards themselves as people were internalised through imperialist, racist and linguists discourses. The ‘whites’ and their languages were seen as the glorified Self while the ‘blacks’ and their languages were seen as the stigmatised other. The language of the ‘whites’ English, was the glorified Self, giving power and education (in fact in the eyes of most Africans in sub-Saharan former British colonies English is synonymous with education because it has always been the language of education since the introduction of western education) while the African languages were the stigmatised Other, regarded as deficient (vernaculars, dialects and patois only used for cultural purposes).

Other revealing comments were to the effect that if one does not know English, no amount of formal education helps because white people think education is not education unless it has taught a person English. In the Transkei, one of the former Bantustans (so called black homeland meant for the Xhosa speaking Africans in former apartheid South Africa) where mother tongue education used to be followed from year one up to year eight of school, Kamwangamalu (1997) reports that employers complained that when graduates of matric (year 12) came to them looking for employment, it seemed as if they were not telling the truth when they said they had passed matric, because they could not speak English. This shows that in South Africa education is associated with a good proficiency in English by most ordinary black and white people. These attitudes are not unique to South Africa, but are found throughout sub-Saharan Africa. They explain why after so many years of independence sub-Saharan African countries still have former colonial languages such as English or French as their official languages instead of an African language. It will only take what (Ngugi, 1987) calls the decolonisation of the minds of the African people for things to change.

In Botswana, the same attitude of denigrating African languages and glorifying English, the former colonial language prevails. In fact most of the ruling elite do not send their children to public schools, where they would have to be taught in Setswana, the national language, for the first two years of school. They instead send their children to private English medium schools where they are taught in English from the first year of school. The environment in private primary and secondary schools is very different from what it is in public primary and secondary schools. The medium of instruction and communication in the private schools is strictly English and many the teachers in these schools are mostly first language speakers of English. On the other hand the medium of instruction in public schools from year one to two is Setswana, and from year three to the last year of secondary school is English. However for most of the times the medium of communication in all the years in primary schools is Setswana (Arthur, 1994). At secondary school, while the medium of communication between students and teachers is mostly in English, most communication among the students themselves is mostly in Setswana. The ruling elite doesn’t seem to think that the learning environment in public schools is good enough because of its policy of mother tongue education up to standard two (grade two), hence they send their own children to private English medium schools.

In Botswana, Arthur (1994) studied classroom interaction in standard 6 (grade 6). Before 1994 the medium of instruction was Setswana up to standard four. The second year after the introduction of English as the medium of instruction found that teachers also used outmoded teaching methods that included the same rhythmic chorusing prompts and responses. The studies of Chick (1996) in South Africa, Brock-Utne (2005) and Bunyi (2005) in Kenya, and Brock-Utne and Holmarsdottir (2004) in Tanzania, maintains that the limited roles played by English at societal level in the country were
paralleled in the classroom by a limited functional range in which English is only used for instructional purposes. English is only used for the delivery of the lesson which were heavily teacher-centred and not for ordinary communication in the classroom. She asserts that the consequences of the limited range of English use in the society are reflected in an instructional style in which formulaic memorisation plays a central part. Arthur (1994) concludes that the policy of English medium from standard six (usually standard five) is a handicap to teachers and pupils in their pursuit of meaningful learning.

Mokibelo and Moumakwa (2006) and Mokibelo (2010), conducted studies among both primary and secondary Khoe learners from Motehegaletau, a remote village in Botswana, and found that the language of instruction, English, was a barrier to learners’ acquisition of reading skills. However, it is interesting to note that primary school teachers actually support English medium education despite the fact that many of them find it a challenge to teach in it. Arthur (1997) reports the findings of a survey with Botswana primary teachers in which they were found to support English medium on account of both its symbolic role as the language of educational achievement and its practical role in the national examination system.

The teacher’ attitudes towards English medium education reflect the sociolinguistic status of English in Botswana, in which it is considered a marker of social mobility and a language of power. The present English medium education policy is also informed by it. This was clearly demonstrated when a Presidential Commission on Education consulted with people around the country on educational policy between 1992 and 1994. One of the public’s popular demands was that public primary schools be turned into full English medium schools like private schools. Though not fully embracing this demand the government changed the policy and brought forward the introduction of English as a medium of instruction from standard 5 to standard 2 (Government of Botswana, 1997).

While it is true the practice of English medium education in the last three years of primary school is a problem, especially in the rural areas where exposure to English beside the classroom is minimum, the main handicap is not necessarily the policy but the instructional styles of the teachers, which might be due to the poor qualifications and training of the teachers. In the private primary schools where the teachers are well trained, though English medium education begins at standard one, the pupils cope with it. In Botswana primary schools there are still many teachers (17.3% according to Ministry of Education 1994 Education statistics) who are untrained (National Development Plan, Government of Botswana, 1997). There are also significant number of teachers whose highest academic qualification is only the primary school leaving certificate and a two year Teachers Certificate (Government of Botswana, 1997). The highest academic qualification of the majority of primary school teachers is only form three (year 10) with PTC as their highest professional qualification. Such teachers’ English competence is likely to be inadequate.

However, in the secondary school system teachers’ educational level and professional qualifications are much higher than those of their primary counterparts. At junior secondary level the lowest academic qualification is form five (year twelve) and the lowest professional qualification is a three year teachers’ diploma after form five. There are also many teachers at junior secondary school who hold bachelors degrees plus post graduate certificates and/or diplomas in education (Government of Botswana, 2003). At senior secondary level the lowest academic qualification is a bachelor’s degree and almost all the teachers also have post graduate certificates or diplomas in education. Many senior secondary school teachers also have master’s degrees in education (Government of Botswana, 2003).

It should be noted that the official policy indicates that English medium education begins at grade two in primary school (Government of Botswana, 1997). However in practice anecdotal evidence indicate that teachers continue to follow the old policy of English medium education from grade five onwards because it is more realistic than the present one. In view of the above there is no compelling reason for a major change of the present practice of four years of mother tongue education. This practice should be recognized by making the policy of mother tongue education five years instead of the current two. Mother tongue education should not be just limited to Setswana speakers but be extended to speakers of other local languages in Botswana. This will give the pupils a little more time to acquire more English from their ESL class before they switch to English medium education. After that through five years of being taught English both as a subject and a medium of instruction as part of nine years of free basic education should extend English proficiency to as many people as possible in Botswana so that, with
time, it stops being used by the elite as the power tool of inclusion into or exclusion from further education, employment, or social positions.

There are compelling reasons why English medium education should be maintained in Botswana. It should be noted that English medium education has a number of advantages in third world countries. First English opens up vast amounts of knowledge written in the English language. (Crystal, 1997): 220) referring to the status of English as a global language asserts that “access to the emerging global language-widely perceived as a language of opportunity-needs to be guaranteed.” It is important to note that this goal is close to being realised in Botswana in the sense that access to education (and to English because it is taught as a subject from standard one to form five and as a medium of education from standard five onwards) is almost 100% and free from standard one (grade one) to form three (year 10).

The less than 10% who still do not go to school do not do so due to economic reasons but linguistic and cultural as research by Mokibelo and Moumakwa (2006) and Mokibelo (2010) found out. Once mother education is introduced in the first five years of school, this group would cease to exist. For instance, some children of hunter/gatherer communities do not go to school due to the fact that they do not understand the medium of instruction in class and also due their mobile life styles. In Botswana by form three (year ten), which is ten years of learning English, a learner is able to communicate in English. This is important because in Botswana since 1994, unlike in the rest of Africa access to English is extended to every child, not just to the children of the ruling elite (Government of Botswana, 1997).

Pakir (1999)) describes the importance of English as a global language in the following terms:

> English is a global vehicle that refuels at every stop, creates economic and other opportunities, and returns to its home bases, each time upping the financial ante for English users. English has become a global commodity that seems to have no sell-by date attached to it (p. 104).

Pakir (1999) further contends that the fact that English is the main language of the Internet has globalised it even more. She perceptively argues that small countries like Singapore and Brunei have little choice, but to connect or plug into the international grid of business and finance. Botswana is in the same position as these small countries, and at the moment the country is in the process of establishing itself as an International Financial Service Centre (IFSC) in Southern Africa (Government of Botswana, 1997). This project could not be easily accomplished without the use of English as the medium of communication in business in Botswana. The country with its small population of about two million is too small to be inward looking when it comes to the language of education and wider communication. English is therefore, the best choice considering its status as a global language, and it serves the country well by connecting it to the rest of Africa and the rest of the world.

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

Existing research suggests that mother tongue-based bilingual education programs benefit children’s language skills and overall academic achievement, along with their self-confidence and cultural pride. Mother tongue-based bi/multilingual programs enable learners to begin their education in the language they know best. Later, a lingua franca and an international language can be introduced as subjects of study and eventually as additional media of instruction.

However, research shows that in Botswana and most sub-Saharan Africa mother tongue education is confined to the first two years of education. After that education in a former colonial language is introduced before pupils develop cognitive-academic language proficiency in their mother tongue. This may disadvantage them as they may never have an opportunity to develop higher abstract thinking in any language.

With regard to Botswana both the hegemony of English and linguicism has led to a situation where children from indigenous/minority groups are confronted with two strange languages (Setswana and English) on their first day at school. This has led to some children from indigenous/minority groups dropping from school. In the light of this a policy that combines both mother tongue education at lower and mid primary levels and English medium education from upper primary upwards would be the wiser
choice considering the status of English as a global language, which would serve the country well by connecting it to the rest of Africa and the rest of the world.

The best policy at this stage is for the government to recognise that Botswana is a multilingual country and to commit itself to the development and using all its local languages as mediums of instruction for pupils who speak them as their mother tongues in the first five years of school and also offering all its local languages as optional subjects in the schools. In other words a new language policy is needed that promotes mother tongue education and considers the multilingual nature of the country as a positive feature and not as a problematic situation. The policy should consider the various languages of the country as resources to be exploited for the benefit of the country as a whole and not as sources of problems, as seems to be the case now.

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Education and Morality in a Multi–Cultural and Multi–Religious Society

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Abstract

Education is a social system consciously, conscientiously consistently and systematically set to produce the quality manpower expected to take their rightful places in the society. This social system or human development project in some cases runs from birth to adulthood, as it takes care of every aspect of the individual’s Life. The three major departments which every sound education system covers in the individual’s Life are the cognitive, the Affective and the Psycho motor domains. This otherwise refers to the mental, moral and physical development of the person. This paper X-rays the place of education in dealing with the moral challenges of persons in a multi-cultural and multi-Religious society like Nigeria. The paper applies a philosophical approach as it deals with the analysis of some key concepts that inform the topic such as: education, morality, multi-cultural and multi-Religious society. The study reveals the diverse moral challenges in complex societies which reduces morality to the level of subjectivity. This then paralyses the general understanding of what ought to be done and what ought not to be done within an inter-cultural and inter religious setting. Therefore the study strongly recommends, among other measures, a general overhaul of the nation School system, and the application of the rational moral principles as the way forward to multi-cultural and multi-Religious moral sentiments already in existence.

Keywords: Education, morality, multi-cultural, multi-religious, society.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:

INTRODUCTION

The contemporary societies are highly infected with diverse negative behaviours, attitudes, characters and actions. While there are daily increase of institutions of learning established from the pre-primary to the tertiary levels and the more than equal school enrolment of pupils and student at all levels of learning, the daily reports of vices in the society seem not justify the fact that education has any strong moral bearings on it products. The Nigeria case is much more worrisome, given the fact that a lot of wickedness exhibited today is championed by men and women, youths inclusive who have passed through one level of our institution of learning or the other.

From the process of evolving into leadership positions at all levels, to the governance itself and to the governed, there are cases of self imposition, self interest as against public interest, leading to the unfair treatment of political opponents, character assassination, killing, kidnapping, bribing, corruption, among others. These greed infested behaviours are not only Limited to the executive alms of government alone, but very obvious at the Legislative and judicial alms of government. In the case of the legislatives, we are informed that as much as one hunched and fifty billion Naira is carved out of the nation’s budget annually and emptied into the purse of our national assembly. The judiciary has also lost it integrity as some of the judgments read in the recent times do not suggest an institution of integrity. The tertiary institutions in Nigeria is branched with a lot of sad stories where some lecturers abandoned their duties as character molders and human builders to mean and unethical behaviours of demanding from students in cash or in kind or both to pass courses. The scenario raises a lot of moral questions on the personalities that inform the reformation of the education institutions. What is reported at the tertiary level of about the teachers’ moral credibility, cut cross other levels; such as the primary and post-primary.

Unfortunately, the products at the various levels of the school system; call it primary, secondary or tertiary appear to be more polluted than their teachers. Much more interest is shown in grabbing high scores than in learning since it could be possible, sometimes in cash or kind or both. The Spirit of hard work, dedication, honesty, integrity and such positive virtues are disregarded, sometimes due to diverse cultural and religious interpretation which informed their earlier lives and backgrounds, coupled with the contemporary predicaments.

The tragedy is that the society is filled up with school products that are not actually educated or highly developed, morality wise. These people turn out to occupy political, economic, social, religious positions in the society. Some of them indeed turn out to become teachers, at various levels of our school systems. The prostitutes, the armed robbers, the kidnappers, the political thugs and god fathers, the cultists and others who even fuel the Boko-Haram cases could be products of our education system. They are also products of the diverse cultural and religious entities of the wider society. This paper is set to examine the place of education in reshaping the moral integrity of Nigerians in the face of the multi-cultural and multi-religious challenges. Hence, the analysis of such major concept as “Education”, “morality”, “multi-cultural” and “multi-religious” society would strengthen the discuss.

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

The Concept of Education

“Education” is a process, deliberately planned and systematically executed to produce the “educated”. Every education system has the basic aim of producing the right persons for the society. What then is the “right person” or “the educated” depends on the type of society. Ezewu (1983:78) argues that “Educational aims direct the educative process”. He defended the above argument with reference to few historical citations starting from the Greeks. According to Him, the two major states of Greece that emerged in 450 BC were Spartans and Athens. Each of them differed in their education systems determined by their differing aims. For the Spartans the fear of the reprisal attack from the Helots (neighbour) who were more populated than
them made them to adopt an aim of education which was the production of “audacious and military men”. To achieve such aim the state directed the entire educative process by:

- Limiting individual’s natural wants, desires and passions
- Subordinating the individual’s will to the will of the state to the extent that the state owned the child both in body and soul:
- Compulsorily making every free citizen of the state a soldier.

In contrast to the Spartans, the Athenians were democratic in nature and believed more of intrinsic values rather than extrinsic. Hence they set the aim of their education on:

- The development of sound moral conduct
- The development of sound physical body and
- The development of intellectual competence (Ezewu, pp. 78-79)

The two contrasting features proved the point that the education aims and processes can vary depending on what the society needs. It is a social institution to produce the type of individuals that can fit into the needs of such society. This opinion does not, however, nullify the strong view that the individual unique potentials should not be unnecessarily compromised. This underscores the marriage of the two etymological concept of education “Educare” and “educere”.

The concept education is derived from the Greek root word “educare” and “educere”. Educare views education as a process of building, forming or molding the individual to the acceptable standard and needs of the society. Education in this perspective is sociological loaded. It favours the social interest even when the unique individual potentials may be compromised. Whereas, the other root word “educere” views education as the process of leading, guiding, and encouraging the individual to develop his inbuilt potentials for his interest and for the interest of the society. This approach to the concept “education” is humanistic as it takes due cognizance of the individual child’s unique potentials (Hirst & Peters, 1970; Amaele, 2010).

The issue, however, is that education, irrespective of the society, the age and race must be set on the standard that would explore the genuine inborn qualities of the individual without undermining the genuine needs of the society. The individual potentials must be addressed through procedures, methods, techniques and adequate personnel and environment. The education of the individual citizens must be adequate, qualitative and standard so as to produce the right calibre of people who would direct the diverse sectors of the society.


- Implies the transmission of what is with white to those who are committed to it.
- Must involve knowledge and understanding as well as some kind of cognition, which are not inert
- At least rules out some procedures of transmission on the ground that they lack willingness and witness on the part of the learner (Amaele, 2010, p. 54)

The Concept of Morality

Morality is a philosophical concept which falls under the wider or broad branch known as Axiology. It does not have a very easy definition because different schools of thought hold different views of morality and moral values. For instance, one of the earliest moral philosopher Aristotle (a realist) viewed morality as a disposition whereby man is pronounced good by the fact that he is good in himself and functions in a good way. Morality here is identified with goodness, which is not only pronounced but also observed.
Morality, indeed, is a concept that deals with the principles concerning what is right or wrong and what is good and bad. But the problem is who actually determines the right and the wrong or the good and bad, and how it is determined. The issue here is that what seems to be “right” in society “A” might be frowned at in society “B” and Verse-Versa. In Nigeria, for instance, where there is multi-cultural and multi-religious existence, while the Islamic and traditional faith allows polygamy in marriage, the Christian Faith emphasizes on monogamy.

Stressing on the concept morality Schofied (1972) states that the term morals implies “behaviour”, and the adjectives “moral” or “immoral” suggests behaviour which is accepted and unaccepted. According to him since norms or standard are established by society, there is a link between all three concepts of: value judgment, values and morals. The argument is that when a society establishes its standard of good and bad behaviour, such society is making a value-judgment, because it is saying that some forms of behaviours are more socially acceptable than others. This implies that the ability to understand and to identify with the available value judgments of a society is morality.

The views of Nduka (1983) and Amaele (2010) are not too far away from the above. The two uphold morality as behaviour in accordance with certain standards of what is right and good to be done and what is wrong and evil to be rejected by the members of the society. Omorogbe (1993) perceives morality as a means to an end. According to him actions that are intended to bring good result for those concerned are moral actions and should be encouraged while those intended to bring about bad result are immoral and should be discouraged. In this argument, to perform an action is to use the action as a means to an end, as an instrument used for the attainment of certain objective (s). Hence, if the end aimed at evil, the action as a whole is evil, notwithstanding if the means employed is good, since it is believed that a good means cannot justify an evil end. The definition and the illustration above, however, suggest that morality could be defined, further as the concerns for action that could be defended as good or rejected as evil by rational man. The word rational man is purposeful for action taken; good or bad must be defended, individually or collectively. This further warms that actions performed under unfounded religious extremism, biased and unsound mind, could be dangerous, especially in a multi-cultural and multi-religious society.

Multi-cultural

Culture is commonly refers to as people’s way of life. This expression has deeper interpretation, since the process of life entails all facts of human activities. The Oxford Advanced learners Dictionary, International Students Edition defines culture as “the customs and beliefs, arts, way of life and social organization of a particular country or group”. Biesanz in Okujagu (2003, p. 38) affirm that culture is:

> Configuration of learned and shared pattern of things, ideas, emotions, and actions, which arise out of language communication within a social group and that helps individual to adapt to his physical environment. In general, culture is the learned portion of human behaviour, their ways of feeling, thinking and doing things.

Indeed, culture is made up of members of the society, their work, their way of living, relationship network, their attitude to life, the focus of groups’ loyalties and discipline, as well as the way they perceive the world. This no doubt, explains why Taylor (1871) cited by Okujagu (2003) remains a serious reference point. He posits that culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, arts, morals, laws, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. Culture, therefore, is society in action. Every society has its own culture which is unique to it. The basic functions of culture world over include that it provides means of communication either through language or symbols, makes possible regularity of behavior or response that can be anticipated, provides methods of training young ones into the group ways of thinking and acting. It also provides knowledge and skills necessary for meeting our basic needs of food,
clothing and shelter as well as provides a means of identification with self and others in similar category and background.

The concept of multi-cultural society comes where different groups of people, each with its own unique cultural exposure come together to life and interact among themselves. In situations like this, each sub-cultural group identify themselves as belonging to a particular society, in which case these appear to be cultural relativism or cultural subjectivism. Each of the major cities in Nigeria, such as Lagos, Port Harcourt, Kano, Kaduna, Ibadan, Onitsha, Abuja, among others are clear examples of multi-cultural societies. Nigeria as a nation is typical example of a multi-cultural society, keeping together over two hundred different sub-cultural groups or nations as one. The major diverse cultural societies in Nigeria include the Ibos, Yorubas, Hausas, Fulanis, Effik, Nupe, Ijaw, among others.

Multi-Religious Society

Religion as a concept has also been subjected to diverse definitions and interpretations. The concept mean different things to different people. To the reductionists for instance, religion is whatever anybody believes in very strongly. According to them anybody has his or her own religion based on whatever he or she believes. In the reductionist view, if a person believes strongly in science, or in humanism, or in making money or in Maxims, that becomes his own religion (Amaele, 2010, p. 13).

The word religion cannot be taken too common to the point of the reductionists. However, the term “religion” essentially suggests a relationship, a link established between two “person” (the human and the super-human), believed to exist. It is something which unites man with a supernatural being (force), believed to exist and worshipped by man. Omoregbe (1993, p. 3) projects religion, essentially, as “a bi-polar phenomenon”. According to him, on one side is man (the religious man) and on the other side is the transcendent being (the deity he believes and worships). Bouquet cited in Amaele (2010, p. 89) agree that religion “is a fixed relationship between the human self and some non-human entity, the sacred, the supernatural, the self-existent, the absolute or simply – God.”

Religion is part of the cultural life of people. They believe and practice system of the people is built into the life of members from generation to generation. Because many different people believe in different things and even there are sameness in the belief system among societies, cultural diversities inform divers practice system. A macro society that is made up of sub-cultural (micro) societies surely will experience religious diversities, hence, a multi-religious society. In such a macro society, if reason and wisdom do not prevail there could be anarchy. This is one major challenge of a typical multi-religious Nigeria’s society is grappling with. Nigeria is not only a multi-cultural society; a country hosting together all over two hundred sub-ethnic or cultural groups, but also a multi-religious country. Apart from other countless splinter religious manifestations in Nigeria, there are the major trios of traditional religion, Islamic Religion and Christian religion, each of these claim supremacy in its major domain and sometimes tries to super impose itself on the others. This situation is worsened when gaps are created in these religions for religious militants and extremists. The Boko Haram incidence (terrorism) in Nigeria today is a clear example.

The Relationship between Religion and Morality

The studies so far have revealed that every society is embodied with its cultural and religious practices. These practices affect and influence the moral standard of the people. In a multi-cultural and multi-religious society, like Nigeria, it becomes difficult to determine which religion(s) should form the cure moral principles of the people. This is so critical because every religion has its unique moral code(s).

There is a view expressed by some Scholars, equating religion with morality. According to them, religion and morality are inseparable. This argument maintains that there can be no morality without religion. To them, every good man, even though he has no identified religion (an atheist), is necessarily a religious man, for if he were not religious, he would not have been good, because there can be no morality without
religion. Nzerem in Nduka (1983), for instance, contends that morality cannot exist without religion, stressing that the two are inseparable.

Opposed to the early view, Kosemani (1990) cautions that religion should be treated as a private institution and morality treated on public principles. But on the argument as to whether there could be morality without religion, both Nduka and Akinpelu (1983) maintain that morality is quite distinct from religion, positing that morality is logically independent of religion. Adewole (1990) favours the position of Nduka and Akinpelu, stating that there is no relationship between religion and morality. He warns that moral programmes should owe nothing from religion. One can observe that religion though is important, if properly handled for the moral development of its members, through its moral code(s), but cannot simply be equated to morality. Every religion has its moral codes, this implies that religion needs morality, but morality may or may not necessarily need religion. Morality could be practiced through religious perspective, philosophical perspective or humanistic perspective. The benchmark on the arguments so far is that the type of society could determine the type of moral principles. A society that is consciously tied to a religion could be guided by the moral code of that religion. But of the society is secular in nature or is multi-religious, such a society may have some moral crisis, since it would be difficult to hold to a particular religion’s moral code. In such a situation reasons should prevail.

Aniagwu (1983) is a strong contender of this view, arguing that both religious and secular approaches to morality one appropriate in their distinct environments or circumstances. He argues that it will be wrong to teach morality through religion in a secular or multi-cultural society, as it will also be wrong to teach secular morality in a religiously tied society. In other words, Aniagwu holds that morality should be approached differently in an open society from a closed or religious society. What then can education do to address the issue of morality in a multi-cultural and multi-religious Nation of Nigeria?

**Education and Morality in a Multi-Cultural and Multi-Religious Society**

Nigeria, a nation of nations, is presently at the peak of moral crisis. If the moral ailment of the nation is diagnosed medically it has reached it chronic stage, only to be saved by a stronger interventionist force. No doubt Nigeria is both a multi-cultural and multi-religious society. With a population of about hundred and sixty million people, cutting across diverse religious and cultural groups, the nation is in serious search for a strongly, united well focused, unbiased, systematic, comprehensive moral re-engineering force. This of course falls in the sure of a comprehensive quality and standard education system.

At present, it is difficult to determine what is right from wrong or good from bad in Nigeria. Morality and even religion have become privatized that everybody be he or she a leader or a follower, thinks what he or she is doing is the best. But morality and religion is so personalized that even the parents practice their different from their little children. Family standard has become history. The same is applicable to the various communities. There is neither the fear nor regard for elders, leaders when the ancestors, gods or God as cultist, kidnappers, robbers, fraudsters, rapists, murderers and other “criminals” are let loose and respected. Sometimes they are recommended and given leadership position at the local, state and national levels.

The various institutions in the country, ranging from the government to the private have their respective ugly tales. Corruption has been given feathers to fly over and above genuine practices in our institutions of learning: lower, muddle or higher. Handwork is rather encouraged or maintained in most cases. Sexual gratification, sorting, examination malpractice, cultism, alcoholism are some negative features of our institutions. The political seems has become an eyesore. People use diverse wicked instrument to snatch power from people, with eye on the nation’s wealth not the fate of the common people. Greed and sexiness become their mandate.

The economy siphoned, most at times to enrich foreign country. Poverty and suffering triumphs in a country supposed to be an economic empire of Africa and the world. The various religious groups have not proved otherwise, since even the religious morality some of them profess is not consistently followed in most cases. The greed and other moral lapses experienced in other institutions in the country are also identified in
the nation’s diverse religious entities. The rampant killing of innocent citizens of this country, which also form part of the happening in the global community, in the name of religion cannot be depended under any religious morality.

The truth is that one of the nation’s greatest challenges is a shift to sound, quality and sustainable moral education. Although, the present education system has been badly injured, there is the urgent need to heal it for it to heal the nation. Education is the best option any society can use to inculcate the right of values, especially moral values. The early Greek Philosophers like Socrates, Plato and Aristotle laid credence to this view. To Socrates, the ultimate desire for knowledge is for man to live morally upright in life. He (Socrates) taught virtues and also practiced it till death (Amaele, 2010, p.1)

Plato, in his book “The Republic”, cited by Amaele (2010) argues that moral standards are unchangeable and those laws that are approved must not change. He emphasizes that moral training (education) should begin from the primary or even pre-primary stages of education. Aristotle, also makes moral education a central feature in his Philosophy, arguing that education is demonstrated as a practical wisdom which, according to him is the moral insight of a virtuous man. Aristotle argues that a man is said to be morally virtuous only he understands the principles which guides his actions and why he should obey such principles (Amaele, 2010). Studies have revealed that there is a strong relationship between qualify education and sound morality. Waiting on traditional education Fafunwa (1974) listed out seven cardinal aims as:

- To develop the learners physical skill
- To develop the child’s character
- To indicate respect for elders and those in authority
- To develop intellectual skills
- To acquire specific vocational terming and develop healthy attitudes to honest labour
- To develop a sense of belongings participate actively in family and community affairs: and

To understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community as a whole.

From the above cardinal aims, it is obvious to affirm that moral and it related values occupy the most central position in traditional education. The Islamic and Christian education systems in Nigeria also emphasize on “morality” in their own perspectives. The National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) in Nigeria is not silent in the inculcation of moral values, among its products. Section 1(7) of the 2004 edition of policy document states:

The national educational goals which derive from the philosophy are therefore:

- The inculcation of national consciousness and national unity
- The inculcation of the right type of values and articles for the survival of the individual and the Nigeria society:
- The terming of the mind in the understanding of the word around: and
- The acquisition of appropriate skills and the development of mental, physical and social abilities and competences as equipment for the individuals to live in and contribute to the development of the society.

Sub-section 8 of the cited policy goes further to emphasis that the quality of instruction at all levels has to be oriented toward inculcating the following value:

- Respect for the writer and dignity of the individual
- Faith in mans ability to make national decisions
- Moral and spiritual principles in interpersonal and human relations
• Shared responsibility for the common good of society
• Promotion of the physical, emotional and psychological development of all Children and
• Acquisition of competences necessary for self reliance.

A detailed evaluation of the above outlines reveals that morality, especially “national morality” is adequately addressed, at least, at the set objective levels, cutting across the various stages from primary to the tertiary. The question then is “has Nigeria education adequately responded to the set goals, especially as it relates to morality? It is difficult to say yes, but easy to say no. Recently, the Dean of the Church of Nigeria, Anglican communion, His Grace, Archbishop Ignatius O. C Kattey while thanking Nigeria for their release from the hand of his kidnappers, having spent nine days in their hands, regretted that some of the kidnappers are graduates and students of Nigerian Tertiary Institutions. This is just one of the numerous other expressions of immoral behavious recorded daily in Nigeria, against Nigerians who are products of the various levels of the education system.

Education can only give the nation what the nation gives to it. The six months industrial action embarked upon by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) between July-December 2013 and the “I don’t care” attitude approach shown by the government and eminent Nigerians, to it, is a clear indication that there is a wide gap between the set objectives and the attitudes to achieve the said objectives. That alone raises enough moral questions on the society. If Nigerian education should achieve the much desired moral standard, the entire system and people of Nigeria need a general and realistic over-hauling.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Morality is an essential ingredient and indeed a vital aspect of education, because the society expects high moral integrity from the educated person. But our study has revealed that the moral credentials of so many Nigerians who have passed through some levels of the nation education system have greatly fallen. This revelation contrasts with the set objectives of Nigeria education which place high premium on moral and other values.

Nigeria, no doubt, is a multi-cultural and multi-religious society which by nature is inbuilt with diverse moral principles. Unfortunately, a lot of immoral practices and other abnormal behaviours executed under religious disguise do not, sincerely, reflect the truth of such religious manifestations. Sometimes sentiments and biases manifest from the undeveloped religious mind and graduate to create major crisis beyond the shores of the immediate cultural environment, as it extends to the diverse parts of the country. The complex nature of the nation, culturally and religiously, suggests that a multi-cultural and multi-religious approach should apply and thus, a highly equipped, funded, supervised, qualitative and comprehensive education system is advocated for the nation in this research. Hence, the following recommendations are made as way forward:

• Rational Moral Education should be adapted from the senior secondary to the tertiary education levels. Accordingly, the curriculum of the school system should be reviewed to actualize the required theoretical and practical framework of genuine moral values in the society.
• Moral Education should equally be made compulsory in all teacher education programmes. Similarly, the graduating teacher should be required to hold two certificates on graduation: academic and moral (character). The certificate of moral or character development should be renewed every five years. Such certificates could be withdrawn from any teacher who is caught in any serious immoral behaviour such as rape, compulsory demand of cash or sex for unmerited scores, among others. There should be regular refresher courses for teacher on the proper update of their moral, mental and physical development. The reports gathered in these courses and that of class performance should form relevant points for the teachers’ promotion.
The three tiers of government should make education the first on the list of their priority projects. The UNESCO benchmark of 26% of the nation’s annual budget for education should be put into practice in Nigeria. The reason is that adequate funding of the education system will produce quality manpower that will transform the life of the people: reduce expenditure in security and threat of life, reduce hiring of foreign manpower to reduce unemployment in the country. It will also reduce some expenditure on foreign universities, medical treatment abroad and selfish leadership.

There should be a more co-ordinated approach to the supervision of the various school management, staff and students/pupils in line with the expected outcome of quality service and output in the system. This has to be done through internal and external mechanisms. Accordingly, adequate and necessary rewards and punishment measures should be put in place to encourage virtues and discourage vices among staff and students/pupils.

There should be effective and functional interaction between the school and the parents at the various school levels. This will help to check some excesses of the school or home that negatively affect the student’s/child’s life.

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Organizational Attractiveness: The Bases for Skill Attraction and Job Satisfaction in an Organization

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Abstract

This study tends to bring to the forefront the importance and why it is necessary for an organization to have an appreciable environmental climate through her friendly policies. This is because an organizations’ policy serves as a mirror through which the external environment distinguishes the organization. It has been revealed that the external environment is pooled to the organization by simply understanding the policy approaches they use in reflecting their aims, objectives such as in the structure of its job description and job design. Also, the attractiveness of an organization hinges on the size, the level of internationalisation, pay mix which is basically seen as a swift motivating grip and the level of centralization which deals with or tends to focus on the level of dispersion in decision making. Its concomitant effect is in organization’s policy pool and attraction of skills capable of maintaining increase productivity of which motivation is of core essence and can visibly drive and stimulate optimal and expected performance.

Keywords: Organizational Attractiveness, Motivation, Decision making, Environmental Climate.

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INTRODUCTION

With the current spate of qualitative shortage in our labour markets, the attractiveness of organizations has become increasingly important. This article is required to unveil and bring to the fore why managers of organization should adopt strategies and formulate policies that will enhance flexibility and creativity in order to attract skilful and result oriented applicants (employees) to their organization. The adoption of a highly attractive strategy in an organization becomes imperative and expedient as a result of the high level of and the constant increasing flux of labour mobility experienced in our today labour market, as applicants have become so selective in respect as to which and what organization they will sell their skill and render serves and know-how. Vroom’s Expectancy Theory or Decision theories examines organizational attractiveness. For instance, Vroom (1966) reported strong relationship between instrumentality of that organization for accomplishing specific goals (e.g. higher salary, more opportunity for advancement, etc). The choice of an organization was rather an “unprogrammed” decision process. In most cases applicant use only a few factors to screen alternatives. Once applicants find a job in an organization, which fulfils their minimum criteria on the important factors, they tend to confirm this choice. Also, in most situations the already employed skills are in a constant evaluation of the outside market in determination and anticipation to transfer their skill to other industry that will enable them compete favourably with the contending issues of the economy and at the same time achieve both individual needs, goals and organizational objective.

Study (Kristof, 1996) framed the attractiveness of organization for prospective applicants in the context of the fit between the person and the organization. Schneider’s (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model conceptually grounds this research stream. A premise underlying the ASA model is that “people in any organization are unique in that they are the ones attracted to, chosen by, and who choose to remain in an organization” (Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998). Regarding attraction, individuals are differently attracted to organization as a function of their interests, needs, preference and personality. This is as a result of the fact that both the individual and organization are making decision to the level and extent to which the individual would derive self and job satisfaction while on the job, while the organization focuses more on individual high expectation on qualitative performance in order to enhance productivity (brand). Hence, recruitment and selection processes enable organization to attract and select individuals who fit best to their needs and expectations. The selection processes are based on previous experiences, interests, needs, preference, and individual personality.

The human resources manager of an organization must be proactive and responsive through careful strategy and selection to ameliorate the gap and differences that tend to exist by designing the organization to be highly motivating through her policy decision making process and implementation in order to woofer and amplify their attractiveness as it is further explained in this study.

This study is carried out in order to identify and to make clear how the philosophy and culture of an organization creates a favourable work environment capable of enhancing workers self esteem and a comparative edge among competing organizations. This study explicitly posit on the need for creating a good and healthy work environment in consideration with the organization’s policy geared towards employees’ attraction and retention. And how these policies would interface and suggest how the organization will be perceived in the external environment. With the growing interest in human resources management, which daily throws challenges embedded in employees’ mobility rate in and among organization.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

If rather objective organizational characteristics are to influence initial assessments of organizational attractiveness, they should meet several criteria (Rynes, 1991: Turban & keon, 1993). Specifically, the characteristics should be visible and salient for applicant quite early in the decision process. In addition, the characteristics should potentially act as signal of the organizational culture and values. Finally, the
characteristics should differ across organizations. In this study organization are described according to four objective characteristics, which meet the aforementioned criteria: the Size, level of internationalisation, the pay mix, and the level of centralisation.

Organizational Size: Rynes (1991), the size is a highly visible characteristic. For lesser known organization this information is easily acquired through corporate reports, recruitment brochures, and the business press (Barber & Roehling 1993). Moreover, research showed that people generally consider the size of the organization as to be a crucial organizational characteristic. When applicants have little additional information to rely on, the size of an organization is also particularly susceptible to stereotypical categorisation. For instance, Greenhaus et al. (1978) found that final-year students perceive small–sized organization to be less instrumental for accomplishment of extrinsic rewards (e.g. fringe benefits, high salaries, and incentives). Conversely, large-size organization might be associated with other perceptions of organizational characteristic such as, bureaucracy and many hierarchical levels (Turban & Keon, 1993). With this, it could be stated that the attractiveness of the size of an organization differs across individual.

Level of Internationalisation: The level of internationalisation refers to the extent to which divisions of an organization are dispersed across different countries, Oldham & Hackman, (1981). This characteristic is again visible prior to the recruiting process. In addition, the presence of international division signal to prospective applicants of expatriation and overseas assignments may be common in a particular organization.

Pay Mix: In general, pay policies are thought to be malleable, permitting to distinguish themselves from competitors and to implement pay system that are attractive for applicants (Cable & Judge, 1994: Rynes & Barber, 1990). In addition, pay system have also an important signalling function, because they provide prospective applicants with information less visible organizational characteristics (Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990). For example, applicants consider an organization’s compensation policies to be an important dimension of organizational climate. It enables them to get a clearer picture and understanding as to the culture, norms, values, and belief of the organization. Hence, job seekers expect some vital information about compensation factors.

Both pay level and pay mix determine which pool of applicant is attracted to the organization and remain working for it. The impact of pay level on organization attractiveness for applicants is imperative. Gerhart and Milkovich, (1990) defines pay mix as the extent of variable pay in terms of the relative amounts of the short term bonuses, long-term incentives, and base salary in an individual’s pay. In other words, a distinction is made between the basic cash compensation that an employee pays for the work performed (i.e. basic wage) and periodic adjustment to base wage according to individual performances (e.g. merit pay or incentive pay). Despite the heavy focus on pay level in previous studies, it could be found that organizations differentiated themselves more with respect to pay mix then pay level.

Level of Centralization: This refers to the extent to which decision are made by the higher levels of an organization (Oldham & Hackman, 1981). People consider the level of centralization to be important organizational characteristics. Similar to organizational characteristics, applicant may perceive information about the level of centralization as signal to the culture, and the values of the organization. Therefore, this characteristic may impact on organizational attractiveness.

Job Description: This is the written summary of what is done on a job, how the work is accomplished, and why the work is performed. The purpose is to convey the essential features of the job to a person not familiar with the job in question. It is the most common output of a job analysis and is used for a variety of purpose, including attraction of high-experienced and skilled applicants in the labour market and in other work setting, recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation, and job design (Nwachukwu, 1999). The difference between job description and position description is that the position description summarizes what one person in an organization does, whereas in job description the number of related positions. A position description is used when an individual performs a relatively unique set of activities, and a job description is used when there is enough commonality across position to justify treating multiple positions as a single job. The potency of
a good job description is the informative tendencies it reveals to the labour market, alternatively is in the attractiveness and pool of applicants it generates to the organization.

There are three essential part of a job description. First, there should be some information that uniquely identifies the job such as the job title, its department, location, job code, pay range, grade level, and reporting relationship. Secondly, the job summary should convey the essential features of the job, what a worker does and the purpose of the job, as to differentiate it from other jobs. Thirdly, listing of essential duties or work activities of the job provides answers to questions as what, how, and why of the job to the prospective applicants. Describing what a worker does involves considering the physical and mental activities that are to be performed on the job.

Finally, a well structured job description contains also information depending on that particular application. This might include, identification of key responsibilities (useful for job evaluation purposes), a listing of accountabilities (the major results for which the work is accountable), a description of the working conditions (e.g. temperature, noise, lightening and ventilation), and the nature of social relationship at work. Last some may identify the major knowledge, skill, ability and other characteristics needed to perform the major task (Gerhart & Milkovich, 1990).

**Job Design:** This has generated substantial theoretical and empirical interest to applicants and recruiters in the recent past, the purpose of this entry is to describe and evaluate the most significant approaches to the job. The management of intrinsic work reward is an additional challenge for the manager. While acting as an agent for the organization, management must design the job for the individual so that the intrinsic work rewards becomes available as a result of exerting work effort on the assigned tasks. Job design is the deliberate, purposeful planning of the job, including any or all of its structural and social aspects.

**Designing Job for the Individuals:** The first to structure job for the individual was Fredrick W. Taylor in his industrial engineering or scientific management approach in 1911. Taylor`s approach dictated four specifications. First, job should be studied scientifically to identify the most efficient method for accomplishing and allocating them among employees. Secondly, employees-job fit should be optimised, so that employees should be mentally and physically capable of performing the task but to be over qualified. Thirdly, employees training should be based on the scientific analyses of work and should be regularly monitored to ensure optimum performance. Finally, employees should be monetarily motivated with bonuses.

This suggests that it would produce several position outcomes for organizations, including an increase pool of applicants capable of performing highly specialised and simplified jobs and the centralisation of resources. The wage-lowering effect of this large job pool or attractiveness of applicants should in turn reduce training cost and resource centrality would increase the overall efficiency and productivity within the organization. Despite its consequent and associated demerits, the gains offset its negative effects and led to the development of alternatives to job design (Rogelberg, 2003).

**Motivation:** One of the major problems confronting management is that of motivating workers to perform assigned tasks to meet or surpass predetermined standards (Nwachukwu, 1988). Motivation is that energising force that induces, compel and maintain behaviour. Human behaviour is motivated, it is goal directed. It is not easy to motivate an individual, for the success of any motivational effort depends on the extent to which the motivator meets the needs of the individual employee for whom it is intended. Motivation is an internal psychological process whose presence or absence is inferred from observed performance.

**Expectancy Theory:** This is the core cognitive theory as contained in the Valence-Instrumentality- Expectancy (VIE) theory, formulated by Vroom (1964). Valence stands for value, Instrumentality is the belief that if an individual does one thing it will lead to another, and Expectancy is the probability that a certain action or effort will lead to a positive outcome.

The strength of expectancy may be used on past experience (reinforcement) but individuals are frequently presented with new situations – a change of job, payment system or working conditions imposed by management – where past experience is an inadequate guide to the implication of the change.
Motivation is likely only when a clearly perceived and usable relationship exists between performance and outcome, and outcome is seen as a means of satisfying needs. This explains why extrinsic financial motivation, for example, an incentive bonus scheme – works only if the link between effort and reward is clear and the value if the reward is worth the effort. It also explains why intrinsic motivation arising from the work itself can be more powerful than extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation outcomes are more under the control of individuals, who can judge from past experience the extent to which advantageous results are likely to be obtained by their behaviour.

Two major factors are considered to determine the effort people put into their jobs (Porter & Lawler 1968). First, the value of the reward to individual in so far as it satisfies their need for security, social, esteem, autonomy and self actualisation. Second, the probability that reward depends on efforts, as perceived by the individuals. In other words, the expectation in the relationship between effort and reward is that the greater the value of a set of rewards and the higher the probability that receiving each of these rewards upon efforts, the greater the effort that will be applied in a given situation (Porter & Lawler 1968).

Hence, considering the current spate in the search for experience, quality skilled and intelligent applicant or employee in the labour market, in order to fill and occupy this vacant job position. It behoves on the organization to tactically and structurally put the expectation of these high flier as expected into consideration in order to attract and pool them into the organization. The attractiveness of the reward considerably motivates and propels the desire to be identified with such organizations. Thus such skill, ability and capable applicants seems to be quite selective and optional in their choice and chose as to the policies’, size and attractiveness of the organization in which they will render their service to. So there should be a unity of aim the individual employee or applicant sees the organization as a channel through which he will attain his desired goal. The organization in turns sees the employee as a partner in the attainment of organizational objectives (Nwachukwu, 1999). Effort should result from goal directed behaviour. An applicant has a definite expectation that he should desire from rendering his skill to the organization. The organization that will consistently meet the expectation of applicants or employees will always tend to have and attract better applicants than those which do not.

It simply pins to the objective of not just attracting or pooling employee, but should be in turn result to quality retention in order to increase and boast productivity within a while (Nwachukwu, 1999).

**Job Satisfaction:** This has a direct negative and positive relationship with organizational attractiveness. The attractiveness of an organization should lead to job satisfaction in order for the applicant to be retained in the organization or else the whole effort, process, aim and cost will be rendered unproductive. In the long run, study shows that satisfied employee tend to stay longer, have reduces absenteeism rate, fever complains and requires less supervision than dissatisfied ones. Hence, the level of performance or accomplishment is a causal factor in job satisfaction. Employees’ satisfaction is the aim of most managers. The contention is that satisfied employee has a better attitude to work that dissatisfied employees. An employee who is satisfied and motivated is an ideal employee, what satisfy an employee are many and varied, such as sex, age, job level, personal characteristics of the job holder, level of education, income level, supervision, relationship with co-workers, size of the group, job content, etc. Employee job satisfaction is influenced by the equitable distribution of organizational favour, as the ability of an employee to perform his work up to the expected standards influences job satisfaction (Nwachukwu, 2000).

**Motivation – Hygiene Theory:** Herzberg et al (1959) concludes that the factors that lead to job satisfaction are distinct from the factors that lead to dissatisfaction. The first consists of the satisfiers or motivators which are intrinsic to the job. Such could be exemplified as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and growth. The second comprises what he calls the ‘dissatisfaction avoidance’ or ‘hygiene’ factors, which are extrinsic to the job such as pay, company policy and administration, personal relationship, status and society. Herzberg et al (1959)t draws attention to the distinction between
intrinsic and extrinsic motivators, and this contention that the satisfaction resulting from pay increase does not persist but has some face validity.

**Goal Theory**: As developed by Latham & Locks, (1979). States that motivation and performance are higher when individuals set specific goals, when the goals are difficult but accepted, and when there is feedback on performance he becomes more willing to put in extra effort.

**Equity Theory**: As described by Adams (1963), states that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and demotivated if they are treated inequitably. It is concerned with people’s perception of how they are being treated in relation to others. To be dealt with equitably is to be treated fairly in comparison with another group of people (a reference group) or a relevant other persons.

**Money and Motivation**: People need money and therefore want money. It can motivate but it is not only motivator. It has been suggested by Wallace & Szilagyi, (1982). That money can serve the following reward functions:

- It can act as a goal which people generally strive for, although to different degree.
- It can act as symbol which indicates the recipient’s value to the organization.
- It can act as a general reinforce because it is associated with valued rewards as often that it takes on reward value itself.

It’s said that money motivates because it is linked directly or indirectly with the satisfaction of many needs. It satisfies the need for survival and security, if income is regular. It can also satisfy the need for self-esteem (as a visible mark of appreciation) and status – money can set you in a grade apart from your fellows and can buy you things they cannot afford. Money satisfies the less desirable but nevertheless prevalent drives of acquisitiveness.

But doubts have been cast in the effectiveness of money as a motivator (Herzberg et al., 1959). They claimed that while the lack of it may cause dissatisfaction, money does not result in lasting satisfaction. There is something in this, especially for people with fixed salaries or rate of pay who does not benefit directly from an incentive scheme. They may feel good when they get an increase because apart from the extra money it is a better effective way of making people feel they are valued. But the feeling of euphoria can rapidly die away. However, it must be reemphasised that different people have different needs, and Herzberg’s et al. two-factor theory has not been validated. Some persons may be much more motivated by money than others, because that which cannot be ascertained in the assumption is how money motivates people to behave in the same way and the extent to which they carry out their task as against the understanding. Worker are bound to behave differently given and under the same situation and circumstances.

**CAREER AND JOB SUCCESS SKILL**

Now that the employee has just been attracted and employed into the organization, his goal should be focused and geared on job success, which he should not take for granted. There are specific skills he needs to know and use in order to be successful at the job. First impression shows from the first day he resume at work, which he need one opportunity to create this. As it behaves on he to have a close contact with his immediate boss about what is most important, such as information about him, as employers do complain that many do lose their job because their do not use work habit not because they do not know the job. This is based on feedback from majority of employer’s survey report (Olu, 2011).

Employers Expectation: A positive attitude is one of the most important factors of achieving job success Olu (2011). Employees should not carry negative feeling into the organization but to resolve them elsewhere. He should always come to work on time and make an allowance to traffic and dropping off children from school, as being reliable and dependable gain the truth and respect of the new employer. Good attendance, promptness is important. Better methods should be use to relate when he is sick or any
irregularity as it relates to his work, using the lay down rules, policies and procedures. He should be open to new ways of doing things by listening and learning even if he has been taught differently, and not be quick to find fault, criticise and complain until he proves it in a better way, he should ensure that his target is met.

Communication: Determine the most appropriate time to talk with your superior, take advantage of your performance reviews as you stay calm and learn from others. As most superior appreciate employees who are concerned about performance and finding way of improving and enhancing there job success. Be a team player and be willing to help, know goals of your job and how it fits in to the overall objective of the organization (Olu, 2011). Avoid know-it-all attitude; ask for help when needed, if you make a mistake, let your superior know about it immediately first or you resort to the chain of command.

Personal: Prior to starting up the job have all your appointments with doctors, dentist, etc cleared up, have your transportation, day care and all emergency plain neat as to avoid unnecessary excuses from work. He should be ready to learn new skill, make new friend by proper socialisation, recreation period, and he should better stay off criticism and gossiping. Be clear and well groomed, dress for the job and do not use your employer’s time and resources for your personal use such as staying long on phone with your official phone. Be patient with yourself and your employer, take out time to get use to the job, volunteer to projects and committee if your job is completed and your superior affirms to it (Olu, 2011).

CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATION

It is expected that every organization should be able to take into cognisance the totality of its environment in their decision making and policy formulation, as it’s been revealed that the external environment is pooled to the organization by simply understanding the policy approaches they use in reflecting their aims, objectives such as in the structuredness in their job description, and job design. The human resources manager should of importance need to be proactive and his responsiveness to the forces and influences that will stimulate organizational competence worthy of acceptability in order to improve satisfaction and work performance. The way and manner at which job positions are been designed and organised, carefully structured and controlled in consideration of the individual coming to fit in the job, which is designing the job for the individual and how it sees to the best performance and productivity of the employees should be of utmost concern to the manager in order to harness the best potentials and skill needed for a tangible work productivity. The sensitivity, understanding of employee traits, needs and objectives and the readiness of the manager should portray willingness to properly manage the complexity of both the environment and human resource towards organizational profitability and human resource retention.

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The Effectiveness of Teachers’ Professional Development Initiatives in Enhancing Teachers Growth in Botswana Secondary Schools

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Abstract

This study investigated the effectiveness of school-based teachers’ professional development initiatives in enhancing teachers’ growth in secondary schools in Botswana. Data were collected through individual semi-structured interviews involving Principal Education Officers, School Heads and Teachers. Documents from the Ministry of Education and Skill Development and schools that outline teacher professional development were analysed. The findings of the study showed that the initiatives were not based on teachers’ needs assessment. Very few respondents indicated that they benefited from the school-based professional development initiatives, while majority felt the initiatives are far from reaching their development needs. The teachers’ responses regarding professional development initiatives nullify the existence of such initiatives as they do not play the role of enhancing teachers’ professionalism. The study, therefore, recommends that the identification of teachers’ professional development needs is vital for the effectiveness of Botswana secondary schools professional development initiatives.

Keywords: Effectiveness, Professional development, Initiatives, Education policy, Secondary schools.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:

INTRODUCTION

In the past few decades research has shown that, teacher professional development and quality teaching have become high priority in the search for school improvement and school effectiveness. It is generally accepted that teachers need to be encouraged and supported to develop professionally for schools to be effective (Craft, 2000). It is assumed that effective schools then, are institutions where there is a delivery of high quality education. Teachers’ professional development is amongst the crucial aspects needed for the provision of high quality education in the international arena.

International literature suggests several concepts in teachers’ professional development which seem appropriate given the pervasiveness of globalisation, new technology and instant communication (Blandford, in Craft, 2000). Among the concepts are that teachers’ professional development is considered a life–long process of change; teachers’ professional development should take into account the important role that the teacher plays in his/her development and any attempt to improve the quality of education, must also consider the quality of their teachers. The literature reviewed further suggests several initiatives to teachers’ professional development. The initiatives include induction, appraisal, collegiality, collaboration, action research, self–monitoring and evaluation (Craft, 2000; Blandford, 2000). It is claimed that these initiatives help teachers to acquire new knowledge and skills, practise new teaching methods and reflect on their work.

Raising the standard of education is one of Botswana’s national goals since gaining independence (Republic of Botswana, 1994). To achieve this, requires well-trained, qualified and experienced teachers. In the quest for quality education government produced education policies to guide the policy makers and implementers in an effort to address issues of quality. The most prominent recommendation which appears in both the National Policy on Education of 1977 and the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 is that a wide range of in-service courses/training should be developed for teachers to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes in their career. The National Policy on Education of 1977 states that the training should be “a continuing means of strengthening and renewing the education system through the development of teachers’ competence and sense of professional development” (p.158). The in-service training includes any form of training that could be school-based or out-of- school. The focus of this study was mainly on school-based teacher professional development initiatives in Botswana secondary schools.

The implementation of the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 had an impact on how teachers developed professionally. Prior to 1994 teachers’ professional development in Botswana was ad hoc for the entire teaching force. Many School Heads and teachers had a narrow conception of staff development. The general understanding was that for someone to upgrade himself/herself it should be through full-time attendance at higher institutions of learning. Unaccredited but valuable staff development activities undertaken at schools were undervalued (Bennell, 1995). To make matters worse the planning and delivery of professional development initiatives were from ministry headquarters with heavy reliance on workshops. This had changed as per the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994, recommendation 105 (a) which states that “the Head as an instructional leader, together with the Deputy and Senior Teachers, should take major responsibility for in-service training of teachers within their schools, through regular observation of teachers and organization of workshops, to foster communication between teachers on professional matters and to address weaknesses.” This recommendation has made the school Senior Management Teams more accountable for effective professional development and growth of staff members. In a bid to assist the management teams a training policy was formulated in 1995. Among the recommendations the training policy made was that schools to form Staff Development Committees (SDC) and the committees were required to prepare School Development Plans (SDP). Through staff development committees, school-based professional development initiatives are planned and implemented as outlined in the School Development Plans. Of recent, many teacher professional development initiatives are school-based; held on site. The main question is how effective are the school-based teacher professional development initiatives in enhancing teachers professional and personal growth? The study sought to explore
Botswana secondary school teachers’ ideas, experience and understanding of professional development initiatives.

**Historical Background of Botswana Education System**

The past forty years have seen trends of development and reform of education systems in the African continent. To Batswana, education has been the centre of the nation’s life and concerns. The expectation was that it should contribute to the social, cultural, political and economic welfare and development of Batswana. The development of Botswana education system is categorised into three phases; pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial. The pre-colonial education system was established by Batswana for Batswana. The education system then was geared towards the society’s norms and values. Pre-colonial Botswana had its own education system which was integrated into every Motswana’s life. The education system then was mainly traditional. It essentially involved training programmes intended to groom children to play a critical role in society. The education system was through initiation ceremonies known as *bogwera* and *bojale*. *Bogwera* was training given to young men when they have reached puberty as a symbol of manhood. *Bojale* was training for young women to be initiated into womanhood (Mhlauli, 2012). Parson in Evans et al (1991) described it as “a whole system of belief or religion, as well as a means of socializing children into the accepted norms of society” (p.12). They were encouraged to learn by being exposed to real situations as Nyerere (1967) pointed out that children learnt by “living and doing” (p. 9). Part of the education was done by parents, age–grades and secret societies.

During the colonial era education became more formal. It was spearheaded by the missionaries. The first formal school was established in 1844 at *Kolobeng* by David Livingstone of London Mission Society. After Botswana gained its independence in 1966, it experienced a massive expansion in the education system as a result of the Transitional National Development Plan of 1966 and the National Policy on Education of 1977. The National Policy on Education of 1977 emphasised that the education system must contribute to the national principles of democracy, development, self-reliance and unity. Collectively these produce the philosophy of *Kagisano* which means social harmony. The fifth principle of *botho* was added after two decades. *Botho* means respect. Any features of the education system that impaired these principles had to be changed (Tabulawa, 1998). Provision for access to quality education was the main focus of the policy. The policy recommended that for quality education to be attained, teachers’ in–service training should be a priority.

After fifteen years, there was a concern regarding a decline in the standard of education. Parents, teachers and educationist called for the re-structuring of the education system and getting closer look at the national goals to meet the needs of every Motswana (a citizen of Botswana). The government then appointed a National Commission on Education in 1992 which produced the Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 which is to be implemented until 2029. Access to basic education and raising the standard of education were also considered as fundamental issues. Some of the strategies outlined were enhancement of the performance and status of the teaching profession, improvement and maintenance of quality of the education system and effective management of the education system. If Botswana could follow the strategies to the latter it would mean that by the end of the implementation period the education system will have produced a knowledgeable, skilled and efficient workforce.

The Revised National Policy on Education of 1994, effected many changes in pursuit of the unchanged national educational goals. The education system was re-structured to 7 years (primary), 3 years (junior secondary) and 2 years (senior secondary), i.e. back to 7+3+2 system (Republic of Botswana, 1994, p. 6). This is the structure that is currently in operation. The policy affected teachers’ professional development initiatives to be in two folds: Off-site and School-based. The Revised National Policy on Education (1994) emphasises that the use of in-service education and training is a means towards effective teachers’ professional development. It states that “a structured national in–service programme should be developed to guide in–service activities, starting from an orientation of a newly appointed teacher at the
school level to the training of newly appointed head teacher” (p. 47). In response to the policy recommendation, teachers’ professional development is now re-organized to be more school-based.

Professional development has now become an integral part of the overall school plan. Schools have established staff development committees which organize development activities for all members of staff. The committees are mandated to pull experts from within and outside schools to deliver knowledge and skills required by staff. The schools are now expected to develop annual school development plans that entail activities the school intends to undertake. Amongst those activities, the school has to outline the kinds of programmes that are tentatively meant for teacher development. The objectives set by schools regarding teachers’ professional development should be clearly stipulated. The development activities should be included when making budget estimates in order for funds to be allocated to schools. The school-based teacher professional development initiatives under investigation are induction, teacher appraisal, peer observation, team teaching, action research, collaboration, cluster subject panels workshops, common scheming and seminars for panel discussions.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of school-based teachers’ professional development initiatives in enhancing teachers’ growth in Botswana secondary schools. The focus was to identify *inter alia* the relationship between the current initiatives and teachers’ professional and personal growth.

**Research Questions**

The following research questions guided the study:

1. How effective are the existing professional development initiatives in enhancing teachers’ professional and personal growth?
2. What challenges do the professional development initiatives face?
3. What strategies might be used to enhance the professional development initiatives?

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Professional development has attracted increasing attention in the 1990’s. Teachers faced with rapid changes, demands for high quality education; need to update themselves to meet the challenges that lay ahead. High quality education is one that effectively prepares individuals for life, citizenship and the world of work. In order to maintain such standard needs well–trained, qualified and competent teachers; together with a continuous learning environment that enables teachers to generate and implement new innovations (Republic of Botswana, 1994). Teachers are seen by some authors (Evans, 2011; Wallace, 2001) as the essential tools for educational changes and national development. They are the key players in any educational reform. The involvement of teachers in the planning and organization of educational reforms should not be undermined. This is also reiterated by OECD in Day (1999) when it says “Teachers are at the heart of the educational process. The greater the importance attached to education as a whole– whether for cultural transmission, for social cohesion and justice, or for human resource development so critical in modern, technology-based economies–the higher is the priority that must be accorded to the teachers responsible for that education” (p. 1). The education system in the past would come up with plans which appeared good on paper; but the implementation of the plans failed because teachers did not understand them. This was caused by not having involved teachers in the planning stages of the programmes.
What is Teachers’ Professional Development?

One of the critical elements of the educational reforms is the professional development of teachers. The need for teachers’ in-service professional development has been top on the educationists’ agenda. There are several interpretations of teacher’s professional development. Fullan (1991) defines professional development as “the sum total of formal and informal learning experiences through one’s career from pre-service teacher to retirement” (p. 36). Eze, Adu and Ruramayi (2013) also described professional development as “a variety of activities, both formal and non-formal, designed for personal and professional growth of teachers and administrators (p.26). On the other hand Craft (2000) defines professional development to mean “all forms of learning undertaken by experienced teachers from courses to private reading to job shadowing”(p.9). These definitions cover professional learning taken by teachers even before a teacher starts teaching and lasts until he leaves the service. It goes beyond the point of initial training; which includes reading of magazines, newspapers and journals. Uses of professional support practices such as mentoring, appraisal and team building are indirectly mentioned as part of professional development. Therefore, professional development can be described as a life-long process of dynamic growth; a fruitful change in the teachers’ knowledge, skills, attitudes and awareness. The above authors agree that professional development is the overarching concept referring to any activity undertaken to improve the professional knowledge, skills and attitudes of a teacher. It should result in the teachers’ maturity, self–confidence and competence. Any professional development programme should give teachers the opportunity to share and analyse experiences and practices in teaching and learning, in order to create innovative vision and strategies and strengthen a positive attitude towards personal and institutional change. Researchers argue that through professional activities alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003). It is through professional development that teachers learn and can be able to teach better.

Effective Professional Development

Professional development as pointed out earlier in this article is about promoting teachers’ competence, knowledge, skills and positive attitudes. For the above to be achieved, professional development has to be effective. Perhaps at this stage the use of “effective” in this context needs to be clarified. Effective is one of the words that are used differently for different professions. For instance, in economics effectiveness is related to the production process of an organization as described by Scheerens, (1992) to mean “the extent to which the desired output is achieved” (p. 30) In education the term effective is usually associated with the quality of education or when referred to a school it is generally used to mean the ‘good’ things that the school does. This may involve the creation of conditions which enable staff and students to achieve the set targets such as pass rate, performance in co-curricular activities and high level of discipline. Effective as used in this study has adopted Scheerens, (1992) definition where it is defined as the degree to which educational means or processes result in the attainment of educational goals. With reference to professional development it means the degree at which the professional development is able to meet the set aims and objectives. Once the objectives are met then the professional development is effective.

What are the features of effective professional development? Authors such as (Huberman & Miles, 1994) highlighted certain features of effective professional development as one that “maximizes the use, utilization and development of knowledge which and must focus on the use of research and innovations” (p. 15). This implies that effective professional development is characterized by long–life learning, developing and training. To establish effectiveness, a programme should be tested for its ability to achieve its obligations, to satisfy the expectations of teachers and its ability to pave a way for teachers’ success in their life. A study carried out by Moswela (2006) suggested that in-service training should be extended at all level, but the selection should be based on teacher needs assessment. This implies that an effective professional development initiative is one that has taken into account the training needs of staff. Effective
professional development should also enhance learning, promote teacher job satisfaction and encourage teachers to take responsibility of organizing their development. Literature suggests that any development conceptualized as growth opportunities for teachers, appears more effective when a number of factors come to play in schools (Keedy, 2001). Amongst the factors identified are an atmosphere of support and trust, diverse, active learning and self-directed learning experiences related to the classroom context and voluntary participation combined with professional norms that are characterized by daily teacher interaction. Other authors (e.g., Villegas-Reimers, 2003) claim that effective professional development should give critical consideration to educational policy, in particular how to raise standards.

The outcomes of an effective professional development well known through a research (Sparks & Louks-Horsley, 1990) include those in which, (i) teachers participating as helpers to each other and as planners with administrators, of in-service activities; (ii) emphasizing on self-instruction with differentiated training opportunities, (iii) teachers in active roles, choosing goals and activities for themselves, (iv) emphasizing on demonstration, supervised trials and feedback: training that is concrete and ongoing overtime and (v) ongoing assistance and support available on request. The outcomes should be tested in order to know the effectiveness of a professional development programme basing on the set objectives.

Challenges in Implementing Teachers’ Professional Development Initiatives

Teachers worldwide are faced with rapid changes, demands for high standards and improvement of moral standards from the stakeholders. In order for teachers to meet these demands there is a need, as never before for them to update themselves. The training has to ensure that teachers are fully prepared for the responsibilities they are expected to carry out. There are a number of challenges faced by teachers in implementing professional development initiatives which amongst others include unclear training policies, resistance to change, teachers’ attitudes, lack of support, inadequate financial resources and lack of incentives. Lack of a clear and consistent policy for professional development has been debated in Botswana’s education system (Bennell, 1995). Unclear and inconsistent policies have been blamed for improper implementation of professional development. It was noted by Dadey and Harber (1991) that in some of education systems in Africa do not have “consistent and coherent training policy, resulting in the use of ad hoc measures” (p. 34). Newton and Tarrant (1992) affirmed that “unclear policies escalate conflicts” (p. 125). It is assumed that a policy should indicate what activities will be undertaken, for whom, by whom and using what resources.

Another challenge is resistance to change. In the teaching profession there are veteran teachers who have been in the field for many years and might have developed teaching strategies which they feel are relevant in their situations. As a result they may be reluctant to abandon them for the approaches which were never tried and tested to the best of their knowledge. Research has also identified the school culture as one of the barriers to teachers’ professional development. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) revealed through research that “the school culture, with only a few exceptions, continues to allow, if not foster individualism at the expense of teachers growth” (p. 6).

Teachers’ attitudes have been identified as one of the challenges faced in achieving effective teachers’ professional development (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996). Failure to involve teachers in the planning of professional development activities demoralises and develops in them negative attitudes. The feeling is that if a decision is top-down it is tantamount to imposing ideas on them. Teachers appreciate programmes where they take part in organising rather than being left in the dark on matters that concern them. The other challenge is financial constraints. Dadey and Harber (1991) observe that due to “financial constraints which exist in almost every country in Africa some teachers have access to training once in a decade and some rarely, if ever” (p34). Fullan (1991) also observed that “financial and political factors inhibit the expansion of induction programmes” (p. 305). This evidence shows that financial constraints are contributory to limited professional practices undertaken to upgrade teachers. Limited funds inhibit teachers’ maturity. Under funding the professional development programme can be one of the factors that acts as a barrier to effective teacher’s growth.
Lack of staff recognition is a challenge, if staff members receive necessary recognition by their supervisors for the work done, they seem to work harder. Asking teachers how they are, being supportive and showing interest in whatever they do boosts their morale. Teachers need feedback to gauge whether they are being successful in what they are doing and to provide ongoing reassurance and encouragement. It is a belief in management that once staff members are recognised, it encourages them to get organised and meet the demands of their job (Adair, 2012). Recognition and reward of staff members for achievement, inclusion in participatory decision-making, providing opportunities for professional and personal growth, development of a school climate in which the feelings of belonging are enhanced and manifestation of respect for others are illustrative of means by which higher needs may be met.

METHODS

Research Design

The study used qualitative approach. Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen (2010) describes qualitative approach as a process that “aims at solving an immediate practical problem, it is an approach performed in relation to actual problems and under the conditions in which they appear in practice” (p. 34). The inquiry employed the social naturalistic paradigm. This was influenced by Golafshani’s (2003) view that “qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as real world settings where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest” (p. 600). The social nature ideology portrays that individuals have beliefs, views and values which in most cases reflect the truth about what happens around them. This ideology corroborates the idea that reality with regard to the nature and effectiveness of programme implementation processes is consequently a social construct derived from perceptions of the various agencies and individuals that participated in the process (Mhlaudi, 2012). This suggests that in order for researchers to understand the effectiveness of the existing teachers professional development initiatives, information should be provided by people who are directly involved in the initiatives. Although information might vary according to the individual perception due to either motivation into the initiatives, experience or any other reason, it is important to listen to the informants’ views. The participants in this study were people who were involved in the school-based professional development initiatives. The investigation of teachers concerns about the school-based professional development initiatives in a natural setting required qualitative approach as the appropriate design for this study.

Participants

Participants in this study comprised 20 teachers, 8 school heads and 5 principal officers from eight junior secondary schools and five regional education offices. Of the 33 participants 19 were females and 14 were males. The respondents’ age ranged between 25 and 60 years. In terms of qualification 23 had Diploma in secondary education; 8 had a Bachelor’s of Education degree and 2 possessed Master’s of Art (educational management) degree. Those who possessed a Diploma in secondary education were all teachers in the study. For a Bachelor’s of Education degrees were four principal education officers and four School Heads. One principal education officer and one school head possessed a Master’s of Art in educational management degree. The participants were chosen on the basis that the professional development initiatives were meant for them and they were in better position to evaluate the initiatives. Purposive sampling was used to select manageable groups of respondents which can provide rich information and being representatives of the population. According to Creswell (2005) purposive sampling “is a qualitative sampling procedure in which the researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon” (p. 204). This is affirmed by Ary, Jacobs and Sorensen (2010) claim that purposive sampling sufficiency in “providing maximum insight and understanding of what they are studying” (p. 472). Since the participants had gone through the activities of professional development initiatives their views regarding experience and
knowledge provided relevant and meaningful data. The researcher’s experience as a former school head made it easy to convince the chief education officers and school heads to gaining access and able to explain the significance of the study.

**Data Collection Techniques**

The researcher sought permission to carry out the study from the Chief Education Officers and the School Heads. The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents. Data was collected using qualitative methods which included in-depth semi-structured interviews, fieldwork and taking notes. The major advantage of interviews is that they are adaptable to any situation. Bell (1996) asserts that “a skillful interviewer can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings, which the questionnaire can never do” (p. 91). The interview was audio-recorded by the researcher. Through an in-depth semi-structured and audio recorded interviews all information said by the informants was captured in the tape. Basing on the researcher’s experience, no matter how many reassurances are given to the participants there is always some participants who feel nervous when they are aware that their interview is taped. Just like any other data gathering method the use of audio tape needed consent of the participants for ethical considerations. It was obtained after explaining reasons for wishing to tape the interview, the way the recording will be used and promised to destroy the tapes after data had been transcribed. With the audio tape it recorded the natural language used and the data could not be altered by the researcher. It also allowed the interviewer to concentrate, maintain eye contact and observe any body language. The interviews took a minimum of thirty minutes.

The other method was maintaining a pocket diary to record any data at the disposal of the researcher through the field work. It entailed planned activities, visits, their success and failures. Failure to honour appointments by some of the respondents forced the researcher to re-schedule the appointment dates and this featured in the dairy.

Taking notes in a study was also used. Taking notes is one of the scientific techniques which are highly recommended by researchers for modern research. Despite their inherent subjectivity, Wellington (2000) states that notes and tape recording can be used together in interviewing to improve accuracy and quality of data/evidence and to enrich the texture of reality. The field notes approach was a useful tool in this study because some of the respondents seemed not comfortable with tape recording even though there had been assurance of confidentiality and anonymity. For confidentiality and anonymity, respondents were assured that pseudonyms will be used and that the findings of the study will be used only for the purpose of this study.

**Data Analysis**

The study adopted grounded theory techniques for data analysis. This involved the breaking down of data into its components; and a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data. According to Bryman and Burgess (1994), data analysis is essentially “about detection and the task of defining, categorizing, theorizing, explaining, exploring and mapping are fundamental to the analyst’s role” (p. 76). Through analysis, the data can be meaningful and understood. In this study, data analysis involved several activities which included transcription, data reduction and coding and data interpretation.

For the interviews audio tape was replayed to transcribe the data. The tape was played several times to get familiar with the information given. This took twice the time than it would have been played without a replay. Replaying the tape several times to get the meaning of the response was a painful exercise. Some interviewees’ voices were low and could hardly be heard from the tape. The transcribed information and field notes were compiled in search for themes or commonality for further analysis.
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The research findings in this study have revealed teachers dissatisfaction about teachers’ professional development initiatives in Botswana secondary schools. There is a general view by teachers that initiatives are ineffective in developing professional and personal growth. The ineffectiveness was as far as acquisition of knowledge and skills, career progression, improvement of teachers’ performance, and identification of teachers’ training needs are concerned. However, the education officers had different view. The Principal Education Officers showed how the teachers’ professional development had a positive impact on the professional and personal growth of teachers. Could it because the education officers by virtue of their position they are expected to see that staff development activities take place in schools? This is emphasized by Revised National Policy in Education (1994) which states that “the Education Officers’ visits to schools should supplement the school based in–service training and should be geared more towards a general ‘performance audit’ of the school as well as management training of the Heads” (p.47). Admitting that the teachers professional development initiatives are a failure would imply that they are not doing a good job. The findings are discussed according to the Research Questions (RQ) and are categorized into professional development initiatives effectiveness, challenges and strategies to enhance the professional development initiatives.

RQ 1: Effectiveness of Teachers’ Professional Development Initiatives

Many teachers in Botswana secondary schools viewed the current teachers’ professional development initiatives as ineffective as they do not generally address teachers’ needs. Among others they revealed the following: the initiatives fail to improve teachers’ performance; they are unable to identify teachers training needs; the initiatives are not used when considering career progression and the initiatives are unable to assist teachers to acquire knowledge and skills. Therefore the general feeling of the respondents is that the initiatives are irrelevant.

Unable to Improve Teachers’ Performance

All respondents stated that the Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives are unable to improve teachers’ performance. For instance, a teacher from a senior secondary school echoed the same sentiment by saying:

They do not address our strengths and weakness to improve on them.

One of the School Heads from a senior secondary school affirms the ineffectiveness of the professional development initiatives by saying:

They do not instill good teachers’ attitudes towards their daily duties.

One of the Deputy School Heads from a junior secondary school interviewed said:

The initiatives have not being effective in providing professional knowledge, skills and attitudes.

One of the Head of Department from a senior secondary school concurs that:

We do not benefit from the initiatives in terms of knowledge and techniques.

All Principal Education Officers indicated that the existing teachers’ professional development initiatives are effective in providing knowledge, skills and change of teachers’ attitudes.
Failure to Identify Teachers’ Training Needs

Ninety-five percent (95%) of the respondents felt that professional development initiatives were not effective in identifying in-service training and staff development needs of teachers. For instance, one of the School Heads from a junior secondary school asserted that:

There is no room for needs assessment.

A senior teacher grade 2 from a senior secondary school concurred that:

The ways the initiatives are practiced do not identify in-service training needs of teachers.

On the contrary, the Principal Education Officers (5%) claim that teachers’ professional development initiatives are effective in identifying teachers’ training needs.

Ineffective in Enhancing Career Progression

Eighty-two per cent (82%) of the respondents indicated that professional development initiatives were not effective in enhancing teachers’ career advancement. For instance, a School Head from a junior secondary school said:

As a School Head I don’t use the initiatives to recommend teachers for promotion.

A senior teacher grade 2 from a junior secondary school agrees that:

Initiatives have no impact on the recommendation for teachers’ career progression, performance is considered.

One of the Principal Education Officers was positive about the effectiveness of the initiatives in enhancing career progression when asserting that:

Initiatives help in identifying teachers eligible for promotion.

The research findings in this section illustrate that Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives to a larger extent do not help to identify teachers training needs. Some authors (Blandford, 2000; Fullan, 1991) recommend that effective professional development initiatives should assist to identify teachers training needs for the purposes of productivity and empowerment. It was also revealed the initiatives do not enhance career advancement. Evidence from the literature reviewed suggests that any effective teachers’ professional development recognises that career development is as much about enhancing job satisfaction, motivation and morale as about enhancing promotion prospects. The role of the professional development initiatives to enhance career progression is to extend the experience of an individual teacher for career development or promotion purposes (Craft, 2000). With regard to equipping teachers with knowledge and skills Blandford (2000) claims that the purpose of the initiatives is “the acquisition or extension of knowledge, understanding, skills and abilities that will enable individual teachers to develop and adapt their range of practice” (p. 5) There is no doubt that effective teachers’ professional development initiatives should develop teachers.

RQ 2: Challenges in Implementing Professional Development Initiatives

All participants complained about the constraints that the teachers face when implementing the professional development initiatives. The constraints mentioned were inadequate resources, lack of incentives and teachers attitudes.
**Inadequate Resources**

Ninety-nine per cent (99%) of the respondents stated that the Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives face inadequate resources as a constraint. This is an area the Principal Education Officers were in agreement with teachers. The constraints mentioned were inadequate funds, insufficient time, inadequate facilities and unavailability of resource materials as a constraint. For instance, a School Head from one of the senior secondary schools stated that:

> Resources are not enough to adequately train teachers.

The Principal Education Officer stated that:

> The resources are not enough.

A senior teacher grade 1 (Staff Development) from a junior secondary school summed it by saying:

> Lack of facilities, funds, time and trained personnel are the root cause of ineffective teachers’ professional development initiatives in schools.

**Lack of Recognition**

All respondents stated that the Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives face lack of incentives for those who are capable of developing others as a constraint. For instance, a Head of Department from a senior secondary school asserted that:

> Lack of recognition/rewards to individuals, demoralises those who organise workshops for colleagues.

A colleague in junior secondary school stated that:

> Just a pat on the back for the resource persons would do.

The Principal Education Officer confirms that:

> There is no monetary incentive for teachers who train others.

It is clear that inadequate resources in schools are the cause of ineffective teachers’ professional development initiatives. Qualified education officers are needed to run workshops for teachers.

**Teachers’ Attitudes**

Sixty-five per cent (65%) of the respondents indicated that the existing teachers’ professional development initiatives face teachers’ attitudes. Teachers felt that any teacher upgrading programme held at school has no value as compared to courses held at the university or any other institution of higher learning. For instance, a School Head from a senior secondary school asserted that:

> Some teachers look down upon these initiatives. They prefer accredited courses.

A senior teacher grade 2 from a senior secondary school concurred that:

> Teachers had developed negative attitudes towards school-based workshops.

The Principal Education Officer suggested that:

> If teachers could take the initiatives seriously, they can see change in their professional growth.
Bennell (1995) affirmed Batswana teachers’ attitudes towards the professional development initiatives when he states that “other often more valuable but unaccredited staff development activities that are undertaken on the job tend to be undervalue” (p. 9).

**Resistance to Change**

Seventy-nine per cent (79%) of the respondents showed that resistance to change by long serving teachers hampers teacher professional development. These teachers had developed their own pedagogy and feel it works for them and their students. Venturing into something new would be risk as they feel it was never tested. The fear of the known dominated in their journey towards change. Emerson and Goddard (1997) state that “innovations threaten the secure base of knowledge and skills from which the teacher is working. Teachers are confident of their present competence. Some fear that they may not be able to assimilate new skills and methods that their competence will diminish” (p. 206)

The research has indicated that the main concern of School Heads and teachers as lack of relevant and appropriate support materials. It was generally observed that limited resources inhibit teacher’s personal and professional development as the under funding the professional development programme has been seen to be a barrier to effective teacher’s growth. Another revelation is that lack of incentives in schools can adversely affect the effectiveness of teachers’ professional development initiatives. The importance of incentives cannot be overemphasized. Recognition and reward of staff members for achievement, inclusion in participatory decision-making, providing opportunities for professional and personal growth, development of a school climate in which the feeling of belonging is enhanced and manifestation of respect for others are illustrative of means by which higher needs may be met. Coupled with the above are teachers’ attitudes and resistance to change. Teachers cannot be motivated by strategies they feel not suitable for them. With negative attitudes and fear to try innovations become difficult to run professional development initiatives.

**QR 3: Strategies Might be Used to Enhance the Professional Development Initiatives**

When discussing the research findings, the strategies were categorised as: relevance, transparency, training and review. As the categories were discussed they were linked to the literature reviews.

**Relevance**

Eighty-nine per cent (89%) of the respondents declared that for the professional development initiatives to be effective they should target teachers. They decried of unconducive working environment and irrelevant topics during in-service training should be removed. For instance, a teacher from one of the junior secondary schools states that:

> Some irrelevant topics should not be discussed because it is waste of time and resources.

An assistant teacher from senior secondary school supported the above views by saying that:

> A SWOT (strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis should be carried out before the initiatives are provided for the purpose of relevance.

The Principal Education Officer affirms that:

> For them to be more effective, the initiatives should be relevant to needs of teachers.

**Transparency**

Ninety-three per cent (93%) respondents felt that the planning and organization of teachers’ professional development should be transparent. For instance, a teacher from a senior secondary school lamented that:
The selection of teachers for training should not be secretive.

A colleague from junior secondary school stated that:

Teachers should know the criteria used when someone is sent for short courses.

**Training**

Eighty-two per cent (82%) of the respondents believed that all those involved in planning the professional development initiatives must receive training. For instance, a teacher from a junior secondary believes that:

Trainers should be trained by professionals for the professional development initiatives to be effective.

A senior teacher grade 2 from senior secondary school concurs that:

In-service officers should avail themselves to schools to help those given the responsibility to train teachers.

The Principal Education Officer feels that:

Workshops should be conducted by well trained personnel for quality service.

**Review**

All respondents felt that there is need to review the current teacher professional development initiatives in Botswana secondary schools. For instance, a teacher in a junior secondary school says that:

The practices should be reviewed since they do not meet our demands.

A School Head from a junior supported the above respondents by saying,

The programmes must be reviewed to benefit the recipients.

An assistant teacher from a senior secondary school asserted that,

There should be a review of the professional development initiatives every school term to enhance teachers’ performance.

The activities of the initiatives in schools should meet the needs of the teaching fraternity. Their failure to do so can seriously affect the effectiveness of teachers’ professional development initiatives. The importance of the initiatives being relevant to the teachers’ needs is indicated by scholars (Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Craft, 2000) who feel that further education and training should be more relevant and available to large numbers of people. Another strategy is being transparent. Lack of transparency makes teachers frustrated, angry, bitter and retard their professional development (Bennell, 1995). Teachers professional development activities are undertaken to improve the professional knowledge, skills and attitude. If the initiatives do not offer such opportunities, a review is necessary.

**CONCLUSION**

From the research findings it is clear that majority of the School Heads and teachers do not see the effectiveness of the current teachers’ professional development initiatives. The existing Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives are not effective in equipping teachers with knowledge and skills that are transferable to work situations. Generally, teachers believe that the current professional
development initiatives do not enhance their performance in the execution of the daily duties. Other revelation from the research are that teachers’ professional development initiatives fail to identifying teachers training needs, enhance career progression; lack clear and consistent training policies, lack of teachers involvement in the planning of the initiatives; and irrelevant.

Lack of financial resources, human resources, physical resources, time and lack of incentives had to a greater extent contributed to the ineffectiveness of the current professional development initiatives in schools. The findings of the study show that the current teachers’ professional development initiatives in Botswana secondary schools need serious scrutiny. Therefore, there is a need to review the manner at which the initiatives are practised taking into account the rapid changes in the Botswana education system. Teachers’ attitudes towards the initiatives had contributed to the ineffectiveness of the current professional development initiatives in schools. There is need for stakeholders in education to have positive attitudes toward professional development if it is to enhance teachers’ professional development initiatives; and for them to be effective. Effective teachers’ professional development initiatives result into high quality teaching staff required for high quality education for the Batswana.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are suggested for consideration:

1. Provision of training for Professional Development Providers.
2. Adequate funding of all teachers’ Professional Development initiatives.
3. Full teacher participation in the Professional Development process.
5. Various types of teacher professional development initiatives.

Direction for Further Research

The study investigated the effectiveness of teachers’ professional development initiatives in enhancing teachers’ growth in Botswana secondary schools. It came out clear that some of the pertinent issues could not be covered. Therefore, it is the feeling of the researcher that further research can be conducted more issues concerning professional development of teachers. The issues include:

- A study to investigate how the number of professional development initiatives conducted in schools affects the teachers’ performance.
- To investigate the influence of pre-service education on the effectiveness of teachers’ professional development initiatives in schools.
- A comparative study between Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development and teachers’ professional development from neighbouring countries.
- A study to investigate the impact of age and gender on teachers’ willingness to develop.
- A further investigation on Botswana secondary school teachers’ professional development initiatives targeting policy makers, Directors and Chief Education Officers and at least 90% of the teaching force and be done over a 5 year period.

The researcher would like to mention that the list is not exhaustive and more research can reveal other pertinent issues which need to be addressed.

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School Inspection and Educational Supervision: Impact on Teachers’ Productivity and Effective Teacher Education Programs in Nigeria

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Abstract

In this paper, we consolidated the state of academic research on the impact of school inspection (SIES) on teachers’ productivity and effective teacher education programs in Nigeria. Based on a systematic review of literature, we synthesized diverse research perspectives into a comprehensive framework on school inspection and supervision, and linking them to the meaning, concept and nature of inspection and supervision process, reasons and purpose, including the inherent problems confronting school inspection and supervision in Nigeria. We suggest measures of determining school inspection and supervision, and present implications for both research and practice.

Keywords: School, Inspection, Supervision, Teachers’ productivity, Teacher education, Nigeria.

Reference to this paper should be made as follows:


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INTRODUCTION

School inspection and educational supervision (SIES) is widely regarded as a critical source of competitive advantage in the ever changing environment of the education sector (Wanzare, 2002; Klaber, Mellon & Melville, 2010). According to educational management scholars (e.g., Ehren & Visscher, 2008; Ololube, 2013; Onasanya, 2008; West-Burnham, 1994), school inspection and supervision capability is the most important determinant of teachers productivities and teacher education performance.

The sudden increase in school enrolment coupled with the attendant increased complexity of the school management and organization of the Nigeria’s educational system (6-3-3-4 or 9-3-4) has without doubt necessitate a greater attention in SIES. This is more so because SIES plays a unique role in educational systems around the world. Equally, as enrollment in our educational systems in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular increase on a daily bases, the available human and material resources may become overstretched. The situation becomes even more fear-provoking when teachers and teacher education programs globally are being transformed towards yielding better outcomes, as a result, adequate planning of SIES is needed to address these issues. We recognize that SIES is a complex process to handle; the complexity of SIES, their constraints, possibility, and other complications also makes it a necessity. The insufficient human and material resources in schools may well be wasted if their utilization is not properly supervised (Ololube, 2013).

Colleges of Education and Faculties of Education in Nigerian universities are presumed to be openly committed to excellence in teacher education programs. Excellence in teacher education can be taken to mean effectively providing teaching and learning experiences that prepare student teachers for the challenges of today’s multifaceted, ever varying, and varied workplace. The guiding philosophy of teacher education is to produce student teachers with sharp intellectual minds capable of further critical intellectual inquiry (Ololube, 2011). Colleges and Faculties of Education are among several institutions in Nigeria that offer teacher education services to students who wish to specialize in subjects including agricultural science, arts, environmental sciences, health education, humanities, information and communication, management and social sciences, the natural, applied sciences, etc (Ololube, 2014b). These specialized subject areas in teacher education programs cannot be achieved if adequate inspection and supervision mechanisms are not put in place to effectively monitor, control and manage the activities of the program givers.

Inadequate inspection and supervision in teacher preparation programs results in teachers’ inability to demonstrate adequate knowledge and understanding of the structure, function and development of their disciplines (Ololube, 2014a,b). An effective teacher education program is thus a prerequisite for a reliable and resilient education which leads to confidence among teachers and students as a result of effective and professionally coordinated learning (Umunadi & Ololube, 2014).

Teacher education programs in Nigeria are under the supervision and control of governmental organizations. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) (NCCE, 2013) has responsibility for teacher education programs in Nigeria delivered by Colleges of Education. Nigeria’s 129 universities, in contrast, are under the direct supervision of the National Universities Commission (NUC) (NUR, 2013). Polytechnics, of which 9 run Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) programs, fall under the National Board for Vocational Colleges and Technical Education (NBTE) (NBTE, 2013).

In light of the foregoing, SIES are gaining more prominence in the affairs of agencies, parents, planners, policy makers, teachers, supervisors and inspectors in Nigeria more than ever. It is seen as a way of answering so many questions and solving a myriad of problems facing the education industry. Federal, state and local governments including the private sectors are committing additional funds into SIES (Onasanya, 2008). The maintenance of standards, quality assurance and measures of control are beginning to be the concerns of all progressive stakeholders. There is therefore a greater demand for honesty and accountability (Okumbe 1999). Consequently, it is obvious that the impact of SIES in teachers’ productivity and effective teacher education programs has now come into the public domain. The terms inspection and supervision are
often used interchangeably. However, there is the need to clarify these two terms and spell their functions in education in the subsequent sections.

This study is based on the premise that researchers often find it difficult to differentiate between SIES. It is hoped that the researchers experience and reflection on this topical issues will contribute to a set of clear and flexible guidelines for new researchers preparing to write academic papers using qualitative/theoretical perspectives. The authors desire to write this paper is based on interest in sharing experiences with other faculty and researchers so that experienced and inexperienced researchers alike will be better prepared to sort out some of the confusion and deal with the issues that confront SIES as part of what can be a lonely, and uphill scientific writing expedition (Ololube & Kpolovie, 2012).

SCHOOL INSPECTION

Inspection is as old as human existence. Inspections are usually non-destructive. Every human tries to excel at tasks they are charged with and so requires oversight of these tasks. According to Okumbe (1999), inspection is an old concept in management whose basic premise is derived from an autocratic management style. Here, it is not aimed at catching teachers who underperform but it represents a fault-finding attitude among teachers. West-Burnham (1994) points out that in education, teachers tend to see inspection as an external imposition and are particularly prone to reject it when inspectors are given too much authority.

According to Ojelabi in Olele (1995), school inspection (SI) represents a critical examination and subsequent evaluation of schools as designated places of learning. It seeks to provide the necessary advice and support to ensure school improvement. It is an organized examination or formal evaluation exercise, which involves the measurement, testing, and evaluation of certain characteristics of activities in the school system. The results are usually compared to specified requirements and standards so as to determine whether an activity is in line with set targets. SI can also be conceptualized as a kind of management, which involves directing, controlling, reporting, commanding, and other such activities that emphasize the task at hand and assess the extent to which particular objectives have been accomplished within the confines of the school system (Wanzare, 2002). SI is expected to produce an end result of high student academic achievement. Figure 1 summarizes the mechanisms of SI.

![Figure 1. Intended effects of school inspections](http://schoolinspections.eu/home/conceptual-model/)

Reasons/Purpose of School Inspection

SI is an integral part of education systems globally, and has maintained the same purpose irrespective of its historical development in different parts of the world. According to Wanzare (2002), Ojelabi in Olele (1995), and Kamuyu (2001), some of the reasons that inspection is carried out in schools include:

- To acquire an overview of the quality of education: This is done in accordance with performance indicators for an education system. Report findings are sent to the educational institutions involved to enable them to plan improvement strategies.
- To ensure minimum standards: This is done to verify that minimum standards are being adhered to. This thus helps to guarantee relatively equal educational opportunities for all by ensuring that the same school standards are maintained across the country.
- To offer purposeful and constructive advice: This is done to create a forum where purposeful and constructive advice can be given for the sake of improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools.
- To supervise the implementation of Curriculum: Curriculum implementation is an interaction between those who have created the curriculum and those who are charged to deliver it (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998). The supervision of its implementation ensures that teachers are following the school curriculum effectively. There have been real concerns that some schools do not implement their curriculum and that some teachers do not know what is expected of them. Curriculum must be delivered properly if it is to have impact on student learning.
- To identify discipline problems: In this situation, inspectors attempt to identify some of the discipline problems encountered in schools. Inspections, for example, ensure that prudence is maintained as expected and that the public funds that are provided for running schools are used responsibly.
- To monitor and improve Teaching and Learning: In this situation, school authorities may wish to know the true position of a school’s human and material resources. Inspectors thus determine staff strengths, the appropriateness of the teaching qualifications of teachers, and the state of facilities in schools.
- To stimulating and providing Guidance: This is to ensure that schools are stimulated and guided as to how to improve and achieve educational goals through desirable practices.

Problems of School Inspection in Nigeria

SI is often criticized because of its limitations as an examination of school activities that searches for lapses and wastages. If it generally fails to prevent these lapses and wastages, it is often referred to as being a costly approach to problems solving. Among the many challenges facing SI in Nigeria, Ogunu (2001, 2005); and Wanzare (2002) has identified:

Inadequacy of inspection: School inspection in Nigeria is highly inadequate and does not meet the needs of schools and parents. Given the falling standard of education in Nigeria today, one might assume that SI are hardly carried out at all. The lack of SIs by the Inspectorate Department of the Ministry of Education and the many Schools Boards is indeed a major concern. Among the possible causes of inadequate inspections are the understaffing of inspectors, heavy workloads and time constraints (Wanzare, 2002) Enaigbe, 2009).

Attitudes and commitment: Over the years, school inspectors have tended to exhibit negative attitudes towards inspection and a lack of commitment to their responsibilities. According to Nakitare in Wanzare (2002), a number of teachers felt that inspectors were not dedicated to their inspectoral duties. This absence of a positive and committed approach may be attributed to a lack of appropriate incentives for inspectors.
Lack of collaboration: School inspectors tend to evaluate teachers based on their own perceptions of teaching and teacher performance without considering official standards. Teacher involvement in matters of school inspection has been minimal. Teachers do not understand and do not participate in designing the instruments that are used to evaluate them. Opportunities for meaningful dialogue between teachers and inspectors, especially after inspections, are limited (Ogunu, 2005; Enaigbe, 2009).

Cost of inspection: School inspection is expensive and has serious implications for education. Most African countries are poor and struggling economies make the funding of inspection difficult (Enaigbe, 2009). Budgetary allocations for inspections, aside from the one that is meant for the entire education system, are very limited. Allowances and benefits due inspector are rarely paid, making inspection an unattractive task (Ololube, 2013).

Education system/bureaucracy: In Nigeria, the inspectoral system is highly bureaucratic. It shares all other aspects of the education bureaucracy in that it is top-down, hierarchical, and authoritarian in character. This hierarchical set up has created communication problems between school inspectors and education authorities. Inspectors on the ground, for example, are often unable to make decisions on matters pertaining to school inspection without consulting authorities who may have little or no knowledge of the situation or school (Eya, & Chukwu, 2012).

Feedback and follow-up: Productive feedback and follow-up initiatives are lacking in the inspection system. There is thus little opportunity for discussing findings such as the need for more in-service training of teachers and whether new initiatives satisfy the identified need. Given this lack of follow-up, there is no way to ensure that inspection will contribute to school development in a cost-effective way. Dearn in Wanzare (2002) found, for example, that the lack of feedback from inspectors frustrated teachers and their efforts to improve.

Inappropriate inspection: Many school inspections lack a proper, appropriate, and uniform structure. School inspectors have the tendency to focus on school buildings and administrative systems rather than on teaching and learning (Enaigbe, 2009). This results in minimal attention being paid to the identification and improvement of educational standards. It thus seems that the present system is control-oriented rather than service-oriented and tends to focus on maintaining the status quo by regulating institutional functions and by ensuring that bureaucratic rules and regulations are adhered to (Ololube, 2013).

Inspection reports: School inspectors are expected to prepare inspection reports with detailed recommendations and to submit these reports to school authorities, the Permanent Secretary at the Ministry of Education, and the Secretary of the Teachers Service Commission. There is, however, no clear indication of the accessibility of these reports by teachers, parents, and other interested parties. Furthermore, there seems to be a deliberate neglect of school context in the process of inspection and in inspection reports (Wilcox & Gray in Wanzare, 2002).

Inspector recruitment, selection, and deployment: Nigerians, particularly teachers in Nigeria, have long criticized the recruitment, selection, and job assignment of school inspectors. Some seem to be highly incompetent and are unable to apply desired practices of school inspection and to distinguish between effective and ineffective schools (Wanzare, 2002). There is no clear policy for identifying suitable candidates to be recruited as school inspectors and so many unsuitable personnel find their way into the Inspectorate thereby rendering the integrity of entire system questionable.

Inspectorate autonomy: The Inspectorate in Nigeria lacks autonomy to execute its services and as a result is unable to implement recommendations based on inspections. Presently, school inspectors inspect schools, point out concerns, make recommendations to the boards for implementation, and very little ever changes.

Inspectorate titles: Certain Inspectorate titles, such as inspector and inspection, seem to be associated with harsh, colonial overtones and a master-servant type of relationship and need to be revised.

Inspectorate-university partnerships: There is no clear formal relationship between Colleges of Education, universities and the Inspectorate of the Ministry of Education or schools boards on matters related to SI. Given the lack of collaboration between the Ministry of Education and universities, the Inspectorate
tends to only involve university teaching personnel as facilitators during the inspection in-service training programs (Wanzare, 2002). The personnel and other resources of universities should be accessed more routinely so as to enhance the training of inspectors and the inspection process (Ololube, 2013).

Inspection planning: Poor planning has marked many school inspection practices. Plans for the inspection of schools have been over-ambitious and, consequently, they are seldom carried out. Inspections have at times been marked by impromptu and irregular visits with the objective of catching teachers underperforming. In addition, some schools are visited and inspected more frequently than others (Ololube, 2013).

Pre-service and in-service training: At present, there are no courses that specifically address school inspection in the pre-service training programs for teachers at Nigerian universities and Colleges of Education. Correspondingly, in-service training opportunities for school inspectors and teachers on the subject of school inspection are completely inadequate (Wanzare, 2002).

Professionalism: The major concern here is that most inspectors are not professionally qualified as inspectors. They conduct themselves in an unprofessional manner that has serious implications for teaching and learning (Ololube, 2013). A number of inspectors have been criticized for being overly harsh with teachers and for harassing teachers in front of their students. Many teachers have, not surprisingly, developed negative attitude towards inspectors (Wanzare, 2002).

Human and material resources: School inspection, especially in rural areas, is frustrated by a lack of essential facilities, such as offices, accommodation, clerical services, support staff, equipment, and stationary. A persistent shortage of stationery and inadequate secretarial services make it difficult for the inspectors to prepare meaningful reports. Support for school inspection, especially in terms of staff, equipment, accommodation, and advisory services is often not matched to the tasks to be discharged (Wanzare, 2002).

Transport/movement: School inspectors are often faced with the problem of lack of transport, especially those inspectors deployed to rural areas. There are some geographical regions in the country where visits to schools are impossible even by most mechanized means. Additionally, there is a lack of sufficient funds, especially traveling and subsistence allowances, provided to inspectors to meet expenses associated with transport and accommodation. These challenges have affected the regular and efficient inspection of schools in different parts of the country.

Evaluating inspection: There is a lack of appropriate post-inspection evaluation by school inspectors at the end of each inspection to gather the views of head teachers and other school personnel on the practice and process of inspection.

**Forms/Types of Inspection**

The unique forms and types of inspection have been classified by Ojelabi in Olol (1995) as follows:

Clinical Visit: During and after this visit, the inspectors analyses the data/information and discuss his analysis with the teachers for the improvement of instruction.

Creative Visit: In this type of visit, both the teacher and the inspector feel open-minded. This system promotes freedom flexibility and encourages open mind. In this situation, teachers and the inspectors, work together, collaborate, evaluate and describe each other’s work. This encourages teachers in all respects. This can be called the best type of inspection.

Follow-Up Visits: In follow up of previous visits. The inspector investigates whether the suggestions, corrections and recommendation made during the previous visit have been carried out by affected schools. The visit is to ascertain to what extent the corrections and suggestions provided are helped in achieving the educational objectives.

Full Inspection: Full inspection consists of a team of inspectors visiting a school for several days for a fact-finding mission. They enquire into every aspect of the school program. Such visits are usually followed
by a comprehensive report, copies of which are made available to the school and Ministry of Education or Schools Board. The interval between inspections is usually 2 to 4 years or more.

Investigative Visit: This is to investigate an aspect of administration in the school e.g. special problem of indiscipline, and/or investigation of an allegation of fraud.

Preventive Visit: In this type visit, the inspectors before hand anticipate problems, as such, try to assist teachers avoid those problems/shortfalls/deficiencies. This type of inspection helps teachers to meet situation with confidence as they predict the problems beforehand and act as friend and guide. Therefore, this type of inspection is more useful and helpful in every respect as compared to the traditional type.

Routine visits: Routine visits are short visit made to schools in which no formal reports are written but brief comments are made. The aim depends on why an inspection is made. It may be to check on the punctuality level of teachers. One of the aims of such supervisory visits is to look into what is happening, the work being done, the human relationships and the appropriate use of the school building and equipment (Onasanya, 2008).

Sampling and Survey Visits: This type of visit samples people opinion on the approval for the opening of a new school. Such visits are made to new schools to find out whether they satisfy the condition necessary to obtain approval for opening.

Special Visit: This type of visit is for the inspection of one or a limited number of aspects of the school. For example, if there is a problem in the teaching and learning of a special subject such as the teaching of English or mathematics.

SUPERVISION

Supervision is a complex process that must play a prominent function in all education systems. Ideally, supervision is a partnership between supervisors and supervisees, in which both partners are actively involved in the planning and direction taken. Feedback and guidance are essential components of learning and development and so it is vital that supervisors provide supervisees with both. In return, supervisees must demonstrate an openness and commitment to the process, along with a strong sense of self-motivation and self-improvement (Ani, 2007). This section offers a practical framework against which educational supervisions can assess their responsibilities, approaches and expectations.

Meaning, Nature and Concept of Supervision

Developmental models of supervision ascribe to the idea that supervisees’ competence and needs change over time. More highly structured supervision, for example, fits the needs of the inexperienced analyst, while those with more experience tend to prefer a more collegial supervisory relationship. Effective supervision occurs when the supervisee consolidates an identity separate from the supervisor, while acknowledging the supervisor’s importance and the learning that occurs through supervision. Supervision is thus formally defined as a relationship between senior and junior member(s) of a profession that is evaluative, extends over time, serves to enhance the skills of the junior person, and monitors the quality of the services offered by the junior person, and acts as gate keeping to the profession (Bernard & Goodyear, 1998, 2004). Current developmental models of supervision, however, lack a framework that can help supervisors to manage educational relationships effectively and promote the growth and development of supervisees (Watkins, 1997).

EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

The sudden explosion of the nation’s population coupled with the attendant increased complexity of the school organization and the introduction of the new basic education system (6-3-3-4 or 9-3-4) has
necessitated greater attention than ever before to school supervision. School supervision thus occupies a unique place in the education system (Onasanya, 2008).

Education is the most effective means that society possesses for confronting the challenges of the future. Indeed, education will shape the world of tomorrow and progress increasingly depends upon the products of educated minds vis-à-vis research, invention, innovation and adaptation (UNESCO, 1997). Education is recognized across the world as the most vital of public services (Mansell, James, & the Assessment Reform Group, 2009). Through education, knowledge and skills are acquired and this in turn enables a country to develop socially and economically (Ololube, 2014a).

Providing effective education requires reliable education systems. Reliability in this context means that the education system is dependable and educational supervision plays a major role in guaranteeing a dependable system (Olele, 1995). Assessment in the form of supervision is essential to enabling individuals to get the educational support they need to succeed, to reviewing and considering the merits of different educational methods and to ensuring that education budgets are spent responsibly (Whetton, 2009).

Here, an important question arises, how can we measure the effectiveness of school supervision? Evidence suggests that teachers and head teachers have difficulty assessing their own abilities. Educational supervision is a formal process that addresses this problem. It encompasses a range of activities aimed at providing guidance and feedback to less experienced educationists from the perspective of a more experienced educationist. It is underpinned by several key principles as reflected in the literature including active listening, mentoring, creating a supportive learning environment, providing constructive feedback, encouraging reflective practice and developing insightful or self-aware approaches in teachers and head teachers (Klaber, Mellon, & Melville, 2010; Ekundayo, Oyerinde & Kolawole, 2013; Geijsel, Sleegers, Stoel & Kruger, 2009).

Educational supervision is a positive process, which enables supervisees to gather feedback on their performance, to chart their continuing progress and to identify their developmental needs. It is a forward-looking process that then helps supervisees to select the most appropriate strategies for meeting these needs (UNESCO, 2007). Essentially, supervision is the practice of monitoring the performance of school staff, noting the merits and demerits of their work, and using befitting and amicable techniques to ameliorate flaws while building on merits thereby increasing the standard of schools and the achievement of their goals.

**Basic Principles of Effective Supervision**

Onasanya (2008) identified eight basic principles to help ensure the effectiveness of supervisory systems. These principles are comprehensive and include:

1. **A Healthy Atmosphere:** The school and supervisory environment should be rendered free of tension and emotional stress. It should be an atmosphere that provides incentives for outstanding work.

2. **Staff Orientation:** The quality and quantity of the work must be specified in clear terms to staff during their orientation. Staff must be made to understand what is and what is not expected of them. New staff must thus be given a thorough orientation. This orientation should include materials that specify how and where to get the information and materials that will help them to perform their work well.

3. **Guidance and Staff Training:** Staff should be offered any needed guidance, including how to carry out their assignment. Work standards should be set by supervisors and information on these standards should be provided in written form to all staff for the purposes of accountability. Schools must regularly arrange and participate in staff training and development to ensure that new techniques and approaches to education are always being introduced and understood.
4. Immediate Recognition of Good Work: Good work should be recognized. The acknowledgement of good work done must be immediate and must be made in a public way so as to serve as an incentive to others. Incentives such as public recognition and recommendation for promotion improve performances.

5. Constructive Criticism: Substandard work should be constructively criticized. Positive and helpful advice and support should be offered to the offending staff. Unlike recognition of good work, such constructive criticisms should be presented in private and should always be free of bias and/or prejudice.

6. Opportunity for Improvement: Staff should be given opportunities to demonstrate their skills and ambitions. They should be encouraged, where appropriate, to take part in making decisions that will affect their school and students. This type of empowerment or engagement will motivate staff to work harder and to take ownership over their classes and tasks.

7. Motivation and Encouragement: Staff should be motivated and encouraged to increase their productivity. They should be encouraged to improve their abilities and to achieve organizational goal.

**Problems of Educational Supervision**

There are various factors hindering successful educational supervision in Nigeria. Onasanya (2008) and Ekundayo, Oyerinde, & Kolawole (2013) identified these factors as:

1. **Government**

The majority of Nigerians (e.g., Enaigbe 2009; Eya, & Chukwu, 2012; Ekundayo et al., 2013) are of the view that the government contributes to the problems of supervision through:

- The poor remuneration of teachers
- Insufficient staffing/shortage of supervisors
- Lack of materials and resources
- Lack of facilities and resources (vehicles) for supervisors of education
- Poor road conditions
- Lack of evaluation system
- Inadequate funding
- Political instability
- Constant change in educational policies
- Lack of adequate training for supervisors
- Politicalisation of the appointment of supervisors

2. **Teachers**

Teachers contribute to the problem of supervision in the following ways:

- Unprofessional attitudes to work
- Lack of interest in work
- Lack of basic knowledge or formal training
- Lack of qualifications for position
3. Community and Society

Community and society contribute to the problem of supervision in the following ways:

- Poor perception of teaching as a profession
- Poor status attributed to teachers
- Lack of proper interest education

Importance of Educational Supervision

Achieving the purposes of educational supervision makes the achievement of the goals of education much easier. This becomes more imperative and pressing because of the increased cry globally about immorality and corruption in the education sector (Ojogwu 2001; Igwe, 2001; Eya, & Chukwu, 2012). The importance of educational supervision includes:

Proper guidance from experts: The purpose of supervision is to provide academic guidance by an experienced teacher or expert/specialist in different school subjects so that newer or junior teachers are able to develop their skills and capacity.

Classroom management: Both teachers and school management agree that discipline is among the most serious problems in schools today. Supervision can help teachers to acquire better classroom management skills. Among its other aims, supervision should seek to enable teachers to develop preventive and corrective measures of discipline in the classroom (Ekundayo et al., 2013)

Planning for better instruction: Instructional planning is considered to be the first step in improving classroom instruction. It is therefore recommended that supervisors help teachers to develop and improve their skills in instructional design and to use models of instruction to guide this instructional planning. Instructional planning includes lesson plans, unit plans and year plans.

Use of modern methods of teaching: Methods of teaching are an important part of effective instruction in the classroom. The supervisor should thus help teachers to learn/know about modern methods of teaching and to apply these in the classroom.

Helps teachers to work together: In order to accomplish school goals and objectives, teachers must learn to work together. One of the aims of supervision is thus the enhancement of cooperation among teachers.

Planning and implementing: All developmental and planning activities need guidance and direction at every stage. The right type of supervision is thus concerned with helping teachers in planning, in the selection of strategies and resources, and in monitoring and evaluating those strategies.

Differences between Inspection and Supervision

The effects of school inspections and supervision on school improvement have been outlined. The provision of feedback about weaknesses, the assessment of these weak points as satisfactory and unsatisfactory, and the agreements between inspector and supervisors regarding school improvement appear to make a difference in promoting school improvement and development (Ehren & Visscher, 2008). However, differences exist between school inspection and supervision. Nwankwo in Olele (1995) presented some difference between inspection and supervision; however, they were modified by the authors to suit the purpose of this study. They are:
1. (a) The aim of inspection is to find reasons for closing, opening or retaining a school.
   (b) The aim of supervision is to help teacher and students to carry out the teaching and learning process more effective and interesting.
2. (a) School inspection is teacher and principal centered. The fundamental aim of inspection is to serve the purpose of witch hunting.
   (a) Supervision is concerned with the general structure of the school system. It deals with anything from the school curriculum to the welfare of students and teachers.
3. (a) Inspection rigidly stresses strict compliance to set down rules and regulations inspective of peculiar local conditions, which may make some of the set rules and regulations not workable.
   (b) Supervision looks at management variables such as plans, policies and programmes. In conjunction with the other participants; supervisors work out mutually accepted formula for supervision after considering all prevailing conditions in the school and immediate environment.
4. (a) Inspections are normally not thorough because they are usually directed at specific occasional problems, such as investigating cases of fraud.
   (b) Supervision is usually well planned and it is not reserved for investigating occasional problem.
5. (a) Inspectors usually demand respect. They intimidate teachers, students and school heads.
   (b) Supervisors earn respect by sharing expertise. They are considerate on matters they encounter during supervision.
6. (a) Inspection is usually conducted by a person who is regarded as jack of all trade.
   (b) Supervision is usually teamwork that is characterised by division of labour. Expert advice is sort and obtained by teacher and students.
7. (a) Inspection reports are usually not written immediately after inspection.
   (b) Supervision reports are usually discussed with the teachers and students.
8. (a) There is always lack of follow-up activities after inspection.
   (b) Follow-up activities normally commence at the earliest possible time.

**Conclusion/Recommendations**

In this paper, the purpose and dimensions of school inspection were discussed as were several deficiencies in the practice of school inspection in Nigeria. Most significantly, school inspectors are poorly supported and trained and teachers have virtually no input into the inspection process. Inspections as they occur today do not seem to fully serve the needs of the Nigerian education system. Unfortunately, this trend does not advance the Nigeria’s developing democratic dispensation or its transformation agenda.

This paper has addressed several of the components of supervision. Educational activities need supervision to achieve educational objectives. Supervision increases teacher productivity, motivation, commitment and performance. In order for educational supervision to be effective, it must be intrusive, adaptive, proactive, comprehensive, and conclusive. This type of supervision is only possible if both the policy and institutional environment support the supervisory will and ability to act. Such support includes a clear and credible mandate that is free of conflicts, a legal and governance structure that promotes operational independence, adequate budgets that provide sufficient numbers of experienced supervisors, a framework of laws that allows for the effective discharge of supervisory actions, and tools commensurate with education (Viñals et al., 2010).

This study has suggested several possibilities and propositions for research and practice. These deductions pertain most directly to researchers, students, teachers and teacher education programs. At the management level in higher education, this study calls for policies to ensure balanced investments in, and increased funding for school inspection and supervision that will allow for the effective use, integration and diffusion of school inspection and supervision services in the teaching and learning processes. The significance of school inspection and supervision in teachers productivity and teacher education cannot be
over-emphasized, however, the evidence points to the fact that school inspection and supervision is critical at this stage of Nigeria’s educational development and meeting the millennium development goals (MDG’s), particularly in meeting Nigeria’s Vision 20: 2020.

Significantly a question need to be asked, how do we work against the effects of the myriad of problems facing school inspection and supervision (e.g., corruption, inadequate funding, lack of adequate training for inspectors and supervisors)? Logical answer to this question would be that Nigerian governments need to incorporate anti-corruption actions into all aspects of corruption in the school system; provide adequate funding for school inspection, adequate training for inspectors and supervisors, and making consultancy services more transparent and making the personnel’s of the Ministry of Education more accountable for their actions.

This study recommends future empirical studies that might also pursue other opportunities that will reveal further constructs that measure and propose model across different countries, by exploring the mechanisms that connect the constructs, the inherent worries that exist between the various types of education supervision and school inspection, and their underlying processes. Additionally, future research could explore the possible link and/or differences between education supervision and school inspection. Further studies might shed additional light on the nature, scope and strength of the relationships between supervision and inspection in school in Nigeria.

This study contributes to research, as much as it contributes to practice. Academic works advocating various elements of education supervision and school inspection abound, but very little are grounded in a sound and tight theoretical perspective. The authors opine that if there are shortcomings in this approach, it should be overlooked and assumed as the hallmark of the authors’ oversight. Education practitioners, managers, policy makers as well as planners should see this work as a useful addition to the number of existing literature on SIES.

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