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Crime and Crime Management in Nigeria
Tertiary Institutions: Adebanjo, Margaret Adewunmi

Abstract

This paper examines crime and its management in Nigerian tertiary institutions. Tertiary institutions today have become arenas for crime activities such as rape, cultism, murder, theft, internet fraud, drug abuse, and examination malpractices. This paper delves into what crime is, and its causes; and the positions of the law on crime management. It recommends that tertiary institutions should device a mechanism of curtailing crime and the rule of the law should be enhanced to reflect; fair hearing, proper funding and staffing of legal departments in tertiary institutions, adequate provision of security personnel, public enlightenment and proper orientation programs for newly admitted students. The government and the respective institutions should further base admissions on academic and moral merit rather than political influence.

Key Words: Crime, Crime Management, Tertiary Institutions

The term crime does not have any universally accepted definition, in modern times but one definition is that crime, also called an offence or a criminal offence, is an act harmful to individuals, and also to the community or the state. Such acts are forbidden and punishable by law. These include murder, rape, cultism, theft, examination malpractices, and internet fraud, popularly known as “yahoo yahoo”. Authorities employ various mechanisms to regulate (encouraging or discouraging) certain behaviors in general. Governing or administering agencies may, for example codify rules into laws; in addition, authorities provide remedies and sanctions collectively, which constitute a criminal justice system. One of the greatest social ills facing the present generation is criminal activities. Crime has become a way of life, especially among young people, many of whom do not realize or appreciate the true nature and implications of what they are engaged in (Omodarho). This social ill which is not limited to schools has led to loss of lives, properties, resources, values and societal harmony. Reports from various formal institutions of learning have shown that most public schools today have become arenas for crime activities such as cultism, rape, theft, exam malpractice, and drug abuse, among others.

A growing number of students from tertiary institutions are taking up crime as an occupation. This makes a mockery of our universities, polytechnics and colleges as institutions established for the advancement of knowledge and character training. Some students gain admission into these institutions not to achieve their learning objectives, but to

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enroll in cultism and other criminal groups that are designed to terrorize and deprive people of their money and properties. There is also a growing fear that tertiary institutions have lost the values for which they were established as students enroll in a bizarre subculture that is at odds with the curriculum contents of the programs that universities offer (Dowkin, 2005). This paper aims at examining these detrimental trends in Nigeria tertiary institutions, and to proffer possible solutions.

What is Crime?

For clarification, it is necessary to make a basic definition of what crime is and why its proper management when it occurs within an institution’s environment has proved to be such a contentious issue. Crime has been described as: “a harmful act or omission against the public, which the State wishes to prevent and which, upon conviction, is punishable by a fine, imprisonment, and/or death. No conduct constitutes a crime unless it is declared criminal in the laws of the country (Business Dictionary). A noted jurist of the 19th Century, Henry Maine described crime in the following terms: Understanding that the conception of Crime, as distinguished from that of Wrong or Tort and from that of Sin, involves the idea of injury to the State of collective community, we first find that the commonwealth, in literal conformity with the conception, itself interposed directly, and by isolated acts, to avenge itself on the author of the evil which it had suffered (Henry, 1901)

As it may be gleaned from these two definitions, crimes are wrongful acts which are distinguished from other wrongful acts by virtue of the fact that they are considered to be offences against the state or public, and as such only the state has the power to punish them. For this reason, it is the state alone that has the power to enact laws which define what manner of conduct is liable to attract the sanctions of law. The most prominent laws defining which human activities are classified as crimes are known as penal laws. In Nigeria, these laws are the Criminal Code Act and Penal Code Act which apply to Southern and Northern Nigeria respectively. There are other numerous laws such as the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency Act 1992, the Terrorism Act 2011, and the Money Laundering Act 2011. All these laws were enacted by the Nigerian state, and Nigeria state cannot relinquish her responsibility in this regard to any other authority as it is codified in the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 constitution as amended.

On several occasions, Nigerian courts have been called upon to determine the question of where the authority of the state begins and where the administrative authority of a tertiary institution ends with regard to cases where criminal conduct has been alleged. In the case of UNILORIN Vs OLUWADARE (2006), the Supreme Court first of all recognized the autonomy of the University of Ilorin to make its own laws for the effective discharge of its primary duty as an educator: “The courts cannot and will not usurp the functions of the Senate, council and the Visitor of the University in the selection of their fit and proper candidates for passing and for the award of certificates, degrees and diplomas.” The apex court however went on to hold that: “For matters which involve serious criminal allegations against the state as arson, stealing, incident assault, etc, the suspects should, for obvious reason be tried in a court or tribunal properly so called under the constitution” (Akintemi, 1985)

Recently in Ibadan, Oyo State, the police displayed for public viewing five students of an unnamed private university who allegedly swindled their victims of more than $27,000.
The state Commissioner of Police told journalists that the students and other criminals were apprehended for involvement in criminal activities that included internet fraud, armed banditry, stealing of cars, and theft of jewels valued at over N25 million. One of the suspects allegedly told the police: “I do Yahoo. My two most recent deals fetch me $27,000. The first was $17,000 and the second was $10,000. I got that from a woman in California (USA).” (Obijiofor, 2013). In the face of these worrisome developments, the question which easily comes to mind is, what can tertiary institutions do to stem the rising tide of criminal activities? This paper is aimed at examining from a wholly legal cum administrative perspective, what powers are available to tertiary institutions generally in enforcing discipline amongst its students. Although this paper focuses on tertiary institutions as a whole, it is concerned with the management of criminal conduct that takes place within the immediate physical environment of tertiary institutions, between members of its community.

**Causes of Crime in Tertiary Institutions**

Sociologists have advanced three theories to explain the causes of crime in society. These are the political and economy theory, the opportunities theory and the sub-cultural theory. The Political/Economy theory argues that any society that is unequal has inherent problems in it, (Karl Marx, 1990), which includes, corruption, robbery, rape, cultism and such other vices. The opportunities theory is referred to as realistic that when certain conditions are created within a society, the people within that society are predisposed to various kinds of behaviour. Hence, the present atmosphere and conditions in Nigeria’s tertiary institutions where facilities are over screeched, academic culture is poor and there is little regard for rules and regulations, creates opportunities for emergence and survival of antisocial behaviours. According to the Sub-culture theory, wherever a sub-culture is allowed to develop, eradicating it becomes extremely difficult because it becomes rooted in some way in every new generation. The Nigerian experience in our tertiary institutions suggests that these three theories are indicative of the causes of crime and are endemic in our society.

In addition to these three factors, there are other variables from empirical analysis that contribute to recent rise in crime in tertiary institutions, which includes but not limited to the following: admission of unqualified students into tertiary institutions, who cannot cope with the intellectual demands of the academic system. Uncoordinated administrations which make it possible for non-students as well as expelled students to co-exist with bona fide students. The employment of cult members by some politicians to combat their enemies within and outside the school system. Lack of committed teaching and learning, as well as inadequate infrastructural resources, which led to overcrowding in lecture rooms, and hall of residences laboratories, among others. The decay of national morality and social values. Poor parenting as most homes have the last required peace as divorce separation, large family size and financial hardship have become the order of the day.

**Position of the law**

It must first of all be established that tertiary institutions in Nigeria are creatures of law. The Federal or State governments are empowered to establish tertiary institutions by an Act or Law enacted by the Federal or State Legislature. This is under concurrent Legislative list of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 constitution. The Private Universities are incorporated as legal entities and thereafter licensed by the Federal Government to operate as
Universities under the Education (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) Act (Cap E3 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 2004). The enabling laws of all tertiary institutions specify the power, functions and responsibilities of the various constituent bodies and functionaries of the universities. The various enactments which established tertiary institutions also specifically endowed these institutions with the power to promulgate their own bye-laws with respect to enforcing disciplinary measures for both students and staff. There are many such laws on our statute books and the provisions of each law establishing each tertiary institution are generally uniform in nature. It therefore suffices to use one such law, the University of Lagos Act, as a template for our purpose in this paper. The University Council and the University Senate are the two bodies vested with authority to act as the judiciary and legislature of the university respectively. Section 12 (1) (c) of the University of Lagos Act (Cap U9, Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 2004) provides that: Subject to this Act, the University may make statutes for any of the following purposes, that is to say, regulating the admission of students and their discipline and welfare. Section 20 further provides that:

(1) Subject to the provisions of this section, where it appears to the Vice Chancellor that may, without prejudice to any other disciplinary powers conferred on him by statute or regulations direct-

(a) That the students shall not, during such period as may be specified in the direction, participate in such activities of the University, or make us of such facilities of the University, as may be so specified; or

(b) That the activities of the student shall, during such period as may be specified in the direction, be restricted in such manner as may be so specified; or

(c) That the student be rusticated for such period as may be specified in the direction; or

(d) That the student be expelled from the University.

(2) Where a direction is given under subsection (1) (c) or (d) of this section in respect of any student, the student may, within the prescribed period and in the prescribed manner, appeal from the direction to the Council; and where such an appeal is brought, the Council shall, after causing such inquiry to be made in the matter as the Council considers just, either confirm or set aside the direction or modify it in such manner as the Council thinks fit.

The statute also provides for the discipline of errant members of staff:

Section 18 of the Act stipulates that:

(1) If it appears to the Council that there are reasons for believing that the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, the Provost of a college or any other person employed as a member of the academic of administrative staff of the University or a college should be removed from his office or employment on the ground of misconduct or of inability to perform the functions of his office or employment, the Council shall—

(a) Give notice of those reasons to the person in question;

(b) Make arrangements—

(i) For a joint committee of the Council and the Senate to investigate the matter, where it relates to the Deputy Vice-Chancellor, the Provost of a college, or the Registrar, and to report on it to the Council; or

(ii) For a committee of the Senate to investigate the matter, where it relates to any other member of the staff of the University, and to report it to the Senate and to the Council; and

(c) Make arrangements for the person in question or his representative to be afforded on
opportunity of appearing before and being heard by the investigating committee with respect to the matter, and if the Council, after considering the report of the investigating committee, is satisfied that the person in question should be removed as aforesaid, the Council may so remove him by an instrument in writing signed on the directions of the Council.

One important feature which is evident in the above provision is that any disciplinary action must be underpinned by the twin considerations of natural justice, audi alteram partem (Hear the other side) and nemo judex in causa sua (No man a judge in his own cause). This is because disciplinary tribunals are acting in a quasi-judicial capacity. Such tribunals or panels are not full-fledged courts of record and they are not expected to act as such, but they are expected to strictly observe the rules of natural justice and where they fail to do so whatever decision they reach will be set aside upon review by a court of record. (Toriola, 1997).

So far, we have been able to establish that Nigerian tertiary institutions have the power to enact laws to regulate the conduct of both staff and students.

Conclusion

This paper does not aim at stigmatizing students as either potential or practicing criminals. It is certainly not the case that all perpetrators of crimes are students. Indeed, many of the victims of these crimes are also students themselves. This paper attempts to chart a course in streamlining the process of crime management to make it more effective in combating crime on our various campuses. A tertiary institution is after all a school, and it has a fiduciary relationship with its students. A fiduciary has been described as “One who must exercise a high standard of care in managing another person’s affairs” (The Black’s Law Dictionary 9th Edition, 2004). Admittedly, although the powers and responsibilities of tertiary institutions are meant to assist them perform their duties creditably, it is obvious from the foregoing that they do not have the authority to assume jurisdiction over crime. The university by its very nature has from time immemorial been considered to be an autonomous and self-governing community of scholars. (Pechar 2005). However, in spite of their autonomy, it cannot be said that tertiary institutions are sovereign entities. They cannot therefore usurp the state’s sovereignty by taking it upon themselves to adjudicate over crime. States all over the world have always guarded their sovereignty jealously and Nigeria is no exception. Sovereignty has been described as: “That power in a State to which none other is superior” (Jowitts Dictionary of English Law, 2nd Ed.). It must, however, be held in mind that although tertiary institutions lack the authority to arrogate unto themselves the power to try crimes, there is ample space within the wider constraints imposed by Constitutional law for the adoption of other proactive methods of crime management. (Maguet, 1971).

Recommendations

Proper Funding and Staffing of Legal Departments in Tertiary Institutions

Most tertiary institutions in Nigeria have legal departments however, many of these legal departments lack proper funding and qualified personnel (Ipaye, 1983). Some universities have the advantage of sometimes being able to consult members of their law faculties on a professional basis (as legal practitioners) if need be, but this option is clearly not available to tertiary institutions like polytechnics, colleges and specialty universities like universities of agriculture or technology. Such an arrangement is no substitution for having a
functional and efficient legal department. A competently staffed and adequately funded legal department will go a long way in providing the support structure and advisory input necessary for the effective management of crime within tertiary institutions.

**Provision of Adequate Security Personnel**

Although it is the case that security of any kind is ultimately the responsibility of the police (Section 4 of the Police Act), the law still makes provision for a measure of private participation in the enforcement of security. Under Sections 23 and 33 of the Criminal Procedure Act (Cap C41 Laws of the Federation 2004) private security groups have a right to carry out private arrest of criminal suspects. At this juncture, it will be pertinent to mention a recent incident which underscores the need for adequate security on our campuses. The incident involved the invasion of a university campus by some armed hoodlums who easily overpowered the few security men on duty before proceeding to a female hostel of the university to rob the occupants. Some of the occupants were molested. A situation whereby female hostels in tertiary institutions are provided with inadequate, or in some extreme cases, no security detail, is appalling and must be condemned.

**Enlightenment/Orientation Program for Newly Admitted Students**

Students who are newly enrolled in tertiary institutions should be made to enlist for a mandatory course on civic responsibility. Such a course need not be a formal course, which will count towards academic grading. It may even be organized at the level of the students’ association. Attendance must, however be made compulsory with dire consequences for any student who knowingly absents his or herself from the program for no valid reason (Amaele, 2013). Serious orientation must be given to all students and students’ affairs officers should look beyond the allocation of halls of residence and scholarship arrangement. Their roles should include personal students’ identification and counselling. Academic activity should begin as soon as school resumes so as to limit the free time in which crime occurs. Lecturers should also be monitored to ensure that they start lectures as scheduled. Class tests and assignments should sometimes be given without pre-notice to encourage punctuality and regular attendance. The current practice of many institutions is to simply insert certain general provisions relating to ethics into the students prospectus, in the hope that the student will read the prospectus.

However, in a recent survey, most students in a particular university who were questioned about the rules and ethics contained in their students’ prospectus indicated that they were ignorant about this fact (Circa, 2011). The civics programme should ensure that students are taught about how to report crimes and it should also ensure that students who report crimes are not victimized from any quarter. Tertiary institutions should also set up rehabilitation units for students who are victims of crimes that take place on campus and such students should be provided with adequate medical care. Parents themselves must not become involved with crime and related vices so that they are able to give their children/wards proper and adequate awareness and moral education at home. Admission into tertiary institutions should be based on both academic and moral merits and money or political influence should not be factors for admission. The Vice Chancellors, Provost and Rectors of institutions should be a seasoned educationists and Administrators. The curriculum of Teachers Education should include Management courses and relevant law
course so as to guide our practicing teachers and lecturers in our secondary and tertiary institutions respectively. Finally, the government should devise politics from Education in picking the Vice chancellors, Provosts and Rectors of universities, colleges and polytechnics.

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Competencies of Nigerian Graduate Teachers: The Insiders’ Perspectives; Wodi, Iniye Irene\(^2\), Oluwatayo, Gbenga Kayode\(^3\) & Onyima, Nonye Blessing\(^4\)

Abstract
The study was carried out to establish the competencies of graduate teachers who graduated from teacher education programs between the year 2005 and 2010. Multi-stage sampling was used in selecting 432 respondents comprising educational administrators and graduate teachers working in the three levels of education across two states of Southern Nigeria. A questionnaire titled Graduates Competency Questionnaire, which was constructed and validated by the researchers, was used in collecting data from the respondents. The result shows that the teachers possess low competence in ICT skills. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the perceptions of graduate teachers and educational administrators (direct supervisors) on the competences of graduate teachers in areas of pedagogic (DF = 590, \(t = 1.75, \alpha = .08\)), communication (DF = 590, \(t = .84, \alpha = 0.40\)), and ICT (DF = 590, \(t = 1.93, \alpha = .05\)) skills among other findings. It was therefore, recommended that the current curriculum of teacher education programs in Nigerian institutions of higher learning be improved upon in order to take care of areas of poor competence with regards to graduate teachers.

Key words: teacher education, educational administrators, graduate teachers, teacher competency

Education plays an unimaginable role in bringing about and raising the competency level of individuals concerned with it. Onocha (2013) opined that education has been universally acknowledged as capable of developing prerequisite knowledge, experience, skills and capacity needed for personal development as well as environmental growth and preservation. Therefore, this could have been the reason why educational experts subscribe to the fact that professional teachers should be produced from educational institutions in order for them to display competence in a formalized and standardized form. To achieve this, the teacher education curriculum is developed to bring about certain needed changes in the prospective teachers. Onocha further pointed out that the curriculum should be reviewed continuously with a view to ensuring that the teacher’s need and the societal needs are met. Despite this development, it seems that teacher education products have not displayed enough outcomes to make the society take them serious. Competency based teacher

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education programs have been preached by higher institutions of America. Nevertheless, there seems to be no such program in Nigeria.

Competence is the ability to combine and apply relevant attributes to particular tasks in particular contexts (Danner & Pessu, 2013). Teachers’ competency within the purview of this study is described as the observable and measurable capacities of a professionally trained educator in a school on a standard scale. This means that the teacher displays capacities in relation to different attributes that could be seen as capable of building the learners. Such abilities could include pedagogic, didactic, communication, relational, information and communication technology, personal management, professional development, assessment, management and administrative skills. These skills are essential in every teacher and could be measured on a standardized scale. It would however be very disappointing, if most professional trained teachers and the teacher educators did not have these skills. The functionality of the teacher education are always being questioned by the teacher in training, teachers in practice, the society, as well as stakeholders in the educational sector. It is important to note that the teachers must be equipped with sound knowledge and sundry skills that would equip the individual to be effective in his/her place of employment. Functional education makes a teacher an asset to the school. Every school is set up for specific purposes and wants to achieve results.

Improvement in the performance of learners can only be achieved with improvement in teacher preparation as “no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers” (FRN, 2004). The teachers, as the managers of the teaching/learning process in institutions, help learners to imbibe ideas and knowledge to develop appropriate skills. They play a professional role as facilitators of education to ensure that every pupil/student has the opportunity to succeed in life. It is as a result of this that teacher preparation programs are incorporated into the Nigerian educational system. Teacher education programs in Nigeria is geared toward producing graduate teachers of competence as reflected in the teacher education goals in the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004:39). Among the goals are: produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our educational system; encourage further spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers; help teachers to fit into social life in the community and the society at large and enhance their commitment to national goals; provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and make them adaptable to changing situations; and enhance teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession.

These goals assure competence to the Nigerian teacher education graduates through the teacher producing institutions. Such institutions include National Teachers Institute (NTI), Colleges of Education, Faculties of Education, Institutes of Education, Schools of Education in the Polytechnics, National Institute of Nigerian Language (NINLAN), and National Mathematical Centre (NMC). They are to ensure that prospective teachers are professionally trained and equipped for the effective performance of their duties in practice. Afe (1992) posited that teachers ultimately be responsible for translating policy into action and principles into practice in their interaction with their learners. In spite of the training and retraining programs for teachers at various educational levels, the society continues to question the competencies of the teachers in relation to their service delivery. Teachers competency is relevant in the face of high level unemployment in the society most especially the educational sector (industry) which is always being besieged by the graduates of other
courses which sees this as a stepping stone into the job of their dream. As a result, the unregulated educational profession receives different non-professionally trained teachers into their fold at different levels of education thus leaving out the education graduates unemployed or in most cases being underpaid by the private school owners. In most ministries the application form always read “educational related graduates should not apply” they mostly claimed that they are professionally trained teachers and not as civil servants.

The bottom line is that most of the graduates are seen as incompetent or might have proven so by the employers. Despite the sporadic creation of schools around Nigeria, most graduates of educational oriented courses remain unemployed or underemployed for many years after graduation (Onocha, 2013). Therefore, if the training of the teacher is competency based, there might be better support for full professionalization of the teaching profession.

There are so many researches on the assessment of various domains of teacher competencies. Okoro (2013) found out that business education teachers in the South South Nigeria are competent in communication skills. Okoro further reported that the teachers are not competent in ability to formulate points of view and ability to meet the functional needs of the media. Omoniyi and Quadri (2013) in another study found out that secondary school teachers possess inadequate ICT skills. They pointed out however that the teachers in the humanities have more competence in ICT skills than teachers in the sciences. This might not be unconnected with the unavailability of the ICT material needed for instructional purposes in most of the schools. Teachers competency is also related to subject matter knowledge and knowing how to transfer this to others (didactical knowledge); awareness of how individuals learn, feel and develop (pedagogical knowledge); and learned understanding of sociocultural/institutional context; and organizational competence (Fish, 1995; Day, 1999). Murray (2001) and Smith (2005) pointed out in their different studies that teacher education enhances pedagogic, didactic, assessment, professional development, management, and administrative competency skills in educators. Koster et al. (2005) explored what teacher educators themselves consider to be the main quality requirements, as well as vital tasks and competencies. They found out that the teachers affirmed that they need relational, pedagogic, didactic, communication, information and communication technology, personal management, professional development, assessment, management and administrative skills.

In the light of the expected competencies of professionally trained teachers who teach at various levels of education, this study was carried out with a view of assessing the teachers’ competency. To this end, the following research questions were posed:

What is the extent of teachers’ competency in the following domains?
- Pedagogy and didactic skills
- Communication and relational skill
- Information and communication technology
- Personal management and professional development skills
- Assessment skills
- Management and administrative skills

In addition, a hypothesis was tested on 0.05 level of significance: There is no significant difference in mean rating of employers and employees in relation to the teachers’ competency domains (pedagogic and didactic skills; communication and relational skills; information and communication technology (ICT) skills; personal management and professional development skills; assessment skills; management and administrative skills).
Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey research design. The population of the study comprised all graduate teachers teaching in public and private primary, secondary and tertiary institutions in two states of Southern Nigeria, who graduated between the years 2005 to 2010. It consisted all educational administrators (head teachers, principals, and heads of education departments in tertiary institutions) in the two states. The sample for the study consisted of 296 graduate teachers drawn from the three levels of education and 136 administrators (made up of 31 primary school head teachers, 72 secondary school principals, 16 heads of departments from colleges of education and 18 heads of departments from universities) also drawn from these institutions totalling 432 respondents. Multi stage sampling was used in selecting the respondents for the study. Using simple random sampling, two states were selected from Southern Nigeria. Purposive sampling was then used in selecting all the Colleges of Education and Universities with faculties of education from the two states. Accidental sampling was then used in selecting departments from these institutions. Furthermore, in the selection of secondary and primary schools, five LGAs were randomly selected from each state. Purposive sampling was then used in selecting the school from each LGA based on the number of graduate teachers. This selection was supported by information from the various ministries of Education in the states. Finally, accidental sampling was used in selecting graduate teachers from these schools who graduated between the periods of 2005-2010. A questionnaire named Graduates Competency Questionnaire (GCOQ) was used in collecting data from the respondents. GCOQ comprised two sections: Section A comprised the personal characteristics of the participants; Section B had six subsections which are: pedagogic and didactic skills domain, communication and relational skills domain, information and communication technology skills domain, personal management and professional development skills domain, assessment skills domain, and lastly management and administrative skills domain. The items in Section B were scored based on ten-point rating scale ranging from one point to ten points. The weighting of the options were one-point is indicated as lowest on the scale while the highest point is indicated as 10-point. The items were all positively worded. Therefore, no item was reversed in weighting for analysis purpose.

The questionnaire was constructed and validated by the researchers. To estimate the reliability of the instrument, it was administered on 30 lecturers in a university. The responses of these teachers were subjected to analysis using the Cornbrash alpha formula to obtain its internal consistency. The analysis yielded reliability coefficients for each subscale as follows: pedagogic and didactic skills, \( \alpha = 0.83 \); communication and relational skills, \( \alpha = 0.76 \); information and communication technology (ICT) skills, \( \alpha = 0.70 \); personal management and professional development skills, \( \alpha = 0.80 \); assessment skills, \( \alpha = 0.86 \); management and administrative skills, \( \alpha = 0.91 \). Data was collected by the researchers and the assistants who got information from the proprietors/principals/head teachers/heads of departments on the availability of the target teachers in their respective schools. Based on availability, questionnaires were then given to both administrators and the teachers. Filled out questionnaires were retrieved on the spot. The data collected was analysed using mean and the hypotheses were tested with t-test and analysis of variance at 0.05 level of significance using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The decision rule is that any item that has a mean above 5.50 will be described as “High Competence” while the mean below 5.50

will be referred to as “Low Competence.” In addition, in testing the stated null hypotheses, any value of t-calculated higher than 1.96 since the considered level of significance is 0.05 will be rejected while t-calculated less than or equal to 1.96 will not be rejected.

Results

Research Question One
What is the extent of teachers’ competency in pedagogy and didactic skills?

Table 1: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in pedagogy and didactic skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers Competencies</th>
<th>Mean Administrators (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Teachers (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Total Respondents (N=592)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In-depth knowledge of subject/course</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to use appropriate teaching methods</td>
<td>8.34</td>
<td>8.74</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability to develop meaningful learning progressions for different learners</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td>8.01</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to understand tools of inquiry of the content areas that are taught</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to properly organize instructional content (lesson plan)</td>
<td>8.31</td>
<td>8.81</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to monitor learners all round growth and development</td>
<td>7.92</td>
<td>8.44</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to display good classroom management and students coordination</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ability to cope with small and large classes</td>
<td>8.39</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grand Score</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the study as shown in Table 1 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as high in all the outlined competencies in the domains of didactic and pedagogy skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8) as they all have mean scores above 5.50.

Research Question 2
What is the extent of teachers’ competency in communication and relational skills?

Table 2: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in communication and relational skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers Competencies</th>
<th>Mean Administrators (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Teachers (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Total Respondents (N=592)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ability to speak clearly with empathy</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to display good listening skills</td>
<td>8.13</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability to interpret message correctly</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>8.16</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to relate information appropriately to concerned parties</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>8.04</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to take criticism and listen to conflicting views/ideas</td>
<td>8.49</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to display friendly and cooperative spirit</td>
<td>8.36</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to respect the rights and properties of others</td>
<td>8.50</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ability to understand self and accept value system of others</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grand Score</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result of the study as shown in Table 2 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as high in all the outlined competencies in the domains of communication and relational skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8) as they all have mean scores above 5.50.

**Research Question 3**

What is the extent of teachers’ competency in information and communication technology skills?

**Table 3: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in information and communication technology skills (N = 592)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers’ Competencies</th>
<th>Administrators (N=296)</th>
<th>Teachers (N=296)</th>
<th>Total Respondents (N=592)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ability to operate a computer and apply it in teaching and learning</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>Low Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to use the internet (browsing skill)</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.21</td>
<td>Low Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability to use spreadsheets</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>Low Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to make use of multi-media</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>Low Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to use ICT in students assessment</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>Low Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to use library effectively</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grand Score** 4.51 4.83 4.67 Low Competence

The result of the study as shown in Table 3 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as low in all the outlined competencies in the domains of information and communication technology skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6) as they all have mean scores below 5.50. However, the teachers were rated high in their usage of library that is an essential ICT skill in the domain of ICT competencies of the teachers with a mean score of 7.29 that is above the decision mean of 5.50.

**Research Question 4**

What is the extent of teachers’ competency in personal management and professional development skills?

**Table 4: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in personal management and professional development skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers Competencies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Administrators (N=296)</td>
<td>Teachers (N=296)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ability to organize work and manage time efficiently</td>
<td>8.01</td>
<td>8.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to display flexibility, integrate creative and innovative ideas</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>7.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability and interest to attend trainings or learn from fellow teachers</td>
<td>7.49</td>
<td>8.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to demonstrate ability to complete assignments</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>8.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to strive to improve job performance</td>
<td>8.26</td>
<td>8.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to maintain personal comportment and neatness</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>8.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to further education in teaching</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>8.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Grand Score** 7.87 8.37 8.12 High Competence
The result of the study as shown in Table 4 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as high in all the outlined competencies in the domains of personal management and professional development skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7) as they all have mean scores above 5.50.

### Research Question 5

What is the extent of teachers’ competency in assessment skills?

**Table 5: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in personal assessment skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers Competencies</th>
<th>Mean Administers (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Teachers (N=296)</th>
<th>Total Respondents (N=592)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ability to handle continuous assessment data efficiently</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to ask questions and encourage students to ask questions</td>
<td>8.32</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability to give students feedback promptly and adequately</td>
<td>8.13</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>8.24</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to understand the usage of assessment tools appropriately</td>
<td>7.61</td>
<td>8.57</td>
<td>8.09</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to understand the purpose of assessment</td>
<td>8.02</td>
<td>8.56</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to use assessment responsibly to positively develop the students</td>
<td>8.26</td>
<td>7.94</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to understand the best practices in learners assessment</td>
<td>7.57</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>8.02</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ability to administer non-biased formal and informal assessment</td>
<td>8.10</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>8.20</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ability to follow ethical principles and legal provisions regarding assessment of learners</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>8.68</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ability to report assessment results to all stakeholders (students, parents, etc)</td>
<td>7.99</td>
<td>8.59</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Grand Score</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.45</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.20</strong></td>
<td><strong>High Competence</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the study as shown in Table 5 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as high in all the outlined competencies in the domains of assessment skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10) as they all have mean scores above 5.50.

### Research Question 6

What is the extent of teachers’ competency in management and administrative skills?

**Table 6: The mean rating of the competencies of teachers in management and administrative skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Outlined Teachers Competencies</th>
<th>Mean Administers (N=296)</th>
<th>Mean Teachers (N=296)</th>
<th>Total Respondents (N=592)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ability to evaluate own work</td>
<td>7.51</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ability to work well without supervision</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>9.29</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ability to exhibit reliability and dependability</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>8.83</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ability to accept responsibility for own work</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>8.17</td>
<td>8.05</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ability to work beyond normal hours when needed</td>
<td>7.83</td>
<td>8.59</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ability to obey rules and regulations</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ability to demonstrate maturity in thought, actions and deeds</td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ability to exhibit patience</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ability to manage time effectively</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>9.25</td>
<td>8.23</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ability to display appropriate assertiveness</td>
<td>7.60</td>
<td>8.54</td>
<td>8.07</td>
<td>High Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Grand Score</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.66</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.70</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.18</strong></td>
<td><strong>High Competence</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result of the study as shown in Table 6 indicates that the teachers and employers rated the teachers’ competence as high in all the outlined competencies in the domains of management and administrative skills (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10) as they all have mean scores above 5.50.

**Research Hypothesis One**

There is no significant difference in mean rating of employers and employees in relation to the teachers’ competency domains (pedagogic and didactic skills; communication and relational skills; information and communication technology skills; personal management and professional development skills; assessment skills; management and administrative skills).

**Table 7: Comparison of teachers’ competencies domain rating by teachers and employers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Respondent Job Status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic &amp; didactic skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>67.88</td>
<td>7.43</td>
<td>1.752</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>66.85</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication &amp; relational skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>67.47</td>
<td>8.35</td>
<td>.843</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>66.95</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>28.99</td>
<td>11.53</td>
<td>1.929</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>27.05</td>
<td>12.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal mgt. &amp; professional dev. Skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>58.61</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>6.487</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>55.01</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>84.52</td>
<td>11.50</td>
<td>5.525</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>79.44</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management &amp; administrative skills</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>87.00</td>
<td>8.88</td>
<td>13.341</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>76.62</td>
<td>10.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows that there is no significance difference between the teachers and employees rating of teachers competencies in the domains of pedagogic & didactic skills; communication & relational skills; and ICT skills (i.e. t-calculated < 1.96 which is the t critical). The table further illustrates that there is significant difference between the teachers and employees rating of teachers’ competencies in the domains of personal management & professional development skills; assessment skills; and management & administrative skills (i.e. t-calculated > 1.96 that is the t-critical).

**Discussion**

The study shows that the teachers are competent in didactic and pedagogic domain of teachers’ competency skills. The teachers and the administrators affirmed that the teachers are competent in their teaching of students. The study affirmed that most professionally trained teachers that graduated between 2005 and 2010 are competently trained in the pedagogic and didactic skills as far as the employers and the teachers are concerned. Although this negates the societal view of teachers as incompetent based on the poor quality of their products, for instance poor performance of students in public examinations or unemployed/unemployable graduates. This point to the fact that the poor products churned out of the schools among other reasons could be due to the infiltration of the teaching profession by non-professionals who shows no futuristic plans towards the teaching sector development, thus are just willing to keep themselves in the sector out of their inability to be employed in their chosen field.
Furthermore, the study revealed that the teachers have competencies in relational and communicational skills. This might be due to the interpersonal relationship between the school human factors and the people in the school environment. The teachers being new and young would be assigned to different roles under the supervision of the more experience colleagues for instance; they are always very active in the extracurricular activities. Thus, in the course of this they relate with many individuals both outside and inside the school in order to get their assigned tasks done. They interact freely with students being younger and the parents as well. Therefore, their communication and relational skills seems to develop on the basis of their daily interaction with different kinds of people in the school. This act ensures that there is less conflict between them and the employers. This finding corroborates that of Okoro (2013) who affirmed that teachers possesses good competencies in communication skills. The study also shows that the teachers are incompetent in ICT skills. This finding supports that of Omoniyi and Quadri (2013) who found out that teachers lack competencies in ICT skills. This might be due to poor training in the university as well as impractical or non-existent in-service training for the teachers. In addition, ICT require material or facilities to be in place for such skills to be applied to productive teaching but there seems to be non-existent or inadequacy of such instructional aids. The teachers cannot teach successfully without the ICT facilities even if they possess the competency in ICT skills. The study found out however that the lecturers are competent in library usage which is an essential ICT skill.

Moreover, the study revealed that the teachers are competent in personal management and professional development skills. This indicates that the teachers are properly managing themselves in responsible and accountable manner as professional as they could. In addition, most of the teachers are doing or have completed their postgraduate studies. In addition, the teachers do most of the times seem to become excited whenever teaching related in-service training is announced by their employers. This show the teachers are eager to develop their competencies in different areas of their professional calling.

It is further revealed through this study, that most teachers are competent in their assessment skills. The study shows that the teachers are giving the students results to the educational stakeholders as at when due and needed. The study further shows that the teachers are assessing the students properly as well giving assessment reports to the students at the right time in order for the students to learn.

The study also indicated that the teachers are possessing competencies management and administrative skills. They are ready to support the administrative staff for the achievement of the school programmes. The teachers are new and young such qualities makes them less of opposing the views of the school authority owing as far as obeying the schools’ rules and regulations are concerned. In addition, most new teachers are made to function in different administrative capacities though under the supervision of a senior staff.

Furthermore, the study shows that the teachers and employers did not differ significantly in the rating of the teachers’ competencies in the domains of pedagogic & didactic skills, communication & relational skills, and ICT skills. This could be as a result of the fact that the pedagogic and didactic skills as well as ICT skill of the teachers being rated by the employers are such visible skill in the teachers such that the teachers are not different in their own ratings from that of the administrators. The teachers could not hide most of their competencies and as such there is no significant difference in the ratings of the teachers and
employers. The communication and relational skills of the teachers being so high ensures constant touch and interaction with the employers/employer representatives and as such no significant difference in the teachers’ competencies. In the other way round, the study found out that there is significant difference in the teachers and employers rating of the teachers’ competencies in the domains of personal management & professional development, assessment and management & administrative skills. The difference in their mean ratings could be due to no direct observation or knowledge of the teachers’ capabilities in the domains of personal management & professional development, assessment and management & administrative skills of the teachers by their employers. For instance, it is difficult to know fully whether a teacher offering postgraduate program in higher institutions because it is illegal for such staff to combine such study with the schools work except if it is a part time program.

**Educational Implications**

The findings of this study have meaningful implications for the universities offering teacher education courses, curriculum planners, employers, teachers in training, teachers in practice and the society. Based on the results of the study, it has become so clear that the societal opinion of incompetency of teachers is far from being true from the perspectives of the teachers and the employers as well. This study seems to confirm the fact that the university professionally trained teachers seemed to feel that they have developed most teaching competencies as outlined by Murray (2001) and Smith (2005). Although the study did not delve into how the teachers are trained but it is affirmed in this study that the teachers are as professionals as taught in the universities. This study has further pointed to the fact that there is inadequate ICT facilities in the schools as such the teachers find it difficult to use ICT skills in teaching their learners. This is a pointer to the fact that ICT training in teaching methodologies are non-existent or if in existent is not practiced by the teacher training schools.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are made:

The university teacher education curriculum should be redesigned by renowned teaching experts with a view to incorporating the ICT instructional techniques in the teachers such that they could apply it in their teaching. The employers should be enforced to provide the ICT facilities in their school as well as provide constant training on the ICT skill for the teachers. Seminars and conferences should be organized for the teaching staff on how to effectively improve in their competencies. Soft skills should be incorporated into the teacher preparation curriculum as well as entrepreneurial and life skills for the teacher-to-be to be of high competence. Researches should be conducted on developing a scale for measuring teachers’ competencies.

**Conclusion**

The results and findings of this study should go beyond being additional data for understanding educational theories in the teacher education and employers view of the teacher education graduates but a new chapter in research endeavor. This result is based on insiders’ perspective of the teachers who perceived themselves as competent contrary to the outsiders’ views. There is need for further research on the perspectives of the outsiders in the
assessment of the teachers’ competence for a holistic and balanced conclusion on teachers’ competencies in educational institutions in Nigeria. Structurally there is need for upgrade in the ICT facilities in the educational institutions as well as training and retraining of the teachers in the areas of ICT utilization. Teachers’ competency is an important factor in the education industry that is developing rapidly in Nigeria, most especially the private institutions who will like professional but competent hands to teach in their schools. Thus, the challenge lies on the curriculum planners and the university teachers in making the teachers become better trained with competencies that could make them employable anywhere in the world. Professionalism of teaching education starts from what professionally trained teachers can offer different from the untrained ones; this must be taught the teacher for the needed education industry revolution to take place in Nigeria.

References


The Roles of Higher Education in Economic Development: Challenges and Prospects of Nigerian Higher Education Institutions. Njoku, Chimezie5; Anyanwu, Jerome6 & Kaegon, Lies Elizabeth7

Abstract
The focus of this paper was on the roles of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) especially universities in economic development, paying particular attention to the challenges and prospects of the Nigerian Universities. The role of higher education as a major driver of economic development is well established, and this role will increase as further changes in technology, globalization and demographics impact Nigeria. To remain competitive in the light of these changes, Nigeria as a nation will need to improve her productivity and adopt an innovative spirit. Higher education has the capacity, knowledge and research necessary to help achieve these goals but because of the numerous challenges ranging from, underfunding, eroded ethical values and academic standards, poor planning and implementation, among others they have been prevented from performing one of their major and most important roles which is, being the major driver of Nigerian’s economic development. But still even in the midst of these challenges, there are a lot of prospects that when sincerely and properly pursued will reduce some of these challenges.

Keywords: Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), Economic Development, Challenges, Prospects.

The goals of tertiary education as stipulated in the Nigerian National Policy on Education among other things is to; contribute to national development through high level relevant manpower training, and to acquire both physical and intellectual skills, which will enable individuals to be self reliant and useful members of the society. The National Policy on Education again stated that higher educational institutions should pursue these goals through: teaching, research, the dissemination of existing and new information, the pursuit of service to the community; and by being a store- house knowledge (FGN, 2004). From a global perspective, economic and social developments are increasingly driving the advancement and application of knowledge. Education in general and higher education in particular, are fundamental to the construction of a knowledge economy and society in all nations. The nation looks up to higher education to through its traditional functions of teaching, research and community service develop manpower and disseminate necessary knowledge that are needed in industry and other sectors. The Nigeria higher education system comprised universities, polytechnics, and colleges offering programs in teacher

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education and agriculture. The universal idea of the higher education is a community of scholars, free to pursue knowledge without undue interference from anywhere. Therefore, the role they play in the society cannot be ignored.

Specifically, the goals of higher education in Nigeria are to; contribute to national development through high level relevant manpower training; develop and calculate proper values for the survival of the individual and society; develop the intellectual capability of individuals to understand and appreciate their local and external environments; acquire both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individual to be self reliant and useful members of the society; promote and encourage scholarship and community service; forge and cement national unity understanding and integration. (FRN, 2004, section 45). The enumerated functions above show that Nigerian Higher Education Institutions are supposed to be the major drivers of Nigerian economic development. This major function of theirs will continue to increase and expand because of these three major reasons; changes in technology, changes are happening every day in the society. We are in a knowledge society where everything we do is being driven by ICT. Internet facilities, for example, have made information readily available and accessible. The mode and method of teaching and learning is fast changing. In fact every aspect of the economy is affected, the banking sector, oil and gas sector, aviation sector etc. Any individual, society or economy that is not able to key in will be abandoned and discarded because he will not be of any use anymore.

Changes in demographic is yet another factor while HEIs roles will continue to expand. Younger generations are joining the population every day. The present generation of ‘ICT natives’ are different from the older generation known as the ‘ICT immigrants’. They do not want to continue doing things the way others have been doing it; they want them done differently so they continue to look out for faster and more innovative ways of doing things. Another factor is globalization impact. The world is now a global village has become a common word in the mouth of many. Any society that exempts itself from this village will be like a nonexistent society. So Nigerian HEIs should be the bedrock of Nigeria’s economic development because they have the research capability, the knowledge and the capacity. In Yoe (2007) presentation at the University of Illinois he demonstrated how Singapore through their HEIs has moved from unskilled labour to skills-intensive to capital intensive to technology intensive, then to knowledge intensive where they are innovator of products and services. He went further to demonstrate that they are still moving ahead. This is the same with most developed and even some developing economies of the world. That is why they invest heavily in their education, especially their HEIs. Nigeria is moving but at a very slow pace because it’s HEIs is not positioned well to perform its roles of developing the economy. It is an established fact that active participation in knowledge is essential to economic growth and higher educational institutions are the potential engines for such growth. There is also a growing recognition that entrepreneurship is a driving force in economic growth and development in both established and emerging economies. There is an increasing body of evidence suggesting entrepreneurship that stems from a high level of human capital and creativity is the most likely to produce the goods, services and ultimately the jobs that fuel economic growth, development and competitiveness. (Saint, Hartnett & Strassner 2003) If human capital and innovation are important for growth in entrepreneurship, then higher education should have a significant role to play in fostering entrepreneurship.
These have informed the renewed interest Nigerian government placed on the quality of higher education. Higher education policy is becoming increasingly important on national agendas. The widespread recognition that tertiary education is a major driver of economic competitiveness in an increasingly knowledge-driven global economy has made high-quality tertiary education more important than ever in both industrialised and developing countries. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2008), pointed out that tertiary education contributes to social and economic development through four major missions: the formation of human capital (primarily through teaching); the building of knowledge bases (primarily through research and knowledge development); the dissemination and use of knowledge (primarily through interactions with knowledge users). The maintenance of knowledge (primarily through inter-generational storage and transmission of knowledge). The main purpose and relevance of higher education in Nigeria according to Okojie (2013) is the provision of much needed manpower to accelerate the socio economic development of the nation. Such specialized education at the higher level is regarded as an instrument of social change and economic development.

Roles of Higher Education in Economic Development

Higher education is an important form of investment in human capital development. It can be regarded as a high level or a specialised form of human capital, the contribution of which to economic growth is very significant. It is rightly regarded as the ‘engine of development in the new world economy’ (Castells 1994). In the present context of transformation of nations into knowledge economies and knowledge societies, higher education provides not just educated workers, but knowledge workers to the growth of the economy. It creates attitudes, and makes possible attitudinal changes necessary for the socialisation of individuals and the modernisation and overall transformation of societies. Probably most importantly, higher education assists, through teaching and research, in the creation, absorption and dissemination of knowledge. (Okojie 2013). Higher education is both a result and a determinant of income, and can produce public and private benefits. Higher education in Nigeria creates tax revenue, increase savings and investment, and lead to a more entrepreneurial and civic society. It also improves the nation’s health; contribute to reduced population growth, improve technology, and strengthen governance. The private benefits of higher education for individuals include better employment prospects, higher salaries and a greater ability to save and invest. These benefits result in better health and improved quality of life, thus setting off a virtuous spiral in which life expectancy improvements enable individuals to work more productively over a longer time, further boosting lifetime earnings. The public benefits are less well recognised according to Bloom, Canning & Chan (2005) and this explains why Nigerian government neglects tertiary education as a vehicle for public investment. The truth of the matter is individual gains also benefit society as a whole. Higher earnings for well educated individuals raise tax revenues for governments which is supposed to ease demands on state finances. They also translate into greater consumption, which benefits producers from all educational backgrounds. Well trained teachers produced by higher education institutions enhance the quality of primary and secondary education and give graduates greater opportunities for economic advancement. Trained doctors and other health workers improve the entire society’s general health which in turn raises productivity at work.
Data from 49 countries of the Asia Pacific region has been used to demonstrate the significant effect of higher education on the economic growth of nations. (Tilak, 2003). This research has also shown that the larger the stock of the population with higher education, the higher the prospects for economic growth. In a rapidly technologically-changing world, technology makes a significant difference to the economic growth of nations. The United Nations Development Programme’s (UNDP) work has shown that the level of achievement in technology critically depends upon the level of higher education in a given economy. Most countries with high enrolment ratios in higher education became ‘leaders’ in technology, with high levels of achievement in technology. The converse is also true: a large number of countries with low enrolment ratios (say less than 10%) are ‘marginalised’ in the area of technology. Those with a medium level of enrolment ratios – around 20%, like Singapore and Hong Kong are ‘potential leaders’ in technology.

A few countries, like the Philippines and Thailand, with medium and high levels of enrolment ratios are classified as ‘dynamic leaders’. The rest who did not sufficiently expand their higher education systems are ‘marginalised’. There is not a single country with a low enrolment ratio (less than 10%) in higher education which has achieved a high or medium level of achievement in the technology index (Tilak, 2003). Bloom, Hartley And Rosovsky (2005) paper reviews evidence about the impact that tertiary education can have on economic growth and poverty reduction in Sub-Saharan Africa where enrolment rates for higher education are by far the lowest in the world, at an average of around 5%. Bloom and others confirm the findings of Tilak (2003) that one possible channel through which higher education can enhance economic development in poor/developing countries is through technological catch-up. In knowledge economy, tertiary education can help economies gain ground on more technologically advanced societies as graduates are likely to be more aware of and better able to use new technologies. Bloom et al (2005) cited a number of studies, which reflect increasingly the importance of higher education for growth. A study in Taiwan showed that higher education played a strong role in the country’s economic growth. It found that a 1% rise in higher education stock led to a 0.35% rise in industrial output; and that a 1% increase in the number of graduates from engineering or natural sciences led to a 0.15% increase in agricultural output. This work examined the effects of concentration in different disciplines and concluded that the study of the natural sciences and engineering had the largest effect on output.

Wolff and Gittleman (1993) showed that university enrolment rates are correlated with labour productivity growth. The number of scientists and engineers per capita is also associated with economic growth. By nurturing governance and leadership skills in tertiary institutions countries are provided with the talented individuals needed to establish a policy environment favourable to growth. Addressing environmental problems and improving security against internal and external threats also place importance on the skills that tertiary education is best placed to deliver. Nigerian Higher Education Institutions being faced with numerous challenges still struggles to perform one of its major and most important roles of contributing to national development through high level relevant manpower training.
Challenges faced by Nigerian Higher Education Institutions in their Economic Development Roles

Many developing countries according to Saint, Hartnett & Strassner (2003) have neither articulated a development strategy linking knowledge to economic growth nor built up their capacity to do so. Nigeria is one of these. With a population of 120 million and ample natural resources, Nigeria is Africa's sleeping economic giant. It is also a somewhat deformed giant. While one-third of its population pursues a life style oriented in various degrees towards Europe and North America, the other two-thirds struggles to survive on less than one dollar per day. (World Bank, 1996). African nations according to World Bank (2008) will need to produce a larger pool of good quality tertiary graduates and postgraduates; and to produce them particularly in the disciplinary fields relevant to a country’s chosen strategy for economic development. Despite strong enrolment growth according to the report, most African tertiary institutions are not generating enough graduates – and many of them lack the skills needed to support national economic development in the 21st century. Important factors identified in the World Bank publication (2008) include: the slow growth of public higher education financing; the low proportion of science and engineering students; the lack of institutional autonomy to make decisions and adapt to changing labor market conditions; inappropriate curricula vis-à-vis the needs of the labor market leading to high levels of graduate unemployment; poor working conditions and salaries leading to high levels of attrition among academic staff; inadequate and inappropriate technology and a reluctance to adopt the ‘third mission’ – support for the economy.

Akinnaso (2012) stated that there are three primary problems affecting Nigerian universities to be solved in order to achieve quality education in our universities which will result to economic development. The primary problems are: funding shortages; the negative influence of a corruptive and valueless political system; and planning and implementation problems. These according to him have led to the weakening of university administration; poor teaching and learning outcomes; diminishing research and consultancy traditions; and questionable service to the community. The budget allocation to funding of universities, especially in the last three decades, explains the poverty of Nigerian universities and the decline in standards. There are no or inadequate infrastructure (buildings, roads, power, and water resources); knowledge facilities (library accessions, computing facilities, and teaching aids); research funding; recreational facilities; and welfare packages for lecturers, administrative staff, and students. The extent of depreciation of necessary physical structures and facilities could easily be appreciated by those who attended or taught at any premier university between 1965 and 1985. In spite of poor funding and its negative consequences, noted Akinnaso (2012) university populations grew exponentially, leading to further strain on dilapidated structures. As student populations outstripped available lecture spaces and teaching resources, lecturers became overburdened with crowded classrooms and excessive grading responsibilities. Poor remuneration further dampened the morale of the lecturers. The issue of proliferation of universities is also a problem. Government’s response to the quality issues resulting from overpopulation in the universities is to increase the number of universities. No provisions were made for capacity building opportunities for existing lecturers and the training of new ones. Some lecturers shuttle between universities while retired professors became the bedrock of some new universities. These developments have resulted in poor teaching and learning outcomes in our universities.
But it is not poor funding alone that has contributed to the present state of underachievement. The eroded ethical values and academic standards in the universities, the truncation of university autonomy which was accompanied by government interference in university affairs is also a major challenge. The government’s erstwhile proprietary role changed to an executive role, where government officials dictate to university governing councils and senates. As Akinnasa (2012) noted, the vice-chancellors of our universities learnt the political act of defending their budgets and lobbying for subventions the same way governors lobby for federal allocations and excess crude funds. The diseases of the political system diffused into the universities as professors began to migrate between government and university positions. The culture of scholarship gave way to the corruptive and materialist culture of the political system. The government’s poor planning and implementation of policies and projects has also adversely affected the universities. Most times it is unclear which education policy that is operative. Within the past year alone, the overall education structure changed from 6-3-3-4 to 9-3-4. Within the same period, the Nigerian government established nine new universities without considering the problems facing existing universities and mass unemployment of existing graduates. In the absence of adequate funding and clear direction, universities are left to engage mainly in routine activities. The government’s failure to respect its agreements with the academic staff union of universities has frequently led to strikes and university closures. The major issue responsible for these incessant strikes is the funding of Universities. However, in the midst of these challenges, there are some prospects of which, if sincerely pursued and sustained Nigeria Higher Education Institutions will be able to contribute better to national development.

Prospects of Nigerian Higher Education Institutions in their Economic Development Roles

The World Bank (2008) believes that making tertiary education a driver of growth requires adoption of a number of good practices, especially the following: developing a strategy for national human resource development. Granting institutional autonomy coupled with appropriate accountability mechanisms in order to increase opportunities for system differentiation and institutional innovation. Reforming financing arrangements to offer incentives for attaining policy goals while providing the stability necessary for institutions to plan strategically. Encouraging diversity in teaching and learning approaches that facilitate institutional specialisation. Fostering the development of national and regional postgraduate programmes – the best way to increase academic staff numbers and build research capacity and searching for lower-cost delivery alternatives for tertiary education. The contribution of the Nigerian Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFUND) to funding of higher education and the role of the National University Commission (NUC) in ensuring that quality is assured and in the promotion of research and innovation should be acknowledged. The TETFUND intervention in tertiary institutions includes though not limited to the following: construction and rehabilitation of buildings and laboratories, procurement of teaching and research equipment, academic staff training, research and book development, capacity building and teacher training programmes, provision of ICT infrastructure, provision of water, electricity and road network on campuses.

The role of the National Universities Commission (NUC) in achieving the mandate of Nigerian Universities to ensure that quality is assured, according to Okojie (2013) is
encapsulated in the functions of the Commission and outlined as follows: Granting approval for all academic programmes run in Nigerian Universities. Granting approval for the establishment of all higher educational institutions offering degree programmes in Nigerian Universities; ensuring quality assurance of all academic programmes offered in Nigerian Universities; and Channel for all external support to the Nigerian Universities. Akinkugbe (2010) captured the success of the commission and summarized it as follows: The National Universities Commission has endeavoured very bravely to ride the buffeting storms of Higher education constraints. This, it has achieved through sustained, dedicated leadership, and extraordinary capacity for innovation and uncanny blend of think-through and carry-through. Indeed, it has made some effort to: sanitise the quality of scholarship, develop a new approach to pedagogy through the establishment of virtual institutes, promote the art of teaching and learning, and cover the vast expanse of Nigeria’s terrain through the National Open University (NOUN).

In the area of quality assurance, the Commission has re-established the Directorate of Quality Assurance saddled with the responsibility of ensuring high quality graduates from Nigeria Universities. The department conducts programmes accreditation in the university system and institutional accreditation in some selected universities in the country. Monitoring visits are conducted to the universities to ensure compliance with laid down regulations and standards. The commission has also taken proactive steps in the promotion of research and innovation for development through the following; organizing the Nigerian Universities Research and Development Fair (NURESDEF) which is an annual event. Organizing the postgraduate development project, the Nigeria Universities Doctoral Theses Award Scheme (NUTDAS) in order to promote and improve the quality of doctoral theses supervision in the system. encouraging quality publications (in reputable foreign and local journals) as an evidence of good research and progression of academic staff in the system, establishing the LEADS programme as a way of encouraging Nigerian academics in Diaspora to contribute to quality teaching and research; establishing the voyage of discovery (This is an NUC-sponsored television documentary to celebrate outstanding researchers, showcase their findings and promote their linkage with the industry); facilitating the FG-Sponsored scholarship programme for the training of first class graduates for PhD and facilitating collaboration with local and international development partners to promote the conduct of cutting-edge research.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Higher education is an inevitable tool for Nigeria to prosper in a world economy, where knowledge has become a vital area of advantage. It is through HEIs that both technical and professional capacity needed for economic development is acquired and as knowledge accumulation and application are now the major factors in economic development, HEIs are at the core of national competitiveness in the knowledge economy. In this paper, we have x-rayed the roles higher education institutions play in economic development and the challenges Nigerian higher education institutions face that are hindering them from fulfilling these roles. We also saw some of the efforts of Nigerian government through TETFUND and NUC. I believe that the efforts should be intensified and sustained for it to yield good results. With the huge damage done to all sectors of the economy by the military and the need to revive each and every sector, it is not possible for government to focus on higher education
institutions alone. I agree with Babalola (2006) when he said that, time has come when Nigeria must face the reality of its economic and financial circumstances and do what others elsewhere do to propel their universities to institutions of national relevance, capable of fulfilling their national aspirations. All over the world, students pay tuition, which helps to run the institutions. I do not see any reason why it should be different in Nigeria. Unless the funding of higher Institutions in Nigeria is properly and frontally addressed, the education sector will continue to face challenges. The government should have a short term (5 - 10years), medium term (3-10years) and long term (11-20years) plans for proper reformation and restructuring of our education system. This is necessary because the rot in the higher institutions has its root in the foundation, which is the elementary school.

References
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Access to and Utilization of ICT as Predictors of Students’ Performance and Sustainable Development in Nigerian Tertiary Institutions:
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Abstract

Information Communication Technology (ICT) covers a wide range in our world today. This paper examined how students access and utilize information communication technology (ICT) for the betterment of their learning outcomes in Mathematics. This is because Mathematics is considered to be indispensable to humankind. The study adopted a survey research design. Four research questions were answered, using two instruments - Students’ Access to and Utilization of ICT Questionnaire (SAUICTQ) and Students’ Mathematics Achievement Test. A total of 300 students were randomly selected from two tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regressions. The results revealed that students’ access to and utilization of ICT is significantly low. This implies that students in their area of study have low access to ICT to enhance achievement in Mathematics. Considering the results of this study, it was recommended that government should make available adequate funds for the provision of ICT facilities needed in educational sector and that lecturers should be encouraged to use ICT facilities in their teaching.

Keywords: Information Communication Technology; Access; Utilization; Achievement; Attitude

Information Communication Technology (ICT) covers a wide range in our world today. This is because there are few aspects of life that is not affected by ICT. ICT is needed in the office, factory, at home, in the bank or even at school. But the major concern of this paper is education, i.e. how students access and utilize information communication technology ICT for the betterment of their learning outcome in mathematics. This is because mathematics is considered a knowledge that is indispensable to humankind. The impact of mathematics proficiency can be viewed from varying perspectives, ranging from likelihood of a student pursuing post secondary education to an individual’s earning capacity, to a nation’s ability to be competitive in the global economy (Donald, 2006). According to Moses (2001), Mathematical knowledge will in the new century, figure as a path to political and cultural power, much as the capacity to read and write served in the 19th and 20th centuries. Aluko (1990), said every individual needs some knowledge of Mathematics in order to live a useful life and be an effective member of the society. These needs include: commercial

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activities, business transactions, domestic activities, politics and decision making. He concludes that every individual requires a certain level of competence in basic mathematics. Obe (1996) conceptualizes the subject as the master and servant of most disciplines and thus, a source of enlightenment and understanding of the universe. According to him, the prosperity of any country depends on the volume and quality of Mathematics offered in its school system. He further opines that without mathematics, the understanding of national problems would be superficial.

The use of ICT in the Mathematics classes has long been a topic for consideration by Mathematics educators. Some examples of ICT used in Mathematics include: portable graphic calculators and computerized graphing, specialized software, programmable toys or floor robots, spreadsheets and databases. Studies have shown that a range of portable devices exist which allow students to collect data, and manipulate it using spreadsheets and databases for work in numeric. Some portable equipment also enables the study of moths to move out of the classroom and to incorporate fieldwork investigations (Moseley and Higgins 1999). According to Hennessy (2010), the use of graphic calculators and computerized graphing in Mathematics speeds up the graphing process, freeing people to analyze and reflect on the relationships between data while Clements (2007) believed that specialists software such as Computer Algebra Systems (CAS), Dynamic Geometry Systems (DGS) to improve students’ skills and understanding in algebra, allows them to manipulate and measure shapes; leading to higher level of learning among them. Hall and Higgin (2002) suggested that ICT can help students to learn and teachers to teach effectively in Mathematics class. This implies that ICT is synonymous with computer communication technologies in everybody’s language in order to facilitate information. As such, ICT encompasses wide range of technology like telephone, computer, word processing, application, web browsers and services as well as full text document database and mainframe computers.

As could be seen, ICT is changing every aspect of human life-trade, manufacturing, communication, services, culture, entertainment, education, research, and global security (Babalola, 1998; Akudolu 2002, et al). Isoun (2003), in the vein, observed that ICT has become main determinant of the progress of nations, communities and individuals. Adewale, Iroegbu and Adesoji (2004), noted that despite the importance attached to ICT in advancing knowledge of students in our schools, its development in Nigeria is still low. According to Olorundare (2006), teachers’ low level of computer literacy, trainers’ level of computer literacy, inadequate funding of the tertiary education, inadequate supply of computer and internet facilities to tertiary institutions are among the factors hampered students' utilization of ICTs. Akudolu (2002), also discovered that the unavailability of some ICT components in tertiary institutions hampered students' utilization of ICTs.

According to Adomi, Okiy and Ruteyan (2003), the absence of ICT equipment in most Nigerian tertiary institutions leads students to resort to cybercafés for Internet access. Thus, most cybercafé clients in Nigeria are students. In addition to this, Okebukola (1997), cited by Aduwa-Ogiegbaen and Iyamu (2005), concludes that the computer is not part of classroom technology in more than 90 percent of Nigerian public schools. This implies that the chalkboard and textbook continue to dominate classroom activities in most Nigerian tertiary institutions. The resultant effect is that students in tertiary institutions still continue to lag behind in their access to and utilization of ICT.
Internet learning facilities have become an enabling environment for students to have an advanced learning opportunity; and the ability of ICT to improve the delivery of educational goals and objectives have received widespread attention in the recent years all over the world. The impact of ICT can also be felt when students accessed previous lecture and textbooks via library from the comfort of their rooms. This statement means that when ICT is explored rightly, it will enable the user to achieve the goal of becoming a strong, prosperous and self-confident as well as promoting the learner-centered environment.

According to Akudolu (2002), ICT consists of hardware, software, networks and media for collection, storage, processing, transmitting and presentation of information (voice, data, text and images) while information technology as a component of ICT refers to the creation, storage and processing of data. World Bank, (2002) refers to internet which is an aspect of ICT as a powerful tool for improving the efficiency and quality of a wide range of public services that are important for poverty alleviation or reduction. This probably informs the Federal Government of Nigeria to include ICT in the secondary school curriculum in order to foster the learning process of the students.

The enormous job of ICT has made some scholars (Anackwe, 2003; Akudolu, 2002 and Aremu, 2002) to believe that it is a tool for global competitiveness which should sustain the youth to bridge the digital gap among nations. Other scholars (Ekoko, 2002; Sotayo, 2002; Asim, Kalu and Ani, 2003; Egbohare, 2003; Bankola, 2004; Adewale, 2005; Adeyemo, 2005) sees electronic communication and computer system as part of ICT that have significant impact on teaching and learning. Akudolu, (2002) stressed further that the use of ICT in education also involves the use of computer online, self-learning packages, chips, satellites radio and optical fibres technologies. ICT represents all computers and computer mediated tools, electronic devices, all its accessories capable of motivating the teachers and learners to achieve the essence of digital on line or internet facilities. Realizing the importance of ICT in the school system made the Federal Government of Nigeria to emphasis the provision of necessary infrastructure and training for its integration. Despite the importance attached to ICT in advancing knowledge of students in our schools, its development in Nigeria is still low as noted by (Adewale, Iroegbu and Adesoji, 2004). Other scholars (Olorundare, 2006; Ajayi, 2003) noted that teachers’ low level of computer literacy, trainers’ level of computer literacy, inadequate funding of the school system, management attitude and inadequate supply of computer and internet facilities are understanding factors.

Statement of the Problem

Presently, ICT is one of the major issues shaping the global economy and educational system. However, observations and reports from examining bodies revealed that a high percentage of students failed examinations in mathematics related courses in tertiary institutions. The failure is likely to be as a result of lack of ICT facilities, poor electricity, lack of ICT training centres, or resistance to change from traditional methods to more innovative and technology based teaching/learning methods. Against this background, the researchers sought to investigate the extent to which ICT have been effectively accessed and utilized by students in tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:
Methodology

The study was non-experimental and a survey research design was adopted. The sample of the study was selected using the multi-stage sampling procedure. At the first stage, two Local Government Areas (LGAs) were purposively selected from Ogun State, Nigeria. At the second stage, the stratified random sampling technique was used to select a total of 300 students from two tertiary institutions. The two instruments used for the study were developed by the researchers. The questionnaire was titled Students’ Access to and Utilization of ICT Questionnaire (SAUICTQ). This instrument comprised 18 Likert scale items with four options ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” while 7 other items were not Likert scale items. The second instrument (SMAT) consists of 20 items formerly prepared for students’ Mathematics tasks. This is a multiple-choice objective test with four options A, B, C and D. Each item has one correct option and three distracters. The correct option attracted 1 mark and the total mark obtainable is 20. The students interacted with the computer, answered the questions posed by the computer and then print out the answer sheet for marking. After pilot testing the instrument, the data collected showed that students did not have problems responding to the items in the instruments and a reliability of 0.67 was obtained. Kuder Richardson formula 20 was used to estimate the students’ mathematics achievement test internal consistency. The reliability of the test was estimated as 0.75. The administration of the instruments was coordinated by the researchers themselves. 285 copies of the instruments were found to have been properly completed and returned at the end of the exercise. The data collected were analyzed, using descriptive statistics and multiple regressions.

Results

Research Question 1

Does ICT increase the aspect of information transfer in the learning of Mathematics?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 1: ICT INCREASE LEARNING OF MATHEMATICS
The result of this study shows clearly that not many lecturers are using the ICT facilities to teach students. This was well spelt out in the statements 3 and 7 of Table 1 respectively, where 53% of the respondents disagreed that ICT increase their level of participation in the class while 78% confirmed that their lecturers are not teaching faster with the aid of ICT facilities. Whereas for statements 1 (69%), 2 (63%), 4 (66%), 5 (64%) and 6 (85%) students’ agreed to the fact that ICT increase learning outcome of tertiary institution students in mathematics.

**Research Question 2**

Do ICT facilities influence the teaching and learning of Mathematics in tertiary institutions?

Table 2: Effects of ICT Facilities on Teaching and Learning of Mathematics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. With the aid of ICT facilities, I am able to get more information on</td>
<td>56 (20%)</td>
<td>44 (16%)</td>
<td>83 (30%)</td>
<td>95 (34%)</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different topics taught by my teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ICT has helped me a lot in solving score of the difficult topics in</td>
<td>32 (12%)</td>
<td>35 (13%)</td>
<td>153 (57%)</td>
<td>49 (18%)</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mathematics.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The use of ICT has immensely enriched my learning of mathematics</td>
<td>38 (14%)</td>
<td>55 (20%)</td>
<td>132 (48%)</td>
<td>49 (18%)</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Through my exposure to ICT facilities, I am able to access previous</td>
<td>25 (9%)</td>
<td>34 (12%)</td>
<td>120 (43%)</td>
<td>101 (36%)</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lectures and textbooks via e-library from the comfort of my room.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. ICT facilities enable me to get current information on the trend of</td>
<td>27 (10%)</td>
<td>37 (14%)</td>
<td>100 (38%)</td>
<td>101 (38%)</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>events in mathematics and give me self-learning packages.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. ICT facilities make learning easier.</td>
<td>90 (32%)</td>
<td>115 (41%)</td>
<td>56 (20%)</td>
<td>20 (7%)</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. ICT increase the interest of students on the subject matter.</td>
<td>112 (40%)</td>
<td>75 (27%)</td>
<td>45 (16%)</td>
<td>47 (17%)</td>
<td>279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. ICT increase the participation among the students.</td>
<td>100 (35%)</td>
<td>86 (30%)</td>
<td>57 (20%)</td>
<td>42 (15%)</td>
<td>285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. ICT reduces time wastage in teaching and learning process.</td>
<td>81 (29%)</td>
<td>95 (34%)</td>
<td>56 (20%)</td>
<td>48 (17%)</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Teaching methodology is improved with the aid of ICT facilities.</td>
<td>99 (35%)</td>
<td>111 (39%)</td>
<td>51 (18%)</td>
<td>23 (8%)</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. ICT makes learning more concrete.</td>
<td>116 (42%)</td>
<td>103 (37%)</td>
<td>44 (16%)</td>
<td>14 (5%)</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 showed clearly that all the items i.e. 8 to 18 are positively structured, and Strongly Agree (SA) and Agree (A) are expected to have higher percentages for the items when combined. The result of this study have higher percentages for Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) for items 8 to 12.
showing that the effects of ICT facilities on teaching and learning of mathematics is still very low among students in tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. Likewise, items 13 to 18 showed higher percentages for Strongly Agree (SA) and Agree (A) showing that majority of the students agreed that ICT facilities make learning easier and increase students’ interest in the subject matter. They also agreed that information communication technology increases the participation among students and make learning more concrete.

**Research Question 3**

To what extent do students use ICT in order to enhance their learning of Mathematics?

**Table 4: Distribution on Respondents’ Access to and Utilization of ICT Facilities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Respondents %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>I have access to cybercafé in my area.</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>I have access to ICT facilities in my school.</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>I have my own e-mail address.</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>I use internet facilities to enhance learning.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I interact with computer to facilitate learning of mathematics.</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I spent between 30mins and 3hours on computer every day.</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I use internet as the main source of learning mathematics.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings from Table 4 revealed that 76% of the respondents have access to and utilize computer either at home or in the area where they live. However, only 52% of these respondents agreed that such facilities are also present in their institutions. Again, the findings on e-mail address showed that about 85% of the respondents have e-mail address while only 28% of the respondents use the internet facilities to enhance learning. This supports the findings of item 17, which showed that only 36% of the students interact with computer in order to facilitate learning of mathematics despite the fact that they spent between 30 minutes to 3 hours on computer every day.

**Research Question 4**

What are the composite and relative contributions of access to and utilization of ICT on students’ achievement in Mathematics?

**Table 5: Regression Summary of Access to and Utilization of ICT on Students’ Achievement in Mathematics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Regression</td>
<td>0.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>0.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
<td>0.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>21.072</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at P < 0.05*

The results in Table 5 showed that the combination of access to and utilization of ICT on students’ achievement in mathematics have a multiple correlation of 0.917. However, the combination of these variables explained 80.8% of the variance in students’ achievement as shown by the coefficient of determination (adjusted $R^2 = 0.808$). The $F_{(25, 285)} = 21.072$, $P<0.05$, which showed that the value of multiple regression of 0.917 is not by chance. This implies that there is a strong relationship between access to and utilization of ICT facilities on students’ achievement in Mathematics.

**Discussion**
The results of research question one revealed that students’ access to and utilization of ICT is significantly low. This implies that students in the area of study have low access to ICT to enhance achievement in mathematics. This finding corroborates with the views of Olorundare (2006) and Ajayi (2003), who noted teachers’ low level of computer literacy, inadequate supply of computer and internet facilities are some of the problems why students are not using ICT effectively to enhance learning in tertiary institutions. Given these predicaments, there is no way students’ access to and utilization of ICT to enhance achievement in Mathematics can be high, owing to the fact that teachers who are supposed to play a major role in teaching students on how to use ICT to improve their academic achievement in Mathematics are lagging behind, there is no way they can give what they don’t have. This aspect of education will still be suffering from snail-pace development until there is quality assurance in ICT education and provision of internet for schools at lower cost as well as assess the functionality and impact of ICT-based learning opportunities and resources in the classroom to encourage systematic improvement in educational system. The outcome of research question two indicated that teaching and learning of Mathematics is significantly low. This implies that students have little or no exposure to how they can use ICT to enhance their learning process.

This finding means that students’ opportunity to receive training on the operation of ICT equipment, if there is any, is yet to bear fruit. The germane explanation for this finding hinges around low percentage of students with ICT skills, lack of requisite telecommunications infrastructure, uneasy access to computer equipment as observed by Abada and Nwanse (2002). Results of research question three held that there is a significant influence of ICT on learning process. This result implies that the extent to which students have exposure to ICT determines their level of contribution use of ICT for learning process. Thus, the current situation demands an urgent attention given the importance attached to ICT education, especially in this period when students’ outcome in Mathematics is below the expected standard.

**Recommendations**

In view of the foregoing, one is conscious of the fact that information communication technology (ICT) facilities are capable of improving teaching and learning process. This is so, because the major aim of all educational organization is to impact skills and knowledge to students of varying levels, and different ICT facilities like multimedia, projector, computer, digital camera, and video clips can be use to improve the knowledge of subject matter and as a result, learning is achieved at a relatively permanent way. Improving the quality of ICT facilities in public schools entails scaling up the quality of both human and material resources as well as management skills of ICT in schools. These and other provisions which are likely to enhance output in mathematics should be considered in improving the quality of mathematics achievement of students in the Nigerian school system. Such steps, if adopted have the potential of reducing the gaps observed in the performance of the tertiary institution students in their various examinations.

Considering the results of this study, the following recommendations are made. The government should make available adequate fund that will be enough for the ICT facilities needed in our educational sector. The government should further embark on the
implementation of policies on ICT application in our schools. This should be done with adequate monitoring. The teachers should be encouraged to use ICT facilities in their teaching. The school administrators should organize series of training for their staff on the need for ICT application in their teaching and learning process. Finally, the teachers should be tutored on the need to allow students’ access to and utilize the ICT facilities effectively in such a way that it will be of benefit to the students and enhance their academic performance in Mathematics.

References


Managerial Systems as Measures of Quality Management in Universities in Uganda: Neema-Abooki

Abstract
This paper envisions that, since universities are basically consent organizations university management has an obligation to processes that engender total participation and passion of all employees. This study aimed at delving into management stances at universities. It based on Likert’s systems of management, which depict the total organization climate and focus upon the operating procedures in a given organization; and, Blake and Mouton’s Management Grid, which propagates team leadership; the kind that achieves both high task and high relationship. The research design used was cross sectional and this based on a sample of 1070 respondents selected through a stratified-probability sampling and purposive sampling techniques at Makerere University (Mak), Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST), and Uganda Martyrs University (UMU). Three categories of respondents were targeted to ensure inclusion of the entire academic communities. These included administrators, academic staff, students, and support staff. The results generally depicted the academic staff at the three universities in unanimity that “the system” at their respective universities is benevolent-authoritative. And as for the Managerial Grid, conclusion was that the Universities employed a 9, 1 orientation. The paper recommends taking decisions after due consultation among the superordinates, the subordinates, and with stakeholders. This paper also recommended a culture of continuous improvement driven by all members of a given organisation, educational or otherwise.

Key Words: Benevolent-authoritative, Consultative, Exploitative-authoritative, Management, Managerial grid, Participative, Quality, Universities

Universities, like other organizations, possess goals, which need to be accomplished. The need in turn calls upon universities to endeavour to commensurate with the goals of higher education in the country as contained in the Government White Paper (1992, cited in Neema-Abooki (2004b). By their nature, those goals depict university management, like management in general, as a process towards accomplishment of organizational goals. Such goals in turn aim at fostering excellent and continuing touch in planning, organizing, staffing, and activating for meeting client needs and expectations. In organizational development (OD), the effectiveness of management is recognised as one of the determinants of organizational success. On their part, universities are expected to undergird national development efforts by creating learning environments that encourage creativity, constructive criticism, and constant adaptation to rapidly changing scientific and societal circumstances. Such a scenario, however, requires, according to Saint (1995), cited in Neema-Abooki, (2006), the transformation of prevailing patterns of paternalistic governance into structures of participation and accountability; which in turn presupposes involvement of staff and students as responsible partners. This paper subscribes to the foregoing and advances that it is by

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being involved in decision-making that members of a given organization feel the sense of belonging and perform to the best of their ability.

Every organization should therefore wish its employees to possess the passion and zeal of an entrepreneur. For, it is very vital to endeavour to develop ownership culture. It could be a utopian vision of an organization where employees work with the passion of an entrepreneur, where they feel that they own the organization, are self-motivated and have a great sense of pride in belonging to the company. Developing an ownership culture at the workplace is a tough task for an employer, but it is the only way to ensure employee loyalty, and bridge the gap between employer and employee. If nurtured, this feeling not only optimises productivity and excellence beyond expectations, but also helps in combating attrition. While most organizations do make assiduous efforts to inculcate a feeling of ownership among employees, the task is made more difficult due to the highly fluid situation of the recruitment market and the constantly changing loyalties.

Accordingly, managers of organizations are required to seek agreement from the employees prior to decisions that apply to the development and implementation of personnel programmes; hence, the pertinacity to bridge the hierarchical barriers between the top management and the rest of the stakeholders in organizations, including educational institutions. For, “Employee involvement is ‘a range of processes designed to engage the support, understanding and optimum contribution of all employees in an organization and their commitment to its objectives’. Such an involvement aims to harness commitment to organizational objectives and relies on the maintenance of management control”.

While Likert’s Systems of management depict the total organisation climate and focus upon the operating procedures in a given organisation, the Managerial Grid – combining an approach for people and an approach for production – suggests that management is best at a 9,9 co-ordinates, where both people and production concerns are fully addressed. The paper subscribes that the Managerial or Leadership Grid is used to help managers analyze their own leadership styles. To this effect, the managers identify how they stand with respect to their concern for production and people. Cognisant of the fact that the model ignores the importance of internal and external limits, matter and scenario

The paper advances that both the Managerial Grid and Likert’s Systems advance a singly need for maximum concern for both production and people and do decry the converse. The extent to which management of Universities in Uganda follows suit is the raison d’être for this study. The first objective of the study was therefore to delve into management characteristics at the universities basing on Likert’s systems of management which do focus upon the operating procedures and actions in the entire organization. Meanwhile, the second objective was to probe into the management of universities basing on Blake and Mouton’s Management Grid which propagates for Team Leadership; the kind that achieves both high task and high relationship.

Methodology

The study employed a cross-sectional survey research design. A representative sample of respondents was drawn from Makerere University, Mbarara University, and Uganda Martyrs University. The former is located within the outcasts of Kampala City, while Uganda Martyrs and Mbarara Universities are located along the south-western highway.
Decision on sample size from each University was influenced by the extent of precision desired and the amount of variability in the population at each given university (Sekaran, 2003). The sample included group-categories of administrators, academic staff, students, and support staff. The study employed stratified-probability sampling and simple sampling techniques. The former technique, according to Amin (2005), ensures a proportionate representation of each sub-group. The structured questionnaire had similar items as it was intended to ensure triangulation of the views of all respondents in the sample population. Raw data were hereby analyzed using descriptive statistics of frequency distribution. Meanwhile, the Interview schedule was open-ended and hence availed opportunity to the interviewees to qualify and substantiate their responses. Direct Observations played a complimentary role towards cross-validating of the findings solicited through the constructed instruments. 

Results

Quantitative Data

Respondents were asked to rate their Institutions as per the managerial systems of Likert. Their responses are depicted in the table below.

Table 1. Corresponding percentage scores by the respondents on Likert’s systems of management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADMINISTRATORS</th>
<th>ACADEMIC STAFF</th>
<th>STUDENTS</th>
<th>SUPPORT STAFF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f_o</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f_o</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makerere university</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploitative-authoritative</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolent-authoritative</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultative</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mbarara university of science and technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploitative-authoritative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolent-authoritative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda Martyrs University</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploitative-authoritative</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benevolent-authoritative</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultative</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exploitative-authoritative system at the universities was championed by 38.4 and 44% for the students and support staff at Makerere University, respectively; while at Mbarara University the values were 40 and 40% of the respective categories. As for Uganda Martyrs University, 26.5% of the students followed suit. The foregoing scenario is perhaps an
indication that the “junior” subordinates, that is, the students and the support staff, tend to view authority in terms of repression. This foregoing observation was particularly equated to Makerere and Mbarara Universities. Nevertheless, the tally of 22% for the administrators and academic staff triggers a debate in regard to Makerere University. In the exploitative-authoritative system, “the leader has a low concern for people and uses such methods as threats and other fear-based methods to achieve conformance. Communication is almost entirely downwards and the psychologically distant concerns of people are ignored.

Meanwhile, Benevolent-authoritative system was mostly advanced by the academic staff with 32% at Makerere University and 40% each at Mbarara University and Uganda Martyrs University. The results generally depict the academic staff at the three universities in unanimity that the system at their respective universities is Benevolent-authoritative. A similar impression was expressed by up to 39.3% of the students at Uganda Martyrs University. Significant herewith is not only that the 30% scored by the students at Mbarara University is equidistant to the percentage scored by the administrators, but also that the latter category catapulted the same score for the exploitative-authoritative system. Similarly, at Uganda Martyrs University, the said category garnered 20% for both the Exploitative-authoritative and the Benevolent-authoritative strands. In the Benevolent-authoritative system, decisions are likewise taken at the top of the hierarchical structure, but in return for their loyalty, employees will be treated reasonably well and in a rather paternalistic manner. This intimates as to why the percentages accrued by the category of administrators for the two systems above strike a balance with a little exception at Kampala International University where the percentage in this regard was 22% for Exploitative-authoritative and 26% for Benevolent-authoritative.

Consultative system attracted somewhat frail percentages at Makerere and at the University of Science and Technology, although the former realized 26% for the administrators, and a tie of 22% for both students and support staff; as the latter registered 20% triad for academic staff, students, and support staff. Meanwhile Uganda Martyrs University was portrayed to uphold the status quo by 40% of the administrators and 40% of the support staff line with the 50% of the academic staff. The results, though not above average, do tend to depict Uganda Martyrs University as consultative-based. This observation calls for yet more attention. Could it be that the Foundation Body of the University has had an influence to this effect?

In the consultative system, managers set goals and issue orders after discussing with the subordinates. However “the upward flow of information here is still cautious and rose-tinted to some degree, although the leader is making genuine efforts to listen carefully to ideas. Nevertheless, major decisions are still largely centrally made. On their part, the respondents who maintained that the management system at their universities was participative were championed by only a maximum of 32% of the academic staff for Makerere University, 40% of the administrators for Mbarara University and 40% of the support staff for Uganda Martyrs University. Looking askance, Makerere University could be said to be tending towards upward mobility in this regard; a sense of optimism championed by the academic staff despite the score of only 32%. An attempt to make a cumulative percentage favours Makerere University in the due regard, followed by Mbarara University. This is notwithstanding the stance that a similar attempt on a cumulative percentage would but do the opposite by rendering Uganda Martyrs University as less exploitative-authoritative
while the converse is a truism for Mbarara University. Like beauty lies in the eyes of the beholder, accepting or refuting remains a prerogative of how a particular individual at each given institution stands objective or subjective on the milieu. Participative” is the most effective in that it satisfies the whole range of human needs. Major decisions are taken by groups themselves and this option results in achieving high targets and excellent productivity. There is complete trust within the group and the sense of participation to a high degree of motivation. At the participative level, the leader makes maximum use of participative methods, engaging people lower down the organization in decision-making. People across the organization are psychologically closer together and work well together at all levels.

The “characteristics of management” at the universities nevertheless fetched enigmatic responses. Apart from the 50% of the academic staff at Uganda Martyrs University who implied that their managers/administrators do set goals but issue general orders after discussing them with subordinates (consultative), all the other options were answered with below percentages from all categories of respondents at the three universities. Such percentages therefore can so far hardly be substantive to describe the existential stance at any of the universities.

**Qualitative Data**

The interview schedule solicited information as per the Managerial Grid (see Figure below).

![Managerial Grid](http://www.drawpack.com)
In their response as to whether the management culture at the universities was highly people-oriented and at once highly result-oriented (9,9), the respondents revealed that the balance of orientation between people and results was only minimal. This was championed by the academic staff at Uganda Martyrs University while the respondents at Mbarara University were comparatively satisfied with the situation at their institution. These, in their majority, contended that at their institution there was empowerment even among the students and the support staff. Meanwhile, respondents at Makerere University maintained mixed feelings.

The 9.9 manager is depicted as a Team Leader who achieves both high task and high relationship. This type of person leads by positive example and endeavors to foster a team environment in which all team members can reach their highest potential, both as team members and as people. They encourage the team to reach team goals as effectively as possible, while also working tirelessly to strengthen the bonds among the various members. They normally form and lead some of the most productive teams. Meanwhile, a Country Club Leader (low task, high relationship) uses predominantly reward power to maintain discipline and to encourage the team to accomplish its goals. Conversely, a leader of the kind is almost incapable of employing the more punitive, coercive and legitimate powers. This inability results from fear that using such powers could jeopardize relationships with the other team members. On the other hand, an Impoverished Leader (low task, low relationship) employs "delegate and disappear" management style. Since leaders of this sort are not committed to either task accomplishment or maintenance; they essentially allow their team to do whatever it wishes and prefer to detach themselves from the team process by allowing the team to suffer from a series of power struggles.

Unlike the other leadership approaches the 9, 9 orientation assumes that there is no inherent contradiction between organisational purposes of production and needs of people (Blake & Mouton 1985, cited in Neema-Abooki, 2004b). According to these authors, effective integration is possible by involving people and their ideas in determining the strategies of work and achievement. The needs of people are met through establishing sound and mature relationships with one another which is essential to accomplishing organisational goals”. The cited co-authors summarize the aims of a 9, 9 orientation as to promote participation, involvement, and commitment to teamwork; and so does this paper advance.

All notwithstanding, the modest position one would construe in regard to the managerial styles at the universities was a 9.1; namely, “much concern for results and little concern for people”. This kind of style is not only production-oriented, over and above, it is an authoritarian leadership style. In fact, one long-serving Don at Makerere University substantiated that a lecturer is obliged to retire as soon as time is due while retiring benefits remain far from being realised. Rationalising on the same issue, one respondent at the Department of the University Secretary, Makerere University, quipped that management regards itself as having the prerogative of hiring and firing.

In line with the foregoing, many more respondents decried the pay of the lecturers as not at all worthy the merit. This was in line with the observation of Mary Karooro Okurut, a onetime lecturer at Makerere, who, in the Monitor Newspaper of 5 May 2003, outlined that Makerere dons were exploited and worked up and down like donkeys and then dumped with no sign of gratitude when old age catches up with them. All in all, as already alluded to above, the situation at the universities was subsequently depicted at a conspicuous distance
from the ideal of much concern for “both” (9.9); an indication that there lacks a participative, also known as team leadership style. Constrained therefore was the .9, 1 leadership style which rests on the assumption that there is an inevitable contradiction between the organisation’s needs for productivity and the needs of people. The 9, 1 orientation is summed up in the phrase “produce or perish” (Blake and Mouton, 1985; cited in Neema-Abooki, 2004b). This paper observes that the 9.1 leadership style – production-oriented as it is – stands opposite to the 1, 9 which is depicted as relation-oriented leadership style.

Nonetheless, the most desirable place for a leader to be along the two axes at most times would be a 9 on task and a 9 on people -- the Team Leader. However, do not entirely dismiss the other three. Certain situations might call for one of the other three to be used at times. For example, by playing the Impoverished Leader, one allows one’s team to gain self-reliance. Yet, one may have to act an Authoritarian Leader to instill a sense of discipline in an unmotivated worker. By carefully studying the situation and the forces affecting it, one know at what points along the axis one needs to be in order to achieve the desired result. And as to whether “good results and high quality are a reflection of a people-oriented management system” the respondents who agreed with the status quo held equidistant views, which could be paraphrased as follows:-The primary input in any enterprise is people. Moreover, since human resource is the most important resource in any organisation such a resource should be motivated to respond as desired, and quality would result owing to the extent to which people are motivated. A people, as a competitive advantage, is essential a factor for high quality of service delivery. People do act not because they have to, but because they feel morally obliged to do what they have to.

The respondents who maintained partiality to the proposition envisioned that whereas a people-oriented system motivated the workers, other inputs were imperative – for instance, the relevant tools needed in order to produce good results and standards to be set and observed in order for quality to be achieved. Pinpointed was also that sometimes, depending on the nature of the organisation, a people-oriented manager might have little concern for the task. On the other hand, and depending on the circumstances, even with a production-oriented management system, good results and high quality can exist. According to them coercion could not be ruled out as one yet other avenue towards engendering good results. These, in effect, espoused Theory X of Douglas McGregor according to which people have an inherent dislike towards work, and therefore coercion is the solution. However, one respondent from Directorate of Human Resources (DHR), Makerere University, rationalised that results obtained through any form of coercion are not merit-worth. This respondent in effect advanced Theory Y, a model that stresses the importance of diagnosing the needs of individuals and integrating these needs with the needs of the organisation. For, it is by satisfying individual needs that the organisation’s performance is optimized.

Meantime, the respondents who envisaged lack of validity in the statement maintained that “there are systems that are not people-oriented but have produced substantial results”. However, it was retorted that in such systems the results may be realised but void of quality. Overall, the caution was that academic institutions, service systems as they are, aim to consider and consequently respond to what the clientele wants an equidistant observation spelt out that a people-oriented system might lead to laxity since such a situation might fall short of an extrinsic principle that would provoke people to work. Postulated was also that some people-oriented companies had been taken for a ride and subsequently collapsed while
the dictatorial ones succeeded. The proponents tended to suggest that, where totally people-oriented the organisation might not get the required results. Management should therefore strike a balance between the task and people’s private needs. Both stick and carrot are needed though probably a bit more of the carrot.

Nevertheless, responses as per the grid, like on the Likert systems, spelt out a quagmire as the rating of the options by the respondents depicted minimal variations. For instance, the superlative rating (about 85%) scored by the support staff at UMU for the 5,5 Managerial Style appeared to be against all odds as all the other categories of respondents enlisted low scores to the style otherwise known as “middle of the road” or “practical leadership style”. Adjacently, an attempt to make a cumulative percentage regarding UMU in support of the option for a 9, 9 Managerial Style would rate the status quo as below average.

Suffice to mention that a 5, 5 management is a kind of realistic medium without ambition. It is deemed as practical. It is also an outcome when production and people issues are seen as in conflict (as indeed are 9, 1 and 1, 9, but such an organisation values both people and production matters. This position is called pendulum dampening because so often a pendulum swings between 1, 9 and 9, 1. Managers change approach: perhaps new work comes in or there is a perceived need to increase performance and the firm must get busy; or perhaps there has been a dispute and the organisation needs to repair relationships. Perhaps though in certain voluntary organisations 5, 5 is a good position to hold, as volunteers need the social aspect to crowd out some of the work aspects.

Conclusion

This study surmises that majority of the respondents neither opted for leaders who concerned themselves with getting the job done than with the development and growth of the subordinates (task oriented) nor those who motivated rather than controlled subordinates (employee oriented) but rather leaders who endeavoured to balance between the two orientations. For, as the adage runs: “Virtuus in medio stat” (the virtue stands in the middle), neither extreme would be per se plausible. Presupposed heretofore is that most members of the academic communities are not all that in mutuality with the prevailing practices at their respective universities. This in turn implies that the existential situation at the universities lacks as regards engendering broad and direct participation of all the members. Hence, it does not all that advocate for self-determination of the ordinary people nor does it ultimately fully develop them. Since the performance of an organisation as a whole determines its survival, the paper envisages that a stance like the above is likely to spell out an organisation, educational or otherwise, as floating between decay and development. Amidst such a scenario, management falls short of reflecting itself as effective and efficient in attainment of organisational goals through planning, leading and controlling organisational resources. Such an entity would not in the least ensure a culture of continuous improvement driven where every member has a stake.

Summary and Recommendation

The paper rationalises that it is incumbent on the managers in universities to consult with all the members of the academic community and even members of other organisations. Involvement and motivation lead to total participation and commitment.
While a replication of this study could therefore be done on other universities, another study could yet be carried out on these same universities vis-à-vis other systems of management. For instance, Hofstede’s Five Dimensions of Culture and Organisational Culture are some of the potential tools. A study on either of these might, perhaps, render a much better depiction of the existential situation at the august universities.

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Revitalizing Higher Education through Innovative Labor Market Based Curriculum for Sustainable National Development: Alao, A.O

Abstract

The role of higher education in preparing youths for the labour market is becoming more challenging in the modern society. This is visible in the high number of tertiary institutions’ graduates that are unemployable for lack of necessary skills, which would make them contribute profitably to any employer of labour. This paper examines the history of higher education; assessment of employability of graduates in the Nigerian labour market; necessity for innovation in curriculum content and delivery methods in Nigerian higher education; innovative strategies in curriculum content for sustainable national development; curriculum delivery mode. It was concluded that management of higher education deserves relevant innovation in curriculum content and delivery mode to meet the reality of education in this modern world. It was recommended among other things that; there should be partnership between employers and higher education in order to explore the development of employable courses. Modern pedagogical approaches to curriculum implementation in Nigeria educational institutions should be included in curriculum delivery.

Key Words: Revitalizing, Higher Education, Curriculum, labour Market and National Development.

The tertiary/higher education level which is the post-secondary level of education is required to produce high level manpower to drive the economy towards sustainable economic development. However, it has been argued that majority of tertiary institution graduates are unemployable for lack of necessary skills that would make them profitable to any employer. This brings to the fore the nexus between higher education in Nigeria and national development. As stated in the National Policy on Education, aims of higher education among others are to: “contribute to national development through high level relevant manpower training; acquire both physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society; and promote scholarship and community service “(Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN), 2004, p.36).

Universities are saddled with the responsibility of developing high level manpower within the context of the needs of the nation. According to FRN (2004), universities are required to also offer professional courses according to the national needs of Nigeria. Research works in the universities should be relevant to the national development goals and such researches are expected to be disseminated to industries, Federal and State Governments. Njoku (2010) asserts that currently in Nigeria, society is disenchanted about the programme of studies- curriculum content and mode of delivery in higher education as many of the graduates are armed with doubtful credentials. Njoku (2010) observed further that higher education institutions- universities, polytechnics and colleges of education turn
out graduates many of whom are either not employed for lack of employment opportunities or not employable either because of their exposure to “wrong” curriculum content or unsuitable mode of content delivery, or both.

In bid to make curriculum more relevant to the needs of the society, several innovations have been put in place. However, these innovations are badly implemented, for instance Information Communication Technology education, which is expected to assist students to be more technologically inclined in this global world are faced with obstacles such as epileptic power supply and inadequate computers which makes the courses to be taught mainly theoretically. In the vein, entrepreneur education is taught theoretically without workshop experience, which leaves many students without acquisition on practical skills. Government often laments the poor state of tertiary institutions, thus making numerous efforts at bringing forth improvement. However, government has not shown enough commitment towards revitalizing these institutions instead; several blames are attributed to it in terms of inadequate funding; politicization of running the affairs of tertiary institutions; corruption; inconsistencies in policies, which often leads to lack of continuity in educational projects among other issues.

The academia who are relied upon to implement new curriculum innovations in the classrooms, work in tertiary institutions whose curriculum content and practice are largely based on century old system of knowledge organization, majorly influenced by 19th century academic traditions. Akinlua (2010) asserted that most curricula content and practice since the colonial period to the present are deeply seated in European cultures. Whereas in some cases academia abandon their jobs for other sectors of the economy for higher salaries and greater social recognition, while some simply emigrate for better job opportunities. Unfortunately, students whom curriculum innovations are expected to reform, learn in higher institutions characterized with unstable academic calendar, dilapidated buildings, and overcrowded lecture theatres. “The National Commission survey discovered that only about thirty percent of Nigerian student population has adequate access to classrooms, lecture theatres, laboratories, workshops and libraries” (Okebukola, 2002).

However, in spite of these awkward situation that students study in, majority struggle to excel just to acquire certificates without necessarily recognizing education as a means of developing their cognitive and social powers. Since it takes a while for many candidates to gain admission into Nigerian tertiary institutions, a good number resolve into cheating or opting for any course without any considerations for their passions or labour market. However, several efforts which were been put in place towards revitalizing the tertiary institutions are yet to yield required benefits. It is against this background that it becomes pertinent to examine innovative curriculum contents and delivery modes.

Major Developments in Nigerian Curriculum

These curricular developments would be discussed under three different eras; namely. Pre-colonial, colonial and the post-colonial era. The pre-colonial era was characterized solely by absence of formal schooling and unwritten curriculum. However, the period was portrayed as the most successful system in the historical records of educational development in Nigeria and other African countries. This was due to the fact that it produced citizens in line with the needs of the society. Osokoya 1989 states that its ultimate goal was to produce an individual who was honest, respectful, skilled, and cooperative, and who could conform to
the social order of the day. Ashby (1968), Cameron and Dodd (1976) were very critical of the colonial masters, blaming them for causing serious damage to African communities by replacing the existing enterprising pragmatic educational system with their own strange and irrelevant system. However, the pre-colonial era was not without its own shortcomings, which centred on lack of documentation, slow paced and limited. Eisemon (1988) opined that the necessities and needs of modern macro populous societies could not be adequately met by the pre-colonial system of education.

The colonial period, which is the second period, was marked with a system of education that was summarily described as irrelevant to needs and aspirations of developing nations. The content of the education offered to people was considered bookish. In fact Murray (1967) summarized the content of colonial education as the 3Rs’ which was believed to be merely training the African recipients as interpreters for the white men, village catechists, cooks etc. In spite of the avalanche of criticisms from foreign and African scholars, this period marked the beginning of documentation and formal education. Akinlua (2010) pointed out that without this period, the post-colonial period would have been the beginning of everything from the scratch and not a consolidation period. The third period, which is the post-colonial period, began from 1960 when Nigeria gained independence. Owing to the huge irrelevances and faulty foundations laid during the colonial period, the Nigerian education sector has continued to suffer great deal of setback. Akinlua (2010) asserted that the content and practice of education today are both implicitly and explicitly irrelevant because they are founded on unrealistic philosophical principles. It is worth remembering that tertiary education began during the colonial period. The University College Ibadan was established in 1948, colleges of technology such as Yaba College of Technology and Advanced Teachers College (equivalent of colleges of education) were established subsequently. However, the content and practice of these institutions were seen as alienating people from the rich tradition of manual labour, recognition of the dignity of labour and hard work which characterized the pre-colonial African societies. The university training was totally supporting and churning out job seeking elites who were scavenging white collar jobs instead of assisting in developing self-reliant people, who would contribute meaningfully to the development of their nation.

**Issues affecting Revitalization and Curriculum Development in Nigerian Tertiary institutions**

The issues are more numerous and complex than the past decades. However, in spite of post-independence attempts at curricular improvements, modifications and adjustments resulting in some recent innovations, such as introducing Information Communication Technology education, Entrepreneurial education. Alade (2011) identified other areas of innovations emanating from curricular improvement which are:

- Maintenance of uniform academic calendar for all tertiary institutions.
- Proper funding and maintenance of infrastructure;
- Introduction of virtual library;
- Approval for establishment of private universities.
- The modification of Distant Learning to National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) to make education accessible to the greater population of Nigerians.
However, with all that had been done, the quality and relevance of tertiary education is still being questioned. Inadequate funding coupled with lack of proper implementation of programmes, which militates against achievement of set goals still remain the bane of these tertiary institutions. Other reasons for failure in curriculum innovations in Nigeria are traceable to the following: Lack of necessary up-to-date facilities, and epileptic power supply. Curricular changes and adjustments had been abused by politicians. Therefore, when a particular government embarks on a programme in education sector, successive administration might have different programmes, thus causing inconsistencies in the running of these institutions. Many curricular innovations remain merely ink and paper masterpieces, which sits endlessly on governments desks without being executed. Corruption of our political leaders contributes in no small measure to the issue. Excessive influence of politicians in the running of tertiary institutions also constitutes to the problem. Majority of the curricular content and practice still reflect a lot of European culture, which is different from the traditional African culture.

Is Innovation in Curriculum Content And Delivery Methods Necessary in Nigerian Higher Education?

The higher education students in this information technology driven era possess characteristics that differ from those of the 60s and 70s. Thus, the needs of students in higher institutions in the present-day are different from the needs students used to have in the past. Moreover, societal factors like religious inclination, political consideration, economy, culture, internal and external influence, require constant consideration in our curriculum. Okebukola (1997) opined that for a good person-environment fit, it is expedient to systematically assess the needs of present-day students as a prelude to developing curricula. If this is not done, we may end up using what has been described as "yesterday’s inappropriate tools to solve today’s problems. However, it cannot be overemphasized that the training of our human capital must change, not only as a response to the present; but also as a strategic plan to control the future.

Njoku (2010) opined that the need for innovation in curriculum content and delivery methods in Nigerian higher Education bothers on quality and relevance. Quality is a multi-faceted issue, which encompasses how learning is organized and managed (including delivery methods); what the curriculum content of learning is; what level of learning is achieved; what it leads to in terms of outcomes; and what goes on in the learning environment (Maduewesi, 2005). Stakeholders and society at large often express concern over the quality and relevance of higher education today, which largely depends on curriculum content and delivery methods. Njoku, (2010) highlights the following specific areas of concern, though with arbitrary classification. Low moral quotient (Lmq) of many undergraduates and graduates; immodest dressing, rubbery, ransom demand, etc. Poor Academic Performance, decorated prostitution, examination malpractice, etc. Secret/cultism: Heinous crimes such as murder, child abduction and child trafficking, armed: Low scores, low grades, high rate of course repetition and carry-over, prolonged graduation period, etc. Professional Misconduct: Bidding and sorting of answer scripts after examination for special grading, etc. Employment of Incompetent Persons as Lecturers: Employment merit is in most cases redefined to place sentiment top on the priority list of criteria; lecture method provides hideout for such quacks, etc. Courses Mounted Without Entrepreneurial Blend: Many
graduates cannot start doing something to get self-employed etc. Diploma Disease: Wrong placement of students on admission no consideration for learner aptitude and interest because the student needs paper qualification no matter which and how, etc.

High Rate of Graduate Unemployment: Graduates roam the streets and throng around offices looking for jobs, etc. Graduates Under-Employment: Graduates take up jobs outside their expertise without job satisfaction, etc. Poor Graduate Performance on the Job: Many computer graduates cannot operate the computer; many graduates cannot take minutes of proceedings during meetings neither can they express themselves in simple English, etc.

Rejection of Nigerian graduates by some other countries, furthermore, Okebukola, (2007) also reported a study which identified a number of weaknesses among education graduates. The weaknesses identified include: lack of practical skills in teaching, shallow subject-matter knowledge, poor computer and communication skills and lack of entrepreneurial skills. However, the issues raised and more are aftermath of inadequacies mainly in terms of quality and relevance of both the curriculum content and delivery mode. Thus, these require redress. Okeke (1981) pointed out that when there is dissatisfaction with an existing system, or curriculum, there is always need for change or modification.

**Innovative Strategies in Curriculum Content for Sustainable National Development**

Curriculum review and development, which promotes theoretical knowledge and places emphasis on paper certification, instead of stressing the development of innate abilities and creative potentials in a learner evolving through training and practices is unlikely to achieve sustainable success. Higher education is expected to contribute to the national development through high level relevant manpower training. The graduates are expected to become self-reliant and useful members of the society on exposure to the emerging curriculum of the day. To this end, a pragmatic curriculum is recommended for Nigerian Tertiary Education, which includes the following compulsory or general courses: Practice of Agriculture (theory); Practical Agriculture (practice); Entrepreneurial Education; Information Communication Technology; Social Structures and Communities in Nigeria Ethics and Morals. These general courses should be compulsory for all undergraduates, irrespective of their disciplines. Also, the evaluation of these courses should be in form of practical assignments which would require students visiting rural communities. Furthermore, farmland where agricultural practical can be carried out should be provided. In addition, all these courses should be 2units courses except for practical Agriculture which should be 3units.

**Innovative Delivery Mode of Curriculum**

The teacher translates educational policies into practice and programmes. Thus, developing curriculum content is one thing and another is imparting it to target learners to effect the desired change in behaviour. Since the desired change in learner behaviour has not been achieved with the most common delivery mode, referred to as lecture method, then the need for a delivery method that will achieve this would be highly appreciated. Since, the lecture method is characterized by its lopsidedness with the lecturers’ oral teaching all through and who may decide to close the mind of the learner to reason and reasoning, through indoctrination, especially in the bid to cover his or her inadequacies. Njoku, (2010) lamented that some lecturers read their notes to their students, others talk to their papers
while the students listen and jot down their points apart from handouts and text books for supplementary reading. It should be noted that not every lecturer has the capacity for training undergraduates, whereas every student is expected to graduate with special expertise and professional ethics embodied in a code of conduct which can only be meaningfully acquired through training which lecturing, at best, nimble at. Nwokocha and Osuji (2008) observed that although, the primary advantage of a lecture method is its ability to present a large number of facts in a short period of time coupled with the fact that it makes fewer demands on the teacher’s time for planning and preparing however, it makes pupils to be passive listeners and this does not allow pupils to be actively involved in both the planning and development of learning. Consequently the desired learning outcome may not be achieved. There is need to install modern pedagogical approaches in curriculum delivery in Nigerian higher education, so as to keep up the pace with modern trends on curriculum issues. Furthermore, participatory approach to teaching and learning is more suitable since the learner does not exclusively depend on the teacher while the teacher does not see the learner as not having anything to offer.

Conclusion

High rate of youths’ unemployment, skill mismatch between job-seekers and employers, inadequate skilled information technology workforce, coupled with poor on the job performance of graduates in the labour market has been worrisome. This brings to the fore the justification for the goals of higher education, which emphasizes manpower development in relation to societal values. Thus, to rectify this anomaly, higher education institution should take into cognizance the need to interact with employers of labour and make innovations in curriculum content and delivery methods to meet the reality of modern labour market. These innovations include critical thinking and moral education; Information and Communications Technology; Agricultural science theory and practice; Modern Pedagogical approaches; Entrepreneurial Education and Capacity Building of Lecturers.

Recommendations

Construction of meaningful physical plant in tertiary institutions. This include buildings, workshop, conference rooms, mini-industries, modern lecture rooms, lecture halls with public address systems and other communication gadgets. Modern office complexes, conducive hostels and relaxation centres. Establishment of computer centres, information communication centres and other modern facilities for fast processing and assessing of information globally. Formulation of policies that could make learning in universities and other tertiary institutions more pragmatic, meaningful and effective. For example, renowned local artisans craftsmen, technicians and other professional could be contracted to teach their trades in institutions. There is urgent need for a paradigm shift from theoretical teaching and literary application to a practical application of knowledge necessary for employment and skill development. Curriculum should be adapted to meet labour market’s requirements through partnership with employers of labour. These would enable undergraduates to have first hand contact and experience with the labour market. This is due to the fact that these people are best able to decide what skills and knowledge students need for today’s job and can constantly adapt course content and classroom discussions to the real needs of the students.
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The Bureaucratic Experience and Post Modern Challenges of Strategic Management in Higher Education Institutions: Olusola A. Thomas

Abstract
This study examined the nature of bureaucracy in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), and the need for strategic management considering the propelling forces of academic revolution meaning that HEIs must perform better with fewer resources and provide innovative solutions. Three research questions guided this study which followed a cross-sectional survey design and was based on interview to collect qualitative data. Findings reveal that bureaucracy is failing because the decision-making structure is characterized by hierarchies, centralization, routine work processes and traditional consistency which cannot be used to face modern day challenges. It was recommended that an adoption of a synergetic approach of strategic management and continuous quality improvement would put the HEIs in a vantage position to face challenges and compete nationally and internationally.

Key words: Bureaucracy, strategic management, continuous quality improvement, higher education institutions.

Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) contribute to the formation and development of human capital, improvement of science and technology as well as material conditions in the society. It provides the framework for the advancement of knowledge in a more constituted manner that re-orientates the products for the benefit of the society. HEIs have the main responsibility of training professional personnel who help to develop the economy and create new knowledge through research. In the recent past, they play important roles in economic, social and political development of a nation. HEIs do not necessarily differ from many other organizations because they operate in competitive environment where they compete for students and funds from public and private sectors (Kettunen, 2008). Like any other large organization that characterized modern society, Speziale (2011) affirmed that HEIs are complex and durable organizations characterized by a multiplicity of conflicting interests and national differences. There is no doubt that today higher education institutions in Africa and Nigeria in particular, are facing many challenges and demand for changes due to forces such as pressure of enrollment expansion, emergence of knowledge economy and information and communication technologies, propelling academic revolution.

A review of the higher education institutions in the past two decades has shown that the dominant theme in these institutions has been crises and reforms. Most of these crises are linked to social, economic and political situations within and outside the institutions while less attention is paid to the internal construct (governance and management) which has become an endemic part of HEIs. However, if HEIs have to achieve their goals and maintain their position as a reckoning force for development, these internal construct need to be reformed. In Nigeria, HEIs refers to post secondary institutions such as universities, polytechnics, and colleges of education. Higher education institutions in the context of this
The universities are the citadel of knowledge and are key agencies in developing intellectual capacity and skills of individuals, inculcating proper values for the survival of the individual and the society, and promoting national unity to redress the current economic plight. They are now more complex in nature; contain an intricate network of members who have divergent goals, values, and needs (Johnson, 2010). Their complexities, according to Forlorn (2003) stems from complexity of objectives, multiple roles, diffuse organizational structure, internal fragmentation and limited measuring capacities. Scott as cited in Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2011) also corroborated this view by explaining the complex nature of universities as factors associated with slow decision-making process, internal bureaucracy, corporatism and unprofessional management.

In recent years, universities along with the many other institutions rendering higher education services are facing many challenges, ranging from undue government interference and control to financial strangulation, insalubrious environment and poor management and governance (Oni and Alake, 2008 and Johnson, 2010). They are experiencing an environment of change, which continually challenged their traditional structures and strategies. In a number of developed and developing countries, new modes of governing the universities, which are different from the traditional control model, are distinctly emerging. That is, the decision-making structures, governance and management of higher education are strongly influenced by informal networks and new collegial arrangements. Clearly, the universities are discovering that major changes are necessary in order to serve students and to compete effectively. Hanna (2003) shared the same notion that in order to meet the demands of an increasing complex and dynamic environment, the universities need to transform themselves by removing boundaries, supporting science and technology, incorporating strategic thinking and transforming bureaucratic culture and assumptions. In other words, the traditional mode of management has proven expensive and inappropriate to meet the multiple demands of economic and social development as well as the learning needs of a more diverse student’s body.

In Nigeria today, the dizzying pace of change has continuously reshaped our institutions. Even the largest of human organization, the government bureaucracy, is not immune to these changes. Patterns of managerial work have undergone radical changes resulting in great leap in technology, instantaneous diffusion of ideas, and shift from the centralized bureaucracies to decentralized networks. All these have not only challenged our universities, but the nation in general on how collective societal problems are addressed as part of the global changes. Thus, the universities need to change from the bureaucratic routine schedules to more flexible and strategic activities that require leadership and coordination in more concomitant ways.

The emerging expectation submitted by Kaufman and Seidman (1970) and Rogers (2006) is the evolvement of a new process for achieving transformation. This is evident in early efforts in the previous decades, which focused on the strategic improvement of quality through the improvement of a variety of administrative and instructional processes (O’Flynn, 2007). However, Emmanuel (2009) proposed for current efforts that will emphasize the
creation of more open, honest, and comprehensive assessments and the re-creation of vision, mission, culture, strategy, decision-making processes and outcome within the universities.

Bureaucracy today faces different challenges and it is regarded as an ill-defined idea driving against globalisation and transformation in HEIs. It is against this background that this paper sets out to review the nature of bureaucracy within the universities and the possibility for a shift to strategic management considering the propelling forces of academic revolution. However, in the process, the strengths and weaknesses of bureaucracy will be reviewed to point out where it works and where it does not and suggest alternative mechanism for change.

**Conceptual Clarifications**

**Bureaucracy**

The word “bureaucracy” is used to refer to power of office. The renowned proponent of bureaucratic model, Marx Weber as cited in Meyer (1995:36) defined bureaucracy as “an organisation of administrative hierarchy, characterised by loyalty to the office, a highly specialised division of labour and impersonal relationships based on prestige, power, and control”. Bureaucracy is associated with large and complex organizations - political, business, military, educational and others. Dimock as cited in Sharma, Sadana & Kaul (2011) pointed out that complexity produces bureaucracy and that it is only in a complex environment that institutions become large, relationships impersonal and procedures meticulously worked out and the natural consequence is bureaucracy. Thus, it seems to be an essential ingredient of modern civilization, notwithstanding its dysfunction. Bureaucracy is seen as a structure of control applied predominantly, though not exclusively, to the managerial/administrative processes within an organisation central to which are rules, control and hierarchies combined in a symbiotic relations (Hales and Mustapha, 2000 and Hales, 2002). It is a structure of control used by the administrative arm of an organisation. Bureaucracy in its established form is considered as:

- a place where the work of specialist or expert administrators is arranged in a detailed division of labour of closely-defined and specified roles, coordinated and controlled by a combination of detailed, centrally-imposed rules and procedures and a hierarchy of graded levels of responsibility linked vertically reporting relationships and accountability (Hales, 2002, p.52).

Bureaucracy for Weber emphasised speed, precision, regulation, clarity, reliability and efficiency which can be achieved through creating a fixed set of tasks, imposing detailed rules, regulations and procedures, and monitoring through hierarchical supervision. However, Short (2011) opines that bureaucracy is any administration in which action is impeded by necessary official procedures and red tape. Hence, bureaucracy is associate with delays, inefficiencies and red tapism and it has continue to be a pandemic organisational form. She further, differentiate between machine and professional bureaucracy. In the former, control was exercised through rules and command while in the latter, the central coordination mechanism is the standardization of skills and qualifications and it handled by academics through teaching, research and service. This variation of bureaucracy is most commonly found in higher institutions.
Strategic Management

Lamb as cited in Ejiogu (2011) defined Strategic management as an ongoing process that evaluates and controls the business and the industries in which the company is involved; assess its competitors and sets goals and strategies to meet all existing and potential competitors. It is a pattern of decision, which not only determines the direction of an organization but also reveals its purpose goals, policies, processes, resources and procedure for achieving the goals. Tabatoni and Barblan (2003) affirmed that strategic management aims at leading, driving, coordinating, helping and motivating people, (within and outside the organization) to focus on the organization’s identity, image, corporate culture, worth and value in a new environment; plan long term growth and development, while using its present capacity and fostering its “potential” for development. It entails proper planning and calls for a rational choice among objectives and achievement through specific means. In this context, it is more than planning as it stressed dynamic and critical processes. Strategic management prepares people to project themselves into future, that is, to face new situations in the future at the cost of risk and uncertainty, especially when dealing with changes in structures, models of action, roles, relations and positions.

David as cited in Ofiri and Atiogbe (2011) and Odiba (2012) argued that strategic planning is synonymous with strategic management but Perce and Robinson (2011) and Ofiri and Atiogbe (2011) regarded strategic planning as an integral part of strategic management. To these scholars, strategic management encompasses strategic planning as it describes a set of decisions and actions, which contribute to the formulation, and implementation of plans designed to achieve organizational objectives. Lamb as cited in Ejiogu (2011), conceive strategic management as an on-going process that evaluates and control strategic decisions relating to the individual or corporate entity. It comprised planned, deliberate, dynamic and interactive strategy. It can thus be succinctly puts, that in any institution of learning, strategic management is the educating process of change.

Theoretical Framework

This study focused on the interplay between bureaucracy and strategic management and thus, utilizes a theoretical framework that may be useful in trying to grasp the potential change process between the two concepts. The contingency theory applied to this study is concerned with achieving harmony between organization and its environment, with how the internal institutional structure adjust to fit with present and proposed plans to achieve pre-determine goals. It identifies the necessary initial step of environmental scanning, and understanding the requirements of task and need differentiation from different units. Hence, to analyze meaningfully the changes happening in any organization, one must consider the differences that exist. The theory is based on the premise that situations dictate managerial actions. In other words, no single way of solving problems is best for all situations because tasks and people in organizations differ. Therefore, the methods of managing them must also differ. The way an organization behaves therefore, depends on a number of factors operating within and outside the organization and there is no one best way. It suggests that different conditions and situations require the application of different management techniques. That is, it is not apt enough, to examine only the relationship between sub-systems of a specific organization in a given environment without proffering solutions to particular organizational problems putting into consideration the appropriate structure and system of management,
which is dependent upon contingencies of the situation (Maduabum and Gayya, 2008 and Sharma, Sadana and Kaul, 2011). Contingency theory eliminates any preconceived notions on ideal forms of organization and makes it imperative to study the context and environment in which organizations such as bureaucracy operate. The utility of this theory is obvious then, as it allows the research flexibility in accounting for internal as well as external factors.

**Research Questions**

This study was guided by the following questions:

1. How has bureaucratic structures characterized by hierarchies, centralization and rigid rules given way to decentralized and empowered management characterized by internal networks and strategic plans in HEIs?
2. To what extent has the routine work processes given way for strategic management processes?
3. To what extent has traditional orientation of consistency given way for continuous quality improvement and drive towards change?

**Methods**

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. The population comprised senior management officers, college and faculty administrators, heads of administrative, academic and student services units in the 15 public universities (federal and state) in South West Nigeria. A Purposive sample of 20 respondents was randomly selected from each of the 15 public universities to make a total sample of 300 respondents. This qualitative study used literature review and interview sessions which were conducted using semi structured questionnaire to elicit responses. Findings were discussed based on data collected.

**Results**

**Research Question One:** How has bureaucratic structures characterized by hierarchies, centralization and rigid rules given way to decentralized and empowered management characterized by internal networks and strategic plans in HEIs?

In Nigeria universities system, the characteristics of the bureaucratic structure inherited from the colonial government is still very much inherent. This is evident with features such as bounded defined responsibilities, which are hierarchically arranged and monitored in the universities structures. In modern times, some scholars (Blau and Meyer, 1987; Wilson, 1989; Hales, 2002 and Hummel, 2007) argued that organizations with excessive regulations and hierarchical levels tend to give rise to dysfunction such as delay in different processes and abnegate responsibilities. For instance, Wilson (1989) contended that the bureaucratic system with its centralization and hierarchical features has become irrational and inefficient. Hence, bureaucracy is neither as rational nor predictable as Weber enunciated. Merton in Eneanya (2009) believed that bureaucracy as an organizational form is not necessarily the most rational and effective organizational structure in terms of efficiency. He states that the bureaucratic features, which Weber believes enhances rationality and efficiency, might actually be associated with irrationality and inefficiency.

Invariably, the formal rationality can contribute to organizational ineffective by building up the sources of alienation and resistance and fueling the struggle of power against authority. Contrary to all these views, which point to bureaucracy dysfunction, Ostorm and
Waldo as cited in Eneanya (2009) argued that bureaucracy is unavoidable for effectiveness and efficiency of administrative processes in organizations. Majority of the participants interviewed believe that it works well with time, but no longer relevant to the modern age, especially: its features of monopolies, centralization, hierarchies, rigid rules, as well as impersonal treatment. In addition, the review of literature confirmed that there is tension in literature concerning the applicability of ideal bureaucracy in organizations. In a world of rapid change, technological revolution, global economic competition, knowledge explosion, educated work force, and severe fiscal and monetary constraint, bureaucracy with its feature of centralization, monopoly and hierarchy will be unresponsive to change or innovation. It is on this basis that Emmanuel (2009) concluded that bureaucracy is not coherent and convincing enough for modern organization.

Furthermore, the findings of Hales (2002) question whether decentralization necessarily gives rise to new forms of managerial work. He claimed that moving away from bureaucracy towards decentralization or empowered organizations where there are no hierarchies and rigid rules could be illusory, as this does not probably bring about changes in managerial behavior predicated on such moves. On this basis, he succinctly affirmed that there could be no radical departure from bureaucracy, but an attenuated version of bureaucracy where transmitted and monitored rules would focus more sharply on outcomes. In other words, flattened hierarchies should make way for flexible empowered units and teams. This may seem impossible, but scholars such as Shapiro (2001) confirmed that big bureaucratic organizations do operate changes but these changes are consequent of strategic thinking, decisions, planning and management.

Research Question Two
To what extent has the routine work processes given way for strategic management processes?

Wilmot as cited in Eme and Emeh (2012) argued that routine processes are opposed to man’s freedom, as it does not allow for spontaneous thinking and reactions. Though the structure and pattern of routine work processes such as habits, norms and culture try to regulate behavior, lay the basis for reciprocal expectations and reduces arbitrariness, unpredictability and potential disorders, bureaucracy has used it to replace decision-making and this negates the principle of accountability, which is essential in strategic processes. According to Solos (2009), HEIs are being forced to transform decision-making processes and to radically change part of their operating assumptions. However, the processes for achieving transformation have evolved to include focus on strategic quality through the improvement of a variety of administrative and instructional processes whereby emphasis will be on openness, honesty, creation of vision, mission, strategic decision-making processes and outcomes.

In recent times, there have been great strides in the development of technologies for gathering, distributing and analyzing information. These technologies have challenged long-standing assumption about organizational structures and processes. Though computers have empowered many workers by taking over routine procedures, in some quarters they have simply reinforced organizational hierarchies, division of labour and routines. Successful strategic management process in HEIs requires an understanding of the context of the HEI’s vision and mission and it is denoted in three dimensions of strategic analysis (past position),
strategic formulation (present position) and strategic implementation (future position). The strategic management process as against the routine work process that does not allow for evaluation and change, emphasized strategies development, evaluation and selection before implementation.

The strategic management process starts with strategic analysis of the internal and external environment as well as HEIs capabilities and position as depicted in figure 1. The external environment identifies the opportunities and threats while the internal environment identifies the strengths and weaknesses. This process is followed by strategic formulation (present position). At this point, the SWOT analysis of proposed strategies will be carried out, taking into account the alternatives from which the preferred strategies will be chosen. However, targeting a future position, a successful strategic implementation, calls for long term plans, goals and objectives that can bring about positive change within HEI.

Figure 1. Strategic Management Process in HEI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past POSITION</th>
<th>Present POSITION</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Past and Present set of CAPABILITIES</td>
<td>Present and Future set of CAPABILITIES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Strategic Analysis (DETERMINING)

External Environment Analysis
- Industry Analysis
- Competitive Analysis
- Market Analysis
- Environmental Analysis (Opportunities and Threats)

Internal Environment Analysis
- Financial Analysis
- Capability Analysis
- Capacity Analysis
- Value Chain Analysis

Strategic Formulation (MATCHING)

Strategic SWOT and Strategic Issues

Developing Strategic Alternatives

Evaluating and Selecting a Preferred Strategy

Strategic Implementation (CREATING)

Short-term Plans, Goals and Objectives
- Strategic Intent Programmes
- Contingencies

Long-term Plans, Goal and Objectives
- Strategic Intent Programmes

Strategic Management = Strategic Analysis + Strategic Formulation + Strategic Implementation

Research Question Three: To what extent has traditional orientation of consistency given way for continuous quality improvement and drive towards change?

Bureaucracy assumes that by being impersonal promises objectivity and consistency. Invariably, it affirms that the human elements should be removed. This bureaucratic belief
that consistency in itself has value has been a limiting factor in bureaucracy. Hummel (1998) and Ginsberg (2011) acknowledged that consistency in decision-making and problem solving can sometimes be a barrier to innovation, creativity and continuous quality improvement. They believed that much of the problems with reforms in HEIs have to do with consistency of decision-making where it is applied without recourse to outcomes. Keohane and Nye (2000) corroborated their position and opine that excessive concern for consistency in organizations; especially complex organizations like the universities will only make it moribund. They however, call for changes within the universities in terms of vision, strategy, structure and even leadership and believe that this is a step in the right direction, if only the government can lend their support to this quality motion which they are agitating for presently.

According to Short (2011), the process of quality improvement entails shared vision, cooperation and shared ownership and to achieve all these, there must be commitment that will not only sustain the quality environment but also actively support it for continuous improvement. This has informed the practices of industries with focus on quality customer service. Similarly, if HEIs are to focus on quality in their faculty and output, they would have to apply the approach within the industry and this requires a lengthy process of reactive behavior and not consistency. In actual fact, facing challenges of global competition depend on reactive behaviors of HEIs. The bureaucratic structure emphasized decision-making based on specified behaviors and codes and sway from decision-making that propels judgment (Ordorika, 1996). However, Al-Habil (2012) submitted that maintaining status quo in the name of consistency will render HEIs unable to face challenges and respond to the changing environment. Following this trend, Kettunen (2008) affirmed that continuous improvement is an essential principle to achieve quality in HEI and this can be achieved using the framework of quality cycle of improvement in HEIs. This is a process whose main focus is on research and development as the basis for support services and education and it follows a sequential process of plan, do, check and act taking into cognizance continuous improvement and feedback in the process. It is envisage that this framework will give HEIs the leverage to establish and achieve objectives thereby moving towards change.

Figure 2. Quality Cycle of Continuous Improvement in HEIs
**Discussion**

The findings of this study relating to bureaucratic structures and empowered management networks in HEIs revealed that there is a strictly organized hierarchical system and accountability lines in the universities. In addition, the university structure features bounded defined responsibilities, which are hierarchically arranged and monitored. The participants continuously refer to hierarchical lines, which have helped to delineate the function of each cadre. In other words, there is a clear delineation of each staff responsibility and this finds its full justification in the level of competence of each staff. The coordination of tasks in the universities relies on standardized procedures and guidelines as well as rigid rules, which have subordinated the collegial structure and further weakened faculty and students participation and decision-making (Ordorika, 1996). Although, the modern management critics of Weber bureaucracy are seeking to replace the foundation of the Weber framework, the position of this paper, which relates to that of Thompson (2003), calls for the adoption of a shift from the bureaucratic experience to the designs and practices that would transform HEIs. That is, where the bureaucratic structure becomes centralized, flattened, organized around generic value-creating processes and specific competencies, high performance practices and teams, balanced responsibilities and accountability, information technology and alliances of networks.

The discourse with participants revealed on one hand that the universities are still adhering to the routine culture, which does not allow for personal initiative, creativity, growth and development while on the other hand, they are pressing for changes, as their experiences with competition reveal the inefficiencies of traditional forms of regulation. Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2011) supported this view with their submission that
defensive routines have spread throughout the universities thus rendering it even more difficult to transform. Hence, to sustain the managerial moves in the dynamic strategic direction, there is need, to turn values and norms into models and patterns (Tabatoni and Barbblan, 2003, Ginsberg, 2011 and Teay, (2012).

Furthermore, it was found that consistency is needed to survive hyper competition in HEIs, especially in terms of social, political and knowledge network and relationships, this accounts for its adherence. Interestingly too, majority of the participants supported the view that quality improvement cannot be sacrificed at the expense of consistency especially with the new imperative for quality assurance in HEIs (Cullen, Joyce, Hassal and Broadbent, 2003 and Babajide, 2008). This explains the introduction of different internal and external reforms going on in the universities.

Conclusion

The results of this study have made it possible to conclude that bureaucracy had a major influence on the structure and management of universities and HEIs in general. The discourse reveal a clear evidence of universities adopting bureaucratic approach in management as characterized by hierarchies, centralization, routine work process and some form of consistency. Today, HEIs are clearly in the midst of rapid change in response to environmental social, economic, technological, and political transformations across the globe. Consequently, there is need for transformation, creation, articulation and adoption of new institutional strategies and decision-making processes to enable HEIs to achieve their aim, expand their horizon, make meaningful contributions to national development and survive.

The consequential and imminent changes in the institutions did not remove the emphasis on hierarchy and technical qualification expected of employees of large firms, which is an element of bureaucracy. Rather, it has led to recruitment of employees utilizing new skills and new technologies. In addition, the recent trends in institutions and reforms have led to the evolvement of new institutional integration and networks. Hence, one cannot advocate the abandonment of bureaucratic organizational structures as many organization including HEIs still follow this structural model of bureaucracy with extension in information communication mechanisms. The organizational structure of HEIs has become flexible with frequent use of information and communication networks enabled by globalization in today’s society. Although there have been widespread of organizational change programs agitating for decentralization, the substance of these changes must be thought through , as there has not been cases of total absence of hierarchies and regulations rather the strategic management imperative has attenuated the forms to make it more efficient. Also centrally imposed rules have come to focus more on performance evaluation, a necessary ingredient for strategic quality moves.

Despite all the criticisms of Weber’s bureaucracy and the attempts to replace it, it must be noted however, that bureaucracy has some real strengths. In other words, there are places where bureaucracy works better and there are places where it does not work. Put differently, the strengths of bureaucracy are evident under certain circumstances, but when situations are different, bureaucratic virtues can becomes its vices. Hence, the conclusion that the end of bureaucracy has come may not be generally acceptable. At best, maybe we can say that the time to restructure bureaucracy and bring in new development to it has come. There
is a need to restructure bureaucracy to adapt to new and complex problems particularly in this era of globalization. It is to this end, that this study recommends a framework of strategic management and quality cycle for external evaluations and internal quality improvement. As such, a shift will be required in the face of imminent change in HEIs.

**Recommendations**

Structurally, hierarchy should be de-emphasized to get rid of the conventional organizational pyramid, which leads to centralization and impersonal conflicts. This will help to redesign HEIs structure where authority will be decentralized to enable field units to take decisions as fast as possible, without delay. And not compromising accountability in the process. In addition, Communication or free flow of information unhindered by the status-level in the organization should exist for speedy and effective decision-making. Institutional adaption is highly recommended as solution to universities challenges. This can be accomplished utilizing research efforts, which seek to contribute towards endowing the universities with a mission and objectives structuring its routines and ensuring its goals are visible. The HEIs environment should be more organic with more flexible structures, less formal rules and greater mutual adjustment. This will allow HEIs to be more innovative and adapt easily to the strategic management process. Change is not an easy process; the greatest challenge to HEIs is understanding and being prepared for the nature of change. To this end, it is recommended that there must be attitudinal re-orientation of all stakeholders (internal and external) as a blind option to combat resistance to change and embrace structured strategic moves.

**References**


Public-Private Partnership and Infrastructural Development in Nigerian Universities: Oduwaiye,
Abstract

This study investigated the degree to which Public-Private Partnership (PPP) services are related to infrastructural development in Nigerian Universities. The research design used was descriptive survey method. The population for the study encompassed all the 20 universities in South-west Nigeria. Stratified random sampling was used to select 12 universities comprising of Federal, State and Private universities in the south-west geopolitical zones in Nigeria. Simple random sampling techniques were used to select 2,500 participants. The findings of the study revealed a significant relationship between PPP and the provision of infrastructure (.024) with df (1:2498) and p<.05). There was also a significant relationship between PPP and maintenance of infrastructure (.026) with df (1:2498) and p<.05). The implication of these findings is that university goal achievement cannot be determined with only PPP and provision of infrastructure but may also be determined by the extent to which these facilities are adequately provided. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended among others that competent units be established in every university to monitor construction, standard and maintenance of all infrastructure. Plus public enlightenment programs to encourage community participation in the development of infrastructures in the universities.

Keywords: Public-Private Partnership (PPP), Infrastructural Development, Public entity, Private sector.

It is evident that government resources allocated to education have not been enough to (a) maintain the existing infrastructure (b) meet the rising demand because of growth in students’ population and increased public expectations (Omolewa 2008; Ibitoye 2006, Adesina 2005). These crucial concerns about the ability of governments to finance educational services sufficiently, the poor performance of public education service delivery systems, and the desire to apply the choices available to educational consumers have now prompted educators, researchers, and all stakeholders interested in providing quality education for all students to search for solutions. Public-Private Partnership (PPP) though old but new is a vehicle for providing and financing public infrastructure in our institutions and it is rapidly receiving attention by educators as they proactively seek to bring about significant change in educational practices especially in the university sector.

The PPP is a concept that was embraced from developed countries and introduced in the reform agenda for the realization of the vision 2020 plan. The concept aimed at enhancing the quality performance of public enterprises through private investment in cash or
kind particularly in a number of undertakings that can best be executed by private groups. The PPP also known as Private Finance Initiative was introduced in Australia in the late 1980s but popularized by John Mayor’s government in the United Kingdom in 1992. United Kingdom had the largest and sophisticated Public-Private Partnership school programmes in 1992. New South Wales had the first successful PPP projects which made all government officials pledge to use PPP for all future school buildings. Also Canada built 39 schools using PPP contract model in the late 1990s. Public-Private Partnership model includes Build-Own-Operate (BOO), Built-Transfer (BT), Lease-Developed-Operate (LDO), and Build-Buy-Operate (BBO) among others (Ijaiya and Jekayinfa, 2008). Any of these can be used in collaboration with the government for the improvement of the university infrastructure.

In Nigeria, and other developing countries, access to education can be accomplished through PPP where government delivers the minimum standard of services while the private sectors bring in skills and competencies, (Ijaiya and Jekayinfa, 2008) which was what the Christian missions used when they introduced education. The Federal Government called the interested communities, private individuals and religious organizations and were given the right to establish schools to complement the efforts of the governments (FGN, 2004). On access and provision of quality education, the government invited private sectors to work with the government because private providers can deliver a range of input and services with the expectation that they will introduce new pedagogical skills and management efficiencies (Ola, 2009). Virtually, every Nigerian university faces one type of infrastructural problem or the other. Many of these universities have numerous abandoned or uncompleted projects, damaged and obsolete furniture, library books, laboratory and students’ hostels are insufficient for the ever-increasing number of students. The importance of educational facilities cannot be overstretched as these resources are pre-requisites for adequate academic performance. Private partnership in infrastructure is not new to the world in general and particularly Nigeria, because Christian missionaries brought in Western education through the southern Nigeria. They started as private venture which later led to private partnership with the government as education was growing beyond what the private could accommodate financially. By 1970, the government decided to take over schools from the private. Little did the government realize that the upsurge from UPE of 1976 onward will make the burden of education heavy for it to bear?

As a result of the inadequate finance to education and the subsequent degenerative educational infrastructure, the 2008 education reform agenda of the then President Olusegun Obasanjo called for Public-Private Partnership (PPP) which recognizes the existence of alternative option for providing education services. There are many forms of PPP like Build Transfer (BT), Build-Operate-Maintain (BOM) and Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT) among others. Tony (2004) described PPP as the involvement of the private individuals, non-governmental organization, social organization and public sectors with contributions from the government towards the provision of necessary physical structures to the different levels of educational system. It is a contract between a public sector institution and private party in the provision and maintenance of public infrastructural projects (Ogunwole, 2008; Ipaiye, 2000; South African Law, 2011).

Various forms of PPP intervention abounds (Zakari, 2007; International Monetary Fund, 2004). Three distinct categories are: the design-build-finance-operate scheme. Under
this scheme, the private sector does not have any intention of transferring the utilities to the government after design; build, operate and manage an infrastructure (DBFO). Examples are: BOO – Build-Own-Operate, BDO – Build-Develop-Operate, and DCMF – Design-Construct-Manage-Finance. In this second category, private operators buy or lease government assets, renovate and operate without any obligation to return it to the government. These are: BBO – Buy-Build-Operate and LDO – Lease-Develop-Operate.

Unlike the first two categories, the private sectors design, build-operate and transfer to the government after the agreement date expires. These include: BOT – Build-Operate-Transfer, BOOT – Build-Own-Operate-Transfer, BLOT – Build-Lease-Operate-Transfer, BTO – Build-Transfer-Operate; and DBOT – Design-Build-Operate-Transfer (pp.29-40). The common feature in PPP in less-developed countries is where the government builds an infrastructure and the private sector manages it. At times, the private sector is given concession by the public sector to manage and maintain asset. According to Harris (2003), the private sectors do feel reluctant to place their capital at risk in the developing countries, this is why lease and management contracts are more common.

**Infrastructural Facilities in Nigeria Educational System**

Infrastructural facilities are the physical, permanent, semi-permanent structures and instructional materials which are put in place to enhance effective teaching-learning process in the schools. Oyedeji (1997) observed that the availability and utilization of infrastructural facilities in the school system is one of the indices for measuring standard and the quality of the education provided in the schools. The nature of infrastructural facilities that are used in Nigerian educational system are classified into school plants, (building and library), instructional material, equipment, landscaping, communication efficiency and transportation. School plants categories are buildings and other structures that are put in place in the interest of teaching-learning materials, instructional materials are those pedagogical materials that are used in the schools in the pursuit of the organizational goals achievement (Peretomode, 2001). Suleiman (2000) however, observed that the necessary infrastructural facilities in Nigerian educational system could not be shouldered alone by the government. It called for the contribution of all such as public, private sectors, Parent-Teacher Association, TEFFUND, philanthropists to come to the aid of the educational sector in the provision and maintenance of the infrastructural facilities. Weiss (2008) noted that the provision of infrastructural facilities in Nigerian universities is currently in the hand of the public, private sectors and philanthropists, the public sectors such as TETFUND, while the private sectors include the philanthropist donation of building, hall and public-private partnership in the infrastructural facilities for business purposes. In summary, the private partners under PPP should provide the following range of services separately or in various combinations: providing spaces or land for buildings; management of public schools (with the existing staff and facilities); Non-educational services (catering, transportation of students); teacher training; furnishing and or equipping existing libraries/other infrastructure. Provision of teaching services in private schools to publicly funded students’ education (school voucher system); infrastructure facility services (designing, construction and maintenance of school building); operation of public schools (provision of teaching and non-teaching services including staff); educational services; providing maintenance services and utilities; and support services (ICT facility library, gymnasium).
Rationale for Public-Private Partnership (PPP) in University Infrastructure

The challenges faced by higher educational institutions in Nigeria especially the universities include increasing cost, access to university education, moral decadence, decreasing quality of education and an explosion in the context of declining resource, resource inputs particularly from the government. Today, serious issues facing university education include inadequate outdated academic equipment in various laboratories, inadequate infrastructure, obsolete equipment for research, brain drain among others. The need for universities to survive in the formation and higher demand for university degree has become a serious need for any career and the desire for graduate education on the increase. For this reason, an increase desire in the growth of population of Nigeria requires serious attention in the expansion of higher education to accommodate the rising number of secondary school students seeking university degrees.

The increasing quest for acquisition of university education which has resulted into higher population in the university without steady and gradual provision of infrastructure is a problem that is being investigated. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of participation of PPP has on the provision of infrastructural facilities in Nigerian universities. Specifically, the purpose is to identify the extent to which various models influence infrastructure in Nigerian universities. Examine the involvement of Public-Private Partnership in infrastructural facilities.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to sharpen the focus of this paper and guide the study.

1. What are the types of infrastructural facilities provided in South-west Nigerian universities by the private sectors?
2. What are the areas of intervention of PPP sector in the South-west Nigerian universities?
3. What are the maintenance cultures adopted for infrastructures provided by PPP?

Research Hypotheses

1. There is no significant impact of Public-Private Partnership on the provision of infrastructural development in South-west Nigerian universities.
2. There is no significant impact of Public-Private-Partnership in maintenance of infrastructural facilities in Nigerian universities.

Methodology

The research design used for this study was the descriptive survey. The population consisted of the six states in South-West, Nigeria. Purposive sampling technique was used to select four out of the six states representing 66%. The selected states were Oyo, Ogun, Osun and Lagos. There were 20 universities (4 Federal, 5 State and 11 Private) in the four states as at the time of study. Three universities in each State i.e. (1 Federal, 1 State and 1 Private) were selected making a total of 12 universities using stratified random sampling technique. Random sampling technique was used to select 2,400 participants (48%) out of 5000 target
Results

Research Question 1
What are the types of infrastructural facilities provided by private sectors in the South-west Nigerian universities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of university infrastructural facilities provided by private sector</th>
<th>Federal</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Private</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Buildings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of laboratories</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of faculties of Law Libraries</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of 1,200 Seater Lecture Theatre for Faculty of Science</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of Lecture Theatre for Faculty of Agricultural Science</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of University of Ibadan Event Centre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of Lecture Theatre of various capacities</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostels</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Rehabilitation Work Project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Multi-Disciplinary Laboratories</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records/Administrative Office</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of Chalets</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of Male and Female Hostels</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underground Water Tank, Borehole and Plumbing network</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Supply</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the different types of infrastructural facilities provided by private sectors in selected universities. The private sector provided various buildings like Information Communication Technology (ICT) centres with necessary computers, modern sanitaria for students’ convenience both in the hostels and around the lecture rooms/halls etc.

Research Question 2
What are the areas of intervention of PPP in the South-west Nigerian universities?

Areas of intervention of PPP in the universities in South-west, Nigeria
Table 2 shows the list of areas of intervention by PPP in the universities in South-west Nigeria. It indicates facilities by sub-titles such as buildings, procurement, provisions, among others.

**Research Question 3**
What is the maintenance cultures adopted for infrastructures provided by PPP?

Table 3
Maintenance cultures adopted for infrastructure provided by PPP in the universities in South-west Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Disagreed</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adhoc</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>10.13</td>
<td>2157</td>
<td>89.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>18.67</td>
<td>1952</td>
<td>81.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrective</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>2186</td>
<td>91.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preventive</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>2043</td>
<td>85.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>8.78</td>
<td>2189</td>
<td>91.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that none of the maintenance culture was actively adopted for the infrastructure provided by PPP as shown by the responses of the participants. Changes in weather and lack of maintenance culture are responsible for the aging and deterioration of buildings and equipment. As observed by Asiabaka (2008) educational managers who use educational facilities are deficient in the knowledge of facilities maintenance planning. Thus, they fail to incorporate facility maintenance into management of educational institutions. Renovation and repairs only take place when problems occur as a result of breakdown of existing facility. Maintenance of infrastructure has not been practised with topmost seriousness hence, the need for PPP and all stakeholders in education to develop the right maintenance culture and policies depending on the environment and structure in order to gain or achieve maximum benefits from the structures provided.
There is no significant impact of Public-Private Partnership on the provision of infrastructural development in South-west Nigerian universities

**Table 4:** Public-Private Partnership on the Provision of Infrastructural Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>110.433</td>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>29.451</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of Infrastructure</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ y = 110.433 + 1.150x \]

R² of .61 implies that 61% changes in provision of infrastructure can be explained by the influence of PPP.

**Table 5:** ANOVA Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.(F)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>82.526</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>82.526</td>
<td>5.024</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>Ho: Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>8383.884</td>
<td>2399</td>
<td>3496.197</td>
<td>-2.696</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8383964.9</td>
<td>2399</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>7.247</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result from Table 4 shows that there is 61% level of significance of PPP on the provision of infrastructure while table 5 shows that sign (F) .026 is less than .05 level of significance with df of 2,399 with which this hypothesis was tested, therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant impact of PPP on the provision of infrastructure was rejected.

HO₂: There is no significant relationship between Public-Private Partnership and maintenance of infrastructural facilities in the universities in South-west, Nigeria.

**Table 6:** Public-Private Partnership and Maintenance of Infrastructural Facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>45.751</td>
<td>1.176</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>38.920</td>
<td>.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of Infrastructure</td>
<td>8.818</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>1.157</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ y = 45.751 + 8.818x \]

R² means a unit increase in public-private partnership will be due to 58% changes in maintenance of infrastructure.

**Table 7:** PPP and Maintenance of Infrastructure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.(F)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>342.917</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>342.917</td>
<td>1.339</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>Ho: Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>613930.0</td>
<td>2398</td>
<td>256.018</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>614272.9</td>
<td>2399</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>7.247</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that R² is .582 which means that there is 58% level of significance while table 7 shows that sig. (F) .026 is less than .05 level of significance with df of 2399 with which this hypothesis was tested. Therefore the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant relationship between public-private-partnership and maintenance of infrastructural facilities was rejected.

**Findings and Conclusion**

Public-Private Partnership (PPP) areas of intervention included buildings, procurement, rehabilitation, transportation and equipment provision. The study also revealed
that the private sector provided buildings, rehabilitation and supply of equipment. The findings also showed that Public-Private Partnership (PPP) failed to adopt any of the mentioned culture effectively. Adhoc (10.13%), emergency (18.67%), corrective (8.92%), preventive (14.87%); situational (8.78%). The hypothesis tested also showed that there was also a significant relationship between Public-Private Partnership (PPP) and maintenance of infrastructure in the universities, calculated with \(R^2 .58\) sig. \((F) .026 < .05\). Conclusively, it is evident that Public-Private Partnership (PPP) is a new awakening in the nation’s educational system. If adequately employed is a vehicle which can enable the educational institutions to efficiently and effectively provides and manage their available infrastructure for the ultimate aim of achieving educational goals.

**Recommendations**

This study established that Public-Private Partnership (PPP) assistance in university infrastructural facilities provision enhance the achievement of university goal to some extent and therefore based on the findings the following recommendations were made. The various experts in the provision of infrastructure like organizations, philanthropists, communities and government through PPP should ensure genuine and continuous provision of university infrastructural facilities such as hostels, lecture rooms, theatres, computer laboratories, libraries, ICT among others, in order to improve and add to students’ comfort on the campus particularly in the teaching-learning situation. A very reliable and competent unit should be established in every university to monitor the continuous construction of infrastructural facilities that would accommodate the increasing rate of students’ enrolment for the possibility of attaining goal achievement. Community services should be encouraged through various and meaningful enlightenment programmes like seminars, workshop, conferences where universities provides land and encourage communities to invest and contribute to its infrastructures. Every university should enforce the appropriate maintenance strategies in order to avoid dilapidation and to achieve ultimate benefits of these infrastructures through the use of qualified maintenance consultant, while PPP should encourage regular and continuous inspection of these infrastructures. Maintenance policies of university infrastructure should cover such important aspects as renovation, replacement, preservation, and cleaning.

**References**


Unemployment, Entrepreneurial Education and Mega Universities: Challenges to Expanding Access in Education in Nigeria University: Undie, John Atehoble\textsuperscript{17} & Okafor, Victor\textsuperscript{18}

Abstract

In fundamental economics, individuals acquire education for two broad reasons, as an investment and as consumption. The investment function of education has continued to create tension for job search leading to cases of unemployment. Entrepreneurship education and establishment of mega universities have been identified as panaceas. This paper, reviewed the inter-play of expanding access with its accompanying challenges in a growing economy. Expansion of access to education is likely to be accompanied with challenges of job creation after schooling.

Key Words: Unemployment, entrepreneurial education, Mega universities, Nigeria.

The level of preparedness for the take off of such venture is frontal. Access to education is one of the constructs in education that has continued defied solution. It is the opportunity to participate in education. In an effort to dwell on this topic one question that readily comes to mind is whether access to success or success to access should be the guiding principle when talking about expanding access in education. The expansion of access in education has many implications, top on the list is the problem of quality and the management of the expanded opportunity granted individuals to participate in education. Essentially, parents and others are worried of the dwindling access to university education in Nigeria. It is even worse off for universities in the southern part of Nigeria. The introduction of post UME has further compounded the situation. The scenario has placed vice chancellors in a vantage position to determine the number of candidates to be admitted each year. In the University of Calabar, Nigeria for instance, the vice chancellor directs; that out of the quota of 40 candidates to be admitted in a particular department, the department is allowed to fill in only 35 candidates and the remaining five will be supplied by his office. This situation runs across the entire faculties. With these developments, the quota system has carefully been eroded as such vice chancellors seem to have lost sight of the actual essence of quota system. For even those admitted are taken serially on merit. The criteria of locality and education less disadvantage states are now only here in principle. Therefore, the quota system of admission could as well be regarded as the vice chancellors list. This is also applicable to other universities in the country.

This development calls for urgent need to expand access in education for Nigeria nation to be able to come close to achieving Millennium Development Goals (MDG’s) by 2015, which is just a stone throw from now. For the nations’ universities to move ahead and

\textsuperscript{17} Educational Foundations, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University, Bauchi

\textsuperscript{18} Nwafor Orizu College Of Education, Anambra State
create enhanced access there is need for a brand of education that will guarantee access and yet create job needed to be brought to focus. It is in this light the entrepreneurship education is now being emphasized by the federal government to create an entrepreneurial mindset. This implies the reinvention of the Nigerian university education through functional curriculum that will enable the learners respond to the peculiar needs of the moment.

Nigeria has 9 universities as at October 25th, 2007, about 41 polytechnics and 62 colleges of education as at 1998. (UNESCO, 2000). Nevertheless, despite the effort of the government to create about 2 million jobs per annum, most university graduates stay far above the age of 34 years before entering the first job (not career), and marriage, yet the average life expectancy at birth for Nigerians is 54 years. Each of the youth is entering and age fraught with risks and laden with opportunities, not just for them but for their families, their societies, and their economy. Together, their experience will determine the quality of the next generation of workers, parents and leaders. Decisions about developing their skills, about starting on the road to financial independence and about engaging with the broader civic community will have long-lasting effects that have repercussions far beyond them and their families.

Bello (2003) opined that unemployment incidence in Nigeria affects energetic youths within the age of 20, 24 and 24, 40 years more than any other group age in Nigeria. This implies that many youths with dynamic resources wander around without gainful engagements. However, a further breakdown of Bello’s analysis shows that the secondary school leavers were worse hit by the unemployment crisis in Nigeria. For the polytechnics and university graduates, Bello (2003) shows a relatively low unemployment rate as compared to the school leavers’ experience. In 2006, the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) conducted a large survey involving more than 10,000 online participants, to track the “products” of Nigerian educational sector (not necessary tertiary sector). One of the objectives is to determine who the products are, their backgrounds, capabilities and need to inform a long-term strategic planning process for the education sector. The survey targeted the beneficiaries of Nigeria’s secondary, tertiary, technical or vocational institutions and the individual who graduated or discontinued their education from institutions from 1995-2005. The survey clearly showed a disturbing trend that over 60% of the participants were unemployed or under employed, with this, huge human capital waste in Nigeria.

Skill Mismatch

Skill mismatch is a major concern in Nigeria where tertiary education graduates acquire skills that are not demanded by the labour market. There seems to be a skill mismatch problem, especially with respect to area of petroleum, gas, agriculture, manufacturing, solid minerals, tourism and ICT as identified in the education sector status report produced by Federal Ministry of Education in 2003. Nigerian society has the bias for some popular courses such as Economics, Law and Medicine, which has resulted in skill mismatch. Table 1 shows that there was a week positive correlation between university manpower production and Nigeria productive sector. The study further shows that there was a skill mismatch. The economy was getting much of its contribution from the industrial service oriented labour. For instance, the percentage share of service oriented disciplines was 52.04 in 1978 when the industrial sector produced 63.77 percent of the GDP as against the 5.92 percent of GDP contribution by the service sector. Moreover, on average, while the service sector contributed only 7.15 to the economy, the university system was producing
53.54 percent of its products in service-oriented disciplines. This trend seems to be present with us in Nigeria today.

Table 1: Trends in Skill Mismatch in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrial GDP</td>
<td>63.77</td>
<td>65.94</td>
<td>64.93</td>
<td>58.26</td>
<td>57.87</td>
<td>60.72</td>
<td>61.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMP</td>
<td>28.96</td>
<td>19.63</td>
<td>19.46</td>
<td>22.21</td>
<td>17.35</td>
<td>16.36</td>
<td>15.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial GDP</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>29.30</td>
<td>33.74</td>
<td>33.32</td>
<td>30.40</td>
<td>29.13</td>
<td>30.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMP</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>27.55</td>
<td>26.85</td>
<td>28.84</td>
<td>28.14</td>
<td>24.42</td>
<td>28.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service GDP</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>7.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMP</td>
<td>52.04</td>
<td>52.82</td>
<td>53.69</td>
<td>48.95</td>
<td>54.51</td>
<td>59.22</td>
<td>55.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Babalola (1990)

Notes: Industrial sector comprises extractive, manufacturing, building and construction industries; GDP and UMP represent gross domestic product and university manpower production respectively.

Table 2: Sectorial Distribution of Advertise Vacancies in Nigerian Newspapers and Magazines 1992-2003

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and Quarrying</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>1291</td>
<td>788</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>6.261</td>
<td>18.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electric, gas &amp; water</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>3.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Restaurant &amp; Hotels</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>458</td>
<td>1.860</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport &amp; Comm.</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>3.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banking Finance &amp; Real Estate</td>
<td>999</td>
<td>25498</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>3,109</td>
<td>9.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Service</td>
<td>3021</td>
<td>2599</td>
<td>1022</td>
<td>1673</td>
<td>1745</td>
<td>18483</td>
<td>55.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6021</td>
<td>4041</td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td>5177</td>
<td>33226</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Newspapers and magazines in the first Quarter of 1994-2007 Total for 10 years

Table 3: University graduates required and employed by GSM providers, dealers and agents 2005-2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>Anticipated employment</th>
<th>Actual employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration/Accountancy</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>68.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering/Technology</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>12.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical &amp; Pharmaceutical</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sciences</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>10.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Polytechnic graduates required and employed Global System of Mobile Communication (GSM) providers, dealers and agents 2005-2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplines</th>
<th>Anticipated employment</th>
<th>Actual employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment Studies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer and Science Technology</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Science and Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering and Technology</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>48.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/Management</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting/Insurance/Financial</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretariat Studies</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic and Legal Studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: National Manpower Board (2006)

Labour Mix

It has been identified by scholars that apart from skill mismatch, there is a structural mismatch between middle and upper level manpower production in Nigeria. Available statistics (FME, 2003) indicates that in 1998, the graduates’ output of the polytechnics was 9,344 while in 1999 that of universities was 67,024, while in polytechnic-university ratio of 1.7. This inverted pyramidal structure of manpower production contradicts existing theories and earlier submissions of the Ashby commission concerning the ratio of middle and high-level manpower required by Nigeria economy. Contrary to the prescription by COREN (FME 2003) that the relationship for engineering occupations in Nigerian should be 1 engineer to 6 technicians to 60 craftsman (60:6:1) institutions of learning in Nigeria supplies manpower in ratio 4:17. For tertiary institutions as represented by polytechnics and universities, instead of the expected ratio 6 polytechnics graduate to 1 university graduate, Nigeria has a ratio 1:7 indicating high underemployment at the top level.

Graduates’ preparedness

Dabalen and Oni, (2000) probed the levels of graduates’ preparedness for productive employment in Nigeria by answering the questions: are university graduates in Nigeria adequately educated? How do employers assess the qualifications perform when they are able to obtain employment? Based on an analysis of available labour statistics and interviews with managers from 55 public enterprises, the study shows that prospects for employment among graduates worsened over time as the share of graduates going into the public sector fell drastically. The study further reveals that: The unemployment rate of university graduates in Nigeria is around 25 percent. University graduates are poorly trained unproductive on the job. Graduate skills have steadily deteriorated over the decade (1990 to 2000). Shortcomings are severe in oral and written communication and in applied technical skills. In many cases, employers compensate for insufficient academic preparation by organizing remedial courses for new employees. This increases the firms’ operating costs, and reduces their profitability and competiveness.
## Table 5: Registered Employed, Vacancies Declared and Placements by Level of Worker
Year registered, vacancies, placement, unemployed declared

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>High-Level</th>
<th>Low-Level</th>
<th>High-Level</th>
<th>Low-Level</th>
<th>High-Level</th>
<th>Low-Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>11732</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>1533</td>
<td>80(15.44%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>23239</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>3989</td>
<td>172(96.09%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>256623</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34947</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>96580</td>
<td>4165</td>
<td>11156</td>
<td>3595(17.96%)</td>
<td>2139</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>89752</td>
<td>10182</td>
<td>7637</td>
<td>3695(36.29%)</td>
<td>1917</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>981995</td>
<td>81730</td>
<td>32942</td>
<td>4182</td>
<td>3708(11.26%)</td>
<td>1119</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>85368</td>
<td>104960</td>
<td>6583</td>
<td>115(0.10%)</td>
<td>1389</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>85648</td>
<td>94663</td>
<td>7010</td>
<td>121(0.13%)</td>
<td>1389</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures in Parenthesis are Percentages of registered unemployed.

### The National Strategic Statement

Responding to the global call contained in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for poverty alleviation to enhance welfare of majority of the world population, the Obasanjo’s administration developed a poverty paper known as the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategic (NEEDS) to improve the quality of life of Nigerians significantly by attacking poverty through empowerment of the poor and other vulnerable groups. This strategy of empowerment becomes necessarily given that overall economic growth by itself may not necessarily generate poverty reduction at the desired pace. NEEDS broad Targets include: average per capital consumption growth of at least 2% per annum, creation of about 7 million jobs over the period 2004-2007, increase in immunization coverage of at least 60% by 2007, access to safe drinking water to an average of at least [70% (urban and rural), adult literacy rate of at least 65% by 2007. Very few countries in Africa higher education has a means to reduce poverty and most see it as less importance than primary and secondary education. In 2005, out of the 3 to 31 Africa countries that saw higher education as a poverty reduction tool, Nigeria happens to be one. Nevertheless, Nigeria seems to have replicated the ideas in the World Bank’s University innovation project, by sector without much attention to other tertiary education therefore, specified the following goals of tertiary education between 2004 and 2007.

- Strict adherence to the university Autonomy Act.
- Diversification of funding, including attracting private sector and hostel accommodation.
- Update and restructuring the curricula to meet the demands of the national economy.
- Mainstreaming of science and technical education, especially ICT.
- Effective monitoring of universities and adherence standards.
- Developing innovative approaches to ensure continue re-tooling and capacity building of lectures in order operate at the cutting edge of their disciplines.
- Increasingly moving towards decentralized a competitive wage bargaining system among the tertiary institutions, there by promoting performance-based reward system.
- Mass mobilization and values re-orientation among students to emphasize diligence, discipline, and self-service.
Table 6: Trends in University’s Contribution to National Productivity and Public Education Spending (using productivity as a proximate indicator of development)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>University’s Contribution to National Productivity</th>
<th>Education as % of Total Public Budget</th>
<th>University Recurrent Budget</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>79/80</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>28.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80/81</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>7.80</td>
<td>38.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81/82</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>33.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82/83</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>42.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83/84</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>37.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84/85</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>37.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85/86</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>31.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86/87</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>39.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87/88</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>40.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88/89</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>24.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89/90</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>21.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90/91</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>23.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91/92</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>30.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92/93</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>7.30</td>
<td>25.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93/94</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>14.90</td>
<td>25.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94/95</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>25.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95/96</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>22.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96/97</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>11.50</td>
<td>21.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97/98</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98/99</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>11.10</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Babalola (2001)

Table 7: Trends in University’s Contribution to National Growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Education contribution to National GDP at 1990</th>
<th>% University Contribution to National Productivity</th>
<th>Community Contribution</th>
<th>% University Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>81/82</td>
<td>45553.72</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82/83</td>
<td>4596.33</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83/84</td>
<td>4642.93</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84/85</td>
<td>4687.53</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85/86</td>
<td>4732.13</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86/87</td>
<td>4776.74</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87/88</td>
<td>4821.34</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88/89</td>
<td>4865.94</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89/90</td>
<td>4910.55</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90/91</td>
<td>4955.15</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>91/92</td>
<td>4979.64</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>92/93</td>
<td>5046.83</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93/94</td>
<td>5116.40</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94/95</td>
<td>5151.69</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95/96</td>
<td>5150.22</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96/97</td>
<td>5222.77</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97/98</td>
<td>5267.37</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98/99</td>
<td>5311.97</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99/100</td>
<td>5356.57</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>NA (not availab.)</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00/01</td>
<td>5401.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01/02</td>
<td>5445.78</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02/03</td>
<td>5490.38</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Promotion of Wage Employment and Encouragement of Self-Employment

Nigeria government seems to have tried these two types of labour market policies. For instance, the federal ministry of labour and productivity has a network of 31 employment Exchange and 17 professional and Executive Registries. These Exchanges advertise vacancies for applicants seeking employment. They also provide vocational guidance and counselling for potential secondary school leavers. The government also set up the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) as an employment agency to develop four major programmes: Vocational Skills Development (VSD); Small Scale Enterprises (SSE); Rural Empowerment Promotion (REP), and Special Public Works (SPW). The programmes have the following training strategies: Vocational Skills Acquisition, entrepreneurship/business training, rural employment promotion, labour based works, employment counselling and linkages as well as resettlement of trained beneficiaries to set up their own businesses. The VSD programme is carried out by the NDE’S Vocation Skills Development Department and targets unemployed graduates and non graduates. Such school leavers are attached to master craftsmen and women for period long enough for the apprentice to acquire necessary skills, in the rural areas where master craftsmen and women are inadequate or non existing, well equipped mobile workshops (school on wheels) are deployed to train unemployed persons who have no resources to come town in order to access this programme. FME, 2003 states that in 2000 alone, about 129,146 unemployment of NDE across the country. The National Poverty Eradication programmes (NAPEP) Youths’ Employment Scheme also involved capacity acquisition and mandatory attachment programmes for the unemployed. In 2002, a total of 180,000 were involved as beneficiaries of NAPEP’s programmes.

Recommendations

Creation of mega universities by government and private sector to solve problems of access. These mega universities must teach self-reliant curriculum. Entrepreneurship education must be incorporated in the curriculum. The Nigerian university has to be reinvented along the lines of jobs and creation rather than job search. More power planning board has to be alive to her duties for carefully rationalizing skill mismatch and monitoring what is produced from tertiary institutions to eliminate wastage in manpower production and utilization.

References

Academic Quality Control in Nigerian Universities: Exploring Lecturers’ Perceptions: Obiekezie, E. O\(^{19}\); Ejemot-Nwadiaro, R. I\(^{20}\); Essien, M. I\(^{21}\). & Timothy, A. Essien\(^{22}\).

**Abstract**

*The level of job performance, international comparability and competitiveness of Nigerian university graduates are burning issues. Consequently, the academic quality of Nigerian universities has come under severe criticism. Since university lecturers are key players in quality control in universities, this study explored their perceptions of variables important to quality control in Nigerian universities. Five hundred lecturers from public universities in the South-South geopolitical zone responded to a 25-item questionnaire. Five research questions were framed and simple percentages were used in analysing the data. The result showed that according to the lecturers; availability of an adequate number of qualified staff, students’ attitude to study, early publication of students’ examination results, availability of well-equipped laboratories and workshops, and funding of tertiary education were the most important variables in academic quality control.*

**Keywords**: Quality control, university education, lecturers.

Education is generally recognised as the bedrock of sustainable development and as such, inestimable premium should be placed on how high quality education is sustained. Quality education has become optimum desire of every nation; attention should thus be given to the mechanisms of its promotion. The level of job performance, international comparability and competitiveness of Nigerian university graduates are burning issues. Okebukola (2006:28), states that the state of university education in Nigeria is characterised by massive explosion in students’ enrolment, increasing numbers of prospective new entrants in the face of inadequate and obsolete infrastructure and equipment, inadequate academic staff in terms of both numbers and quality, lack of relevance of academic programmes and low quality of graduates. Okebukola consequently attributes the decline in education quality to under-funding, inadequate numbers and quality of academic staff, inadequate physical facilities and equipment, overcrowding arising from increase in demand for higher education. Seven years later, the situation seems not to have improved. In the same vein, Adelabu and

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Akinwumi (2013), comment that there has been a downward trend in the quality of Nigerian tertiary institutions.

Quality is defined as "conformance to requirements"(Crosby, 1979: 17). In other words, quality is conformity to established standards. It is further conceptualised as the value we attach to a product and the price we are willing to pay for it. The British Standards Institute defines quality as “the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bear on its ability to satisfy needs.”(Babalola, Adedeji & Erwat, 2007: 242).

Quality of education is often considered an indefinable construct that is nebulous and at best abstract. Adegbesan (2007) points out that product in education are different from product in industry since the later is “a definable and tangible item (output) manufactured according to specifications”. However, the fact that even the uneducated lament the poor quality of education is an indication that there must be something tangible with which the quality of education is assessed.

Therefore, quality education, according to Mosha (1986:34) is “measured by the extent to which the training received from an institution enables the recipient to think clearly, independently and analytically to solve relevant societal problems in any given environment”. According to Adegbesan (2007), comparability and international competitiveness of educational products are the central characteristics of education quality. In addition, Nwokocha (2012) remarks that the quality of education is synonymous with the quality of teachers. Oboegulam (2010), however, sees education quality from the point of view of the products of education that is human capital. A more holistic perspective of education quality is that offered by Maduewesi (2005) who posits that educational quality as encapsulating learning content, how learning is organised and managed, what goes on in the learning environment and the outcome of learning. Furthermore, Ciwar (2005) identifies the following as indices of quality in tertiary education: admission policy, supervision, quality of teachers, standard of instructional and infrastructural facilities, programme duration, course content, quality of examination items and the university environment.

Quality control in the University

The Federal Ministry of Education (2008) expects the Nigerian tertiary education system to be (i) relevant and responsive to the need of the society (ii) adequate in quantity and quality with a well motivated, highly skilled and qualified staff whose products are knowledgeable, technically competent and adequately prepared for fulfilled life and for positive contribution in the society (cited in Ayo-Sobowale and Akinyemi 2011). Therefore, education quality that falls short of such expectations would be considered inadequate and incapable of meeting the needs of the society and preparing its products for life in a globalised world. Quality control refers to deliberate, evidence-based strategies and processes of satisfying quality norms and criteria from the point of view of processes, environment and product. Although there are attempts to delineate between quality control and quality assurance with control defined in terms of products and assurance having to do with the process (Adegbasen, 2011, Onyesome & Ashibogwu, 2013), both mechanisms are interwoven. Wherever, there is quality assurance, there has to be quality control. Adegbesan (2011:149), for instance, describes quality control as "one of the strategies for establishing quality assurance.” Okojie (2013) acknowledges that although Quality Assurance (QA) and Quality Control (QC) are not synonymous, most organisations use them interchangeably.
Whereas "QA inspects the process ... QC controls process and the end product."(Okojie, 2013:7).

**The roles of the teacher in education quality and control**

As the quality of university education comes under severe criticism in recent times, it has become imperative for internal and external mechanisms to be deployed to control education quality. Although there are many stakeholders whose contributions may enhance quality, the university lecturers are considered central to the quality process. The European Trade Union Committee for Education General Assembly (2001) concedes that education is a complex process whose final outcome is the result of the interplay of several factors. However, the committee observes as follows: “…it has also to be recognized that the work of the teacher in the classroom plays a crucial role in this whole system. What is happening in the classroom is “the moments of truth” in the education system. There are very few measures which could be taken to really improve education which would not involve the teacher and practice in the classroom. (2011:4). In other words, central to issues of education, quality is the teacher and teaching. The National Policy on Education (2004) unequivocally states that no educational system can rise above the qualities of its teachers. As a corollary, no tertiary education quality can supersede the quality of the lecturers. Thus, Ajayi and Ekundayo (2008) argue that teachers are responsible for ensuring positive changes in the lives of students in terms of skill acquisition, mental and moral development. Similarly, Adegbesan (2011:147) hints at the central role of the central role of teachers in ensuring education quality by observing that quality education can only be achieved in a nation, if the principal actors such as the teachers, learners and the environment are cooperatively organized. “In other words, the teacher must be adequate in quality and quantity, the students must be well trained and facilities must be provided as well.” Consequently, this paper examines university lecturers' perception of factors important to quality control mechanisms. It is expected that this paper will draw lecturers' attention to their specific roles in ensuring that the quality of university education is optimum and coheres with the market logic of modern university education.

**Methodology**

This study is an ex post facto design. Five hundred lecturers from ten universities in the South-South region of Nigeria were randomly selected for the study. Five research assistants were employed to administer questionnaires entitled “Quality Control Variables Questionnaire (QCVQ) to the participants. The anonymity of the respondents was guaranteed. The name and contact information of the corresponding author were provided on the questionnaires. Of the 500 respondents, 298 were male while 202 were female. 30% of the respondents were from Faculty of Education. For years of experience, majority had between 6-10 years of teaching experience (24.4%). Most respondents (74.2%) had PhDs. Only lecturers from federal and state universities participated. The names of the universities that were used are in Appendix 2, while the questionnaire is in Appendix 3. Full demographic information is given in Appendix 1 The questionnaire elicited data on each lecturer’s perception of internal and external variables important to quality control in Nigerian universities. For validity, the instrument was examined by three experts in test and
measurements and based on their suggestions, the items were reviewed. The Cronbach alpha reliability index was .77. This was considered sufficiently high.

Research questions:
1. What teacher-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in university in South-South zone in Nigeria?
2. What student-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in university in South-South zone in Nigeria?
3. What examination-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in university in south-south zone in Nigeria?
4. What administration-related variables do lecturers perceive as important to academic quality control in Nigeria universities?
5. What government related variables do lecturers perceive as important to academic quality control in Nigeria universities?

Results
Simple descriptive statistics were used to analyse the data. The data were presented in frequencies and percentages. To answer the research questions, the percentages for Strongly Agreed and Agreed for each item were summed and used as evidence of the respondents’ perception of the importance of the item, while the sum of the percentages for strongly disagreed and disagreed were used as evidence that the respondents considered the item as unimportant.

Research question 1

What teacher-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in university in south-south zone in Nigeria?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Factors important in academic quality control</th>
<th>Responses (Frequency) N = 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of qualified academic staff</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>384 (76.8)</td>
<td>50 (10.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ computer literacy and use of modern technology/ teaching methods</td>
<td>143 (28.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ regular attendance of a professional conferences</td>
<td>180 (36.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ skill in lesson presentation</td>
<td>224 (44.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers’ mastery of subject matter</td>
<td>300 (60.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The lecturer-related variables that lecturers perceived as important to academic quality control were number of qualified academic staff (86%), lecturers’ skills in lesson presentation (78%) mastery of subject matter (72%). Also considered important were
lecturers’ knowledge and use of ICT (58.8%); while lecturers’ regular attendance of professional conferences was perceived as important to academic quality control in universities in Nigeria by 66 percent of the respondents. The result is presented in Table 1.

**Research question 2:** What student-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in universities in South-South zone in Nigeria?

Table 2  Student-related variables of quality control in Nigerian universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student-related variables important to quality control in Nigerian universities</th>
<th>RESPONSES (frequency) N = 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ familiarity and use of ICT</td>
<td>80 (16.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to relevant study materials</td>
<td>85 (17.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ attitude to studies</td>
<td>350 (70.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ restiveness</td>
<td>20 (4.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ entry qualification</td>
<td>30 (6.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With reference to student-related component of academic quality control, 70 percent of lecturers strongly agreed and 20 percent agreed that students’ attitude to studies was the most important variable. Students’ preparedness for examination was considered next in importance as 17 percent strongly agreed while 70 percent agreed. The result is presented in Table three. It is therefore evident that from lecturers’ perspective students’ attitude to studies and access relevant study materials are more important to academic quality control than knowledge and use of ICT, their entry qualifications or restiveness.

**Research Question 3**

What examination-related variables do lecturers perceive to influence quality control in universities in south-south zone in Nigeria?

**TABLE 3:** Respondents’ perception of examination associated factors of academic quality control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examination-related variables important to quality control</th>
<th>RESPONSES (frequency) N = 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All examination questions vetted and moderated by senior members of the academic staff</td>
<td>78 (15.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All final year exam questions moderated by an external examiner</td>
<td>30 (6.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vetting of marking scheme for each course</td>
<td>77 (15.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference marking of students’ scripts</td>
<td>91 (18.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early publication of students’ results before the start of a new semester</td>
<td>240 (48.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With reference to examination related factors in quality control in Nigerian universities, the result showed that 48 percent of the lecturers strongly agreed, while 38.8 percent agreed that early publication of students’ result was important. Regarding moderation of examination questions, 15.6 percent of the respondents strongly agreed, while 20 percent agreed. For vetting of marking scheme 15.4 percent strongly agreed and 16 percent agreed; while for conference marking 18.2 percent strongly agreed and 2.6 percent agreed. The result is presented in Table 3.

**Research Question 4**

What internal administration-related variables do lecturers perceive as important to quality control in Nigerian universities?

**TABLE 4: Internal administration-related variables important to academic quality control**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Internal administration–related variables important to academic quality control</th>
<th>RESPONSES (FREQUENCY) N = 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessible university owned internet in your department</td>
<td>50 (10.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessible university library with modern e-books or links to journals</td>
<td>300 (60.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spacious and well-equipped classrooms/theatres</td>
<td>272 (54.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-equipped laboratories/ workshop</td>
<td>400 (80.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students-teachers ratio</td>
<td>290 (58.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data analysis showed that well-equipped laboratories and workshops were perceived by most respondents (80%) as most important, students - teacher’s ratio was perceived by eighty-four per cent (84.2%) of the lecturers as important. Eighty-three percent (83%) of the lecturers’ perceived availability of spacious and well-equipped classrooms/theatres as important. Accessible university owned internet in university departments was considered important to academic quality control by seventy-nine percent of the respondents (79%). The least in the internal administration –related variable that lecturers considered important was accessible university library with modern e-books or links to journals (66%). The result is presented in Table 4.

**Research Question 5**

What government related variables do lecturers perceive as important to academic quality control in Nigeria universities?
TABLE 5: Respondents’ perception of government-related variables of academic quality control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>RESPONSES (FREQUENCY) N = 500</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>funding of tertiary education</td>
<td>321 (64.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accreditation of courses in universities by NUC</td>
<td>297 (59.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University autonomy</td>
<td>52 (10.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and staff industrial relationship</td>
<td>129 (25.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admission processes</td>
<td>80 (16.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 5, 64.2 percent of lecturers strongly agreed that funding of tertiary education was an important government-related variable in academic quality control in Nigerian universities. Concerning other variables 59.4 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that accreditation by the National Universities Commission (NUC) is important, while the least important was university autonomy (10.4%). From the analysis, the government-related variable which lecturers considered as most important to academic quality control to Nigerian universities were funding and accreditation processes. The result is presented in Table 5

Discussions

Whenever nations seek progress, innovation and development, they tend to look to the educational sector for directions. Unfortunately, the educational system, especially university education in Nigeria has been subjected to severe criticism for quality. Since the teacher variable is considered pivotal to academic quality, this study, therefore, explored academic quality control variables in Nigerian university through the prism of the university lecturers. The results showed that the lecturer-related factor lecturers perceived as most important to academic quality control was number of qualified staff followed by lecturers’ skills in lesson presentation. This position is supported by Adegbesan (2011), Ajayi and Ekundayo (2008) as well as The European Trade Union Committee For Education General Assembly (2001), who have all linked quality education to the quality of teachers and teaching. Thus, the Federal Ministry of Education (2009) revealed that as at 2006, there were only 2739 academic staff as opposed to the required 50,000. Even President Good luck Jonathan is quoted by Adeyemo (2012) to have said at a forum in Bayelsa State, while interacting with scholarship recipients that about 60 percent of lecturers in Nigerian universities did not have doctorate degrees. When this is compounded with the large influx of students into universities, one can, therefore understand why the university system cannot perform optimally. The number of qualified academic staff is therefore a crucial factor in university quality control.
Another variable perceived by lecturers as crucial to quality control was students’ attitude to studies. Nuthana & Yenagi, (2009) identified poor study habit as one of the factors responsible for poor academic performance. According to Attitude toward study contributes significantly to academic achievement. Until the students develop and sustain positive attitudes to their studies, sophisticated equipment and infrastructure as well as superlatively skilled personnel can only become museum pieces incapable of demonstrating academic quality. After all, the final measure of academic quality is the student and not the plethora of equipment and facilities. Furthermore, the finding that early publication of students’ examination results was the most important examination related variable academic quality supports research that feedback is significant to students’ performance (Ajogbeje, & Alonge, 2012; Ajogbeje, Adewale, and Olarenwaju, 2013). If students’ results are released early, they can remedy any shortcoming. There are cases where students have reached their final year in the university before their second year results were released. For academic quality control therefore, it is important for students’ result to be published expeditiously.

In addition, the findings that availability of well-equipped laboratories and workshops, and funding of tertiary education were the perceived by lecturers as the most important internal administration-related variable and government-related variable, respectively shows the relationship between funding and adequacy of school facilities. Without adequate funding from government internal administration’s well intentions cannot be translated to reality. This is consistent with Umoh (2002), who identified funding as an aspect that must be looked into if the quality of university education must be improved in the country.

**Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, there seems to be a strong link between funding of university and most of the variable which lecturers perceived as pertinent to quality control. Therefore, the following recommendations are made. There is need to increase funding to higher education in Nigeria. This will facilitate improved infrastructure, employment of high quality lecturers and by extension mitigate the frequent industrial disaffection between government and university unions. Students need to develop more positive attitude towards their studies. This will stem the spate of examination malpractice and the low prestige of Nigerian university degrees. Finally, lecturers need to explore opportunities for advance professional development and also sharpen their pedagogical skills to match the sophistication of the modern Nigerian student.

**Conclusions**

The paper investigated the academic quality control variables that lecturers perceived as important. Questionnaires were used in collating data from 500 lecturers, from lecturers in five federal and five state universities in the South-South the study sought to find out lecturers; perception of geopolitical zone of Nigeria. The data were analysed, using simple percentages. Five research questions were framed to guide the study. The results showed that lectures perceived availability of adequate number of qualified staff, students’ attitude to study, early publication of students’ examination results, availability of well-equipped laboratories and workshops, and funding of tertiary education as the most important variables in academic quality control. It is apparent, therefore, that well equipped laboratories and
workshops, spacious classrooms, employment of highly qualified academic staff and modern libraries in universities derive directly from the issue of funding. It is interesting to note that students' attitude to studies and lecturers' skills in lesson presentation were also implicated in the quality control matrix.

References


Umoh, M. O. (2002). “Reducing Teachers Instructional Deficiencies in some content area of the senior secondary school, Biology for sustainable development”. Proceeding of the 43rd, Annual conference of STAN and Inaugural conference of CASTME Africa of STAN, pp. 219 – 223,
Abstract
This paper posits an articulation between skill acquisition and development. It attempts to critically reposition tertiary education curriculum in order to avert mass production of academic dregs in Nigeria. The issue of unemployment in Nigeria and the need for restructuring tertiary institutions’ curricula to include entrepreneurial studies as the only way out of the present predicament being faced by the teeming graduates seeking for unavailable jobs is discussed. It is recommended that focusing on entrepreneurial training would lead to skill acquisition, job creators rather than job seekers and a mass reduction in youths’ unemployment in Nigeria.

Key Words: Education, Curriculum, Skills, Unemployment, National Development

Education is a vital tool for national development and youths’ empowerment. Jimoh (2010) states that Education is a process through which individual are presented with a number of experiences to make them acquire relevant knowledge and skills, which will make them useful to themselves and their individual communities. Objectives of Higher Institution vis-à-vis Education in line value orientation for the survival of the individual and the society; with section 8 sub (59) of the National Policy on Education (2004) are itemized as follows: The acquisition, development and inculcation of the proper, the development of the intellectual capacities to understand and appreciate their environment, production of effective and efficient high level manpower for national development; development of self-reliance and creativity; the development of the ideal skills and attitudes necessary for the development and advancement of prosperous, free and peaceful nation.

The role assigned to entrepreneurship for economic growth and development, especially in the developed economies such as USA, Britain, Japan, Canada and so on made other developing economies adjust their developmental concept and plan. This is why they see entrepreneurship education as a vital means of solving their economic problems (Akeusola, 2012). He opines that entrepreneurship education started emerging in the mid-1980s and concluded that unemployment and poverty eradication was not part of the government’s agenda as we have now. In the same vein, Arogundade states that political instability and inconsistencies in the social-economic policies of successive governments have led to the emergence of high level of unemployment in Nigeria. No wonder why in the mid-80s, Nigeria witnessed a lot of economic hardship that led to unemployment and early retirement of workers. During the periods of economic upheavals, the country was not

awaken to entrepreneurship innovations that would have cushioned those effects of the country’s economic problems (Akeusola, 2012).

Table 1: Human Development Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroun</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIGERIA</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Arunma Oteh (2009)

A critical look at the table above reveals that it is pertinent to consider and have a rethink about the role of entrepreneurship education in encouraging human capital development. Arogunade (2011) equally observed that tertiary education has not been properly included in the philosophy of self-reliance such as creating a new cultural and productive environment that will promote pride in primitive work and self-discipline. It is against this background that this paper sets to look into entrepreneurship education and as a prerequisite for nation building and economic development. Olaleye, (1999) summarizes the main objectives of Entrepreneurial development as follows: to develop a pool of potential Entrepreneur who are well equipped to start and successfully manage small and medium scale industries. Encouraging self-employment as a conscious predetermined choice. Reduction of dependence on government and large firms for salary employment. Uplifting the dignity of labour. Upgrading the social status of the average Nigeria University student after graduation. Stimulation of rural development and the achievement of a meaningful level of broad based economic and industrial development generally.

In view of Krugman (1992), the economy is something that most of us take for granted in our daily lives and bother less about. Even when we think about it, what mostly concern us most is “its” ups and downs. We hardly ever ruminate about considering the economy as a whole, as a system (Beinhocker, 2007: and Krugman, 1992). Awogbenle and Chijioke (2010) are of the opinion that over the years, youth employment opportunities have been dwindling all over the world. The global economic met down that crept in 2009 had a negative impact on Nigeria economy and that the youth unemployment in the country had assume an alarming proportion, according to Raimi, (2010) which has made the youth to engage in avalanche of misplaced risky undertakings such as kidnapping, 419, Armed robbery, drug trafficking among others in order to make ends meet. According to Drucker
(1985), entrepreneurship is perceived as the creation of a new organization, regardless of its ability to sustain itself, let alone make a profit. Omotayo (2006), however, defined entrepreneurship as the act of starting a company, arranging business deals and taking risks in order to make a profit through the education skills acquired.

Entrepreneurship is a creative and innovative response to the environment, especially in the field of business, agriculture, education, social work, amongst others. Entrepreneurship is therefore the willingness and the ability of a person or persons to acquire educational skills to explore and exploit investment opportunities, establish and manage a successful business enterprise (Arogundade, 2011) while Joseph (1934) defined the entrepreneur as a person who applies innovation with the context of the business to satisfy unfulfilled market demands. It is an undisputable fact the extent of a nation’s greatness is judged primarily by the extent of her scientific and technological advancement.

Objectives of Entrepreneurship Education

Entrepreneurship education according to Paul (2005) is structured to achieve the following objectives. To offer functional education for the youth that will enable them to be self-employed and self-reliant. To provide the youth graduates with adequate training that will enable them to be creative and innovative in identifying novel business opportunities. To serve as a catalyst for economic growth and development. Offer tertiary institution graduates with adequate training in risk management, to make certain bearing feasible. To reduce high rate of poverty, create employment generation and reduce rural-urban migration. To provide the young graduates with enough training and support that will enable them to establish career in small and medium sized businesses. To inculcate the spirit of perseverance in the youths and adults which will enable them to persist in any business venture they embark on. Create smooth transition from traditional to a modern industrial economy.

Strategies for Effective Entrepreneurship Education

For effective entrepreneurship education that will enhance sustainable development in Nigeria, the following strategies according to Ayodele (2006) will help to alleviate the problem of entrepreneurship education in the country: There should be some form of genuine school-work-based learning incorporated in some studies as part of the national economic development strategies. The development of apprenticeship scheme would give new graduates some work skills and experience. Pull local, public and private funds to create a small venture capital fund. School-based enterprises where students identify potential business, plan, create and operate small business using the school as mini-incubators. Provide small business schools where interested students and community members can participate. Develop entrepreneur internship programmes matching students with locally successful entrepreneurs with clearly established education programmes. Establishing an enterprise college aimed at fostering the specific skill sets required for entrepreneurship to serve as skill acquisition centres for the youths. Creating an economic friendly political environment. Improving on the government taxation on small scale businesses.

It is not a gainsaying that tertiary education has not been properly designed to include the philosophy of self-reliance such as creating a new cultural and productive environment that will promote pride in primitive work and self-discipline, encouraging people to take part actively and freely in discussions and decisions affecting their general welfare, promoting
new sets of attitudes and culture for the attainment of future challenges. That is why Nwangwu (2007) opined that the failure of tertiary education to inculcate the above philosophy in students has led to wastages in terms of both human and natural resources. This is because the graduates from tertiary institutions are not equipped with the skills with which to exploit the natural resources that abound in Nigeria. All these factors have rendered the pursuit of self-reliance among Nigerian graduates difficult to retain. Other problems identified by Ayodele (2006) include irrelevant education that is bookish, theoretic and white-collar job oriented.

LEARNING PYRAMID

![Learning Pyramid Image]

*Source: Obanya (2012) Learning Pyramid*

Entrepreneurship Education is a combination of practice by doing 75% and teach others vis-à-vis for immediate use 90%. Thus, entrepreneurship studies would promote effective learning and human and national development. Our educational system was geared to the West and not to Africa, talks less of Nigeria.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The problem facing many African countries (Nigeria inclusive) ranges from high rate of poverty, youths and graduates’ unemployment, overdependence on foreign goods and technology, low economic growth and development among others. Entrepreneurship education will equip students with the skills to be self-reliant and better prepared to face the challenges of a constantly changing world. It is quite evident that Nigeria lagged behind in entrepreneurship education, which is globally believed to foster economic development. Based on this, it is therefore recommended that the Nigeria government and other educational stakeholders should ensure the incorporation and implementation of entrepreneurship education at all levels of Nigerian educational system. Government should pay attention to various challenges that are involved in an attempt to make Nigerian citizens self-reliant and self-employed through the acquisition of relevant skills and experience for national economic development. Employment is the life line of Nation-building. Human development will definitely be grossly undermined and impaired without employment (NEEDS’ document 2004). The Entrepreneurial development programme, should be an urgent mechanism to
Avert youths’ unemployment and Nation-building be specifically designed for the Nigeria youths so that they could be well formed about the world of business and opportunities for them to create their own business rather than being job seekers.

In the light of the above findings, the following recommendations are proffered towards enhancing Higher Institution approach to Entrepreneurial development for youth employment and Nation-building. That the Federal Government should fast track the power sector reforms and re-stabilize the power sector to end the looming energy crises in the country. This is to encourage entrepreneurship activities in the country, as power is a major factor that propels the economy of a nation. The inculcation of entrepreneurial development course in all Higher Institutions’ curriculum in Nigeria is advisable and imperative. That the regulatory bodies in the higher education system in some African countries particularly in Nigeria be merged in order to bring them to a manageable number that would assure inflow of funds into the system.

References