

# **KIU Journal of Social Sciences**

**Faculty of Social Sciences**



**Kampala International University**



## Editorial

The world over, the delivery of social services is increasingly difficult. Citizens are demanding more and better social services, notwithstanding the fact that their governments' resources are increasingly inadequate. Over the years, the desire to surmount this inadequacy of resources and provide satisfactory social services has motivated various innovations. Some of these innovations have worked. Conversely, some have presented challenges that, in turn, require innovative solutions. Kampala International University acknowledges the fact that, amidst this state of affairs, it is incumbent upon the scholarly community to contribute to the generation, discussion and dissemination of the much needed innovations. It is with this cognizance that the Management Board of *Kampala International University Journal of Social Science* dedicates a special issue of the Journal to the discussion of contemporary issues in social services management.

In this issue, several authors reflect on contemporary issues in education management. Salami delves into the correlates of job stress and burnout among university lecturers, with the conclusion that incidence of these problems is related to personality and social support. Natolooka and Nyiransabimana examine the causes and consequences of the gender gap in disfavour of women in Rwandan education. They implicate poverty, child labour and dysfunctional cultural practices for the gap. Accordingly, they recommend the promotion of awareness about the benefits of women's education; provision of scholastic materials and scholarships to girls; and discouragement of child labour and cultural practices that foil the retention of girls. Bakkabulindi et al. address the correlates of utilisation of internet facilities among doctoral students, taking the case of Kampala International University. The team reports insignificant relationships between gender, level of income and perception of the advantages that the internet offers, on one hand, and the utilisation of internet facilities, on the other. Grounded on these findings, they make recommendations pertaining to the deserving foci of efforts to promote the utilisation of these facilities at the University. Starting with an examination of students' perceptions of university management related inadequacies affecting their completion rates, Duze makes some recommendations pertaining to the improvement of the supervision of postgraduate students in a Nigerian setting. Reporting on a study that investigated the relationship between teachers' salaries and work performance

in Iganga District, Kibikyo and Samanya reveal that salary is not a significant predictor of teachers' work performance. This is with the result that relevant policy persons are urged to look beyond increasing teachers' salaries and pay attention to the non-financial factors affecting teachers' work performance. Finally, Mwesigwa reports on the relationship between English language competence and academic performance at Kampala International University, a topical issue in this era of increasing south-south flows of international university students.

Jude Ssempebwa  
Kampala International University  
P. O. Box 20000 Kampala  
judessempebwa@kiu.ac.ug

October 2010

## Job Stress and Burnout among Lecturers: Personality and Social Support as Moderators

SAMUEL O. SALAMI  
University of Ibadan

**Abstract.** The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of job stress, personality and social support to burnout among college of education lecturers. The second purpose was to examine the extent to which personality and social support can buffer the negative effects of stress and burnout. Survey methodology was used. Job stress, personality and social support were used to predict emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. The findings showed that job stress, personality dimensions and social support jointly and separately predicted dimensions of burnout. Personality and social support interacted with job stress to predict personal accomplishment. These findings support the view that, environmental and personal factors influence burnout. Thus, improvement of lecturers' classroom management skills, social networks and assessment of their personality traits may mitigate the incidence of burnout among them.

**Keywords:** Job stress, personality, social networks, burnout

### 1 Introduction

Burnout is defined as a chronic affective response pattern to stressful work conditions that feature high levels of interpersonal contact, Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) conceptualized burnout as consisting of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion refers to the feeling of being emotionally over-extended, tired and fatigued. Depersonalization refers to the tendency to develop negative, cynical, callous or detached attitudes towards the people with whom one works. The Third component is the loss of or reduced feeling of personal accomplishment derived from jobs and employees often evaluate themselves negatively (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

Burnout as an individual negative experience occurring as a result of chronic work stress has become prominent in teaching professional literature since the mid-1970s'. There is a general view that teacher burnout may have a negative impact on the teachers themselves leading , for instance, to emotional and physical ill-health , and on the students as burned out teachers may be

relatively impaired in the quality of teaching and commitment, may give less information and less praise as well as interact less with students. Job stress and burnout serve as impediments to the lecturers' research functions in higher education. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of job-related stress, personality and social support to burnout among a previously unstudied element of the population, college of education lecturers. A secondary objective was to examine the extent to which personality and social support can buffer the negative effects of stress on burnout in the lecturers.

Studying stress and burnout among the college of education lecturers has implications for improving understanding of job-stress and burnout as well as for enhancing their working life. Understanding environmental and personal influences on burnout may hold benefits for institutions and lecturers. Appreciating the environmental and personal factors that influence burnout can help human resource specialists and career counsellors forecast burnout as well as factors related to early manifestation of burnout. From such information, appropriate intervention strategies that will combat burnout and enhance employee and organizational wellness can be developed. Although considerable research has studied stress and burnout, further research is warranted to identify new factors that might mediate job stress-burnout link.

The work of a typical university, polytechnic or college of education lecturer could be divided into four groups namely, teaching, conducting research, civil obligation and administration (Makinde & Alao, 1987). The intensity and frequency of influence of involvement in any of the broad groups of job activities depend on the rank of the lecturer. With increasing number of roles that students, parents and employers demand from lecturers, it is no wonder that lecturers' stress and burnout are on steady increase. This has invariably affected the research functions of the lecturers in tertiary institutions.

Colangelo (2004) defined teacher stress as an unpleasant feeling that teachers experience as a result of their work. Stress has effects on a person's physical, emotional and psychological well-being. Past research on job stress among postsecondary lecturers has identified numerous sources and variables affecting stress levels as well as burnout (Brewer & McMahan, 2004). For example, researchers have consistently reported time pressure (Barnes, Agago & Combs, 1998), high self expectations (Smith, Anderson & Lovrich, 1995), research and publication demands (Blix, Cruise, Mitchell & Blix, 1994) as significant sources of job stress. Salami (2006) also identified heavy workload, working under pressure, large classes, students' disruption of lectures and delayed and inadequate salaries as sources of stress among college of education lecturers in Nigeria.

Empirical evidence has shown that, teachers experiencing more stress were burned out (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991, Kokkinos, 2007; Moore, 2007). The manifestation of burnout is a function of stressors engendered at both the environmental organization and personal levels. Kokkinos (2007) found that managing student misbehaviour, teachers' appraisal by students, workload, and

time constraints were predictors of burnout. Byrne & Hall, (1989) found out that role conflict, work overload, classroom climate and decision making are all organizational factors that contributed to teachers stress and eventual burnout. In a recent study, Lue, Chen, Wang, Cheng and Chen (2010) found that job stress and work hours predicted burnout among first postgraduate year residents. Furthermore, researchers have found that job stress particularly role stress and other role-related problems were moderately to highly correlated with burnout (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001; Maslach et al. 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).; Thomas & Jankau,2009). Therefore, it was expected that job stress will predict burnout.

Personality stands for a person's values, preferences, needs, stable dispositions or emotional characteristics. The use of five-factor model of personality developed by Costa and McCrae (1992) to study the process of burnout has been applied to various populations. The five-factor model of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992) described adult personality in terms of neuroticism (susceptibility to psychological distress), extraversion (the disposition towards positive emotions, sociability and high activity), openness (the proclivity toward variety, intellectual curiosity), agreeableness (the inclination towards interpersonal trust and consideration for others), and conscientiousness (the tendency towards persistence, industriousness and organization).

Research on personality correlates of teacher burnout indicated that neuroticism was associated with burnout (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). Kokkinos (2007) found that teachers' personality traits were significant predictors of three burnout dimensions. According to him, high levels of neuroticism and low levels of agreeableness were predictive of emotional exhaustion, for depersonalization, neuroticism was the most important predictor whereas personal accomplishment was predicted by low levels of neuroticism and high levels of extraversion and conscientiousness. Similarly, Lue et al., (2010) reported that introversion, conscientiousness and having negative affectivity predicted burnout. However, Kokkinos (2007) found that neuroticism was a predictor of personal accomplishment in a different direction. These results were not consistent because different personality instruments were used to measure personality traits. For example, some authors used the five-factor personality model by Costa and McCrae (1992) while others used Eysenck's model of personality measures, thus making interpretation of the results difficult. Therefore, it was expected that the lecturer's personality will predict dimensions of burnout with the use of the five-factor personality measure by Costa and McCrae (1992).

Social support is the physical and emotional comfort given to an individual by his/her family, co-workers and others times of need. It has been found that social support can buffer the negative effects of stress ( e.g. Bonfiglio, 2005; Cheuk, Wong & Rose, 1994; Wong & Cheuk, 2005), although such positive

effects of social support have not been identified in some other studies (e.g. Kahn & Byosiere, 1992). Consequently, results from these studies were not conclusive. For this has made the investigation into the effects of social support in buffering the relationship between job stress and burnout warranted. Therefore, it was expected that social support will predict burnout and interact with job stress to predict burnout.

In studying burnout among postsecondary lecturers, researchers have identified some demographic characteristics. For example, Byrne and Hall (1989) found that demographic variables had a stronger impact on postsecondary educators than they had on educators at other levels (i.e. primary, intermediate and secondary). Jackson (1993) and Kim-Wan (1991) found significant differences in levels of burnout among teachers relative to demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, tenure status, academic rank and workload. However, Dillon and Tanner (1995) did not report such findings.

### **1.1 Theoretical framework**

This study was based on person- environment (PE) Fit theory and the transactional model of stress and burnout. These are the most widely accepted frameworks for conducting research on job-stress and burnout (Brewer& McMahan, 2004; Edwards, Caplan & Harrison, 1998; Edwards& Cooper, 1990; Kokkinos, 2007; Spielberger& Vagg, 1999). Person-environment fit is the degree to which individual characteristics harmonise with those of his or her environment (Meyer & Dale, 2010). PE Fit theory and transactional model of burnout assert that the interaction between an individual and his or her environment determines whether or not a situation is stressful for that person. It assumes that human behaviour is a function of the person and the environment, and that a person's vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement depend on the congruence or fit between the person's personality and the environment in which the person works (Herr, Cramer & Niles, 2004;Kokkinos,2007; Salami,2006). In work situations, higher degrees of fit predict positive work outcomes (Hoffman & Woehr 2006; Vogel & Feldman, 2009. According to Clark- Murphy, (2010), the person-environment approaches suggest that for optimal productivity, individuals should be compatible with their environments. Early researchers (e.g. Streufert & Swezey, 1986) concluded that decision-making performance reaches an optimal level when an individual's cognitive capability matches the complexity of their environment. Jacques (1989) argued that for optimal productivity organisations should be designed on the person-environment fit based on individual cognitive capacity at every level of the organisation. According to the Person-environment fit researchers (Jacques, 1989; Meijer, Muijtens & Vander Vleuten, 1999), individual, decision-making. Performance reaches an optimal level when the decision-makers' cognitive complexity matches the complexity of the decision environment.



In the context of the workplace, the individual's attributes are interests, transferrable skills, career motives and values, personality preferences, career orientations, self-concept and sense of self-efficacy. The work environment include individual's expectations and perceptions regarding workload, control over one's work, tangible and intrinsic rewards of work, the relationship and sense of community among co-workers ,perceptions of fairness in the workplace and the role of personal and organizational values (Herr *et al*, 2004). If the fit between an individual and his environment is incompatible, the result is stress. Similarly, lack of fit between the demands placed on individuals and their abilities to meet those demands can result in stress. Though, there are evidences that burnout occurs as a result of complex interaction between individual characteristics and issues in the work environment, research has not systematically considered the role of person variables in this direction especially studying the manifestation of burnout among college of education lecturers.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Research evidence has shown that there is high stress and burnout among lecturers in higher educational institutions. Given that there is paucity of studies that investigated the relationship between job stress and burnout among college of education lecturers and the moderating roles of personality and social support in the relationship, there is need to investigate how job stress is related to burnout among the lecturers. That, there are inconsistencies in the findings obtained by previous researchers on the relationship between job stress and burnout among higher education lecturers indicates that research into the effects of job stress on lecturers' burnout is not conclusive. Furthermore, the negative consequences of job stress and burnout on the work of the lecturers calls for further research on the job stress-burnout linkage in order to increase our understanding on how to stem the tide of increasing stress and burnout among lecturers. The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of job-related stress, personality and social support to burnout among a previously unstudied element of the population, college of education lecturers. A secondary objective was to examine the extent to which personality and social support can buffer the negative effects of stress on burnout in the lecturers.

## **1.3 Hypotheses**

Based on the review of related literature the following hypotheses were tested:

H<sub>1</sub>: Job-related stress, personality and social support will jointly predict dimensions of burnout.

H<sub>2</sub>: Job-related stress will significantly predict dimensions of burnout.

H<sub>3</sub>: Personality characteristics will significantly predict dimensions of burnout.

H<sub>4</sub>: Personality characteristics will interact with job stress to predict dimensions of burnout.

H<sub>5</sub>: Social support will predict dimensions of burnout.

H<sub>6</sub>: Social support will interact with job stress to predict dimensions of burnout

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Research Design

This study adopted a survey research design that utilised questionnaires to obtain data from the respondents.

### 2.2 Participants

The participants were 340 lecturers (Male-240 (70.58%), Female -100 (29.41%) randomly selected from the three colleges of education in Kwara state, Nigeria. The mean age of the sample was 36.70years (S.D. = 4.50), range=21-59 years). Highest level of education of the lecturers include B.A. Ed., B.SC. Ed. B.Ed. B.A. /BSC. PGDE M.Ed and PhD. The teaching experience of the lecturers ranged from 2 to 28 years. Academic ranks were Assistant Lecturer 30(8.82%), Lecturer 111 64(18.82), Lecturer 11 75(22.05%), lecturer 1 70(20.58%), Senior lecturer 63(18.52%), Principal Lecturer 20 (5.88%), Chief Lecturer or Senior Principal Lecturer 18(5.29%); Marital status-married=129(37.94%), single = 200(58.82%) Divorce= 3(0.88%), Widow/Widower= 8(2.35%).

### 2.3 Measures

**Personality:** The NEO-FFI (Form S, Costa & McCrae, 1992) was used to assess the five personality dimensions. It consists of five 12- item scales developed through factor analyses as a short form of the NEO- PI-R to assess Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C). The item response adopted a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). For the reliability of NEO- FFI, Costa and McCrae (1992) reported Cronbach's alpha Coefficients of 0.86, 0.77, 0.73, 0.68, and 0.81 respectively for the N, E, O, A, and C scales. Costa and McCrae (1991) have reported the construct validity of NEO-FFI. For the present study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.70 to 0.87 for the N, E, O, A and C scales.

**Job stress:** Job stress was measured by means of occupational stress scale (OSS, Salami, 2003). OSS is a 50-item questionnaire that measures occupational stress factors namely: workload, interpersonal problems, time

pressure, working conditions, leadership problems, inadequate facilities and personal problems. Items are responded to on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Range of score is 50-250. The coefficient of international consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale was  $r = 0.85$ . The OSS has impressive norms and correlated highly ( $r=0.75$ ) with the stress scale by Cooper, Cooper and Eaker (1988).

**Teachers Burnout:** Maslach Burnout Inventory Human Services Survey (MBI- HSS; Maslach, Jackson & Schwab, 1996) was used to assess the three aspects of teachers' burnout. The scale consists of 22 items that fall on the three subscales: emotions exhaustion (9 items), depersonalization (5 items), and lack of a sense of personal accomplishment (8 items). Some amendments were made to the items for suitability for lecturers at the postsecondary level. Respondents indicate the frequency that they experience feeling related to each of the subscale items on a 7-point scale ranging from Never (0) to every day (6). The internal consistency ranges from .76 to .90 (Iwaniki & Schwab, 1981). For the current study, Cronbach's alphas were .86, for emotional exhaustion, .70 for depersonalization and .72 for personal accomplishment.

**Social Support:** The type of Social support received by the teachers was assessed by the social provisions scale (SPS) developed by Cutrona and Russell (1987). It measures the six relational provisions as obtained from the teachers' current social relationships. The respondents are to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement if they feel the statements are true of their current relationships with friends, family members, colleagues, college organization, and community members. The six provisions are (1) attachment, (2) social integration, (3) reassurance of worth, (4) reliable alliance, (5) guidance, advice (6) opportunity for nurturance, The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this study for the six sub-scales were .75, .60, .75, .72, .68 respectively.

**Demographics:** Data on demographic characteristics of respondents were collected via a demographic questionnaire developed by the researcher. Characteristics addressed by the questionnaire were (a) age, (b) gender, (c) academic qualifications, (d) teaching experience, (e) academic ranks, and marital status. These characteristics were chosen based upon a review of related literature.

## 2.4 Procedure

The survey forms containing all the four scales (Personality Inventory (NEO-FFI), Occupational Stress Scale, Social Support Scale, Maslach Burnout Inventory Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS), and the Demographic Questions were administered to the randomly selected lecturers in the institutions that participated in the study. Six research assistants who were three

undergraduates and three postgraduate students, who had been provided with instructions regarding the administration protocol, administered the survey forms. The lecturers completed the survey forms anonymously and the purpose of the study, which was research, was explained to them. The participants were assured that their responses were confidential.

## **2.5 Data Analysis**

Data collected were analysed using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Personality traits, job stress, social support and interactions between job stress and personality traits and social support served as independent variables while three components of teacher burnout served as the dependent variables.

## **3 Findings**

### **3.1 Correlational Analyses**

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables under study as well as the bivariate correlations between job stress, teachers' personality, social support and burnout dimensions.

The bivariate correlations on Table 1 (see appendix1) showed that job stress significantly correlated with all the three dimensions of burnout – emotional exhaustion , depersonalization, and personal accomplishment( correlations ranged from  $r=.19$  to  $.20$ ,  $p<.05$ ).Social support had significant negative correlations with emotional exhaustion (  $r=-.20$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and depersonalization ( $r=-.19$ ,  $p<.05$ ) except with personal accomplishment.

Of the personality variables, neuroticism was positively correlated with emotional exhaustion ( $r=.35$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and depersonalization( $r=.24$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and negatively correlated with personal accomplishment ( $r=-.23$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Extraversion was negatively correlated with emotional exhaustion ( $r=-.20$ ,  $p<.05$ ) whereas it was positively correlated with personal accomplishment ( $r=.30$ ,  $p<.05$ ).Openness was negatively significantly correlated with depersonalization ( $r=-.19$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and personal accomplishment ( $r=-.20$ ,  $p<.05$ ) but not with emotional exhaustion. Agreeableness had no significant correlation with all the dimensions of burnout. Conscientiousness had negative significant correlation with depersonalization( $r=-.30$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and positive correlation with personal accomplishment( $r=.32$ ,  $p<.05$ ). None of the demographic characteristics (age, gender, experience, rank and marital status) had significant correlations with any of the dimensions of burnout.

### **3.2 Regression Analyses**

A series of regression analyses were performed to find out the joint and relative/ separate contributions of various factors in predicting burnout

dimensions among college education lecturers. Three separate hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted regressing each burnout dimension on lecturers' demographics, personality characteristics, job stress and social support. Results are shown on Tables 2 to 4 (see appendices 2-4) in a manner consistent with the hypotheses.

On the joint contribution of all the independent variables (stress , personality and social support) to the prediction of dimensions, of burnout, as hypothesized, results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses on Tables 2 to 4 showed that all the independent variables jointly predicted emotional exhaustion(  $R^2=.44, F(1,328)=10.32, p<0.05$ ) (see Table 2);depersonalization ( $R^2=.27, F(1,328)=8.97, p<0.05$ ) ( see Table 3) and personal accomplishment ( $R^2=.23, F(1,328)= 5.73, p<0.05$ ) ( see Table 4).

It was hypothesized that job stress will predict all the three dimensions of burnout. As expected, job stress significantly predicted emotional exhaustion (Beta=.24,  $t=14.20, p<0.03$ ) (see Table 2). Job stress was also a significant predictor of depersonalization (Beta=.21,  $t=7.60, p<.05$ ) (see Table 3[appendix3]) and personal accomplishment (Beta=.19,  $t=4.43, p<.05$ ) (see Table 4).

It was hypothesized that personality characteristics would also predict emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout. Emotional exhaustion was predicted by neuroticism, extraversion, openness and conscientiousness (See Table2 [appendix 2]).Regarding depersonalization, neuroticism, openness and conscientiousness were the strong predictors of this dimension of burnout. Extraversion and agreeableness did not make any significant contribution to the prediction of depersonalization (see Table 3 [appendix 3]). Personal accomplishment was predicted by neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness but not by openness and agreeableness (see Table 4 [appendix 4]).

It was hypothesized that social support will predict all dimensions of burnout. As anticipated, social support was a strong predictor of emotional exhaustion (Beta=.22.  $t=8.9, p<0.05$ ) (see Table 2), depersonalization (Beta=.27,  $t=9.45, p<.05$ ) ( see Table3) and personal accomplishment (Beta=.19,  $t=4.20, p<.05$ ) ( see Table 4 [appendix 4]).

### **3.3 Interaction of Stress with Personality and Social Support**

Results of the analyses indicated that, there were no significant interaction effects of stress with personality dimension and social support in predicting emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout (see Table 2and 3).However, stress interacted with extraversion ( $R^2$  change=.17, Beta=.23,  $t=9.06, p<. 05$ ) and conscientiousness ( $R^2$  change= .17, Beta= .25,  $t=11.09, p<.05$ ) to predict personal accomplishment. Stress did not interact with neuroticism; openness and agreeableness to predict personal accomplishment

(see Table 4 [appendix 4]). Finally, all the demographic characteristics did not predict any dimension of burnout (see Table 2,3and 4 [appendices 2, 3 & 4]).

#### **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between job stress, personality characteristics, social support and dimensions of burnout in a sample of college of education lecturers. Results from this study showed that stress, personality and social support were correlated with burnout dimensions, thus providing support for the PE-fit theory and transactional model of burnout in which in order to understand its process. There is need to consider both the environmental and person variables. These findings are in agreement with those of Schaeferli, Enzmann and Girault (1993) and Kokkinos (2007). Emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were more related to environmental stressors and social support while personal accomplishment was related to personality variable.

As expected, job stress played a central role in predicting dimensions of burnout among the lecturers. This finding is consistent with those of previous researchers who reported similar results (Ganster & Schanbroek, 1991; Kim-Wan, 1991; Kokkinos, 2007; Moore, 2001). An explanation for this finding is that there are certain issues in the lecturers' job that cause them more concern, stress and eventually burnout. Examples of issues in the lecturers' job that served as sources of stress included workload, time pressure, working conditions, inadequate facilities and students' misbehaviour. Stress arises when a lecturer appraises the environment as one that taxes or exceeds his/ her resources and therefore is perceived as threatening. Lecturers who have high expectations and want to achieve may be prone to stress and burnout (Kokkinos, 2007).

The results also showed that, as hypothesized, personality characteristics were associated with burnout dimensions. The results were in line with the findings of previous researchers who reported that emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were predicted by neuroticism and conscientiousness (Kokkinos, 2007; Lue et al., 2010). Similarly Kokkinos (2007) found that personal accomplishment was predicted by high scores in conscientiousness and extraversion and low scores in neuroticism. Kim-Wan(1991) reported that Type A personality predict burnout especially personal accomplishment .These results could be attributed to the fact that lecturers' with high scores in conscientiousness and extraversion or Type A personality more often work harder, put greater efforts and commitment to their jobs and accomplish more in their work even at the cost of their health.

As hypothesized in this study, the results revealed that social support had significant correlations with dimensions of burnout. These results corroborated the findings of previous researchers who reported that teachers who possessed

higher levels of social support were less burned out (Bonfiglio, 2005; Kim - Wan, 1991). Results from this study also corroborated the work of Thomas and Lankau (2009) who found that workplace social support in the form of high lead-member exchange (LMX) and mentoring served as resources that minimize emotional exhaustion through increased socialization and decreased role stress. Possible explanation for these findings could be that when lecturers face specific job- related difficulty or stress, social support from their supervisors, friends, families, co-workers and others would help minimize emotional distress and boost their self-esteem both of which, in turn, enhance their abilities in coping effectively with job-related problems they are confronted with.

The results in relation to the buffering effects of personality and social support in the hypotheses indicated that personality and social support were effective in reducing adverse effects of job stress on reduced personal accomplishment but not on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization dimensions of burnout. These results, are in line with the work of Kim-Wan (1991) who reported that Type A personality and social support buffered the relation between job stress and reduced accomplishment of their teacher sample. Possible explanation for these findings could be that, in the case of personality, lecturers who had high scores on extraversion and conscientiousness worked harder and put in more efforts and commitment. In the case of social support, lecturers who had more social support from their supervisors, friends, co-workers, and family members reported less burnout and therefore had more personal achievement.

#### **4.1 Implications of the Findings**

Results reported in this study have implications for career counselling practice and assessment. The findings suggest that dimensions of burnout have different predictors when personality and environmental factors (job stress and social support) are considered simultaneously. The preponderance of environmental factors in the prediction of burnout dimension of emotional exhaustion is heart-warming because it is easier to control or change job-related conditions causing stress than personal characteristics. Therefore, employers should provide more conducive working environments devoid of stress for the lecturers. This will remove some of the impediments to the lecturers' research functions in higher education.

Appropriate intervention strategies that will emphasise improvement of the lecturers' skills in classroom management should be developed by career counsellors and adopted for the professional development of the lecturers. These strategies could be adopted during preparation for higher teaching and after training. This can be a sure way of combating burnout. Since stress could also emanate from work overload and students' disruption of classroom lectures, lecturers should be taught principles of handling group behaviour and

time management. This will assist the lecturers in having a more balanced distribution of time for their work.

Also lecturers need to know their personality characteristics so that they will be aware of their own personal dispositions that may reduce or aggravate stress. In this regard, personality assessment should be conducted by career counsellors for all lecturers and appropriate coping responses they use in dealing with work-related stress noted for improvement or retention as appropriate. Career counsellors should work with college management to conduct stress audits that assess the levels of stress in different parts of the institution, the particular stressor of concern and ways to enhance employee and institutional wellness within the college. In this respect, career counsellors need to teach the lecturers appropriate coping strategies in order to reduce the use of maladaptive coping strategies. Self efficacy training, cognitive behavioural and rational emotive behavioural therapies and problem –solving techniques are intervention strategies that could be used to reduce burnout among lecturers. Also the lecturers should improve their social networks so that they will have access to appropriate social support when they have job-related problems.

This study is a cross-sectional research and it used self-report measures. These are obvious limitations. Future researchers could embark on longitudinal studies in order to establish causal relationship. In addition to self –report measures, interview techniques and focus group discussions could be used to complement the data collection instruments. Despite these limitations, the present study has contributed to the body of literature on stress and burnout in lecturers.

## References

- Bakker, A.B.; Demerouti, E. & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resources Management, 34*, 83-104.
- Barnes, L.L.B., Agago, M.O. & Coombs, W.T. (1998). Effects of job-related stress on faculty intention to leave academia. *Research in Higher Education, 39*, 457-469.
- Blix, A.G., Cruise, R.J., Mitchell, B.M. & Blix, G.G. (1994). Occupational stress among university teachers. *Educational Research, 36*, 157-169.
- Bonfiglio, D (2005). The interaction of dispositional optimism and social support in the moderation of cardiovascular responses to acute psychological stress. PhD, Dissertation. Graduate School of the Ohio State University.
- Brewer, E.W. & McMahan, J. (2004). Job stress and burnout among industrial and technical teacher educators. *Journal of Vocational Education Research 28*(2), 1-17.



- Byrne, B.M. & Hall, L.M. (1989) March) *An investigation of factors contributing to the teacher burnout: The elementary, intermediate, secondary and postsecondary school environments*: Paper presented at the annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Cheuk, W.H., Wong, K.S.& Rosen, S. (1994). The effects of spurning and social support on teacher burnout. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 9(4), 657-664.
- Clark-Murphy, D.(2010). Do interactive theories really explain public sector managerial decision-making? *Asian Social Sciences*, 6(3), 17-26.
- Colangelo, T.M. (2004). *Teachers stress and burnout and the role of physical activity and parent involvement*. M.A. Dissertation, department of Psychology, Central Connecticut State University New Britain, Connecticut.
- Cooper, C.L. & Cooper, R. & Eaker, L. (1988) *Living with stress*. Hammondsworth: Penguin
- Costa, P.T. Jr. & McCrae (1992). *The Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-FFI) Professional Manual*: Odessa. FL: Psychological Assessment Resources
- Cutrona, C.E. & Russell, D.W. (1987). The provision of social relationships and adaptation to stress, in Jones, W.H., Perlman, D.(Eds.), *Advances in Personal Relationships*, JAI Press, Greenwich, CT,1,37-67.
- Demerouti, E.; Bakker, A.B.; Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, W.B. (2001). The job demands- resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86,499-512.
- Dillon, J.F. & Tanner, G.R. (1995). Dimensions of career burnout among educators. *Journal of Mass Communication Educator*, 50 (2), 4-13.
- Edwards, J.R. & Cooper, C.L. (1990). The person –environment fit approach to stress: Recurring problems and some suggested solutions. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 11, 293- 307.
- Edwards, J.R., Caplan, R.D. & Harrison, R.V. (1998). Person –environment fit theory: Conceptual foundations, empirical evidence and directions for future research. In C.L. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of organizational stress (pp.28-67)*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Eysenck, H.J. & Eysenck, M. (1985). *Personality and individual differences: A natural science approach*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Fletcher, B. (1988). The epidemiology of occupational stress in Cooper, C.L. Payne, R. (Edition). *Causes, coping and consequences of stress at work*, Wiley.
- Ganster, D. & Schaubroek, J. (1991). Work stress and employee health. *Journal of Management*, 17, 235-271.
- Herr, E.L., Cramer, S.H. & Niles, S.G. (2004). *Career guidance and counselling through the lifespan*, London: Prentice-Hall.

- Hoffman, B.J. & Woehr, D.J.(2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person-organisation fit and behavioural outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 68(3), 389- 399.
- Iwanicki, E.F.& Schwab, R.L.(1981). A cross-validation study of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 41, 1167-1174.
- Jackson, R.A.(1993). An analysis of burnout among school of pharmacy faculty. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 57(1), 9-17.
- Jacques, E. (1989). *Requisite organisations: The CEO's guide to creative structure and leadership*. Arlington, VA: Cason.
- Kahn, R.L. & Byosiere, P. (1992). Stress in organization, in Dunnette, M.D. & Hough, L. (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, CA, pp.571-650.
- Kim-Wan, M.O. (1991) Teacher burnout: Relations with stress, personality, and social support *Chinese University of Hong Kong Educational Journal*, 19(1), 3-11.
- Kokkinos, C.M. (2007). Job stress, personality and burnout in primary school teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 77(1), 222-43.
- Lue, B.H.; Chen, H.J.; Wang, C.W. Cheng, Y.; & Cheng, M.C. (2010). Stress, personal characteristics and burnout among first postgraduate year residents: a nationwide study in Taiwan. *Medical Teacher*. 32(5), 400-7.
- Makinde, O. & Alao, K. (1987). *Profile of career education*. Ibadan: Signal Educational Services Limited.
- Maslach, C.; Schaufeli, W.B. & Leiter, M.P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52,397-422.
- Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001.
- Maslach, C. & Jackson, S.E.(1996). *Maslach Burnout Inventory- Human Services Survey*. Palo Alto CA : Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Maslach, C., Jackson, S.E. & Leiter, M.P. (1996). *MBI manual* (3rd ed). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Meijer, R. ; Muijtens, A. & Van der Vleuten, C. (1999). Non-parametric person-fit research: Some theoretical issues and empirical examples. *Applied Measurements in Education*, 9, 1, 77-89.
- Meyer, B.W. & Dale, K. (2010). The impact of group cognitive complexity on group satisfaction: A person-environment fit perspective. Institute of Behavioural and Applied Management.
- Moore, K. (2001). Hospital restructuring: Impact on nurses mediated by social support and a percentage of challenge. *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration*. 23(4), 20-27.
- Salami, S.O. (2000). Person-environment fit as a predictor of job satisfaction and stability at work of secondary school teachers. *African Journal for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, 5(2), 174-188.

- Salami, S.O. (2003). Occupational Stress Scale. Department of Guidance and Counselling, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.
- Salami, S.O. (2006). Management of stress among trainee-teachers through cognitive behaviour therapy. *Personality Study and Group Behaviour*, 26, 1-25.
- Schaufeli, W.B. & Bakker, A.B. (2004). Job demands, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organisation Behaviour*, 25, 293-315.
- Schaufeli, W.B., Enzmann, D. & Girault, N. (1993). Measurement of burnout: A review. In W.B. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, & T. Marek (Eds). *Professional burnout: Recent developments in research* (pp. 199-215). Washington, DC: Taylor and Francis.
- Smith, E. Anderson, J.L. & Lovrich, N.P. (1995). The multiple sources of workplace stress among land-grant university faculty. *Research in Higher Education*, 36, 261-282.
- Spielberger, C.D. & Vagg, P.R. (1999). *Job stress survey: Professional manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Streffert, S. & Swezey, R. (1986). *Complexity Managers and Organisations*. New York: Academic Press.
- Thomas, C.H. & Lankau, M. (2009). Preventing burnout: The effects of LMX and mentoring on socialization. Roles stress, and burnout. *Human Resource Management*, 48(3), 417-432.
- Vogel, R.M. & Feldman, D.C. (2009). Integrating the levels of person-environment fit: The roles of Vocational fit and group fit. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 75 (1), 68-81.
- Wong, K.S. & Cheuk, W.H. (2005). Job-related stress and social support in kindergarten principals: the case of Macau. *International Journal of Education Management* 19(3), 183-19.



## **Impact of Gender Imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary Education on Rwandan Women’s Socioeconomic Welfare: the Case of Nyakiriba**

KEPHA NATOLOOKA  
Kampala International University

VENANTIE NYIRANSABIMANA  
Kampala International University

**Abstract.** This study delved into the causes of gender imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary education and the effects of such imbalance on the socioeconomic welfare of women in Nyakiriba Sector, Rwanda. Data were collected from 348 households and 12 civil servants. The findings were that the imbalance is due to: poverty; lack of interest in the provision of secondary and tertiary education in the area; child labour; early marriage; dysfunctional cultural practices; and low levels of parents’ education. It was also found that the imbalance is affecting the socio-economic welfare of women, in a way that it leads to: poverty; high fertility; high infant and maternal mortality; low self-esteem among women; and abuse of women’s rights. To overcome the imbalance, the paper recommends the promotion of awareness about the benefits of keeping female students at school; provision of scholastic materials to girls; provision of scholarships for girls; discouragement of cultural practices that foil girls’ education; and discouragement of child labour.

**Keywords:** Educational exclusion; Gender gap; Universal education

### **1 Introduction**

Rwanda has made enormous strides forward in improving access of boys and girls to education at all levels, and in promoting gender equality within the education system, yet girl students continue to lag behind in educational achievement and access, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels, where girls’ enrolment, completion and achievement rates are lower.

Rwanda in general, and Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District in particular, face real challenges in relation to gender imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary education. While it is appreciable that boys and girls almost have equal access to enrolment in primary schools (at a male-female ratio of 49.4%:50.6%)

(Rubavu District Directorate of Education, 2007), it is not only surprising but disheartening to learn that gender imbalance, particularly at the Secondary and Tertiary levels, continues to abound in favour of males.

According to Rwanda's Ministry of Education (2008), women have limited access to education. Only 47.8 percent of women are literate, compared to 58.1 percent of men. The drop-out rate for girls is 15.2 percent, compared to 7.9 percent for boys. These imbalances are even more pronounced in rural areas. A small proportion of girls and women reach University level, and the academic performance of girls is far below that of boys, especially in the areas of sciences and technology

According to Rwanda's Ministry of Education Statistics (2003), only 20.0% of girls passed primary six exams, compared to 31.6% of boys in 2003. Similarly, at the tertiary level, in the National University of Rwanda (the most prestigious University in the country), only 26% of the female students graduated in 2003 compared to 74% of males (Ministry of education, 2008).

In Rubavu District, in particular, there were 2322 boys compared to 1151 girls in Public Secondary Schools in 2007 (Direction of Education, 2007). From all the foregoing, therefore, it is explicitly clear that there is gender imbalance in both Secondary and Tertiary education in Rwanda. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to explore: the causes of such gender imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary education, and the effects that such imbalance has on the socio-economic welfare of women in Rwanda, particularly in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District.

## **2 Methodology**

Using a case study and survey research designs, the researchers studied 348 households (out of the 3700 households) and 12 civil servants in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District, Western Province. Rubavu district was purposively selected for the survey because it was easy for the researchers to access data. Nyakiriba Sector, which is mainly rural, was randomly selected because gender imbalance is very wide in rural areas. All the cells from that Sector were selected. From each cell, all villages were selected. From 27 villages, 24 villages (from which 13 households were randomly selected), and 12 were chosen in 3 villages, which made in total 348 households in 27 villages. Both self-administered and directly-administered questionnaires were used as the main methods of data collection, although they were supplemented and complimented by documentation review.

Primary data were collected from the respondents in sampled households and secondary data were obtained from documentary review. Data were organized in a more meaningful and interpretive way to attain the study objectives. After the collection from the field, data were entered into a computer to allow easy interpretation and analysis. The study employed

descriptive statistical tools to analyse quantitative data obtained from the study. Tables of frequency distribution were prepared whenever necessary as well as the percentage occurrence of each the response to a particular question. Qualitative data were analysed by thematic analysis, that is, an analysis of the main themes as required in the study. The results were tabulated for easy interpretation such that one could easily visualize the various results as given by the respondents. A discussion was made at the end of every theme and was relating to the objectives of the study.

### 3 Findings

#### 3.1 Causes of Gender Imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary Education in Nyakiriba Sector

Table 1 gives a summary of the findings in relation to the causes of gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District.

**Table 1: Causes of Gender Imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary Education**

<b>Causes</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Poverty	66	18.3
Marriage	39	10.8
Lack of interest	21	5.9
Female employment	45	12.5
Culture	39	10.8
Females' lack of adequate marks	63	17.5
Parents' level of education	60	16.7
Attitude and beliefs	27	7.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>100</b>

As shown in Table 1, many factors hinder girls to succeed in relation to boys. These factors which work against girls' education include; poverty, lack of interest by girls, housework, pregnancy and marriage. In addition, when they enter high secondary schools and university, girls lack the required marks, which is the reason why they prefer to go in private institutions where entry points/marks are relatively low. Therefore, the number of girls admitted to higher learning institutions is very small compared to their number at lower levels.

##### 3.1.1 Poverty

As already indicated in Table 1, 18.3% of the respondents reported poverty as the leading cause of gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education. They reported that while the Government of Rwanda provides free/universal primary education which guarantees equal opportunity for both girls and boys

to enrol, secondary and tertiary education is paid for by parents/guardians. This means that female students inevitably drop out as a result of their parents/guardians and/or themselves failing to raise the required fees. It was reported that where a choice is to be made on whom to assist between a female and a male, decisions by most parents often tilt in males' favour, hence, the gender imbalance.

### *3.1.2 Lack of Interest in the Provision of Education*

Those who mentioned the lack of interest (5.9%) explained that even the government and local authorities were sometimes not much interested in promoting females' education because, at that time of the study, there wasn't even a single secondary school or tertiary institution in Nyakiriba sector. Whether the lack of such educational institutions in the areas is a matter of default by government or lack of resources, it was reported by the community as a sign that the Government and local authorities did not have interest in providing secondary and tertiary education in the area. This, as a result, puts females at a disadvantage if they have to pay expensively or travel long distances to look for secondary and tertiary education in other areas.

### *3.1.3 Female Employment*

Female employment was another factor that was mentioned by 12.5% of respondents as a cause for gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education. It was reported that; very often, when girls or women get well-paying jobs, they, in many cases, find difficulty in deciding to go on with further studies. In many cases, their family members also often advise them against pursuing tertiary education if they have already secured good jobs, hence, making them have less access to tertiary education compared to their male counterparts.

### *3.1.4 Marriage*

Respondents (10.8%) who talked about marriage as obstacle that hinders girls or women from continuing in secondary or tertiary education, reported that; after marriage, it is difficult, if not very difficult, for a woman to continue again with her studies, especially when she fails to secure her husband's agreement - which is in many situations the case. Moreover, when a woman gets many children before she finishes her studies, it is difficult for her to leave the children at home to continue with academics.

### *3.1.5 Lack of Adequate Mark for Females*

In most of the secondary and tertiary institutions, females, at the time of this study, were still disadvantages. Respondents who mentioned this factor (17.5%)



reported that; the home chores, coupled with delays in paying their school fees, and schooling in poor or low quality schools meant that most of them get inadequate marks that inhibit their enrolment in leading secondary and tertiary institutions. This, in turn, explains why many female students end up in private secondary schools and tertiary institutions, many of which are not very qualitative.

### 3.1.6 *Negative Culture, Attitude and Beliefs*

Like many other countries in Africa, and in East Africa in particular, many people in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District hold a strong belief, attitude and culture that males were created with super status compared to females. Even in education, many respondents (as indicated in Table 1) believed that male students should be given priority and upper hand than their female counterparts. Such attitude, culture, and beliefs, inevitably translated into having more males than females in both secondary and tertiary education in Rubavu District.

### 3.1.7 *Parents' level of education*

Most of parents in Nyakiriba Sector had/have low education yet 16.7% of the respondents believed that one could survive without necessarily going for higher education. This, coupled with poverty and the negative culture, attitude and beliefs, inevitably put female students at higher disadvantage compared to the males, hence, gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education.

## 3.2 **Effects of Gender Imbalance on the Socio-Economic Welfare Women**

Table 2 summarizes the effects of gender imbalance on the socio-economic welfare of rural households in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District in Rwanda.

**Table 2: Effects of Gender Imbalance on the Socio-Economic Welfare of Women in Nyakiriba Sector**

<b>Consequences</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
Lower level of education of children	60	16.7
Lower level of economic productivity and low income	105	29.2
High infant and maternal mortality	69	19.1
High birth rates	96	26.7
Other responses	30	8.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>100</b>

As indicated, Table 2 highlights the effects of gender imbalance on the socioeconomic welfare of women in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District in Rwanda.

### *3.2.1 Lower Level of Economic Productivity and Low Income*

One of the major negative effects given by 29.2% of the respondents is the lower level of economic productivity and low income. Respondents explained this by saying that when a woman has a low level of education or is illiterate, she cannot get any well-paid job. Therefore, it is very difficult for her to improve the living conditions of her household, and, even if she is a farmer, she cannot or will find it very difficult to master modern technologies of agriculture given her low levels of education and skills.

### *3.2.2 High Fertility Rates*

26.5% of the respondents reported that low level of education for females led to high birth rates in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District. They explained that women with low level of education or illiterate are the ones who do not comply with the family planning policy/methods – that, to them, *God gives children, and brings them up. Besides, they develop a mentality that the more children one has, the richer one becomes.* Yet, when there are many children in a household with limited resources, it is very difficult to nourish, educate, and clothe them. It is, therefore, easy to sensitize educated women about family planning than the semi-literate and illiterates.

### *3.2.3 High Infant and Maternal Mortality*

Another answer given by 19.1% the respondents is high infant and maternal mortality. The reasons they gave is that most, if not all, problems relating to the lack of cleanness are found in households of illiterate women, who do not treat personal hygiene as a priority, and who don't appreciate that all materials in a house must be cleaned every time, and food has to be well prepared, etc. So, when everything in a house is dirty, this brings about different diseases that cause death not only to children but mothers and other adults.

### *3.2.4 Negative Effects on Children's Education*

16.5% of the respondents reported that illiteracy or lower levels of education of woman also have negative effects on children's education. Clearly speaking, uneducated women fail to send their children to school since they are not aware of or simply underrate the importance of education. As a result, they either don't take their children to school or if they did, they will take their children to poor schools.

### *3.2.5 Ignorance of Women Rights*

8.3% of the respondents reported that uneducated women don't know their rights, and even if they knew, they lack the stamina, courage and confidence to

report to the legal authorities the violators of their rights - this is reason why in some illiterate females in Nyakiriba Sector, just keep quiet whenever their rights are violated.

### 3.2.6 *Low Self-Esteem and Confidence among Women*

Another answer given by respondents is that uneducated women are always afraid of expressing their ideas in public, even if they are or would be good ideas. Thus, it is difficult for them to participate in decision-making when they dare not to give their point of view about a given problem.

## **4 Discussion and Conclusions**

### **4.1 Causes of Gender Imbalance in Secondary and Tertiary Education in Rwanda**

Findings revealed that one of the major causes of respondents (25.8 %) said that one of the main causes of gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary Education in Rwanda is poverty. They reported that even although tuition fees are free at the primary level, most of the secondary schools and tertiary education require students and/or their parents/guardians to pay tuition fees and additional fees for school construction and maintenance, school materials, uniform, and other costs. Similarly, the study revealed that although tuition fees are free at the primary level, additional fees for school construction and maintenance, school materials, uniform and other costs must be paid by individual families; such costs are regarded as a heavy burden on household budget of the poor. This meant that the majority of the pupils did not have their basic school needs provided for by the parent which limited their advancement to secondary schools level.

The foregoing is in agreement with Banda (2003) who argued that socio-economic factors including family poverty, direct costs of the school including cost of school materials and uniform, are some of the factors that prevent girls from going on at school. In agreement with Banda, Allison and Randell (2007) argued that high school fees prevent children from poor families from accessing secondary school. Many poor families can only afford to educate a few of their children. In many cases, sons are often chosen over daughters. Consequently, girls end up dropping out of school before completing. This was also revealed by Ankerbo & Hoyda (2003) as they argued that one of the main obstacles to school girls and women in third world countries is the fact that household work is a great time consumer, which leaves little room for studying and less energy to the motivation needed for performing well in school. This is also noted by Binauli (2002) who shows that girls are from time-to-time asked to assist their mothers as guardians in household chores. As a result, their performance is affected at school and becomes lower than that of boys.

Not only the findings show poverty as a factor that prevents girl and women from accessing school, but also the lack of adequate marks (16.7 %) is another factor. That is the condition to have access to public secondary and university. The study shows that in Rubavu Sector in general and Nyakiriba Sector in particular, there are more girls in private secondary and university than in public ones. These findings are also in agreement with findings from (Allison and Randell, 2007) as they indicate that at secondary school and university level, entrance to public institutions that provide higher quality and lower cost education, are determined on the basis of performance in primary school and secondary leaving examinations. Statistically, girls perform much lower in examinations at all levels, due to high rates of absenteeism. Using examination scores as the criteria for entrance to public schools institutionalizes discrimination against women.

The findings from 17.5% of the respondents revealed also that illiteracy of parents is a factor of paramount importance in causing gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education in Rwanda. Findings revealed that when parents are illiterate or have a low level of education, they do not understand easily the importance of sending a girl to school. Some of them usually say to their children that they did not study yet they are not poor. Thus, they do not perceive the importance of education appropriately. This kind of argument was revealed by Macionis (1999), when he ascertained that children whose parents also have little schooling drop out. Children, whose parents have a higher level of education, are much more likely to have a home that fosters educational advancement. Even if parents are not communicating with their children, the latter can see, from their surroundings that education is important and so they strive to complete their studies.

#### **4.2 Effects of Gender Imbalance on the Socio-Economic Welfare Women**

The findings of this study confirmed what UNICEF (2002) found out as an impact of gender imbalance on development. That is, there are a number of factors, among which are, poverty, pregnancies, early marriage and the effects of diseases among such as the HIV/Aids epidemic, all of which affect females directly in relation to their education. This is obvious because, as 26.7% of the respondents revealed; when a girl stays at home she gets married very early, and thus, has more children. Furthermore, she does not understand how to avoid diseases such as HIV/Aids.

From this study, it was found that low levels of female school enrolment in Nyakiriba Sector significantly lowered the level of economic productivity, led to low income, and higher infant and maternal mortality. Again, the study revealed that the illiterate women from Nyakiriba Sector did not know the importance of modern medicine: when someone in family sick, some of them thought the patient was bewitched and therefore rush to see a witchdoctor before thinking to go to the health centre. This is the reason why there are high

infant and maternal mortality rates in rural households especially in Nyakiriba Sector, where there are many illiterate and semi-illiterate women.

The foregoing findings are in agreement with findings from Tuyizere (2007) who found out that not providing girls or women with a proper education has negative returns to society overall as well as to the economy specifically. This is justified by the fact that education gives girls the skills and opportunities they need to become active contributors to their nation's development; illiteracy in women is an obstacle to health improvement.

The study further revealed (through 26.7% of the respondents) that illiterate women have high birth rates. To them, God gives children and is the one who brings them up. This is the reason why they give names such as, Habyarimana, Harerimana and Hatungimana, which means respectively that God gives a child, God brings up the child and God supplies the child with food. Thus, in rural areas, the family size is beyond 6 on average, and the illiterate women are responsible because they hardly understand family planning methods; if they do, they refuse to put it in practice. These findings agree with the findings of UNICEF, (2002) in its report where it shows that the consequence of lower level of education for rural women is high birth rates, early marriage, etc.

According to Karl et al (1972), a family's attitude towards the education of their children makes a significant difference in the classroom achievements; parents may not be present in the classroom but have a profound influence on the ways their children view schools and learning. The extent to which parents support the school's objectives directly affects their children's academic performance. The findings of the study agree with the arguments of Karl et al. arguments because most uneducated parents, especially women in Nyakiriba Sector, incite their children particularly their daughters not to go to school so that they can help them to carry out housework; they don't supply them with necessary materials for school. Because the parents are the first educators of their children, and are responsible for providing them with a physical and mental basis for learning, when those basic needs are not met, the girl child can hardly succeed.

## **5 Conclusions**

From the study findings, the researchers make the following conclusions.

- a) Education is central to the achievement of greater equality in society and investing in education of girls has especially powerful benefits, not only for civic participation and family health and welfare, but also positive implications for all other measures of development.
- b) Society also benefits in many ways from higher levels of women's education; from improved nutrition for children and lower birth rates, to the provision of skills necessary for Labour and Government.
- c) Rwanda has made enormous good progress forward in improving access of boys and girls to education at all levels, and in promoting gender equality

within the education system, but female students continue to lag behind in educational achievement and access, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels, where girls' enrolment, completion and achievement rates are lower. Girls are under-represented in government schools, and are instead more likely to attend more expensive and lower quality private schools and Universities. This situation prevails also in Nyakiriba Sector, which was the study area of the current research.

- d) Despite an enabling policy environment, a number of social and institutional barriers continue to prevent girls and young women from attending Secondary schools and universities and from performing equally as their male classmates. Ensuring the participation of girls and women is therefore fundamentally rewarding in terms of equity and also efficiency.
- e) Gender-mainstreaming efforts are still inadequate at decentralized levels and are not well incorporated into educational policies at both districts and local levels and within both urban and rural schools.

## **6 Recommendations**

In order to overcome the foregoing anomalies and to promote gender balance in secondary and tertiary education in Nyakiriba Sector in Rubavu District in particular, and Rwanda in general, the researchers recommend the Central Government of Rwanda, Local Governments and Private Sector (including Donors) should collectively work hand-in-hand to do the following.

- a) *Increase awareness of the benefit of keeping female students at school.*  
The study revealed that one of the causes of gender imbalance in secondary and tertiary education in Rwanda is that the girls drop out of schools because of many reasons such as early marriages, lack of interest, and housework, among others. Therefore, the researchers recommend that there should be an increase in the role of local governments, mass organizations and parent associations in mobilizing and supporting parents to keep girls in school. These actors should increase public awareness of the benefits of girls' education, and social mobilization campaigns whose aim is to change attitudes and behaviours affecting girls' education at grass-root levels.
- b) *Set rules and regulation for all schools and increase their awareness.*  
From the respondents, researchers found that pregnancy is one of the major reasons that push girls to drop out of school. In the past, any girl who was pregnant would immediately be expelled from school. But the new Rwandese policy allows the pregnant girl and the schoolboy responsible (for pregnancy) to return to school after the birth of the child. However, many schools, especially religious ones, are gender insensitive to this policy. As a result, they only send the girl home. In some schools, students were not aware of this policy. Therefore, it is recommended that

all schools set rules and regulations that are made public to both staff and students.

- c) *Public education about the intrinsic and instrumental value of women's education.* Researchers found out that culture, beliefs and poor attitude towards girls' education were serious hindrances for females' access secondary and tertiary education. Therefore, there is need for (by both the Government and Local Authorities) to provide public sensitivity and awareness campaigns about the intrinsic and instrumental value of women's education. Such a policy step would aim at changing conservative attitudes towards girls' schooling. Secondly, the Government Public Policy should compensate for the asymmetry in parental incentives to educate girls and boys by giving extra subsidies for girls' schooling. This makes sense because many of the benefits of girls' education are public benefits, i.e. they accrue not only to the educated individual and their families but also to society in general.
- d) *Provision of scholastic materials.* Findings revealed that poverty was the main reason that impedes woman education in Rwanda. Even if primary education is free, still many families don't and can't afford scholastic materials. There is need, therefore, for provision of scholastic materials especially for vulnerable pupils in view of uniforms, books, and other necessary school materials.
- e) *Find scholarship for girls and women who excel in Secondary and Tertiary Education.* The study finding revealed that some of girls do not go to public universities because of lack of the required marks. Despite this, some of the girls who get fewer score would perform well or very well if sponsored in either public or private Universities. Therefore, the Ministry of Education should make effort to find them scholarship so that they can go in public and/or private universities.
- f) *Ban detrimental cultures, beliefs and religious values.* Some of the cultures, attitudes and religious beliefs were found to be a hindrance to gender promotion in education. Communities, therefore, should discard all discriminatory cultures, religious values and beliefs that are detrimental to girl's education. This can be achieved if the government bans discriminatory cultural practices through legal means. The community at low level has also to develop and raise awareness amongst parents and communities about the value of educating girls in non-traditional areas of training.
- g) *Increase the number of secondary schools.* The findings also revealed that there is a lack of secondary schools in Nyakiriba Sector; imperatively, most, if not all rural areas lack adequate secondary schools in Rwanda. The Government, therefore, should work hand-in-hand with local Governments and the Community to build and/or increase the number of secondary schools by building new ones. These should begin operations with government subsidies to ensure charging school fees that even the poor people in community can afford.

- h) *Support orphaned girl children and discourage and/or eliminate child labour.* The study also found that when in a household where there are only orphans, girl students have to drop out of school because they have to take care of their brothers and sisters to look for food, income, shelter, etc. Therefore, Government, Donors, and Local Governments should provide income, shelter, and fees to orphaned girls so that they can remain at school. The study finding revealed that some girls drop out of schools and go to work as house girls. Child labour should be also eliminated at all costs. This can be achieved through community campaign against it and through government legislation.

## References

- Allison, H. and Randell, S. K. (2007), *Gender equality in education in Rwanda: What is happening to our girls?* Paper presented at the South African Association of Women Graduates Conference on “Drop-outs from School and Tertiary Studies: What is happening to our Girls? Cape town. Retrieved (August 8, 2008) from the World Wide Web: <http://www.ifuw.org/rwanda/media/art-education.pdf>.
- Ankerbo, S. & Hoyda, K. (2003), *Education as a means to women’s empowerment approaches to development* (U-landslære).
- Banda. (2003). Gender sensitive educational policy and practice: the case of Malawi. Retrieved (September 18, 2008) from the World Wide Web: [http://209.85.135.104/search?q=cache:-fonal\\_policy\\_and\\_practice.The\\_case\\_of\\_Malawi.IBE..doc/Gen+der%252Bensitive%252Beducational%252Bpolicy%252Band%252Bpractice.%252BThe%252Bcase%252Bof%252BMalawi.%252BIBE](http://209.85.135.104/search?q=cache:-fonal_policy_and_practice.The_case_of_Malawi.IBE..doc/Gen+der%252Bensitive%252Beducational%252Bpolicy%252Band%252Bpractice.%252BThe%252Bcase%252Bof%252BMalawi.%252BIBE)
- Binauli, L. (2002). *African higher education institutions: responding to the challenge of gender equity in the University of Malawi with special reference to Chancellor College.* Paper presented at the Association of African Universities Open Day at Kamuzu College of Nursing, Lilongwe, 12<sup>th</sup> November.
- Boserup, E. (1995), *Women’s role in Economic Development*, London, England: Earth Scan Publications, Ltd.
- Direction of Education. (2007). Report 2007, Rubavu district.
- Lumumba (2000), *Educational and Economic Reforms, Gender Equity, and Access to: Schooling in Africa*, retrieved (August 19, 2008) from the World Wide Web: [http://www.arts.cornell.edu/poverty/Papers/AssieLumumba\\_education\\_reforms.pdf](http://www.arts.cornell.edu/poverty/Papers/AssieLumumba_education_reforms.pdf)
- Ministry of education (2008), *Gender and education.* Retrieved (August 29 2008) from the World Wide Web: <http://www.mineduc.gov.rw/spip.php?article22>.



- Mukazi, Mutanguha O. *The education of the Rwandan Girl Child still constitutes a major challenge*. Retrieved (August 28, 2008) from the World Wide Web: [www.rwandagateway.org/education/article.php?id\\_article=120 - 25k](http://www.rwandagateway.org/education/article.php?id_article=120-25k) –
- Republic of Rwanda, MINECOFIN (2001), *Rwanda development indicators*, Kigali.
- Republic of Rwanda, Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research, (2003), *Education Sector Policy*. Retrieved (August 29, 2008) from the World Wide Web: [http://www.education.nairobiunesco.org/PDFs/keydocs/Rwanda Education\\_Sector\\_Policy\\_July\\_2003.pdf](http://www.education.nairobiunesco.org/PDFs/keydocs/Rwanda_Education_Sector_Policy_July_2003.pdf) .
- Tuyizere. (2007). *Gender and development, the role of religion and culture*, Fountain Publishers, Kampala, Makerere University.
- UNDP (2001), *Human Development Indicators, 21 Gender-related Development Index*.
- UNESCO (2008), Institute for Statistics, *Gender parity in education: not there yet*.
- UNICEF (2002), *Girls' education training manual. Focus on the African girl's education initiative, Eastern and Southern Africa*. Regional, Office, Nairobi: UNICEF.



## **Sex, Income, Perceived Relative Advantage and Use of Communication Facilities among Doctoral Students at Kampala International University**

F. E. K. BAKKABULINDI

East African Institute of Higher Education Studies and Development

E. KIWEWA, M. T. KIBUUKA, A. KATUNGUKA, A. WANDIBA & P. EDABU

Kampala International University

**Abstract.** This study sought to establish the relationship between sex, income, perceived relative advantage and use of Internet facilities by doctoral students at Kampala International University. It was based on the quantitative approach and was co-relational and cross-sectional. Primary data were collected from 43 doctoral students, using self-administered questionnaires. It was analysed using summary statistics, independent samples t- test, Analysis of Variance and Pearson's linear co-relation co-efficient. The study found insignificant relationships between each of (i) sex (ii) income levels and (iii) perceived relative advantage, and use of Internet facilities. It was, therefore, concluded that sex, income and perceived relative advantage are not correlates of use of Internet facilities by the students. Thus, it is recommended that, in their quest for more use of Internet facilities in the University, the Directorate of ICT, and others in charge of fostering university-wide use of ICT, should provide assistance to the students irrespective of sex and level of income.

**Keywords:** Higher Education, ICT, Innovation Adoption, Perception, Personal Attributes

### **1 Introduction**

Mullins (2002) observes that for organizations to survive these days, they must adopt Information Communication Technology (ICT), given its innumerable benefits such as raising employee productivity and efficiency. It has been observed however that use of ICT in organisations is extremely low (Mullins, 2002; Rogers 2003) particularly in the case of education institutions (Cohen, 1983). While levels of low use of ICT in universities in Uganda have attracted the attention of many researchers (e.g. Agaba, 2007), little efforts have been devoted to isolate reasons why. In this paper it is argued that while there could

be several factors contributing to the said problem, sex, income level and perceived relative advantage could be a possible explanation. Hence this study relating use of Internet facilities to the three independent variables using doctoral students in Kampala International University as a case.

### **1.1 Sex and Use of Innovations**

According to Lane (2005) sex is a process of combining and mixing genetic traits, often resulting in the specialization of organism into a male and female variety (known as a sex). Sekiboobo (1995) cited in Basisa, 1999 argues that the more numerous roles a woman play (than a man) like cooking, fetching water and fire wood in addition to agricultural activities may hinder her from easily adopting a new technology. According to Kato (2000), the marginalization of women with regard to technology adoption and transfer is reinforced by the African cultural system which requires women to remain at home, while husbands attend seminars, and yet they do not always teach the women what they have learnt in extension meetings. Past studies on the relationship between sex and use of innovations can be found. For example, Mbabazi (2002) found a significant variable that associate with reasons against condom use among adolescents in central and Eastern Uganda, while Lubanga-Kiwanuka (1998) found sex as one of the factors influencing the adoption of new technologies of integrating and utilizing fruits trees in the farming system in Mukono District, Uganda. Although these empirical studies supported the hypothesis that sex has a bearing on use of innovations they did not relate to use of ICT, let alone the context of an academic institution such as KIU, gaps that the current study filled.

### **1.2 Income Level and Use of Innovations**

Income level is a measure of the earning of an individual, including not only wages and salaries (Gilbert, 1998). Schiffman & Kanuk (2004) posits that consumer innovators have higher personal or family income, and are more likely to have higher occupational statuses than late adopters or non innovators. According to Moralez-Gomez & Melesse (1988), access to Internet and other information communication technologies is only open to a small fraction of the population, a phenomenon which is a function of income; internet users tend to have above average income. They further assert that the situation is very more dramatic in developing countries where the income gap is exorbitant; where literacy rate are remarkably lower and where the users of telecom technologies are likely to belong to the modern elite. Empirical studies on the relationship between income and use of innovations are many. For example, Mugweri (2000) established the availability of funds as one of the challenges curtailing adoption of ICT networks in the Ministry of Finance, Planning & Economic Development, while Omona (2001) found high cost of operation and

maintenance as one of the problems that faced operation and functioning of ICT facilities for health information access and dissemination work in health institutions in Kampala District, Uganda. Although both empirical studies supported the hypothesis that income and use of ICT are positively correlated, they did not relate to KIU, a gap the proposed study will fill.

### **1.3 Perceived Relative Advantage and Use of Innovations**

Perceived relative advantage of an innovation is the degree to which the innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes (Kotler, 1991; Roger, 2003), and is often expressed in terms of economic profitability, social prestige (Rogers, 2003), productivity (Sentamu, 2001) convenience and satisfaction. Bakkabulindi (1997) asserts that digital, computerized or automated ICTs (e.g. computers) give us relative advantage resulting from their being electronic thus making us reap the benefit from the electronics such as working very fast, with incredible accuracy with a lot of liability or flexibility, with high storage capacity, and with more productivity and efficiency. It is this relative advantage that has made these ICTs to win favour in almost all fields of human endeavours, such as education, business, government, medicine and industry. Studies on the relationship between perceived relative advantage and use of innovations include Manzi (2001) who in a study of factors influencing farmers' choice of traditional and introduced soil management practices in Mwizi and Kabungo sub-counties of Mbarara District, Uganda, found that traditional soil practices were perceived by farmers to be more multi-advantageous than the introduced practices, hence at least partly explaining the reluctance to embrace the introduced soil management practices in the sub-counties. Although this empirical study supported the hypothesis that perceived relative advantage and innovation are positively correlated, it did not related to ICT use, let alone the context of an academic institution such as KIU, a gap the proposed study will fill.

### **1.4 Hypotheses**

From the above literature the study hypothesized that (i) sex of a doctoral student relates to use of Internet facilities in such a way that males are better. Further each of (ii) income level and (iii) perceived relative advantage, of a doctoral student positively relates with use of Internet facilities.

## **2 Methods**

Using a quantitative, correlational, survey design, data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire with questions or items on the three independent variables, namely sex (one question), income level (one question) and perceived relative advantage (five questions:  $\alpha = 0.8945$ ). The questionnaire had eight questions on use of Internet facilities ( $\alpha = 0.8585$ ).

According to Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Test (Cronbach, 1971), the questionnaire was reliable for the study as both relevant alpha coefficients were above 0.5. Using the said questionnaire, data were collected from a sample of 43 doctoral students, and analysed using summary statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations). The respective three hypotheses were tested using t, ANOVA and Pearson correlation analyses.

### 3 Findings and Discussion

#### 3.1 Respondents' Background

Of the 43 respondents, according to specialisation, Education Management contributed biggest (32.6%); followed by Business Management and Public Management each contributing 27.9%; and trailed by Management information Systems (11.6%). In terms of age, the majority (53.9%) were aged between 30 and 40 years, followed by those below 30 years (33.3%), and the rest (12.8%) were above 40 years of age. With regard to gender, males (76.7%) dominated females (23.3%), while regarding income level, most respondents perceived themselves as being of medium income (81.0%), followed by 16.7% of low income and one (2.4%) of high income. Regarding possession of qualification in ICT, the majority (64.3%) held none, vis-à-vis 35.7% with one. With respect to current job, the majority (50.0%) were both teachers and administrators, followed by 40.5% in teaching only and the rest (9.5%) in administration.

#### 3.2 Use of Internet Facilities

The dependent variable in the study was use of Internet facilities conceptualized in terms of eight questions or items namely use of e-mail; World Wide Web or surfing; bulletin board services, mailing lists and discussion groups; computer conferencing; video conferencing; electronic journals and newsletters; electronic data bases and on line library catalogues. Each of this was assessed basing on the five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = very rarely or never, to 5 = very regularly. Table 1 provides pertinent descriptive statistic showing the mean and standard deviation of the responses:

**Table 1: Respondents' Self Rating on Use of Internet Facilities**

<b>Indicator (use of communication facilities)</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>
Email	4.39	1.05
World Wide Web or surfing	4.13	1.26
Bulletin, board services, mailing list and discussion groups	2.81	1.17
Computer conferencing systems	2.24	1.15
Video conferencing systems	1.92	1.12
Electronic journals and news letter	2.74	1.29
Electronic data bases	2.28	1.15
On-line library catalogues	2.42	1.24

Table 1 suggests that while most doctoral students in KIU use Internet for e-mail and World Wide Web (means = 4.39 and 4.13 respectively), they hardly use other Internet facilities. To generate a summary picture of how the said doctoral students rated themselves on use of Internet facilities, an average index (i.e. “Int”) was computed for all the eight questions in Table 1 which turned out to have a mean = 2.86, suggesting only average use of Internet facilities. This finding was in line with those of earlier researchers who found low levels of utilization of computers by students in universities in Uganda. For example Nassanga (2001) found that students in Makerere hardly participate in ICT usage and management; Gakibayo (2001) established low levels of use of Internet by students in Mbarara University of Science & Technology, while Wakanyasi (2002) found the same true in Nkumba University.

### 3.3 Testing of Hypotheses

#### 3.3.1 Sex and Use of Internet Facilities.

The first hypothesis in the study was that sex of a doctoral student was related to use of Internet facilities in such a way that males were better. Table 2 shows pertinent descriptive statistics and t test result:

**Table 2: Use of Internet Facilities by Sex**

Sex	Count	Mean	Std deviation	t	P
Male	27	2.80	0.80	0.877	0.387
Female	10	3.06	0.89		

Table 2 indicates that, female doctoral students (Mean = 3.06) rated themselves slightly better than their male counterparts (Mean = 2.80) at use of Internet facilities. However the t value of 0.877 was small since its p value was big ( $p > 0.05$ ), resulting into acceptance of the null hypothesis to the effect that sex did not significantly relate to use of Internet facilities at 5% level of significance. This finding was in agreement with some studies (e.g. Bakkabulindi, 2007) but deviated from findings many others studies (e.g. Kato, 2000; Obbo, 2001; Okello, 2000). The finding led to the recommendation that in its quest to enhance use of Internet facilities, the Directorate of ICT of Kampala International University should provide equal assistance (e.g. in terms of training) to all doctoral students irrespective of sex.

#### 3.3.2 Income Level and Use of Internet Facilities

The second hypothesis in this study was that income level of doctoral student positively related with use of Internet facilities. Using one question, respondents categorized themselves as belonging to low, medium and high

income groups. To test this hypothesis, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used and pertinent descriptive statistics and F value are reflected in Table 3:

**Table 3: Use of Communication Facilities by Level of Income**

Income level	Count	Mean	Std deviation	F	p
Low	6	3.13	0.70	0.369	0.694
Medium	30	2.83	0.85		
High	1	2.63	0.0		

Table 3 suggests that, the low income group (Mean = 3.13) were slightly better users of Internet facilities than the medium and high income groups (Mean = 2.83 and 2.63 respectively). However, the F value of 0.369 was small since its p value was big ( $p > 0.05$ ), resulting into acceptance of null hypothesis to the effect that the income level of a doctoral student did not significantly relate with level of use of Internet facilities at the five percent level of significance. This finding however deviated from those of some studies such as Moralez-Gomez & Melesse (1998) though it was in agreement with those of some studies (e.g. Bakkabulindi, 2007). The variance of these findings from what was expected could be due to the fact that income rises with age which variable in terms correlates negatively with use of innovations (Rogers, 2003) The finding in the meantime however, led to the recommendation that in their quest for enhanced use of Internet facilities in the University, the Directorate of ICT and other stakeholders should provide equal assistance (e.g. in terms of training) to all doctoral students irrespective of income level.

### 3.3.3 Perceived Relative Advantage and Use of Internet Facilities

The third hypothesis in the study was that perceived relative advantage positively related to use of Internet facilities. Using five questions respondents rated themselves on perceived relative advantage of using Internet facilities, using the five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Pertinent descriptive statistics are as in Table 4:

**Table 4: Perceived Relative Advantage of Use of Communication Facilities**

Indication of relevance of communication facilities	Mean	Standard deviation
Computers can make workers fast	4.44	0.934
Computers can make workers more effective	4.21	0.833
Computers can enhance efficiency at work	4.14	0.861
Computers can make work more convenient	4.24	0.906
Computers can make work more satisfying.	4.00	0.972

Means in Table 4 suggest that most doctoral students perceived use of Internet facilities as having a lot of relative advantage (all means  $\geq 4.00$ ). The overall average index for all the five questions in Table 4 of 4.22 made the suggestion



stronger. To test the hypothesis that perceived relative advantage positively related to use of Internet facilities, Pearson's linear correlation co-efficient was used, which yielded  $r = 0.306$ ,  $p = 0.083$  suggesting a positive relationship ( $r > 0$ ) which however was insignificant ( $p > 0.05$ ) leading to acceptance of the null hypothesis to the effect that perceived relative advantage did not significantly relate with use of Internet facilities. This finding disagreed with many other findings such as Manzi (2001) and Turyasingura (1989), although it was at variance with findings of such studies as Basisa (1997) and Bukirwa, (1999). The disagreement of these results may have been due to inadequate conceptualization of the concept of perceived relative advantage of ICT as per Table 4. However in the meantime, the finding led to the recommendation that in their quest for enhanced use of Internet facilities in the University, the Directorate of ICT and others in charge of fostering university-wide use of ICT in the University should not lay undue emphasis on enhancing perceived relative advantage, say during training.

## References

- Agaba, D. (2003). *Utilization of Makerere University Library electronic information resources by academic staff: Challenges and the way forward*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Info Sc) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Bakkabulindi, F. E. K. (2007). *Social correlates of innovation adoption in educational organisations: The case of Makerere University*. Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy (in Educ. Planning, Mgt & Adm.) thesis, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Basisa, M. C. (1999). *Farmer characteristics influencing adoption of organic farming techniques among partner farmers of Africa 2000 Network in Kasese District Uganda*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Agric Ext./ Educ.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Cohen, D. K. (1983). Educational technology, policy and practice. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 9 (2), 153-170.
- Cronbach, L. J. (1971). Test validation. In R. L. Thorndike (Ed.). *Educational measurement* (pp. 443-597). Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Gakibayo, A. (2001). *Internet use in academic institutions: A case of Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST)*. Unpublished Bachelors of Lib. and Info. Sc. dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Gilbert, D. (1998). *The American Class Structure*. New York: Wadsworth Publishing.
- Kato, E. (2000). *Analysis of factors affecting adoption of K141 bean variety by women groups in Luuka County, Iganga District Uganda*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Agric. Econ.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala Uganda.

- Kotler, P. (1991). *Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation, and control*. NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Lane, N. (2005). *Power, sex, suicide: Mitochondria and the meaning of life*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lubanga-Kiwanuka, R. (1998). *Factors influencing adoption of new technologies of integrating and utilizing fruit trees in farming system of Mukono District*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Agric.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Manzi, J. N. (2001). *Factors influencing farmers' choice of traditional and introduced soil management practices in Mwizzi and Kabungo Sub counties of Mbarara District*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Agric Ext./ Educ.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Mbabazi, K. G. (2002). *Factors hindering condom use among adolescents in Uganda: A case of Central and Eastern Uganda*. Unpublished Masters of Arts (Demo.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala Uganda.
- Moralez-Gomez, D. and Melesse, M. (1998). Utilising information and communication technologies for development: Social dimensions. *Information Technology for Development*, 8 (1), 3-13.
- Mugweri, R. A. (2000). *Assessment of opportunities and challenges of exploiting ICT networks to improve efficiency and effectiveness in government operations: A case study of MFPED*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Info Sc.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Mullins, J. L. (2002). *Management and organizational behaviour*. London: Pitman.
- Nassanga, M. (2001). *Students' participation in ICT usage and management: A case study of EASLIS*. Unpublished Bachelors (of Lib. & Info Sc.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Obbo, D. F. (2001). *Gender and the Internet: Analysis of the portrayal of gender in Uganda websites on the Internet*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Info. Sc.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Okello, A. B. (2000). *Analysis of socio-economic factors affecting adoption of irrigation technology in drought-susceptible areas of Uganda*. Unpublished Masters of Science (Agric. Econ.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Omona, W. (2001). *Impact of information and communication technology in accessing and disseminating health information in selected health institutions in Kampala District*, Uganda. Unpublished Masters of science (Info Sc) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Rogers, E. M. (2003). *The diffusion of innovation* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.) NY: Free Press.
- Schiffman, L. G. and Kanuk, L. L. (2004). *Consumer behaviour*. (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). New Delhi: Prentice - Hall of India.
- Sentamu, F. X. (2001). *Information technology, organisation culture and the performance of National Water and Sewerage Corporation*. Unpublished

- Masters of Business Adm. dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Turyasingura, G. B. (1989). *Sexual behaviour and contraceptive knowledge, attitudes and practice among youths of Jinja District in Uganda*. Unpublished Masters of Arts (Demo.) dissertation, Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.
- Wakanyasi, N. (2002). *Capacity utilization of information technology in organisations: A case study of Nkumba University*. Unpublished Masters of Bus. Adm. dissertation, Nkumba University, Entebbe, Uganda.



## **Students' Perception of the Management Problems Delaying Postgraduates' Graduation from Nigerian Universities**

CHINELO O. DUZE  
Delta State University

**Abstract.** This study investigated the perceptions of various categories of Nigerian postgraduate students on university management related problems affecting their completion rates. Using a structured questionnaire, data were collected from a stratified random sample of 438 postgraduate students. The findings were that management related inadequacies are perceived to be affecting students' completion rates in all the Universities in the country. Hence, it is recommended that the universities revise their management structures and practices, with the view to alleviate bureaucratic administrative bottle-necks, undefined academic calendars and supervision related inadequacies.

**Keywords:** Student progression, Academic affairs management, Postgraduate supervision

### **1 Introduction**

The growth trend of universities in Nigeria is expansive rather than developmental in nature. This implies that apart from the cost of land, buildings, and staffing, each university, however small, needs its own working materials. Each needs its own machinery and equipment for science laboratories, language studies, and technical workshops; well-equipped libraries, efficient communication and transportation facilities; qualified and experienced manpower; own academic environment that facilitates teaching and learning; and comfortable accommodation for students and staff on the campus, good water supply and regular electricity supply. Thus, the implication of rapid proliferation of universities is the multiplicity in the provision of infrastructures, physical facilities, human resources, and quantity of funds required. These consume fat chunks of the nation's meager and scarce financial resources. The consequence is that the hitherto inadequate human and physical resources become more and more scarce and increasingly insufficient to meet the educational needs of the students. Another consequence is that a

“mismatch” arises between education and the economy, which further raises the level of unemployment.

It has also been observed that incessant rustications have become the order of the day in Nigerian universities. While the university Unions fought for improvements in the system, the Government seemed not to be bothered – it took its time in reaching and breaching agreements reached with these Unions at the expense of “study-time”. It appears that Nigeria does not place much value on time, which the industrialized economies have tagged “money”. Yet, money constitutes a major resource constraint on her economy. Time has been identified as a major input factor in any organized system, with Education consuming a great deal of it. In other words, time instead of money has been projected as a measure of a system’s efficiency. This is most evident in the educational system where it takes years to produce high level manpower contributes immensely to economic growth (Duze, 1997). In the same vein, Omoregie (1981) stated that the school system’s internal efficiency is often determined through a flow audit of the students. This means that each year a student spends in school represents a student-year investment of time and money in the school system.

Thus, the speed at which the students pass through an educational system becomes an index for measuring its efficiency. Also, Nwankwo (1981) stated that the relationship between the actual student-year investment and the optimum student-year investment for the output of the educational system is expressed as an input-output ratio, determining its efficiency. There is therefore a limiting factor of time on the relevance of any course in education to society. Thus, for universities in Nigeria where it could take up to ten years or more to graduate a doctoral student, against the stipulated period of three years, the implications are far-reaching. Economists and educators have come to agree that the survival of any nation is largely dependent upon two main ingredients – material and manpower. By virtue of their training, the products of Graduate School could be considered to be both material and manpower. As manpower, they are the critical human resources that appear in various forms as “change-designers”. They do researches, make discoveries and inventions. They renovate, suggest new ways of organizing and improving, and they plan broad strategies for the betterment of society. As material, they become re-cycled into appearing as “change-pushers” who are able to persuade, coach, and inspire others to put ideas to work (Aghenta, 1990). Therefore, the education and training of this critical resource necessary for sustainable national development must be thorough, effective and efficient. It was in this light that this study was undertaken to highlight some biting issues in postgraduate study in Nigerian universities that require attention. To guide the investigation, four null hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study.

## 1.1 Hypotheses

Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference between male and female postgraduate students' perception of problems of university management that delay graduation.

Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant difference between Young, Middle-aged Old postgraduate students' perception of problems of university management that delay graduation.

Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference between Married and Single postgraduate students' perception of problems of university management that delay graduation.

Ho<sub>4</sub>: There is no significant difference between Nigerian and Non-Nigerian postgraduate students' perception of problems of university management that delay graduation.

## 2 Methods

The research is a survey which sought the perception of various categories of postgraduate students on problems of university administration that constitute stumbling blocks to graduation. The population was 1,752 postgraduate students from which 438 students were selected through stratified random sampling. This was made up of 132 males and 306 females; 130 young, 256 middle-aged, and 52 old students; and 338 married and 100 single postgraduate students.

Data were collected through an instrument designated Postgraduate Students Management Problems Perception Questionnaire (PGSMPPQ) developed by the investigator. Section A of PGSMPPQ elicited demographic information while a 60-item Section B elicited information on postgraduate students' perceptions of management problems that delayed graduation.

The validity of the instrument was established after adopting corrections and modifications made in the draft by experts in educational administration and research methods. The reliability of the instrument was determined through a test re-test method carried out on 40 subjects other than the subjects of the study. The computed correlation coefficient of 0.88 for the instrument was found satisfactory. The 4-point Likert Scale response option used assigned 4 points to Strongly Agree (SA), 3 to Agree (A), 2 to Disagree (D), and 1 point to Strongly Disagree (SD). Mean scores of 2.5 and above were accepted as being positively disposed to the case investigated. The instrument was personally administered with the help of well-briefed third parties to the postgraduate students in the sampled Nigerian universities. Retrieval was 100%. The t-test and ANOVA were used for data analysis at the 0.05 level of significance.

### 3 Findings, Discussion and Conclusions

Data were analyzed as they related to the hypotheses and results presented in Tables 1 – 4.

#### 3.1 Hypothesis One

Results in Table 1 revealed that 132 of the 438 respondents were males and 306 females. Their respective mean scores were 3.80 and 3.97. The t-test for difference between two independent means was applied to the data to test the hypothesis. Since the calculated t value of 0.031 was numerically less than the Table t value (Z-critical) of 1.960, the null hypothesis was retained. This means that postgraduate male and female students did not differ significantly in their perception of management problems that constitute stumbling blocks to graduation.

**Table 1: Sex and Perception of Problems**

Variables	N	E X	X	E x <sup>2</sup>	(E x) <sup>2</sup>	df	Cal-t	Tab-t
Males	132	502	3.80	169322	252004	436	*0.031	1.960
Females	306	1215	3.97	1054540	1476225			

\*Not significant at 0.05 level

#### 3.2 Hypothesis Two

Analysis showed that out of the 438 postgraduate students with respect to age, 130 were grouped as young, 256 as middle-aged, and 52 as old, with respective mean scores of 3.51, 3.11, and 3.89. To test the hypothesis of equal means, the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was applied to the data, at 0.05 level of significance, df = 2, 435, and region of rejection R: F > 3.00. The result was presented in Table 2. Since the calculated F value of 1.35 was less than the Critical F value of 3.00, the null hypothesis was retained. This means that there was no significant difference between the three groups in their perception of management problems that delay graduation.

**Table 2: Age and Perception of Problems**

Source of Variation	Df	SS	MS	F <sub>calculated</sub>	F <sub>critical</sub>
Between Groups	2	36	18.00		
Within Groups	435	5800	13.33	*1.35	3.00
Total	437	5836	-		

\*Not significant at 0.05 level

#### 3.3 Hypothesis Three

Result in Table 3 showed that 338 of the 438 respondents were married and 100 were single, with respective mean scores of 3.85 and 3.96. To test this



hypothesis, the t-test was applied to the data, and the result presented in Table 3. The calculated t value of 0.019 was numerically smaller than the Table t or Z-critical value of 1.960, the null hypothesis was therefore retained. This means that there was no significant difference between married and single postgraduate students in their perception of management problems that hinder graduation at the stipulated time.

**Table 3: Marital Status and Perception of Problem**

Variables	N	E X	X	E x <sup>2</sup>	(E x) <sup>2</sup>	df	Cal-t	Tab-t
Married	338	1301	3.85	1003301	1692601	436	*0.019	1.960
Single	100	396	3.96	102104	156816			

\*Not Significant at 0.05 level

### 3.4 Hypothesis Four

Table 4 showed that out of the 438 respondents, 376 were Nigerians and 62 Non-Nigerians. Their respective mean scores were 3.03 and 3.97. To test the significance of two independent means, the t-test statistic was applied to the data and the result shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Nationality and Perception of Problem**

Variables	N	E X	X	E x <sup>2</sup>	(E x) <sup>2</sup>	df	Cal-t	Tab-t
Nigerians	376	1139	3.03	581307	1297321	436	*0.186	1.960
Non-Nigerians	62	246	3.97	15841	60516			

\*Not significant at 0.05 level.

This showed that the calculated t value of 0.186 was less than the Z-critical value of 1.960. The null hypothesis was therefore retained, meaning that Nigerians and Non-Nigerians did not differ significantly in their perception of management problems that delay graduation.

This implied that the Nationality of the postgraduate students did not, to any significant extent, influence their perception of management problems encountered at postgraduate studies in Nigerian universities.

## 4 Discussion

Null hypotheses One to Four, investigating individual variables of Sex, Age, Marital Status, and Nationality of postgraduate students respectively regarding management problems encountered in their studies that delay graduation were tested in this study and all were retained. This meant that the management problems encountered at postgraduate studies in Nigerian universities did not discriminate against these pre-identified groups of students. This also implied that the problems encountered, were real, in-depth, deep-rooted, and complex, since their effects transcended sex, age, marital status and nationality of participants or recipients constituting stumbling blocks to graduation.

Sex of respondents was not a discriminating factor. This finding was not a surprise since the roles of men and women in this country have become more supplementary than complementary in the past few years, a profile attributable to the tightening economic austerity in Nigeria. Besides, more and more women in Nigeria are becoming socially, politically, and economically empowered with a good number of them pursuing postgraduate degrees in all disciplines.

Also, age of respondents did not influence the way problems were perceived. This is an indication that the unmet needs at this level of education were “basic and gaping” needs, which could not be transcended by age differences. Similarly, married and single postgraduate students perceived the problems they encountered in more or less the same manner. This underscored the fact that management problems in this study were critical problems, which so affected participants’ study that even marital status could not discriminate against its effects. In the case of Nigerians and Non-Nigerians, Nationality was ruled out as a discriminating factor as tested in Hypothesis Four. The slightly higher mean score for Non-Nigerians however, indicated that they suffered the inadequacies much more, which of course was understandable.

These findings suggested that the management problems encountered by postgraduate students in Nigerian universities cut across cadres, situations, and circumstances, and even defied conditions that would naturally have been thought should introduce differences. The implication is that these problems are real, in-depth, complex, and deep-rooted and are indeed posing stumbling blocks to this level of Higher Education in Nigeria.

It is pertinent to note here that since this study was apparently the first to explore this area in Higher Education in Nigeria, there were really no other findings to refer to or compare with. The closest study found outside Nigeria at the time of the study was the work of Krom-Braen (1979).

The purpose of her study was to determine whether there were significant differences in the experiencing of problems by adult women who returned to Higher Education as undergraduates in three different types of institutions in New York, U.S.A. She found no significant differences with individual variables but found significant differences with institutional variables. Thus, the findings of this study which analyzed individual variables and problems encountered agreed with her study. It would be interesting to also study institutional variables in Nigeria and problems encountered by students in Postgraduate Studies.

## **5 Conclusions and Recommendations**

Based on the findings of this study, we concluded that individual variations of sex, age, marital status, and nationality did not influence the students’ perception of administration problems at postgraduate studies in Nigerian universities significantly. This means that the management problems

encountered by postgraduate students in Nigerian universities which, transcended variations in sex, age, marital status, and nationality were real, complex, and deep-rooted and that these problems have actually contributed adversely to the timely completion of postgraduate studies in Nigerian universities.

Based on the conclusions, it was recommended that the Nigerian government should set up a body or a commission examine the existing problems in running postgraduate programmes with a view to improving the status quo, and with all stakeholders well-represented. The problem areas of poor finance/funding, inadequate and deteriorating infrastructures, decaying facilities, obsolete and non-functioning equipment, unavailable working materials, and increasing brain-drain of experienced academic staff should be honestly addressed. Administrative/bureaucratic bottlenecks should be removed. Time wasted as a result of undergraduate rustications, undefined academic calendar, and poor supervision due to high lecturer-student ratio should be seriously addressed. The private sector should be coaxed to participate in providing needed infrastructures and facilities, and also provide consultancies that would help cushion the myriads of deep-rooted problems that exist in Higher Education in Nigeria. They should be allowed by the Nigerian government to open more private universities without requiring the present “near-impossible-conditions.” Foreign investors could be encouraged in this dimension too.

## References

- Aghenta, J.A. (1990). “Education in Nigeria”, in Adejumobi, S.A. and Ivowi, U.M.O. (eds.) *Comparative Education for Nigeria*. Lagos: NERDC.
- Duze, C. O. (1997). “An identification and analysis of problems encountered by postgraduate students in Nigerian universities.” (Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Delta State University, Nigeria.)
- Krom-Braen, J. (1979). “A comparative study of non-college age women who re-enter higher education in a traditional college, a contract learning college, and a credit by examination institution.” (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, State University of New York.
- Nwankwo, J.I. (1981). *Introduction to Research Operations in Education and Social Science*. Karachi: Izharsona Press Publishers.
- Omoregie, O.S.B. (1981). “Educational auditing in schools”, in *Towards Efficiency in School Administration*. Benin-City: Institute of Education, University of Benin.



## Impact of Salary on Teachers' Performance in Bulamagi Sub County

DAVID LAMECK KIBIKYO  
Centre for Basic Research

BURUHAN SAMANYA  
Kampala International University

**Abstract.** This paper reports the findings of a study that examined the impact of salary on teachers' performance in Bulamagi Sub County in Uganda. Data were collected on teachers' salaries and class attendance and subjected to regression analysis. The results were that there is no significant relationship between teachers' salaries and performance. However, the constant was significant (0.765,  $p=0.000$ ) and positive, indicating the importance of non-salary factors in explaining the teachers' performance. It is, therefore, recommended that efforts to improve teachers' work performance pay due attention to non-salary related factors that could be affecting their performance.

**Keywords:** Universal Primary Education (UPE), Management, Motivation

### 1 Introduction

Universal Primary Education (UPE) was initiated by the developed countries in order to eliminate illiteracy in the third world countries by the year 2015. This was due to low literacy levels of the third world children. This was referred to as the Education for All (EFA.) and this was arrived at after a series of conferences. According to Action Aid (2004) by 1990 the vision was not realized by several third world countries Uganda inclusive. Uganda, however, showed interest later and UPE became part of President Museveni's campaign strategy in three Presidential races of 1996, 2001 and 2006. Besides, Article 30 and 34(2) of the 1995 constitution provides right of education to every Ugandan and it is upon this background that Museveni's launched UPE in 1997. However the above program could not go alone, it required teaching staff especially with the influx of pupils who turned up after announcing free education. The influx of pupils rose to 7.3 million in 2002 and automatically the number of teachers rose from 139,484 in 2002 to 145,819 (Educational

Planning Department Annual School Census, 2004). The UPE objectives were to increase girl child education, reducing the rate of illiteracy rate and improve pupils' skills especially in job creation.

The study covered Bulamagi Sub County; Iganga District has several primary schools. A part from that Bulamagi has Bishop Willis demonstration school which has both disabled pupils like the blind and the deaf and the normal. In order to promote literacy, the issue of the human resource was important to put at the forefront to achieve the Universal Primary Education (UPE) goal. UPE operated in all the districts of Uganda and the government hoped to use this project to eradicate HIV/AIDS, promote girl-child education and generally eradicate illiteracy. The project is under the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) that monitored the project at district level through the Resident District Commissioner (RDC), District Education Officer (DEO) and Chief Executive Officer (CEO). The trio acted as checks and balances on the use of the government money directed towards the development of the infrastructures and the payment of teachers.

NRMO (2006) manifesto says that there has been a series of improvement, most importantly the teacher pupil ratio from 100:1 in 1997 to 54: 1 to date that shows that there has been something that motivated teachers to the system. However, a number of complaints have been heard all over the country especially the issue of low pay, Action Aid (2005:8) basing on research carried out observed that "Low salaries make teachers consider other supplementary sources of income to support their families." The government funds the project but there seems to be poor performance of both the teachers and pupils and this research would help to find out how payments can help to solve the problem of poor performance.

## **2 Teachers' Salaries and Performance**

Salary and performance have a greater relationship, according to Kochar (2000). Payment was seen as the compensation of the employees with wages for their time worked as well as more indirect or direct benefits received as part of their relationship with the organization, according to Kathryn, Bartol and Martin (1998). This means that payments improves the relationship of the employees with the organization, in the same magnitude the employee's attitudes, behaviour, and love for the organization. However with the complicities in the organizations particularly large ones, it is difficult to implement compensations and payments in the right line and order.

### **2.1 Payment of Salary**

The principal purposes of an organizational pay scheme is that it acts as a problem solving issue when it comes to individual satisfaction .It is believed in

human resource management that the man power resource should be made happy at the expense of others (Maicibi, 2005). Aswathapak (2001) money is understood to be powerful motivation for more than one reason. In the first place money is fundamental for the completion of tasks. Work, unless voluntarily or pay involves contract between two parties guaranteed by the payment of money. The employee takes a pay as the reward for his work and the employer view it as a price for using the service of the employees. Gupta Alka (1998) if the worker feel motivated his behaviour will result in the performance of the desired action. Therefore workers should be paid honestly by management to keep their dissatisfaction at the open door step of the enterprise Attraction of suitable and sufficient employees, since this is a capitalistic world where people look for green pastures .Therefore schools that satisfies the teachers would not only attract better teachers but also multi-tasked talents like music, dance and drama. Education watch (2004) laments the low salaries of teachers. This is reiterated by the Kenya primary school head association (KEPSHA) which is fighting low teachers allowances in Kenya. This is according to the chairperson of KEPSHA, Titus Kinyanjuyi Walthaka, has caused a lot of frustration on head teachers.

## **2.2 Employee Performance**

It is wastage of time to expect high performance from the workers if they are not given a feedback from their superiors giving them an occasional pat on the back. Schuler and Stuart (1986) defined performance appraisal as “a system of evaluating and influencing an employee’s job related attributes, behaviour, outcome and the level of absenteeism to discover at what level the employee can perform on the job.” This explains how the employee will work in the future so that the employee, organization and society can perform. Maicibi (2003) argues that if employees do not feel good, they are most likely to leave such jobs soon because they are denominated especially the unclear responsibilities or performance standards.

Performance appraisal is a technique to determine deficit. Prasaad (2001) defines “it as process of evaluating the performance and the qualification of the employees in terms of requirements of the job which he is employed for, for the purpose of administration, selection, promotion and financial rewards. It is indicative and must be used as collective measure to improve on performance by managers at different levels.

Rao (2001) defines “performance appraisal as a method of evaluating the behaviour of employees at the spot of work, normally including both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of job performance.” Hence performance refers to the accomplishment of the tasks that make up individual’s job. Performance appraisal helps us to find out whether an employee is worth receiving a bonus, promotion and training. Rao (2001) Advanced that “performance appraisal when properly conducted not only let the employee know how well he is performing but also influence the employee future levels

of efforts, activities, results and task direction. It gives us results about employee potential for development implying that it is the mirror used to detect the weakness and strength of the workers

Training, according to Birungi (2003) “is the process of imparting employees of an organization with the body of knowledge and skills that are necessary for them to understand the overall working of the organization and to be able to perform certain tasks with high level of performance.” This means that training should enable the employee understand the operations of the organization hence it must be tailored to the achievement of the organizational objectives. Schermerborn (1993) argued that “training is a set of activities that provide learning opportunities to acquire and improve on the job skills.” This applies to both to the initial training of an employee and to the upgrading or improving some skills to meet changing job requirements

### **2.3 Linking Salary to Work Performance**

McGregor writing in 1960 refuted the X theory which says human beings are naturally lazy so they are supposed to be coerced in order to perform. In response, he brought forward theory Y says that mans efforts are directed towards work but the only way is by motivating them once they benefit. Manipulating pay to achieve the required work performance is not easy and according to theory can be indirect depending on timing, volume of salary itself or amount, individual concerned and level of job under discussion.

Abuja (1997) argues that the history of motivation dates back to 1800 during industrial revolution. In Europe competition forced employers to use more efficient methods of producing high quality products, quickly and at a lower cost. At that time money was used as a motivating incentive. Koontz and Weibrich (1998) further argued that if money is to be considered as an effective motivator, people in various positions even though at a similar level must be given salaries and bonuses to reflect their individual performance. Terry and Franklin (2000) categorically stated that many people work to get money but even those that work have the ambitions of getting more money to add on what they have. Debson and Palfreman (1999) argued that people respond to the incentives if an employer raises an hourly wage, people will work hard other things being equal.

### **2.4 Timing and Promptness**

According to Maicibi (2003) promptness of payment is important because the workers need to meet responsibilities. He argued that once salary is paid on time then the workers can do their work diligently reducing worker stress. This study investigates the promptness with which UPE teachers are paid in Bulamagi Sub-County.



## 2.5 Amount

Chatterjee (1996) argues that if an organization is willing to pay high wages, it can attract well qualified workers. While several factors determined worker motivation such as job security, good working conditions, recognitions, advancement that influences personal feelings about the job; salary is still one of the foremost considered. If his earnings are at an acceptable level based upon the evaluation of his worth, the other factor become less important. If his earnings are inadequate, then there is a strong possibility he will become dissatisfied. Charterjee's views are supported by other authors.

Ivancevich (2001) mentioned that Herzberg concluded that changing pay will not motivate but if pay is inadequate or of the wrong type or mismatched to employees needs any way, dissatisfaction results. Motivation is greatly influenced by a fair pay of an employee that might be satisfied with pay and others may feel cheated and act accordingly. To reduce this feeling, the dissatisfied employee would change quality, quantity of his/her input the result would increase absenteeism, lower quantity and quality. It is for this reason, that this study uses absenteeism as a measure of employee performance.

Differing from the above equity theory by Adams (1965) suggests that there are two forms of equity they include distributive equity which is concerned with the fairness which people feel that they are rewarded in accordance with the contribution and in comparison with others. While procedural equity or procedural justice is concerned with perceptions that fairness with procedures like areas like performance appraisals, promotion and discipline are operated. Further still, Shane (2003) explains equity theory in relation to how people develop perceptions of fairness in the distribution and exchange of resources. He says that people express inequity when they feel uncomfortable tension. If the tensions are strong, it motivates employees to take steps to reduce on the inequity. Furthermore acting on the comparison out comes or in puts restores equity. If you feel over rewarded then you might work at a leisurely pace .If you feel under rewarded then you have a feeling that then over rewarded should have a bigger workload. Most importantly many researchers have grown interest in the equity theory and they have substantiated that this explains the cause of theft, workers becoming hostile at their worker places and also the cause of other indecent behaviours.

## 2.6 Individual Characteristics

Arthur Pell (1998) believes that money like working condition is a satisfier; you might assume that offering more money generates high productivity for most people but not for everyone. Incentive programs, in which people are given more chance to earn more by producing more, are part of many company compensation plans they work for some people but not others. Aswathapa (2002) further concludes that, money can motivate some people under some conditions. Put in another way, money cannot motivate all people under all circumstances.

Linda James (1998) argues that employees are not motivated solely by money but are linked to their attitudes. The need for employees motivation is the primary focused of the managers, but of all the functions a manager performs it is arguably the most complex due to the fact that motivates employee's is dynamic.

## **2.7 Low and Middle Cadres**

Gareth Jones *et al* (2000) mentioned that management can use pay to motivate employees to perform at high levels and attain high goals. Pay is used to motivate entry level worker first line and middle line managers. Pay can be used to people to help people to join and remain in an organization. Kalyani *et al* (2001) further asserts that at a lower level people may be motivated or influenced by money incentives but time will come when money will cease to be a motivating source. In summary, the study targets to test the McGregor, Charterjee and Maicibi theories that argue that it important to motivate a worker, in reasonable time, and also with some reasonable amount of pay.

## **3 Methodology**

### **3.1 Study area, Population and Sample**

The total population of teachers and head teachers in Bulamagi Sub-county Iganga District was 406 including 23 head teachers and 383 teachers also displayed in Table 1.1. The study involved 4 (four) schools. These were: Bishop Willis Demonstration School, Ibula Primary School, Walugogo Primary and Bukoyo Primary School. The study respondents included five financial controllers from all the selected schools, eight teachers from each school totalling to forty and one director of studies (DOS). The total of respondents was fifty. There were 29 (65.9 %) male respondents and 15 (34 %). The response according to age bracket were 21-30 were 13 (29.5%), 31-40 age bracket were 22 (50%) and finally 41-50 age bracket were 9 (20.43%).

### **3.2 Interviews**

These were used mainly with the supervisors and the field officers who had little time to attend to the researcher because of the nature of their work. Interviews clarified on issues. The instrument helped in the collection of qualitative data and the in-depth feeling of the respondents. They are important for discovering healthy and attitudes of people, according to (Kvale 1996).

### **3.3 Data analysis**

The collected data from the field was analyzed using regression analysis in order to establish the relationship between the two variables of teacher

performance (y) as the dependent variable and teacher motivation or salary (x) as the independent. Essentially, the analysis involved estimating the non-salary coefficients (a) and teacher motivation (b) estimated with a model specification as  $y = a + bx + \alpha$  with e as the error term. The manual aspects of the solution required solving the two normal equations (1) and (2) stated here-below: (1)  $\sum y = an + b \sum x$  and (2)  $\sum xy = a \sum x + b \sum x^2$ .

#### 4 Findings and Discussion

The data in Table 1.1 was analyzed by estimating a linear regression equation  $y = a + bx + \alpha$  where y was the dependent variable and also the teacher performance; a was the constant or y-intercept to be estimated and representing non-salary coefficient; b was the slope of the curve to be estimated and; x was the independent variable of monthly salary of the primary teachers which is given in Table 1.1 column 1 and  $\alpha$  was the residual or error term. In Table 1 the average salary is Shs .254772.73 while average attendance in the month of May 2007 in the four schools was 0.8186 or 82 % present.

**Table 1: Teacher Payment and Attendance**

Salary (UGX)	Frequency of salary	Attendance in May 2007
160,000	01	2.27
200,000	10	22.7
210,000	01	2.27
220,000	17	38.6
260,000	01	2.27
280,000	06	13.6
300,000	03	6.8
340,000	01	2.27
380,000	01	2.27
400,000	01	2.27
480,000	01	2.27
660,000	01	2.27
480,000	01	2.27
660,000	01	2.27
Total	44	

The hypotheses concerning (a) and (b) was that the former (a) and (b) were expected to be positive because Maicibi argues that at low levels of employment, salary was a motivator. The results are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Impact of Salary on Teachers' Performance**

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-stat	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
Constant	0.765	0.029	26.10	0.00	.000
Salary	0.000	0.000	0.286	1.933	0.06

Salary as a factor that motivates workers is marginal ( $p= 0.06$ ). The majority of respondents from the field did suggested that salary was not only small but also cited other factors not related to factors external to the education sector. Interviewee six pointed out that the salary was like offering voluntary service, irritating and miserable over which they had lost hope of improvement.” “Low salaries make teachers consider other supplementary sources of income to support their families,” said male primary teachers in Bulamagi Sub County. An eight year experienced teacher displayed loss of hope thus, “*We always humble ourselves in respect for the arrival of the messiah who know that a sheep eat from where it is tied.*”

The re-enforced loss of hope was further displayed by the fact that the Uganda teachers Association (UTA) was formed here to act as a voice of teachers but in most cases it is outclassed by the government and up to now no important results were achieved. A teaching staff interviewee ten with four year experience said, “*The genesis of this is that we are naïve starting from our association (UTA).*” There was neither hope in teaching currently, nor did it exist in the future. “*Head teachers have high pay and for them they are happy especially those that acquired these posts of recent who are green about the government reluctance to revise Salary structures*” Seven year experience teacher. The hopelessness of teachers however, did not cause poor teacher performance as a result of internal checking by head of schools and external supervision by the DEOs.

It was evident that the link between teachers’ motivation and performance was indirect depending on other infrastructure serves such as Banks in the district. A two year experienced teacher expressed the indirect link to thus, “*At times teachers bribe police officers on duty in order to secure the first positions at the bank ATMs.*” Incidentally, insufficient banking services led to the ills in society such as corruption.

Incidentally, it was not the amount Salary that was the only problem but also issues related to timing, failure to pay overtime complaints about head teacher being better off and ignoring their starving teachers and failure to provide for the future. First, concerning promptness, most teachers were of the view that they would tolerate if it did not exceed 28 – 30 of the month. A head teacher of one school said, “*Employees should be paid salary in the last three days of the month.*” Second, overtime, the teachers commented on work load and pay which they vehemently said, “*Teachers deserve motivation according to their workload, promotion, qualifications and experience*” said a Ten year experienced teacher. While salary was insignificant in driving teacher performance, non-salary factors were significant.

The results indicated that non-salary variable was  $a=0.765$  ( $p= 0.000$ ) and significant. Therefore other factors are significant especially coercion by the Head teachers, coordinating tutors and the district inspector of schools. An interviewee eight who is Head teacher said, “*There is always teachers registers*

*to monitor the attendances and the schemes of work are under serious checking by both the director of studies (DOS) at times a team from District Education Office (DEO). No doubt Teachers do their work because of fear of stigma and professional ethics.”*

Comparing the results and the empirical evidence, from Iganga, display a contradiction with the former but support for the latter two. While McGregor argued that in order to make someone perform, one had to be motivated, evidence of Iganga show that salary did not improve worker performance and therefore salary is not a motivator. It was, however, indicated that salaries would be welcome if they were paid on any of the last three days of the month. In addition, while higher salary would not make one worker harder, low salaries were actually making teachers to revert to alternative means of earning income negatively affecting teaching work.

## 5 Conclusions

The study set out to investigate the relationship between salary and Teacher performance in Iganga District. Teacher Salary is measured as the monthly basic salary while Teacher performance is measured as percentage of monthly attendance in the month of twenty-two days of May, 2007. The study took on a non-experimental research design interviewing 44 Teachers, headmasters and school bursars. The selection of respondents was determined by ability to answer the questionnaire. Data was analyzed using regression analysis using the Standard Package for Social Scientists (SPSS).

The results were not significant returning the regression salary coefficient of 0.000 ( $p=0.06$ ) indicating that there was no relationship between Teacher Salary on Teacher Performance in Bulamagi Sub County Universal Primary Schools (UPE). The constant, however, was significant 0.765 ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive indicating the importance of non-salary issues in teacher performance such as internal and external supervision by the Director of studies (DOS) and the District Education Officer (DEO) respectively. The computed coefficient of determination or  $R^2$  was 0.082 interpreted to mean that salary explained work performance by 8.2 % and other factors accounted for 91.8%. The  $R^2$  also suggested that the model left out critical variables determining Teacher Performance.

## References

Abuja Gunther; Stuart Simpson, 1997, Bericht über den Europarat Workshop 12B Bilingual Education in secondary schools: learning and teaching non language. Retrieved June 2009 from: [www.bayern-bilingual.de/gymnasium/userfiles/Bibliographie\\_BSU\\_Sept09.pdf](http://www.bayern-bilingual.de/gymnasium/userfiles/Bibliographie_BSU_Sept09.pdf) .

- Action Aid, (2004) *Gender based violence in educational institutions*.Kampala: communication unit
- Action Aid, (2005), *Dynamics in school environment*, Kampala
- Adams (1965) *Advances in experimental social psychology* (1965) Berkowitz, L. New York: Academic Press, [www.getcited.org/pub/103371021](http://www.getcited.org/pub/103371021) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Amin, E. (2005). *Social Science Research: Concepts, Methods and Analysis*. Kampala: Makerere University Press
- Aronson Richard (1996) "Feed Back On Performance" *Wall Street Journal* 5th June
- Aswathapa (2001), *Human Resource Management*, [www.flipkart.com/search-books/human+resource+management+aswathapa/CT4366\\_0](http://www.flipkart.com/search-books/human+resource+management+aswathapa/CT4366_0) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Aswathapa k (2002) *Organization Behaviour*, [www.flipkart.com/search-books/organization+behaviour+aswathapa](http://www.flipkart.com/search-books/organization+behaviour+aswathapa) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Birungi, M. (2003), *Human Resource management simplified text, questions and cases*.India: Kampala: Hoonkab printers
- Boree, L.C. , L.C., Thill, Buckwood, Mand Doril, (1993). *Management*.New York: Irwin McGraw Hill Inc
- Chatterjee, Biswas, Soumendu; Srivastava, Kailash B.L.; Giri, Vijai N, 1996, *Human resource management, individual behaviour and organisational effectiveness: a study in Indian organizations*, *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, July 01, 2007
- Dobson Steve and Susan Palfreman, (1999), *An Introduction to Economics*, [www.cqout.com/item.asp?id=2637092](http://www.cqout.com/item.asp?id=2637092) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Educations Watch (2004). *State Summary Reports*, [ww2.edtrust.org/edtrust/summaries2004/states.html](http://ww2.edtrust.org/edtrust/summaries2004/states.html) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Gareth R. Jones and George M. Jennifer, (2000), *Organizational Behaviour*. 4th edition. Prentice Hall.
- Gupta Alka (1998). *Management Studies, Business Management*, [www.linkedin.com/pub/a/236/837](http://www.linkedin.com/pub/a/236/837) (Downloaded Friday 13 February 2009 1800)
- Government of Uganda, 1995, 1995 Uganda Constitution
- Hayagreeva Rao, Gerald M. Davis and Andrew Ward, 2000, *Embedded and Social Identity: Why Organizations Leave NASDAQ and Join NYSE?* *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45:268-292. 2000.
- Hapaz, I., (1990) "The Importance of Work Goal," *An International Perspective Journal of International Business Studies*, .21:
- Hollman (1992) "The Human Side of Enterprise" *The Journal of Business Horizon* Vol. number 1

- Fried, B., D. Ivancevich, and S. Ivancevich (2001) "Establishing effective coping procedures." *The Bottom-line: The Journal of Hospitality Financial and ...*
- Kalyani A, Hobson K, Rao MS (2001) Neuroepithelial stem cells from the embryonic spinal cord: isolation, characterization, and clonal analysis. *Dev Biol* 186: 202-223
- Kathryn, U.Bartland martin, C., (1998), *Management*, New York .Irwin McGraw hill
- Kohler-Koch, Beate (2000), 'Network Governance Within and Beyond an Enlarging EU', paper presented to *ECSCA-Canada Conference European Odyssey: The EU in the new Millennium*, Québec, 30 July – 1 August 2000.
- Koontz Harold and Heinz Weibrich, 1998, *Management: A Global Perspective*, McGraw College, London
- Linda James, (1998), "Understanding Employee's Motivation" June, 36: 3
- Maicibi, 2003, *Management of Workforce Diversity Issues and Lessons for Organisations*,
- Maicibi, N.A and Nkata, J.L., (2005) *.Introduction to Human Resource Management*: Kampala: Masah publishers
- Maicibi, N.A. (2003) *Pertinent Issues in Employee Management*, Kampala, M.P.K. publishers
- MoES, (2004), Educational Planning Department Annual School Census, 2004
- NRMO, 2006), National Resistance Movement (NRMO) Museveni's Manifesto; Kampala
- Prasaad L.M. (2001) *Principle and Practice of Management (7<sup>th</sup> Ed)* .India: Sultan Chanda and sons
- Schermerborn J R., 1993, *Management for Productivity*, Fourth Edition, New York, Wiley
- Schermerborn, J.R. (2003) *Management: for Productivity (4<sup>th</sup> Ed)* .New York: John Wiley and Sonsinc.
- Schular, S.K. and Stuart, (1986) A.Y. *Effective Personal Management*. New York: publishing company
- Shane, 2003, *A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-Opportunity Nexus*, Cheltenham, Edward, Edgar,
- Terry A. Boyd and Franklin, 2000, *Organizational Change*, [www.franklin.edu/about-franklin/faculty-profiles/terry](http://www.franklin.edu/about-franklin/faculty-profiles/terry) (Accessed from the Internet on 20<sup>th</sup> October 2010 at 1437 EAST).





## English Language Proficiency and Academic Performance at Kampala International University

DAVID MWESIGWA  
Kampala International University

**Abstract.** This study undertook to establish the relationship between students' English language competence and academic performance at Kampala International University. Using a structured questionnaire, data were collected from a random sample 171 students drawn from the faculties of social sciences and computer science and the School of Business and Management. The findings were that there is a significant relationship between English language competence and students' academic performance. Therefore, it is recommended that the University promotes students' development of English language competence, as a way of promoting their academic performance.

**Keywords:** International education; Medium of Instruction; English Language

### 1 Introduction

English language is commonly acknowledged by many people the world over. It has been argued by scholars, politicians, corporate personalities and universities that the use of English language is inseparable with university business especially in the traditionally Anglo-phone countries. This is not to say that English is the only internationally recognised language in universities. Several other languages have been and continue to be used at the international spectrum. Notably such language include French, Kiswahili, Arabic, etc. one of the biggest international organizations, the Common Wealth, uses English language as the means of transacting business. Although one would emphatically argue that the Commonwealth majorly involves former British colonies, which may not be the only single factor, it has in recent past moved to involve others from the Franco-phone origin.

The use of English language is not just for interaction and/or communication among university students, but indeed all the affairs that affect them have now turned out to be conducted in English language. Interestingly, some students who seemingly use English language more than any other language are indeed not English by origin nor are they from the European

Union constituency. In Uganda for instance, a number of families have come to abandon their own mother language in preference to English. Those families make sure that they even employ house helpers who can fit in the family language, even though they may all be from the same ethnic origin. This has rendered many a family to regard their indigenous language as outdated, inferior, old fashion, and uncivilized. These claims can be illustrated by the tongue twisting among the current English speakers mainly at higher institutions of learning, the media, etc who are often heard struggling with an American or British accent.

In most private primary schools, a good number of parents/ guardians take their children there because they are capable of learning English language at an early age (sometimes before form one) which is seen as a grand motivation. This is in line with what Agarwal (1996) calls diagnostic functions in addition to the quality of teachers (Shirley and Jonathan, 1993; Tara, 1990; Shiefelbein and Simmon, 1981, Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981). Literary a Ugandan child is seen to spend between two to three years in school learning little but mainly English language! Although they do some form of arithmetic, more and more time is spent on English comprehension. By the end of the primary education cycle, the child who fails to make it further cannot be useful at all to their communities because they spent most time on the English language and not how to live with and/or earn a livelihood.

Uganda's formal education system is such that all national and local examinations and other forms of assessments are held in English language. It is thus, common knowledge to find 98% of all materials in the school/ college/university library (Venkataiah, 2000; Marshal and Bruce, 1997; Bhatia, 1995; Eshiwani, 1993/1995; Noordhold, 1965) are English based. Children in middle primary and post-primary schools (Kulbir, 1996; Kochhar, 1985; Stinnett, 1965) are forced to continuously speak English language (including harsh punishments on the offenders) at the expense of their local languages. Some candidates fail examinations and other school assignments (Shiefelbein, 1990; Wikin, 1984) not because they do not know what to do but because they cannot understand well the dynamics of English language as they would if the same questions were presented in their local languages. Others mainly at university have taken longer to graduate because they could not write and/or defend their theses, an activity which is predominantly English.

Some well qualified students (Newman, et al. 1995; Bruner, 1960) have been denied employment on the pretext that they could not convince the interviewers (or express themselves well in the language). As you may agree with this argument that not all the language skills can be developed at the same time in every individual, so those whose English speaking or analytical skills take longer to develop continue to miss out on their opportunities. This is so in spite of the fact that more than 50% of the same person's would be job, may not necessarily require them to apply English language. Cases in point include, community health workers, nurses, drivers, machine operators, marketers, etc.

Some of our very good politicians continue to be looked down upon (including some national leaders) on grounds that they cannot exquisitely express themselves in English to the effect that some have been denied a vote because of their limited English ability. The film industry in both Uganda and outside continues to gimmick one of Uganda's former presidential speeches which did not march well with the English vocabulary. Though interestingly, the poor English speaker spent more time in office than the Professor and Advocate who followed him soon after. The professor and the advocate had very good English, but none of the two took even one quarter of the time spent by the poor English speaker in state house!

A good number of innocent civilians (the accused/ defendants) end up in prison because they cannot present themselves in English language which is popularly used for most court proceedings in Uganda. Court proceedings are often translated especially when the defender does not understand English. It is not so clear whether the interpreters translate the words and intentions of the magistrate/judge as originally intended by the first speaker. Unfortunately, even when the magistrate/judge is passing judgement they continue in the same English language oblivious of the fact that defendant is not knowledgeable in English communication.

The Uganda constitution of 1995 and other legal instruments such as the Local Governments Act, the Penal Code, have for more than ten years never been translated into any other language except English. This condition continues unabated in spite of the fact that about 42% of all local council three councillors are below ordinary level of education who may thus not interpret the constitutional provisions which ought to guide them. Several ladies have ended up in unrefined relationships because the proposals come from someone who could express himself well in English, although, the same condition cannot be empirically translated into a stable relationship. This is based on the fact that relationships have no known language for which they can best be nourished. After all every language on planet earth has the word "love" in their dialect and so they can make the better of it. Several business men/ women and consumers have been conned of their money because they cannot understand English so well. The businessmen/women fail to interpret most of the language on the items they wish to buy in terms of quality and quantity (Charmes, 1997; Macharia, 1997; Keller, 1996) plus expiry dates and so do several consumers because of the language.

Finally, the church (mainly Pentecostal) services have turned out to be a place of noise making with little to be comprehended by the flock. This is illustrated by the fact that the interpreter and the main speaker often fail to connect to each other and so do several listeners in the congregation who merely shout "Amen" without any significant comprehension of the proximate causation from others. If all the masses knew the language, they would have flown better. As far as English language is concerned, all affairs affecting university students in Uganda and beyond have an English connotation (though at varying degrees). By implication, English has become part and parcel with

life in Ugandan universities. Therefore, it was worth determining the relationship between English language and academic performance in Kampala International University.

### **1.1 Motivation for the study**

Though the national constitution lists down all the local languages spoken in the country, leaders of the civil society including the church continue to register a lot of complaints from universities that their knowledge about most indigenous languages is increasingly becoming poor. There is a general trend of most local languages being subservient to the English language which is taught in all universities. Many universities, including Kampala International University, are said to be encouraging the use of English language at the expense of indigenous languages. Several commonly used items today do not seem to be having their equivalent terms in the local dialect.

The Buganda kingdom ministry of culture and sports as well as that of Bunyoro kingdom have registered a lot of fabrications in their respective local dialects mainly perpetuated by local music artists, the media, International organizations, education, inter-marriages, immigrations/emigrations and the American superiority. Most popular speakers can no longer sustain a five minute speech in a perfect local language without deviating or patching it with English terminologies [though disjointed]. This study aimed at determining whether the use of English language had any significance on academic performance Kampala International University-Uganda.

### **1.2 Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to establish the extent to which English language contributed towards academic performance in Kampala International University.

### **1.3 Objectives**

The objectives that guided the study were:

1. To determine the relationship between English speaking and academic performance.
2. To establish the relationship between English reading and academic performance.
3. To prove the relationship between writing English and academic performance.
4. To ascertain the relationship between English listening on academic performance.

### 1.4 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study:

1. There are no significant differences in the students' perceptions of English language based on demographic characteristics.
2. There is no significant relationship between English speaking and academic performance.
3. There is no significant relationship between English reading and academic performance.
4. There is no significant relationship between listening to English and academic performance.
5. There is no significant relationship between writing in English and academic performance.

## 2 Methods

A questionnaire was used to collect most of the primary data. Amin (2005:269) defines a questionnaire as a carefully designed instrument for collecting data in accordance with the specifications of the research questions and hypotheses. The self administered questionnaires [SAQs] were distributed to respondents who were selected using a simple random sampling design from both urban and rural based universities of Uganda. This questionnaire had 24 items. Section one measured the community's perception of English language based on demographic characteristics. This was followed by a Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither disagree nor agree, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree which was used to measure community's perceptions about using English language, benefits of English language, challenges of English language, and indigenous languages versus English language.

Section two measured the relationship between English speaking and academic performance. This was followed by section three which sought to measure the relationship between English reading and academic performance. Section four measured listening to English language and academic performance. Lastly, section five measured the relationship between writing English and academic performance. The study specifically covered three faculties/Schools in Kampala International University's main campus. The respondents for the study were randomly selected from the two institutions mentioned above as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1: Distribution of Respondents**

Faculty/School	Number of respondents			
	Males	Females	Ugandan	Non-Ugandan
Social sciences	32 (53%)	29 (47%)	30 (49%)	31 (51%)
Business and management	29 (56%)	23 (44%)	24 (46%)	28 (54%)
Computer Science	30 (52%)	28 (48%)	31 (53%)	27 (47%)
Totals	91 (57%)	80 (43%)	85 (49%)	86 (51%)

In order to guarantee quality of the research validity and reliability tests were conducted simultaneously. The results of the content validity test were 0.8280, which indicated that the questions that were constructed were indeed valid to the effect that they measured the variables of the study well. The following reliability test results were generated from the four variables using the Kuder-Richardson formulas  $KR_{20}$  &  $KR_{21}$  (Amin, 2005: 300) as illustrated in Table 2.

**Table 2: Reliability**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Kuder-Richardson (<math>KR_{20}</math> &amp; <math>KR_{21}</math>)</b>
English language	0.8904
Benefits of English language	0.8532
Challenges of English language	0.9251
Indigenous languages versus English	0.9801

Looking at the above analysis, we realise that all the sections have acceptable. Kuder-Richardson values yielded more than 0.72 implying that the scales that were selected to measure English language, benefits of English language, challenges of English language and indigenous language versus English language making them reliable for this study.

## **2.1 Data analysis**

Most of the data for the study was analysed statistically using the Statistical package for social scientists (SPSS). However, particular statistics were used include Pearson's correlation coefficient, bivariate correlation, ANOVA and regression analysis to determine the degree of relationship existing between English language and academic performance.

## **3 Findings and Discussion**

### **3.1 Perceptions about English Language**

The first hypothesis stated that "there are no significant differences in the students' perceptions of English language based on demographic characteristics". By using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) this hypothesis was subjected to a critical analysis whose results demonstrated that there were marginal variations in the community's perceptions of the notion English based on the demographic characteristics. The main characteristics which were analysed using the ANOVA included; gender, faculty, level of education, nationality and profession as illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3: Analysis of demographic characteristics using ANOVA**

Demographic characteristic	Results
Gender	F(21, 28)= .028, p is less than 0.05
Faculty	F(21, 28)= .896, p is less than 0.05
Level of education	F(21, 28)= .796, p is less than 0.05
Nationality	F(21, 28)= .699, p is less than 0.05
Profession	F(21, 28)= .616, p is less than 0.05

A close analysis of table 3 above disclosed that there were no variations in students' perception of English language based on gender, faculty, level of education, nationality, profession or other factors not analysed here. By implication therefore, English language is a language which does not seem to change on grounds of gender or faculty. However, outcomes revealed that nationality was having some deviation from other factors although the ANOVA tests could not expose the truth. Otherwise the rest of the factors publicized the fact that demographic characteristics did play a role to students' perception of English language.

The study further proved that the university acknowledged that the different levels of English language attracted an in-depth fluctuation in respondents' views (given the standard deviation of 1.174). This meant that sections of students did give credence to English language more than others within the university. This could be the justification behind certain students who are obsessed with English language in all affairs of their lives. Moreover, some respondents intimated that English language needed continuous practice, especially among the Franco-phone speakers [such as Rwandese, Burundians and Congolese]; Arabic speakers [such as Sudanese and Somalis] plus the traditionally Kiswahili speakers of Tanzania. Although there were some deviations in respondents' views, some did not mind about practicing the language especially those who rarely required the language in their daily business outside the institution. Such outcomes showed that English language speaking, writing, listening and reading needed wider avenues for which beneficiaries [especially non-Anglo-phone originating students] would practice continuously if they were to be nearer to academic perfection although some students [mainly from Uganda and Kenya] did not agree with the contention. This presupposes that there is no standing policy that forces any non-Anglo-phone born to use English language all the time except in academic and other official transactions within the institution.

Looking at the above outcomes, we can emphatically assert that the university authorities [within faculties and departments] who are responsible for the development of English language, ought to initiate and sustain the formal English framework by igniting those who have never or rarely had an opportunity to interact or use English language on a compulsory basis. This shows that Kampala International University does not appreciate the gross deviations in students' English capabilities wholesomely but they choose to

adapt the language for academic and official importance, though in their inner feelings, most of them would do without certain sections of students.

Inspire of the above impressions, English language teachers at the primary school level emphasise that, competence in the first language is a prerequisite for any second language(s). Therefore, giving confidence to the strengths of the local language fabric before the community yearns for the foreign languages is fundamental for Uganda. However, local languages face serious challenges ranging from shortage of teaching/learning resources including physical materials such as books, teachers, etc. In addition, there are few role models of the local languages since many seem to accuse such as being uncivilized.

### **3.2 English Language Proficiency and Academic Performance**

The second hypothesis stated that “there is no significant relationship between English speaking and academic performance”. In order to test hypothesis 2, a bivariate correlation was used. In realistic terms, a positive significant relationship was found to exist between English speaking and academic performance in both faculties. By implication, English language is significant in academic performance since its usability stresses over and above several factors given the scientific and technological advances which can only be appreciated in English language. For instance, most of the computer functions and operations cannot easily be explained in most local dialects of Uganda and the eastern Africa region block.

To further hypothesis 2, a regression matrix was applied and it was revealed that a regression matrix test [ $F(1, 60) = 12.491$ ,  $P$  is less than 0.01] generated a linear relationship between English speaking and academic performance. More so, the same regression matrix showed that English language phonetics were very fundamental forecasters of English language speaking as it was considerably demonstrated by stress and intonation used in the English language sentence structure. Consequently, the synopsis replica of English language speaking produced an Adj.  $R^2$  of .152 which implied that stress and intonation as used in English language provide 24% of English language speaking. This justifies the fact that the unsettled 74% was supplied by other aspects not essentially stress and intonation. These aspects included the use of real teaching/learning materials, quality of the English teacher/lecturer, availability of reference materials, and the degree/appropriateness of activities allowed to the English learner. Given the above outcomes, it is important to argue that the null hypothesis was abandoned and the alternative hypothesis, “there is a significant relationship between English speaking and academic performance” was upheld as a substitute.

### **3.3 English Reading Ability and Academic Performance**

The third Hypothesis [ $H^3_0$ ] stated that “there is no significant relationship between English Reading and Academic performance in Kampala International



University”. In order to conduct a successful test, a regression analysis was held. The outcomes of the regression analysis revealed that there was a linear relationship between English reading and academic performance in Kampala International University [F (1, 86) = 32.539, p is less than 0.01]. The table below can illustrate the results of the regression analysis.

**Table 4: English Language Reading Ability and Academic Performance**

		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	[constant]	1.596	.352		4.515	.000
	English reading	.544	.094	.518	5.703	.000

On the plus, other outcomes showed that Beta = .518, p is less than 0.01. By implication, English reading was an important factor in academic performance of students at Kampala International University. The results of the model summary provided an Adj. R<sup>2</sup> Of .260. This means that English reading did have a significance of 20% as regards academic performance in Kampala International University. It implies that English reading should be encouraged at all levels of the university. It further means that stakeholders [mainly the senate and faculty boards] ought to make the necessary adjustments in order to make sure that literature for reading in English is provided to all Kampala International University students, though greater emphasis ought to be focussed to the non-Anglo-phone born students. The outcomes from the above tests [as illustrated on table 4] are indicative of the fact that the null hypothesis [H<sup>3</sup><sub>0</sub>] was rejected and consequently, the alternative hypothesis [H<sub>3A</sub>] “there is a significant relationship between English Reading and Academic performance in Uganda” was instead allowed as a justified standpoint.

### 3.4 Listening to English and Academic Performance

The fourth hypothesis [H<sup>4</sup><sub>0</sub>] stated that “there is no significant relationship between listening to English language and academic performance”. This hypothesis was subjected to a bivariate correlation which produced a significant positive relationship between listening to English language and academic performance [r (87) = .652, P is less than 0.01]. Analytically, the above outcome indicates that the better a student listens to spoken English the more a student will perform academically. This outcome is justified by the fact that most of what is spoken is actually academic to the students, no matter which faculty/department one belonged. Through effective listening to English, a student at Kampala International University is able to capture a lot that is rarely spoken in lecture halls [after all, several scientific, technological and other practicals, though very important, lack the direct translation in most local dialects known to the students]. The test showed that listening to English language and academic performance had a linear relationship [r (1, 85) =

65.805,  $p$  is less than 0.01]. Therefore, in order to confirm the outcomes, a simple linear regression was conducted and the outcomes did confirm them since  $Beta = .651$ ,  $p$  is less than 0.01 as illustrated in the table below.

Table 5: Listening to English and academic performance

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(constant)	.690	.358		1.918	.055
	Listening to English	.827	.98	.651	8.098	.000

The model summary resulting from the regression tests yielded an Adj.  $R^2$  of .418. By inference, listening to English describes clearly 18% of the academic performance at Kampala International University. Therefore, listening to English is a great conduit to academic performance in the institution. From the same outcomes, it is true to argue convincingly that the null hypothesis [ $H^4_0$ ] was upheld and thus the alternate hypothesis [ $H^4_A$ ] “There is no significant relationship between listening in English and community development” became popular. The above outcomes indicate that there is gross proximity with listening to English as a strong factor in academic performance [ $M=4.04$ ,  $SD=0.941$ ]; bearing a great stake in Kampala International University [ $M=4.14$ ,  $SD = 0.983$ ] among students who listen well to English language [ $M=3.59$ ,  $SD=1.296$ ]. In some departments especially those which have greater scope of English listening, informants were found to be rarely committal, implying that various factors could be responsible [including the nature of course one pursues at university] for such a variance. Nonetheless, in some departments members felt modern if they could listen to English language.

Moreover, it can also be asserted that, in spite of the fact that some conservative minds in the university were still campaigning and/or popularising the spirit of strong indigenous/African based languages over and above English [foreign], they still labour to take their lectures and attempt all course works plus semester examinations in English language in order to capture what was highlighted by the fact that most departments in Kampala International University did not have sufficient resources [since they rely on abstracts] to deliver most of their content to the learners. If resources were available, then, most students would have been able to listen to English with ease during and outside lecture sessions.

### 3.5 English Writing Ability and Academic Performance

The last hypothesis stated that “there is no significant relationship between English writing and academic performance in Kampala International University”. To begin with, a bivariate correlation matrix was used in order to

test the above hypothesis. The outcomes of the matrix revealed that there was a moderate significant positive relationship between English writing and academic performance. By implication, writing good English turned out to be an important notion for academic performance for most departments in Kampala International University.

On the plus side, hypothesis 5 was further tested using a simple regression matrix and outcomes showed that there was indeed a linear relationship [F (1, 59) = 10.695, p is less than 0.01] between English speaking and academic performance within the university. The outcomes of the regression tests were as follows:

**Table 6: English Writing and Academic Performance**

Model		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(constant)	1.589	.349		4.513	.000
	English speaking	.540	.094	.516	5.701	.000

Additional results revealed that Beta = .516, p is less than 0.01. This means that English speaking was a fundamental path towards academic performance in Kampala International University. The model summary produced an impressive Adj. R<sup>2</sup> of .597, which implied that English writing yielded 21% to academic performance of students at Kampala International University. By inference, students who are relatively better academic performers at the University ought to be more fluent in English vocabulary. We can thus assert that the null hypothesis [H<sup>5</sup><sub>0</sub>] was refuted and instead the alternative hypothesis [H<sup>5</sup><sub>A</sub>], “there is no significant relationship between English writing and academic performance in Kampala International University” was consequently accepted.

#### 4 Conclusion

Through this study, we can unequivocally assert that if Kampala International University authorities [especially the academic department] improve the infant program of teaching English language skills, especially to those students hailing from the non-Anglo-phone traditional countries, it will become more competitive through attracting more students. This is mainly vindicated by the fact that most of the afore-mentioned students have for so long been suffering in several universities in Uganda and other [similar] countries in the region. Inspire of this mayhem, the students [plus those aspiring to become] strongly wish to pursue their studies from an English-based education system, like Uganda, given the fact that much of the global economy as well as advanced science and technology have in recent past shifted to English language. It is also important, as justified through this study, to note that, teachers of English

language should adapt a deliberate and yet result-oriented university teaching skills so that learners can appreciate the dynamics and proper use of English language beyond the language structure. These are very critical issues which have been highlighted through the results of hypotheses that were used to guide the study.

### **3 Recommendations**

All the faculties and departments at Kampala International University should triple their efforts on English language skills development for all students [including those from the traditional English dominated pre-university schools] in the institution. In fact, as the outcomes revealed, even a large section of students from the English-oriented education system [mostly in Uganda and Kenya] have not shown significant competencies in articulating academic issues freely using the English language. Cases in point, include, poorly structured dissertations, course work presentations [including infinite cheating of the same] and semester examinations [such as those at the school of post-graduate studies and research] which live a lot to be desired. If those students are to improve their comprehension and analytical skills in the various disciplines for which they specialise, then English teachers cannot be taken for granted nor should the course be left to anybody to purportedly teach after all nobody will be accountable for either too slow or absence of results. Otherwise, if students are well oriented in English language, which should be a requirement for the traditionally non-Anglo-phone born, then the level of academic performance will no doubt skyrocket in both the medium and long-term.

### **References**

- Agarwal, J.C. (1996). *Principles, Methods and Techniques of teaching*, (1<sup>st</sup> edition). India-Delhi.
- Amin, E. M. (2005). *Social Science Research: Conception, Methodology and Analysis*, Kampala: Makerere University.
- Bhatia, K.K. (1995). *A First course in Education*. Kalyani Publishers, India.
- Bruner, J. (1960). *The Process of Education*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Charmes, J. (1997). *Progress in measurement of the informal sector: Employment and share of GDP*. Proceedings of the expert meeting in household satellite accounts. New York: United Nations Statistical Division.
- Eshiwani, G. S. (1993). *Education in Kenya since Independence*. Bureau of Kenyatta University College, Nairobi.
- Keller, B. (1996). *Uganda Country Gender Profile*, Stockholm: SIDA.

- Kochhar, S.K. (1985). *Methods and Techniques of Teaching*. (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). Sterling Publishers, New Delhi, India.
- Kulbir, S. (1996). *School Organization and Administration*. (3<sup>rd</sup> edition). Sterling Publishers Private Ltd, India.
- Macharia, K. (1997). *Social and Political Dynamics of the Informal Economy in African cities*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Marsha, W and Bruce, J. (1997). *Models of Teaching*. (5<sup>th</sup> edition). Prentice Hall, New Delhi.
- Newman, et al. (1995). *A Guide to authentic instruction and assessment: Vision, Standards and scoring*. Madison, WI: Wisconsin Centre for Education Research at the University of Wisconsin.
- Shieffelbein, E. and Simmon, (1981). *The Determinants of school achievement: A Review of the research for developing countries*. International Development Research Centre, Canada: Ottawa.
- Shieffelbein, E. (1990). *Basic elements to reflect quality education in Latin America*, New York.
- Stinnett, T.M. (1965). *The Profession of Teaching*, New Delhi, Prentice-Hall.
- Tara, C. (1990). *Educational Technology*. Anmol Publications, Daryaganj, New Delhi.
- Venkataiah, S. (2000). *Encyclopaedia of Education for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*, Vol. 2, Anmol Publications PVT. India: Delhi.