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NOTES FROM THE EDITOR

Journal of Educational Management (JEM) is a mouthpiece of the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IPEA), UNESCO Category II Institute, University of Cape Coast, for disseminating research findings pertaining to the leadership, planning, and administration of educational institutions. The JEM provides a forum for intellectual discourse based on the belief that we are in an era where decisions in education should be evidence-based. However, the effectiveness of the evidence-based decisions largely depends on the availability of quality information. Publications in JEM are rich and valuable inputs that can inform data-driven decision of educational leaders, planners, and administrators at all levels of education. The authors of articles in JEM share with their rich and varied knowledge and experience from different backgrounds.

In this issue, the first article by Clement Owusu-Cole, Nasir Yaqub Entsie and Leticia Bosu is a study on the difference relevant continuing professional development (CPD) and quality resource situation make in student academic performance. This study sought to look at the relationships among teachers' academic qualification, availability of quality resources and the performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science of Basic Schools at Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The study revealed that a teacher's academic qualification obtained through education had no significant relationship with student's academic performance in the respective subjects being measured by this study.

The second article by Victor Ekwukoma and Osamiro Emmanuel Osagiobare investigated the prevalence, contributing factors and consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State, Nigeria. The results of the study revealed, among others, that all the identified unethical practices except vandalism and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students were moderately prevalent among university students in Edo State.

The third article by Phyllis Agyeman-Nyarko assessed the differences in Principals' instructional leadership behaviours based on experiences (number of years served as Principal) in Colleges of Education (CsOE) in Ghana using the descriptive survey design. The study revealed that Principals often promote collaboration among tutors, provide support for tutors' work, provide an induction for new tutors and promote in-service training for tutors in CsOE in Ghana.

The fourth article by Theresa Stephen Gyang examined the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in Universities. The uninspired roles played by university leadership for societal development seem to implicate the qualities of teacher effectiveness in teaching, research, and community service. The major findings of the study revealed that the dynamics of leadership are largely lacking; teachers' effectiveness in teaching and research are lower, and there is a significant relationship between dynamics of leadership and teachers' effectiveness in universities.

The penultimate article by Abigail Boatemaa Osafo and Edward Akomaning sought to find out the challenges and coping strategies of student mothers who combined family roles with academic pursuits at the College of Distance Education (CoDE) of the University of Cape Coast (UCC), Cape Coast Centre. The findings from the data gleaned that majority of student mothers (a minimum of 71%) performed a lot of laborious non-academic activities daily in their homes and the combination of these roles with their academics pose a negative high effect on their family lives and academics.

The final article by Michael Boakye-Yiadom explored students' satisfaction at the University of Cape Coast experience. The study revealed that students are less satisfied with residential services and attributed this to irregular water supply, unsanitary toilet and urinal facilities, congestion in student rooms.

We invite you to join the family of JEM readers as the journal offers its readers the opportunity to reflect and dialogue on contemporary and pertinent issues in education management. We welcome any comments and inquiries about the journal from readers.

Wisdom K. Agbevanu (PhD)
Editor

Relevant Continuing Professional Development (CPD) and Quality Resource Situation Make the Difference in Student Academic Performance

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Abstract

This study seeks to look at the relationships among teachers' academic qualification, availability of quality resources and the performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated science of Basic Schools at Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana. The authors used a descriptive survey design which adopted the questionnaire, interview and observation in the collection of data. The authors used stratified random sampling in selecting 180 teachers whereas purposive sampling was used in selecting 27 headteachers and District Education Officers which used the Pearson correlation in the analysis. The study revealed that a teacher's academic qualification obtained through education had no significant relationship with student's academic performance in the respective subjects being measured by this study. The authors recommend that the Government of Ghana concentrate on providing CPD programs that concentrate on practical situations in the schools and channel more resources to schools.

Keywords: professional development; academic performance; teacher quality

Introduction

Individuals through relevant education are equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills, abilities and competencies that increase their capacity to meaningfully contribute to their maximum. There is considerable evidence that education has a direct impact on various aspects like the socio-economic and political development of any nation. Hallak as cited in Adedeji and Owoeye (2002) determined that the quality of the educational system depends on the quality of teachers. This is corroborated by the European Union as cited in

Newman (2013) that “within educational institutions, teaching professionals are the most important determinants of how learners will perform; and it is what teachers know, do and care about that matters” (p.18). It could be deduced from the European Union’s assertion that the indispensability of teachers in the governance structure of the educational enterprise cannot be overemphasized.

Subsequently, since independence, there have been numerous major and minor reforms in teacher education in Ghana which have had very little impact on children’s learning outcomes (Addae-Boahene, 2019, p. 14). The lack of improvement in learning outcomes at the basic school system level has yielded inadequate teacher preparation, and this has called for reforms in the teacher education sector in Ghana. Some of these reforms include the Education Act of 1961 that initiated the free and compulsory primary education and consolidated in the 1992 constitution, the passage of the Education Act in 2008 (Act 778); the creation of the National Teaching Council to regulate and license the teaching profession; the introduction of the Pre-Tertiary Teacher Development and Management Policy in 2012. All of these reforms were to serve two major purposes. Some of these reforms over the years are also to streamline the career progression of teachers based on established standards and competencies. It is worth noting that the primary purpose of all these reforms were interventions to solve the issue of participation and retention. It is also important to acknowledge that the reforms can help solve the persistent underachievement in the learning outcomes of children in the Ghanaian basic schools. Though the problem of students’ participation and retention has seen tremendous improvement, the issue of student performance and achievement is of great concern to the public. The question therefore is: are the teachers not competent enough or there are other contributing factors?

Teacher Quality and Academic Performance

According to Okunlola and Oni as cited in Adedeji and Owoeye (2002) there exists a significant positive relationship between the quantity and quality of teachers and the academic performance of students. While rough measures of teachers’ quality have been observed to be related to higher levels of students’ achievement, findings are mixed on the effect of the teacher’s length of schooling. This has been studied in 26 analyses across many countries; a significant relationship was found in 12 of these studies. The strength of this relationship is moderate in a few analyses. The International Energy Agency (IEA) survey of literature achievement in Chile included 103 schools and 1,311 students (Sihen, Saha & Nonone as cited in Adedeji & Owoeye, 2002). A moderate correlation

between teachers' school attainment and pupil performance was observed ($r = 0.34$). The significance of this factor remained after controlling for students' background and other school factors. An early study of school quality in Puerto Rico found that teachers' schooling was most related to the achievement of primary school students and among pupils from lower-income families. In sharp contrast, no significant relationship was found for secondary school students in the same Puerto Rico study as the case for the primary schools (Carnoy as cited in Adedeji and Owoeye, 2002). The teacher schooling effect has been negligible in several other studies; for instance, a study of more than 21000 Thai primary school students found a statistically significant, yet small association between teachers' school attainment and student performance ($r = .11$). This low magnitude is worrisome from a policy viewpoint (Fuller & Chantavanich as cited in Adedeji & Owoeye, 2002).

In contrast, achievement effects are more consistent for teachers' length of post-secondary schooling or the number of teacher training courses completed. Heyneman and Loxley as cited in Adedeji and Owoeye (2002) found significant effects of teachers' school attainment and pupil performance in independent work in ten other countries, which revealed significant effects. Twenty-two studies out of 31 studies have found significant achievement effect from teachers' general university or specific teacher training. Fuller (1987) also discovered an achievement effect for the interaction of teacher trainee and the length of teaching experience. However, the teachers credential level was the strongest predictor of students' achievement in a sample of 463 primary school students in Uganda when compared against several other school factors (Durojaiye, 1974).

Another study of Iranian second-grade students found a modest correlation between an index measuring the quality of teachers' secondary schools and their pupils' subsequent performance (Melesse & Gulie, 2019). Teachers' experience did appear to make a significant difference in Chile, India, Iran and Nigeria. The study of 37 primary schools in Botswana found that the influence of teachers' experience rivalled the influence of father's occupation used as a background control variable (Loxley as cited in Adedeji & Owoeye, 2002)

Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and Teacher Quality

The extent to which public education succeeds in delivering services with effective use of scarce resources will depend largely on the quality of the personnel engaged in the educational process and on the effectiveness with which they discharge individual and group responsibilities (Mensah, 2016).

Quality could be ensured in terms of the initial knowledge, skills, and attitude the employee acquired through education before recruitment and selection (Afreh, 2018). However, it is impossible today for any individual to learn a job or enter a profession and remain in it for ten or more years with his or her skills unchanged. Societies and organizations including the school system change and grow. It is in the light of this that Continuous Professional Development (CPD) is not only desirable but also an indispensable activity to maintain a viable, knowledgeable and high quality of teachers. A regular investment of time in learning and development should be seen as an essential part of professional life, not an optional extra, with learning an integral part of classroom work. Badu-Nyarko (2015) confirms the significance of CPD when he opines that no matter how well qualified or successful the professional maybe, further development is always possible.

There have been several studies showing that there exists a positive relationship between CPD and employees' performance but not necessarily teacher quality. For example, there was a study by Melessi and Gulie (2019), on teacher CPD and its impact on quality in education in Ethiopia. They found out that CPD implementation helps teachers to access new ideas, share experience and engage in professional interactions. A similar study conducted in Ghana by Mensah (2016), examined the influence of teachers CPD on their classroom practices. Their findings revealed that CPD programmes were relevant to teachers' classroom management practices, hence capacity building programmes should be promoted regularly in basic schools. There was another study conducted by Chikari, Rudhumbu and Sivotwa (2015) on lecturers' views towards performance on private higher educational institutions in Botswana found that lecturers viewed CPD as a panacea for professional growth, efficiency and teaching effectiveness. They recommended that CPD implementation is essential and required stakeholder involvement.

Hassan and Ismail (2006) studied employees' perception of CPD practices in twenty selected companies in Malaysia. To collect data for the study, questionnaires were administered to a total of 239 employees from the twenty organizations' which were divided into two groups of 10 in each group. One group was made up of organisations that had better learning, training and development system for their teachers as well as a career development plan, a performance guidance system, a reward and recognition system. The other group of organisations did not have well developed CPD systems. The study compared

employees' perception of CPD activities in the two groups of organisations. It was revealed that employees in the first group of organisations recognised that their organisations were implementing good CPD programmes which reflected in their performance in terms of productivity.

Since Guggisberg's initiative of improving teacher quality, education in Ghana has undergone numerous transformations and reforms, all towards the agenda of quality (Acquah, 2012; Antwi, Dela, Mensah & Awuddy, 2018; Baafi-Frimpong, 2019). Some of these reforms include the passage of the Education Act in 2008 (NCTE, 2013); the introduction of the Pre Tertiary Teacher Professional Development and Management Policy (PTPDM) in 2012 to streamline career progression of teachers based on established standards and competencies; the passage of the Colleges of Education Act in 2012 (NCTE, 2013). Thus, the varying transformational regimes and reforms only means that some basic requirements must be met. The Ministry of Education (MoE) argues that universal goals set for education in terms of access need to be accompanied with quality instruction. This in turn requires teachers to be qualified to do their job effectively as reflected in the National Teacher Education Curriculum Framework (NTECF) (MoE, 2017). Teachers in Ghana are therefore expected to be reflective and change-oriented thereby to meet the government and public demand for quality education (MoE, 2017). Teachers are expected to consider the dynamic nature of the learners and the society at large. Thus, teachers must continually expand their knowledge in order to keep pace with the rate of change and current standards of others in the same field globally. The need for CPD in Ghana, therefore emanates from the fact that survival and growth of the education sector, in a constantly changing and increasingly complex environment, depends on the existence of observed and nurtured knowledge and skills of its teachers. Yaqub, Owusu-Cole and Frempong (2020) further strengthen the argument when they posit that CPD is a must for all professionals and has been important in the past as it is more significant in this era of knowledge society.

Resource Situation and Academic Achievement

In as much as the 'personnel' component in the school environment is essential, money, equipment and materials are of significant importance. All these constitute a well-resourced environment that cannot be overemphasized in the success story of any educational institution. There have been some studies indicating a positive relationship between teaching resources and students' academic performance. Yara and Otieno (2010) conducted a study that looked at

the effect of teaching/learning resources on academic performance in secondary school mathematics in Bondo district of Kenya. Four hundred and five secondary school students were used for the study and the multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the eight independent variables (resource materials) and the dependent variable (mathematics achievement).

The study concluded that there was a positive correlation between teaching resource materials and the mathematics performance of students. Opare (1992) also found a significant relationship between recommended textbooks, quality of teachers and academic performance. Obemeata (1995) sees an improvement of staffing situation in schools, in terms of quality and quantity, as a way to an appreciable improvement in the quality of education in Nigerian schools. Agezo and Christian (2002) in a study identified facilities such as the school buildings, classroom accommodation, furniture, libraries, laboratories, recreational equipment and other instructional materials as a major factor contributing to academic achievement in the school system. While the availability relevance and adequacy of these resource items contribute to academic achievement, the researchers did not fail to point out those unattractive school buildings, crowded classroom and surroundings devoid of aesthetic appearance can contribute to poor academic attainment.

Nasir, Owusu-Cole and Frempong (2020) also found a significant relationship between the teacher, facilities and academic performance. Similarly, Eshiet (1987) found the adequate provision of instructional material to be one important method that science teachers can use in promoting skill acquisition in consonance to develop manipulative skills in students as spelt out in the junior and secondary education science curriculum. According to Arubayi (1987), a positive relationship exists in the independent variables of laboratory facilities, recommended textbooks, number of science books in the library and teachers' qualifications and the dependent variable (academic performance of students in Biology, Chemistry and Physics). Thus, studies Obemeata (1995) provide evidence to support the claim that physical structure is significantly related to school academic performance.

However, the research conducted by Jebson and Moses (2012) show a contrary view to the concept of teaching resources and academic performance. The study investigated the relationship between learning resources and students' academic achievement in science subjects in Taraba State Secondary Schools. A total of

35 science teachers and 18 science head of departments from 6 schools from three geopolitical zones of Taraba State were involved in the study. Four null hypotheses were raised and tested using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and student's t-test statistics. The results of data analysis showed that laboratory equipment and the number of qualified teachers were inadequate for Biology, Chemistry and Physics where there were no qualified teachers at all. The study concluded that there was no difference in the academic performance of schools with adequate laboratory equipment and those without them.

Given the importance of CPD and quality resources to student academic performance in educational institutions, there was the need also to conduct studies on CPD and resource situations at Basic schools in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana. However, little is known about CPD and resource situations in the basic schools at Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana. In the face of these observations, the study, therefore, wants to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the academic qualifications and the academic performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science at Basic schools in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana?
2. What is the relationship between the number of resources available and the academic performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science at Basic schools in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana?

Method

The study used the descriptive survey design which was both exploratory and explanatory research. Gravetter and Forzano (2006) explained that "a descriptive survey typically involves measuring a variable or a set of variables as they exist naturally" (p. 136). In a descriptive survey design, the researcher draws a sample from the population of interest and generalisations are made taking into consideration their responses. Osuala (1991) also pointed out that descriptive surveys are practical to the researcher and identify present conditions and at the same time point to the present needs.

The population of the study comprised all primary and junior high school teachers (teaching mathematics, English and integrated science); all headteachers; the education directorate officers (like the director, HRDM personnel, basic school coordinator, deputy director in charge of monitoring and supervision, circuit

supervisors) in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana. There were 113 basic schools [comprising both primary (64) and JHS (49)] which have been grouped into seven zones. For practical purposes, the stratified random sampling technique was used to select 20 basic schools from the 113 schools. The study focused on three basic subject teachers (Mathematics, English and Integrated Science) and all the basic schools used did not have more than one teacher teaching these subjects. Subsequently, these subject teachers did not warrant any sampling technique but the census approach was used in selecting all the teaching staff responsible for the three subjects as well as their respective head teachers. Also, the indispensability of some officials relevant to the study from the education directorate did not require any sampling but were purposively selected (director, HRDM personnel, basic school coordinator, deputy director in charge of supervision as well as the deputy director in charge of EMIS). A summary of the sample used is shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Summary of Sample used in the Study

Teachers		Head Teachers	DEO	Total
Primary	JHS			
120	80	15	12	227

Note. Key: JHS = Junior High School; DEO = District Education Officers

However, it must be noted that there was a return rate of 207 representing 91.1% of the total respondents used for the study. Three instruments (questionnaire, interview schedule and observation guide) were used in the data collection. An unstructured interview schedule was used for the district education directorate personnel to elicit information on varying issues ranging from their analysis of the academic qualification of their teachers, the output of work, resource situations in the schools as well as documentary evidence of the schools' performance in standardized examinations like the BECE.

The questionnaire was used for both teachers, head teachers and their respective circuit supervisors in collecting information on their respective qualifications being used in teaching; CPD programs they have had in their practice and how either their qualifications or CPD programs or resource situations has affected their work output and subsequent performance on students. The administration of the instruments (questionnaire, interview guide and the observational guide) strictly adhered to all the ethical considerations required for the conduct of academic research. Appropriate ethical protocols for the collection of field data

from the study areas went through the appropriate steps of authority. Approval was sought from the district director of education and the various head teachers through an introductory letter. Prior to the administration of the instruments, arrangements were made with the appropriate focused groups for suitable time upon which the instruments were administered. Only the physical distribution approach was used in the questionnaire administration which offered us the opportunity to explain the purpose of the study, the meaning of some unclear items to respondents as well as appealed for their cooperation. Questionnaires were left with the respondents for two weeks to aid objective responses to the items and an additional one week was allowed for respondents who had not completed theirs. Upon receipt and analysis of questionnaire, a structured interview was organised with the respective district education directorate personnel to further probe some of the issues that emerged from the responses in the questionnaire.

The observation techniques were applied to gather such information as the teaching techniques of teachers during teaching and learning as well as the resource situations in the selected schools. There was also a documentary review of reports and relevant documents such as WAEC reports on students' performance in the various selected schools. The study used the Pearson correlation in establishing the direction and degree of the linear relationship that exists between the teachers' qualifications and students' academic achievements. Also, the mean and standard deviations, as well as percentages, were used in analysing the CPD programs available to teachers and the availability of resources in the schools respectively.

Results and Discussion

Research question 1: What is the relationship between the quality of teachers (in terms of their academic qualifications) and the academic performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science at Basic schools in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana?

To answer this research question teachers' academic qualifications were collected through data from the set of questionnaires and confirmed through other documents like the school's logbook and staff records book. Students' academic record through their WAEC performance was also obtained from the District Education Office and equally cross-checked from the records of the respective schools. The Pearson correlation was used in establishing the

direction and degree of the linear relationship that exists between the teachers' qualifications and their students' academic achievements in the various subjects. Tables 2, 3, and 4 present the results from the Pearson Correlation analysis for the subjects Mathematics, English and Integrated Science respectively.

Table 2

Correlation between Academic Qualification of Teachers and Students' Academic Performance in Mathematics

Year	Qualification	Performance		
		C	P	F
2017	Cert 'A' and below	.6551	.5268	.1263
	DBE	.2845	.3436	.3104
	B.Ed.	.3647	.3665	.2274
	B.Sc.	.1324	.0732	.0487
	M.Sc./M.Ed.	.2748	.1574	.1187
2018	Cert 'A' and below	.6399	.7957	.3204
	DBE	.4422	.5031	.1552
	B.Ed.	.5012	.4032	.2163
	B.Sc.	.1456	.1098	.0731
	M.Sc./M.Ed.	.3298	.2361	.1781
2019	Cert 'A' and below	.5512	.6399	.2528
	DBE	.5551	.4741	.2495
	B.Ed.	.4551	.4665	.2564
	B.Sc.	.2184	.1427	.0879
	M.Sc./ M.Ed.	.1979	.1889	1603

Note. Key: C = Credit; P = Pass; F = Fail *p < .05 (Significant level)

Source: Field data (2017 – 2019)

Table 2 showed the coefficient of correlation (at a significance level of $p < .05$) of the students' academic performance in Mathematics in terms of their academic qualifications. The correlation coefficient revealed that there was no special significant relationship between the performance of students in mathematics and almost all the qualifications of teachers except the Teacher's Certificate 'A' which showed a significant relationship. Certificate 'A' which happened to be a qualification below the minimum requirement in Ghanaian basic schools in recent times, rather showed a significant relationship with students' performance

in mathematics as compared with teachers with higher qualifications (DBE, B.Ed., B.Sc., M.Sc., M.Ed.). This revelation was evident and consistent in all the three years analysis as shown by the correlation coefficient. Though not a very strong significant difference, it corroborates the findings of Adedeji and Owoeye (2002) that revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers who had lower-level qualifications and students' academic performance than teachers with higher qualifications. It must also be noted that Table 2 shows another significant relationship between DBE and B.Ed. certificates and students mathematics achievement though not as significant as the Certificate 'A' and even lower qualifications. A quest to find better insight and explanations to this development revealed that most teachers with the DBE and B.Ed. certificates upgraded themselves from the lower qualifications like Cert 'A' to the DBE and subsequently B.Ed. certificates. It was, therefore, no surprise that the DBE and B.Ed. qualifications equally showed quite a significant relationship with students' mathematics achievement which was consistent in the three years duration. This shows that teacher quality does not depend on higher qualifications but rather tied to other variables like relevant practical training and development that pertains to existing challenges in the classroom and the school as a whole as well as experience that comes with years in practice. (see Table 3 overleaf)

Table 3

Correlation between Academic Qualification of Teachers and Students' Academic Performance in English

Year	Qualification	Performance		
		C	P	F
2017	Cert 'A' and below	.7335	.5557	.2419
	DBE	.5956	.5154	.4098
	B.Ed.	.4625	.5032	.3514
	B.A.	.4310	.4294	.1218
	M.A./M.Ed.	.4110	.3361	.1781
2018	Cert 'A' and below	.5642	.5094	.4388
	DBE	.4964	.5275	.3514
	B.Ed.	.4133	.4736	.2136
	B.A.	.3640	.4745	.3539
	M.A./M.Ed.	.3628	.3542	.2672
2019	Cert 'A' and below	.5121	.3200	.3664
	DBE	.4841	.4112	.4002
	B.Ed.	.3906	.4398	.2964
	B.A.	.3058	.4141	.1319
	M.A./M.Ed.	.3969	.3834	.2405

Note: Key: C = Credit; P = Pass; F = Fail * $p < .05$ (Significant level)

Source: Field data (2017 – 2019)

Results from Table 3 further revealed that Cert 'A' teachers, DBE graduates as well as the B.Ed. teachers consistently had a significant relationship with the academic performance of students in English with still the Certificate 'A' teachers showing superiority amongst them. However, unlike Mathematics, the quality of other higher qualifications like B.A., M.A., and M.Ed. equally showed a significant relationship with the academic achievement of students in English though not as high as the lower qualifications. This revelation showed that in as much as there was evidence that higher qualification did have some impact on the quality of teaching and students' academic achievement, the impact was not so much significant as compared to lower-level qualifications. It was therefore surprising how major stakeholders in education were trumpeting and heralding all forms of CPD programs that lead to higher qualifications as a panacea and antidote to students' persistent underachievement in learning outcomes in our basic schools.

Table 4

Correlation between Academic Qualification of Teachers and Students' Academic Performance in Integrated Science

Year	Qualification	Performance		
		C	P	F
2017	Cert 'A' and below	.4931	.4841	.2621
	DBE	.4414	.4004	.3401
	B.Ed.	.3947	.3522	.2427
	B.Sc.	.3013	.2122	.2387
	M.Sc./M.Ed.	.4248	.4551	.3359
2018	Cert 'A' and below	.5199	.5973	.2852
	DBE	.4844	.5127	.2852
	B.Ed.	.3012	.3031	.1816
	B.Sc.	.2912	.2547	.2193
	M.Sc./M.Ed.	.2968	.3245	.2267
2019	Cert 'A' and below	.3412	.3414	.1528
	DBE	.3941	.4002	.1595
	B.Ed.	.3677	.3940	.2764
	B.Sc.	.2998	.3120	.1816
	M.Sc./M.Ed.	.3009	.3589	.1979

Note. Key: C = Credit; P = Pass; F = Fail * $p < .05$ (Significant level)

Source: Field data (2017 – 2019)

Table 4 equally reveals that the lower-level qualifications as defined in this study showed equal variance with some of the higher-level qualifications with students' academic performance. This revelation provoked further investigation through an interview schedule which revealed that about 90% of the teachers with higher qualifications started with the minimum qualification from teacher training institutions and had been in the service between 15 to 25 years. It was therefore evident through this study that CPD through practical experience was paramount to initial higher qualifications.

A cursory view and analysis of the unfolding findings in this study had shown that the quality of teachers is not measured by the certificate obtained by teachers but can be tied to a myriad of indicators and variables. Some of these variables include practical experience acquired on the job, attitude to work, interest and the passion of teachers in their job, job satisfaction (in terms of the teaching environment and motivation packages, personal fulfilment). A classical case in

recent times was the much-acknowledged unemployment situation in Ghana that have rendered most graduates idle at home and therefore find teaching as a stopgap for better and more gainful employment in the future. It could therefore be deduced that such individuals who parade themselves as teachers may have the requisite qualifications but the attitude and passion is a non-starter and will eventually impact negatively on students' achievement.

CPD Techniques adopted in schools in Kwahu-East District

Having looked at the teacher academic qualification and relationship with students' academic performance, teachers were then asked to indicate the kind of CPD techniques that were mostly adopted by the Kwahu-East Directorate of Education in their CPD programmes. The techniques were categorized into off-the-job and on-the-job techniques. The mean and standard deviation of these techniques were computed and Table 5 presents a summary statistic of the results.

Table 5

Mean Statistics Showing the Types of CPD Techniques Adopted in Schools at Kwahu East District

CPD Technique	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reading	207	1.7246	.4478
Talking to colleagues	207	1.5411	.5887
Workshops	207	1.5314	.5002
Mentoring	207	1.3430	.7525
College courses (short)	207	1.1981	.3995
Lectures/Talks	207	.3285	.4708
One-on-one instruction	207	.2899	.4548
Problem-solving	207	.2657	.4428
Coaching	207	.2415	.4291
Online courses	207	.1498	.3577
College courses (long)	207	.0000	.0000
Job rotation	207	.0000	.0000

Note. * $p < .05$ (Significant level)

Source: Field Data (2017-2019)

Table 5 shows that Kwahu East District teachers were much more inclined to most of the in-house techniques (reading, talking to colleagues, workshops,

mentoring) as the culture have mostly been. It could be deduced that amongst the most adopted techniques, only 'workshops' and 'short colleges courses' were the off-the-job CPD techniques that were mostly used by teachers. This corroborates a study by Sloman as cited in Buckley and Caple (1996) in the United Kingdom that training delivered on the job by most organisations accounted for at least, half of the total training undertaken.

This revelation stems from the fact that the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S) has mostly been tagged as a sector relatively lacking resources and subsequently, it comes with no surprise that GES had to maximize its dividends by adopting most of these in-house training techniques that have proven relatively cheaper. Some merits of this training technique as expounded by Buckley and Caple as cited in Owusu (2011) include little loss of time during training; output of staff not adversely affected; maintenance and retention services while acquiring new knowledge and skills; as well as the use of actual situations during training. This is in line with Harris' (2000) observation that with on-the-job training, employees learn various aspects of their job while at the same time, performing actual tasks.

A common feature that emerged from the responses obtained was that occasionally there was a blend of all the techniques to cater for individual differences. The argument was that human beings are not endowed with the same learning capabilities; hence there cannot be one distinct technique that would suit all and sundry. This revelation does not agree with a previous study by Noble as cited in Owusu (2011) who reported that organisations in the same industry have similar training and staff development strategies.

To further examine the relationship between teacher qualification and the academic performance of students, the study considered an analysis of the initial and current academic/professional qualifications of teachers. In all, a total of 54.3% of teachers understudy could boast of a bachelor's degree and even some with masters of different shades. However, their impact on the academic performance of students was not felt greatly as one would have expected about their respective qualifications. This corroborates the work of Jebson and Moses (2012) which indicated that there was no relationship between schools that had qualified academic credentials and students' performance in science. This notwithstanding, the study established that 90% of teachers who currently possess university first degree in their respective subjects started teaching with initial teacher training certificates (Cert 'B', 4-year Cert 'A', Post-Secondary Cert 'A', and DBE).

Further analysis through the interview and observation conducted revealed that these categories of teachers have had an enormous quality of experience and that explains their tremendous and positive impact on students' academic performance. Thus, there has been a tremendous increase in trained teachers with corresponding higher qualifications in recent years at the basic level, a situation that was very rare even in the second cycle institutions in Ghana in the '90s and early 2000 (Ministry of Education (MoE as cited in Ossei Anto, 1999). This could be attributed to a very good staff development policy available to the GES teaching staff. The remaining 10% represents teachers who joined the service with an initial professional/academic qualification of bachelor's degrees but their influence was not much felt on students' academic performance.

There was another category of teachers representing 39.5% of the teachers under study who could also boast of the minimum teaching requirement of DBE. Here also, there was a category of 45% of these teachers who acquired the DBE through a CPD programme while in practice. The remaining 55% were trainee teachers that were turned out from the various Colleges of Education awarding DBE. It must be noted that a correlation of their impact on the academic performance of students was not significant as compared to the same DBE teachers who acquired their qualifications while in service.

These findings further corroborate what has earlier been discovered that the quality of teachers is not measured by the certificate obtained but can be tied to a myriad of indicators like practical experience acquired on the job, attitude to work, interest and the passion of teachers in their job, job satisfaction amongst others. There was a minority of 5.2% of teachers who could not meet the current initial teaching qualification of DBE but had various forms of qualifications like the Cert 'B', 4-year Cert 'A', Post-Secondary Cert 'A'. This category of teachers also showed a non-significant relationship with the performance of their students. It was identified that about 90% of them were left with less than 3 years to go on retirement with 10% between 4-6 years remaining for their retirement age and subsequently saw no need for any form of an upgrade in terms of qualification since it was not even rewarding.

Research question 2: What is the relationship between the number of resources available and the academic performance of students in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science at Basic schools in Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana?

The study further sought to establish the directional relationship between the availability of resource materials and academic performance of basic schools at Kwahu-East in the Eastern Region of Ghana through the Pearson Correlation. A correlation for the data revealed that the availability or unavailability of resource materials and students' academic achievement were significantly related ($r = .72$, $n = 207$, $p = .05$, *two-tailed*). The statistic indicated showed that there was a significant positive relationship between the allocation of resources (physical/material) and the academic performance of students. Similarly, there was a negative significant relationship between the unavailability of resource materials and students' academic achievements. This finding corroborates an earlier study by Nasir et al (2020) and Fuller (1987).

In the study of science, for instance, the *environment and Space* play such an important role in teaching and for that matter impacts academic performance. The picture of the environment as a resource base for the teaching of science is reflected in these two objectives of primary science:

1. To introduce the pupil to the world of science by exploration and experimentation according to his interest.
2. To develop his ability to observe things around him more closely so that he can perceive relationships among objects and phenomena.

One wonders how these stated objectives can be achieved without a well-resourced and rich environment. Thus, in operational terms, a well-composed environment will provide pupils with the opportunity to observe, examine and critically analyse events and situations as they naturally occur (Ossei-Anto, 1999). Moreover, in the study of the three subjects (Mathematics, English and Integrated Science) under investigation as in all school subjects, the community for instance can become an extension of the classroom. In integrated science, for instance, one thinks immediately of the zoo, parks, farms, the local hospital, natural resources (like rivers, streams, swamps, ponds, forest etc), factories producing various items that are used in everyday life and a lot more others. Direct experience is essential to effective learning which confirms the gainsaying that field experience provides first-hand experiences which are more lasting and worthwhile than all the classroom lectures. This finding is also in consonance with Ajayi and Ogunyemi (1990) who found that when physical and material resources are provided to meet the relative needs of a school system, students will not only have access to reference materials mentioned by the teacher, but individual students will also learn at their own pace. This undoubtedly satisfies the '*individual differences*' principle in teaching and learning. The net effect of

this is an increased overall academic performance of the entire students. This study has shown a highly significant relationship between resource allocation and the academic performance of students. However, it must be noted that 75.6% of the schools used for this study were struggling with most of the relevant and appropriate resources needed to yield the necessary and desired work output due to the central government's inability to provide them. This can largely be attributed to the students' poor performance in the said subject areas for the last three years. A further check from the educational authorities concerned revealed that the educational directorate itself has been suffocating with their activities halting momentarily occasionally due to lack of subventions from the central government. However, the study equally revealed that the situation is gradually improving and that government is doing everything possible to improve the resource situation in the various schools. The district education office for instance had in stock enough textbooks amongst other teaching and learning materials for distribution for the 2018/19 academic year.

Conclusions

The study examined the relationship between teacher qualification and resource situations on students' academic performance. From the findings, it could be concluded that, first, at a significance level of .05, there is no positive significant relationship between teachers' higher university qualifications obtained and the academic performance of the students. Second, the quality of teachers is not measured by the certificate obtained, but can be tied to a myriad of indicators which can all be encapsulated into one concept called relevant CPD. Third, there was a highly significant positive relationship between the allocation of resources (physical/material) and the academic performance of the students. Finally, resource situations still inadequate but improved during the 2018/19 academic year.

Recommendations

1. Tannenbaum (1997) assertion should serve as a blueprint in the evolution of GES CPD programmes: Tannenbaum states that: "Rather than the amount of training, it is the quality and appropriateness of the training, the supportiveness of the work environment, and the use of appropriate training policies and practices that determine how well training contributes to continuous learning" (p. 447).
2. With the tremendous increase in academic qualifications of teachers at the basic level which has had very little or no positive impact on students learning outcomes, GES, must consider on-the-job/in-house techniques of

CPD as an alternative to the off-the-job techniques. On-the-job techniques aside its economic benefit in terms of cost efficiency has equally proven beneficial since it focuses on practical situations, experiences and problems in the teaching and learning process. Subsequently, teachers are well equipped with practical tools and modern techniques for dealing with classroom situations.

3. In CPD, the development aspect must be given much attention. The current practice is that CPD activities concentrate mainly on training which seeks to improve the skills, knowledge and attitude of teachers towards their present task performance. However, the development component in most cases is ignored. The concept of development has a broader scope and aims at developing people in all respects. Accordingly, the development component covers not only activities/skills which improve job performance, but also those activities which bring about the growth of the personality, help individuals progress towards maturity and actualisation of their potential. Thus, development enables individuals to become not only good employees but better men and women also.
4. Due to the development component of CPD, stakeholders must ensure a well conducive and serene physical environment for teaching and learning, attractive and well-packaged incentives for performing teachers, improved salary structure that commensurates with the individual's qualification and performance.
5. The government of Ghana must ensure adequate and appropriate teaching and learning resources in the basic schools to ensure appropriate learning outcomes from students.
6. GES must also put in place adequate measures to ensure effective use and proper care of resources available to schools.

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Prevalence, Contributing Factors and Consequences of Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State, Nigeria

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Abstract

This study investigated the prevalence, contributing factors and consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State, Nigeria. Three research questions guided the study. The descriptive survey design was adopted for this study. The population of the study comprised all full-time undergraduates and lecturers in public and privately-owned universities in Edo State. Using a multistage sampling procedure, a sample of 720 students and 200 lecturers was drawn for the study. Data were collected through two questionnaires entitled “Unethical Practices among University Students Questionnaire: (UPUSQ) and “Unethical Practices and University Education Questionnaire” (UPUEQ). The instruments were face-validated by two other experts in Measurement and Evaluation in the Faculty of Education, University of Benin. A reliability testing of the instruments was done using Cronbach’s Alpha. The results of the study revealed, among others, that all the identified unethical practices except vandalism and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students were moderately prevalent among university students in Edo State. Findings further revealed that students’ desperation to pass examinations at all cost, excess workload on students, poor policy implementation and negative peer influence were the main contributing factors to university students’ involvement in unethical practices in Edo State. Based on the findings of this study, the authors recommended, inter alia, that reported cases of unethical practices should be promptly addressed and thoroughly investigated, and that defaulters should be sanctioned or punished by each university’s rules and regulations for such offences or by-laws stipulated for such offences.

Keywords: unethical practices, prevalence, contributing factors

Introduction

The appropriateness of the education that a University provides is partly dependent on the extent to which the education develops the students culturally and how much of a good character it inculcates in them. This is why university degrees are awarded to recipients based on good character and satisfactory learning. A good character among students is the pivot of ethics. Ethics means laid down principles and practices that govern good human conduct in an organization or society. Principles express the fundamental beliefs or ideals that individuals use in action. Such beliefs or ideals help individuals in deciding between right and wrong. According to Alutu and Aluede (2005), the term ethics can simply be defined as laid down guidelines, principles, codes of conduct, rules and regulations guiding the behaviour of individuals in an organization or a society. Principles are also values that help us arrange our beliefs in the hierarchy of importance. Examples of principles are integrity, honesty, loyalty, patriotism, commitment, hard work, professionalism, excellence, among others. An example of a fundamental ethical principle in the conduct of academic staff is that no staff member should have a personal interest that conflicts with the full performance of his or her duties (Alutu & Aluede, 2005).

In a university setting, ethics are viewed in terms of principles and codes of conduct for academic members of staff and students. The university, being the highest institution of learning, demands the need for the maintenance of high academic standards through an emphasis on ethics. Mahuta (2013) conceptualized ethics as moral principles that govern a person's or a group's behaviour. It can be referred to as codes of conduct, rules and regulations guiding people's conducts. It encompasses traditional social codes or systems of moral principles. Thus, the meaning of ethics can be constructed on a spectrum of morality issues. Asodike (2014) further pointed out that ethics in the university system focuses on for example community ethics and teaching ethics. The ethics of the school therefore gives direction on what constitutes the acceptable and non-acceptable policies of the school as they relate to the main actors in the school system (teachers and students).

Unethical practices are practices that are against the ethical code of conduct of any university. Such practices include but are not limited to: sexual harassment of fellow students, indecent dressing on campus, drug abuse, vandalism and stealing of university property, theft, writing projects, assignments and seminar papers for fellow students for financial rewards, certificate forgery/racketeering and printing of fake school fees receipts and examination malpractice which has

multifarious forms such as leakage of question papers, impersonation, cheating involving collusion, swapping of scripts, assaulting examination invigilators, disorderly behaviour in examination halls and so on. These practices could pose very serious challenges to the entire university system. Unethical practices like examination malpractice, for instance, can diminish the quality of universities and graduates. It can also lead to wastage. Universities spend a lot of money fighting examination malpractice, especially in the area of bringing on campuses, police, and secret agents with their gadgets to stay around the campus during examinations. Examinations are sometimes postponed or repeated when papers leak, and these are inconveniences that cost money, energy and time (Idogho, 2011; Onotume, 1993; Ogunu, 1993; Kanu & Akanwa, 2012)

Drug abuse which is one of the unethical practices under focus in this study has, on several occasions in the past, led to organized crimes and interruption of academic programmes in universities. It has also led to increased secret cult activities in secondary schools and most Nigerian universities, which has been a source of threat to the lives and properties of innocent people within the school community (Agoreyo, Agoreyo, Ekwukoma & Agoreyo, 2021). Fruitful learning can hardly take place in a university climate that is characterized by the threat to lives and properties as a result of students' involvement in drug abuse and secret cultism (Oni, 2008; Umobong, 2005; Afe, 2006).

The vandalism and stealing of university property can lead to gross inadequacy of learning facilities. Students usually vandalize university property when they go on a rampage. Most universities in Nigeria do not have adequate facilities for learning. The facilities, therefore, become grossly inadequate when students vandalize the existing ones. The challenge this could pose to the university is that it will restrain learning. It will also cost the university more money, time and energy to replace the stolen or vandalized facilities.

According to Inua (2008), the terrible implications of unethical practices among university students include:

- (a) Loss of value for certificates earned from institutions that are known for unethical practices;
- (b) Unethical practices such as 'sorting' (bribing a lecturer to get a better grade) and examination malpractices could discourage hard work among serious-minded students who discover that their unserious classmates are making the same or even better grades than themselves through unethical means;

- (c) Leaders of tomorrow who will be at the helm of affairs in the country's economic, education, health and other sectors will not have the intellectual ability to manage the country's vast resources. This portends doom for the country.

Rumyantseva (2005), Kasum and Shelly (2013), Ijeoma (2013), Olasehinde (2000) and Onokerhoraye (1993) also noted that the consequence of unethical practices in the education system, especially the university is a decline in quality, trust and self-generating cynicism about the entire system and its products. The several reported cases of unethical practices in the media by university students were the problem that prompted this study. Recently, for instance, a university lecturer in a state university in Edo State was reportedly kidnapped by a nursing student (Ekwukoma, 2019). Many university students who are supposed to be good role models for the larger society have in recent times become known for unethical practices, which has become a challenge to university education. These unethical practices could be part of the myriad of factors that constitute serious challenges to university education in Edo State. It is because of the seemingly negative impact of the listed unethical practices on the attainment of the goals of university education that the following research questions became pertinent: What is the extent of prevalence of unethical practices among university students in Edo State? What are the contributing factors to unethical practices among university students in Edo State? What are the consequences of unethical practices in the university system in Edo State? This is the crux of this study.

Method

The population of this study comprised all the 3,466 lecturers and 64,523 full-time undergraduates in public and privately-owned universities in Edo State. The universities include the University of Benin, Benin City; Ambrose Alli University, Ekpoma; Edo University, Iyamo, Igbinedion University, Okada; Benson Idahosa University, Benin City; Wellspring University, Evbuobanosa and Samuel Adegboyega University, Ogwa. The sample for this study was 720 full-time undergraduate students and 200 lecturers from universities in Edo State. The study employed a multi-stage sampling procedure. A multi-state sampling procedure was adopted to enable the researchers divide the population into groups (or clusters) for ease of randomization and data collection.

The major research instruments that were used for this study were two self-developed questionnaires entitled ‘Unethical Practices and University Education Questionnaire’ (UPUEQ) for lecturers and ‘Unethical Practices among University Students Questionnaire’ (UPUSQ) for students. The questionnaires were subdivided into four sections: A, B, C and D. Section A sought demographic information while sections B, C and D contained items/questions that elicited respondents’ opinions on the prevalence, contributing factors and consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State, Nigeria.

To ensure the face validity of the instruments used, the researchers presented them to two experts in measurement and evaluation in the faculty of education, the University of Benin for thorough scrutiny and face-validation. A reliability test of the instruments was done with forty (40) subjects (twenty university students and twenty university lecturers) who did not form part of the population of the study. Essentially, a procedure of reliability testing using Cronbach’s Alpha was used to establish the reliability estimates of 0.75 and 0.76 for the lecturers’ and students’ questionnaires respectively. These figures indicated that the instruments were reliable. The distribution and retrieval of the copies of the questionnaire were done by the researchers and research assistants. Descriptive statistics were used to answer the research questions.

Presentation of Results

Research Question One: What is the extent of the prevalence of unethical practices among university students in Edo State?

The result in Table 1 shows the mean and percentage values of responses on the extent of prevalence of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The result is a three-point scale ranging from 0– 2 interpreted as three levels (low, moderate and high).

Table 1
Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State

S/N	Unethical Practices	Mean	Std. Dev.	%	Decision
1.	Examination malpractice	1.13	.67	56.5	Moderate
2.	Sexual harassment of fellow students	.78	.74	39	Moderate
3.	Writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money	1.06	.79	39.5	Moderate
4.	Secret cultism	1.01	.79	50.5	Moderate
5.	Absenteeism from classes	1.26	.73	63	Moderate
6.	Printing of fake school fees receipt	.70	.69	35	Moderate
7.	Plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works	.86	.80	43	Moderate
8.	Drug abuse	.99	.71	49.5	Moderate
9.	Indecent dressing on campus	1.16	.73	58	Moderate
10.	Vandalism and stealing of university property	.60	.70	30	Low
11.	Certificate forgery/racketeering	.71	.78	35.5	Moderate
12.	Extortion of money from fellow students	.81	.81	40.5	Moderate
13.	The threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students	.52	.74	26	Low

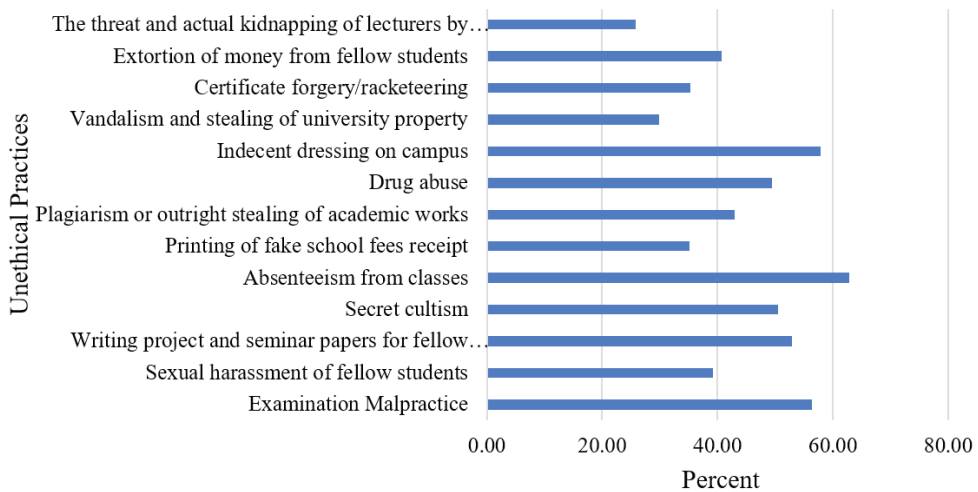
Note. N = 825; Key: 0 – 33.5 = Low; 33.6 – 66.5 = Moderate; 66.6 – 100 = High

Table 1 shows that examination malpractices (56.5%), sexual harassment of fellow students (39%), writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money (39.5%), secret cultism (50.5%), indecent dressing on campuses (58%), absenteeism from classes (63%), the printing of fake school fees receipts (35%), plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works (43%), drug abuse

(49.5%), certificate forgery/racketeering (35.5%) and extortion of money from fellow students (40.5%) are moderately prevalent among university students in Edo State. Vandalism (30%) and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students (26%) are low. Among the moderately prevalent unethical practices, examination malpractices, writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism, absenteeism from classes and indecent dressing on campuses are taking the lead. They are very close to the high level of the scale used in the study.

Figure 1

Graphical Representation of the Extent of Prevalence of Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State



Research Question Two: What are the contributing factors to unethical practices among university students in Edo State?

The results in Table 2 show the mean values of responses on the contributing factors to unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The result is a four-point scale ranging from 1–4 interpreted as three levels (low, moderate and high).

Table 2

Contributing Factors (CF) to Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State

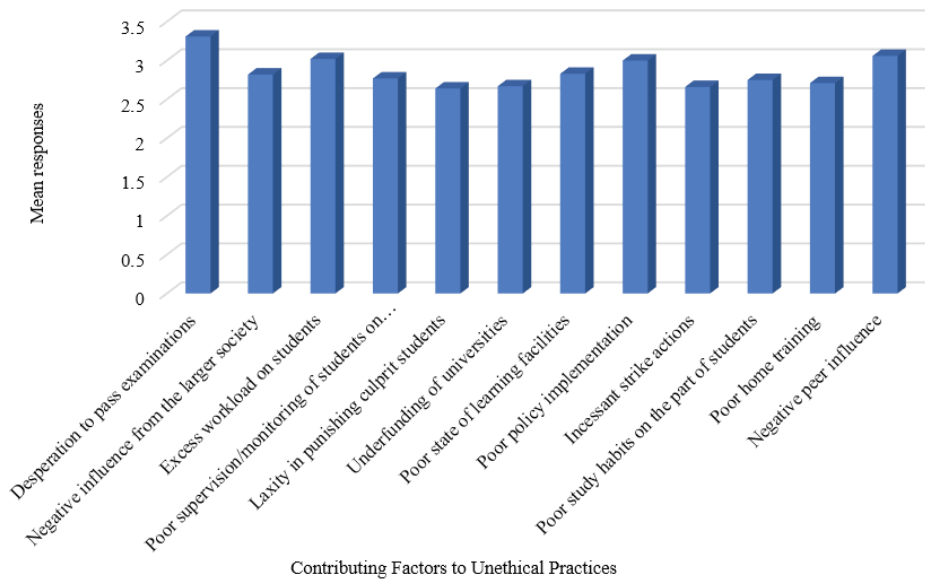
S/N	CF to Unethical Practices	Mean	Std. Dev.	Decision
1.	Desperation to pass examinations	3.3	.95	High
2.	Negative influence from the larger society	2.8	.86	Moderate
3.	Excess workload on students	3.0	1.0	High
4.	Poor supervision/monitoring of students on campus	2.8	.91	Moderate
5.	Laxity in punishing culprit students	2.6	.93	Moderate
6.	Underfunding of universities	2.7	.99	Moderate
7.	Poor state of learning facilities	2.8	1.1	Moderate
8.	Poor policy implementation	3.0	.97	High
9.	Incessant strike actions	2.7	1.0	Moderate
10.	Poor study habits on the part of students	2.8	1.0	Moderate
11.	Poor home training	2.7	.96	Moderate
12.	Negative peer influence	3.1	.86	High

Note. N = 825; Key: 1 – 1.99 = Low; 2.00 – 2.99 = Moderate; 3.00 – 4.00 = High

Table 2 shows students' desperation to pass examinations (3.3), excess workload on students (3.0); poor policy implementation (3.0) and negative peer influence (3.1) are highly causative of university students' involvement in unethical practices in Edo State. Negative influence from the larger society (2.8), poor supervision/monitoring of students on campuses (2.8), laxity in punishing culprit students (2.6), underfunding of universities (2.7), poor state of learning facilities (2.8), incessant strike actions (2.7), poor study habits on the part of students (2.8) and poor home training (2.7) are moderately causative of unethical practices among university students in Edo State.

Figure 2

Graphical Representation of the Contributing Factors to Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State



Research Question Three: What are the consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State?

The results in Table 4 show the mean values of responses on the consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The result is a four-point scale ranging from 1 – 4 interpreted as three levels (low, moderate and high).

Table 3 reveals that lecturers' fear of attack by students (2.2), fear by lecturers to investigate students properly (2.0), fear by lecturers to supervise students objectively (2.2), fear by lecturers to assess students objectively (2.2) are moderate consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State.

Table 3*Consequences of Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State*

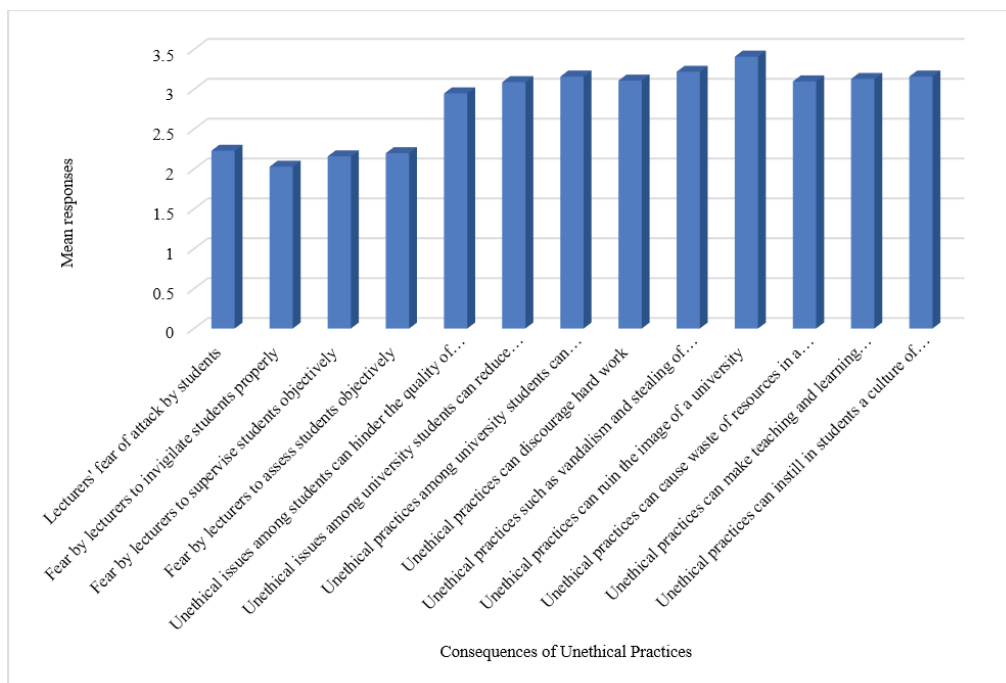
S/N	Consequences of Unethical Practices	Mean	Std. Dev.	Decision
1.	Lecturers' fear of attack by students	2.2	.95	Moderate
2.	Fear by lecturers to invigilate students properly	2.0	.88	Moderate
3.	Fear by lecturers to supervise students objectively	2.2	.93	Moderate
4.	Fear by lecturers to assess students objectively	2.2	.93	Moderate
5.	Unethical issues among students can hinder the quality of teaching and learning in the university	3.0	.93	High
6.	Unethical issues among university students can reduce the quality of graduates	3.1	.88	High
7.	Unethical practices among university students can undermine employers' and the general public's trust in the products of universities	3.2	.85	High
8.	Unethical practices can discourage hard work	3.1	.94	High
9.	Unethical practices such as vandalism and stealing of university property can result in poor conditions of learning environment	3.2	.89	High
10.	Unethical practices can ruin the image of a university	3.4	.80	High
11.	Unethical practices can cause waste of resources in a university	3.1	.83	High
12.	Unethical practices can make teaching and learning irrelevant	3.1	.90	High
13.	Unethical practices can instil in students a culture of corruption	3.2	.90	High

Note. N = 825; Key: 1 – 1.99 = Low; 2.00 – 2.99 = Moderate; 3.00 – 4.00 = High

Table 3 reveals that lecturers' fear of attack by students (2.2), fear by lecturers to investigate students properly (2.0), fear by lecturers to supervise students objectively (2.2), fear by lecturers to assess students objectively (2.2) are moderate consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. It is further revealed that hindrance to the quality of teaching and learning (3.0), reduction of the quality of graduates (3.1), undermining of employers' and the general public's trust in the products of universities (3.2), discouragement of hard work (3.1), poor conditions of the learning environment (3.2), ruining of the image of the university (3.4), waste of resources (3.1), making teaching and learning irrelevant (3.1) and instilling in students culture of corruption (3.2) are high consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The highest of the consequences of unethical practices among university students is the ruining of the image of the university.

Figure 3

Graphical Representation of the Consequences of Unethical Practices among University Students in Edo State



Discussion of Results

From the analysis of the responses on research question 1 shown in Table 1, the data shows that examination malpractice, sexual harassment of fellow students, writing projects and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism, absenteeism from classes and printing of fake school fees receipts are forms of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. Other forms of unethical practices among them include plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works, drug abuse, indecent dressing on campus, vandalism and stealing of university property, certificate forgery/racketeering, extortion of money from fellow students and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students. These findings are corroborated by the assertions of Nnodum (2008), Olasehinde (2000) and Bello (2011) that the university system in Nigeria is currently faced with the threat of unethical attributes. Okon and Petters (2013) had earlier observed that Nigerian universities have over the years become fertile grounds for the perpetration of aggression. On different occasions, students have been observed vandalizing school property, harassing their fellow students, threatening lecturers in a bid to stop them from carrying out their legitimate duties. These findings also agree with the findings of Onotume (1993), Ogunu (1993), Kanu and Akanwa (2012), Oni (2008), Umobong (2005) and Afe (2006). These researchers had earlier found the Nigerian educational system, particularly the university system, to be characterized with unethical behaviours such as examination malpractice, secret cultism, “sorting” or “blocking”, plagiarism.

However, as for the extent of students’ involvement in the identified unethical practices, examination malpractices, sexual harassment of fellow students, writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism and indecent dressing on campuses, absenteeism from classes, printing of fake school fees receipts, plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works, drug abuse, certificate forgery/racketeering and extortion of money from fellow students are moderately prevalent among university students in Edo State. Vandalism and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students are low. This means that they are present but not profound. Their presence in the university system is worrisome. Among the moderately prevalent unethical practices, examination malpractices, writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism, absenteeism from classes and indecent dressing on campuses were reported to be more prevalent. They are very close to the high level of the scale used in the study. This is in agreement with the position of Ogbonna (2006) who asserted that there is a high rate of

examination malpractices at all levels of the Nigerian educational system. The finding also conforms with the findings of Akintunde (2013) that examination malpractices and indecent dressing are forms of disciplinary problems in the Nigerian educational system.

The findings in research question two revealed that students' desperation to pass examinations, excess workload on students; poor policy implementation and negative peer influence highly contribute to university students' involvement in unethical practices in Edo State. Negative influence from the larger society, poor supervision/monitoring of students on campuses, laxity in punishing culprit students, underfunding of universities, poor state of learning facilities, incessant strike actions, poor study habits on the part of the students, and poor home training moderately contribute to unethical practices among university students in Edo State. This finding agrees with the findings of Eromosele (2005), Brown (1989), Joe (2004), Ganagana (2005) and Idiegbeyan-Ose, Nkiko and Osinulu (2016). Part of poor home training and negative influence from the larger society is parental attitude. Some parents want their children and/or wards to skip classes and graduate very early. Many have been known to financially induce their teachers to assist their children to pass examinations. Eromosele (2005) noted that examination malpractice thrives in a corrupt society which indicates that it is a reflection of the society. Similarly, Joe (2004) enumerated the fundamental contributing factor to unethical practices to include desperation to pass the examination and acquire paper qualifications, unrestrained moral decadence in the society, faulty value system where materialism is worshipped, and unbridled corruption. He argued that the Nigerian society with its inability to curb corruption has become a fertile nursery for various forms of unethical practices among university students. Brown (1989) had earlier found a strong relationship between peer group affiliation and unethical practices. Maithya (2009) revealed that the common reasons for drug abuse amongst secondary school students in Kenya are mostly out of curiosity and acceptance by friends (peer pressure). A study by Kiiru (2004) showed that peer pressure was responsible for youths' consumption of illicit drugs. Idiegbeyan-Ose et al (2016) earlier observed that plagiarism is usually caused by academic pressure.

The findings of research question three revealed that lecturers' fear of attack by students, fear to investigate students properly, to supervise students objectively, and to assess students objectively are moderate consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. It is further revealed that hindrance to the quality of teaching and learning, reduction of the quality of

graduates, undermining of employers' and the general public's trust in the products of universities, discouragement of hard work, poor conditions of learning environment, ruining of the image of the university, waste of resources, making teaching and learning irrelevant and instilling in students culture of corruption are high consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The highest of the consequences of unethical practices among university students is the ruining of the image of the university. This result corroborates the findings of Rummyantseva (2005), Kasum and Shelly (2013), Ijeoma (2013), Olasehinde (2000) and Onokerhoraye (1993). Rummyantseva (2005) had earlier posited that the consequence of unethical practices in the education system, especially the university is a decline in quality, trust and self-generating cynicism about the entire system and its products.

Conclusions

From the findings of this study, a supported conclusion is that examination malpractice, sexual harassment of fellow students, writing projects and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism, absenteeism from classes and printing of fake school fees receipts were perceived forms of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. Other forms of unethical practices include plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works, drug abuse, indecent dressing on campus, vandalism and stealing of university property, certificate forgery/racketeering, extortion of money from fellow students and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students.

In terms of prevalence, it can be concluded that examination malpractices, sexual harassment of fellow students, writing project and seminar papers for fellow students for money, secret cultism and indecent dressing on campuses, absenteeism from classes, printing of fake school fees receipts, plagiarism or outright stealing of academic works, drug abuse, certificate forgery/racketeering and extortion of money from fellow students are moderately prevalent among university students in Edo State. However, vandalism and the threat and actual kidnapping of lecturers by students are low.

Furthermore, students' desperation to pass examinations, excess workload on students; poor policy implementation and negative peer influence highly contribute to university students' involvement in unethical practices in Edo State. Negative influence from the larger society, poor supervision/monitoring of students on campuses, laxity in punishing culprit students, underfunding of universities, poor state of learning facilities, incessant strike actions, poor study

habits on the part of students and poor home training moderately contribute to unethical practices among university students in Edo State.

Lecturers' fear of attack by students, fear to investigate students properly, to supervise students objectively, and to assess students objectively are moderate consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. Hindrance to quality of teaching and learning, reduction of the quality of graduates, undermining of employers' and the general public's trust in the products of universities, discouragement of hard work, poor conditions of learning environment, ruining of the image of the university, waste of resources, making teaching and learning irrelevant and instilling in students' culture of corruption are high consequences of unethical practices among university students in Edo State. The highest of the consequences of unethical practices among university students is the ruining of the image of the university.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, here are the following recommendations:

1. Universities in Edo State should be adequately funded so that they can build good classrooms, standard examination halls and hostels for students. This can help curb the incidence of some unethical practices among students such as examination malpractices, secret cultism, racketeering of hostel accommodation, etc.
2. Students' academic activities should be properly structured to avoid too much pressure on them. For instance, there should be adequate gaps in-between courses during examinations to enable students to prepare well.
3. Seminars and workshops should be periodically organised by university counselling units on the dangers of unethical practices and other vices among university students. Also, guidance and counselling services should be provided to enhance university students' awareness of the need, and strategies for curbing unethical practices. Counselling services are crucial to help produce mentally healthy, happy, well-rounded and disciplined individuals who will place a high emphasis on what is considered ethical and proper in university and life.

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Differences in Principals' Experience on their Instructional Leadership Behaviours in Colleges of Education in Ghana

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Abstract

The study assessed the differences in Principals' instructional leadership behaviours based on experiences (number of years served as Principal) in Colleges of Education (CsOE) in Ghana using the descriptive survey design. The population of the study was all Principals from the forty-two (42) CsOE in Ghana. The study sampled thirty-six (36) Principals using the simple random sampling technique. The Principal Instructional Leadership Behaviours (PILB) scale was used to collect data. Means, standard deviations and the one-way ANOVA were used to analyse the research question and to test for the hypothesis respectively. The study revealed that Principals often promote collaboration among tutors, provide support for tutors' work, provide an induction for new tutors and promote in-service training for tutors in CsOE in Ghana. However, the findings from the study gleaned that supervision of instruction was sometimes exhibited by Principals in CsOE in Ghana. The study further found that Principals' instructional leadership behaviours differed when they were grouped according to their experience. It was concluded that though Principals provide instructional leadership for the benefit of tutors and the general teaching and learning climate of CsOE in Ghana, their instructional supervision should be improved. The study yielded a central recommendation that Principals of CsOE need to improve upon their supervision of instruction to promote the continuous professional development of tutors.

Keywords: instructional leadership behaviours, principals' experience, colleges of education

Introduction

The role of Principals has grown in complexity, transiting from transactional leadership to instructional leadership (Baldwin-Nye, 2007; Supovitz, Sirinides, & May, 2010; Murphy, Neumerski, Goldring, Grissom, & Porter, 2016). Previously, principals were mostly responsible for keeping students' safe, enforcing school policies, and fostering relationships with the world outside school. Practical daily tasks such as ordering supplies and creating bus schedules were common. Today, as instructional leaders, principals are asked to focus

on promoting best practices in teaching and learning so that students achieve academic success (Hallinger, 2011; Neumerski, 2012).

The concept of instructional leadership which emerged out of the growing body of research that supported the importance of the principal in school reform (Marzano, 2003) has been pressed to the forefront in the vocabulary of educational leadership and management. It came into prominence as a legacy of the effective schools' movement during the 1980s, focusing the attention of policymakers and scholars on the crucial role of the principal in school effectiveness. This paradigm for school leadership and management has received various definitions and explanations according to the literature, the aim of which is to provide an overall understanding of, and, the rationale for the role of the principal as an instructional leader.

Brazer and Bauer (2013) defined instructional leadership as “the effort to improve teaching and learning for students by managing effectively, addressing the challenges of diversity, guiding teacher learning, and fostering organizational learning” (p. 650). Van de Grift and Houtveen (2006) explain instructional leadership as the ability of a principal to initiate school improvement, to create a learning-oriented educational climate, and to stimulate and supervise teachers in such a way that the latter may exercise their tasks as effectively as possible. Murphy and Torre (2014) added that instructional leadership encompasses those actions that a principal takes to promote growth in student learning. These actions encompass defining the purpose of the college; setting system-wide goals; providing the resources needed for learning to occur; supervising and evaluating tutors; coordinating staff development programmes; and creating collegial relationships with and among tutors (Brewster & Klump, 2005; Covey, 2005).

Different behaviours have been reported in studies that constitute principals' instructional leadership behaviours. For instance, Blasé and Blasé (2002) conceptualised instructional leadership behaviours of principals to include classroom visitation, observations, making suggestions, giving feedback, modelling effective instruction, ensuring uninterrupted instructional time, soliciting opinions, supporting collaboration, providing continuous professional development opportunities, and giving praise for effective teaching. Behaviours such as promoting attendance to conferences, seminars and workshops, professional associations and in-service educational

programmes were reported in Obi's (2002) study. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2014) concluded that building a culture and a climate of collaboration and learning, promoting coaching, collegial investigation, study teams, providing resources to support teachers in their work, providing resources and in-services that cultivate teacher innovation among others culminate into principal's instructional leadership behaviours. Principal instructional leadership behaviours from the foregoing, thus, encompasses role behaviours (or practices) of the College Principal including behaviours such as promoting in-service training of tutors, supervising instruction (tutors' work), providing support for tutors' work, providing orientation /induction for tutors and creating opportunities for collaboration/collegiality among tutors.

Yet, are principals demonstrating these instructional leadership behaviours in CsOE in Ghana as their roles have grown in complexity? This poser is not readily available in the literature. Therefore, finding empirically supported facts on how college principals promote in-service training, supervise instruction (tutors' work), provide support for tutors' work, provide an induction for tutors and create opportunities for collaboration /collegiality among tutors is worth assessing. Rebores (2007) has observed that the responsibility of educating the masses requires academic staff to be equipped in the skills and knowledge in their subject area, keep abreast of societal demands in education, and be acquainted with research on the instructional process and on new methods of teaching which will promote the attainment of the general educational goals. Hence, the need for facilitating in-service training for tutors. In-service training takes the form of workshops, conference sessions, seminars, refresher courses, lectures, post-graduate courses and other short-term training events.

One of the ways of promoting professional growth and development of teachers according to Musaaazi (1984) is through well-organized in-service training programmes for teachers within the education system. Musaaazi continues that such in-service programmes should include activities that among other things develop teachers' skills of teaching and in the use of modern visual aids; encourage teachers to adopt various modern methods of evaluating student performance and increase teachers' skills and knowledge in their teaching subjects. He adds that some of the processes of encouraging growth and development in these areas may take the form of workshops, seminars, refresher courses, exchange teaching, professional writing, visit other schools to

observe teaching methods in those schools, staff meetings, postgraduate work at university and participation in the evaluation of the school programmes which are organised by employing authorities, tertiary institutions, teachers' subject associations and other individuals and groups.

Such in-service training programmes according to literature falls under the formal or traditional model of professional development which has dominated professional development for decades, partially because it has been the most common and enduring, are mostly off-site and involves short-term, single sessions or series of sessions and take the form of workshops, conference sessions, seminars, refresher courses, lectures, post-graduate courses and other short-term training events (Boyle, Lampriano & Boyle, 2005; Smith & Gillespie, 2007).

Many educators and researchers have also advocated the methods of teacher growth and enhancement that are based on continuous collegial interaction (collaboration) and support (Jarzabkowski, 2003; Covey, 2005). According to Jarzabkowski (2003), teachers are increasingly being admonished to move away from the traditional norms of isolation and autonomy and to move towards greater collegiality and collaboration. Covey (2005) adds that the conceptions that educators perform better when working together professionally are supported by organizational theory models which emerged earlier in the corporate sector. Covey explains that such conceptions view authentic teamwork as an essential characteristic of a successful organization as its members interact regularly to share their ideas and expertise and develop a common understanding of organizational goals and the means to their attainment. Previous scholarship has reported numerous benefits from teacher collegiality as evidence of the need for building a more effective collegial culture in schools. The most significant benefits of collegiality among teaching staff are an improvement in teacher professional growth and development and teacher professionalism (Jarzabkowski, 2003; Dufour, 2004). Collegiality also provides more systemic assistance to beginning teachers, helping them to avoid the sink-or-swim, trial-and-error mode that novice teachers usually face during the initial stages of their career. Collegiality further brings experienced and beginning teachers closer together to reinforce the competence and confidence of the beginners (Nias, 2000).

In their study of educators in the United States on supporting the lifelong study of teaching and learning, Blasé and Blasé (2004) found that effective instructional

leadership was frequently based on the belief that such principals provided formal and informal opportunities for teacher collaboration which yielded vast positive results for teachers. Within teachers' enthusiastic comments about collaboration, the authors found strong impacts on teachers' motivation, self-esteem, confidence, and ownership of decisions. Blasé and Blasé (2004) found out that collaboration in colleges can happen in two ways. First, principals encouraged teachers to become models for each other. This served to improve teaching, to motivate teachers and to provide recognition of exemplary teachers. Specifically, principals actively encouraged teachers to visit the classrooms of exemplary teachers, asked exemplary teachers to serve as models to other teachers, and encouraged teachers to make presentations within their school and district and at professional conferences.

According to Duke (2004), principals influence classroom instruction by supplying teachers with the necessary resources. Providing resources in Duke's view includes not only monetary resources and materials but also providing resources such as scheduling, developing the school calendar, hiring and correctly placing teachers, adopting textbooks, and purchasing necessary materials to support instruction. Duke continues that, principals consequently influence student achievement by helping teachers acquire necessary resources to support instruction. The lack of resources he opines may thus be a barrier to the use of some instructional strategies by teachers. Nolan and Hoover (2008) have emphasised that instructional supervision is a crucial tool used in building effective teacher continuous professional development. It is also seen as an organizational function that seeks the growth of teachers and improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning (Tesfaw & Hofman, 2012). Zepeda (2007) intimates that instructional supervision is needed and that the various approaches of instructional supervision such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching and mentoring enhance teachers' continuous professional development.

Principals also use classroom observations and informal visits to the classroom to see what teaching strategies are being used and assess their effectiveness. They can then use instructional conferences to talk with teachers about classroom objectives and instructional methods. Zepeda (2007) suggests that discussion sessions between supervisor and teachers are essential to provide feedback on the supervision outcomes. From these discussions, supervisors may enlighten the teachers about their weaknesses and strengths regarding techniques, methods, approaches and teaching aids used. Zepeda add that it helps in increasing the

teaching development of teachers while at the same time enable teachers to make improvements to their teaching practice to be more effective. Supervision of teachers' performance by principals can affect classroom instruction. Blasé and Blasé (2004) comment that instructional conferences with teachers affect teacher classroom instruction. Burant (2009) findings of researches on instructional supervision concluded that there is a significant relationship between instructional supervision and continuous professional development.

Induction is one of the very important stages in the staffing process of any institution or organization. Wong and Wong (2003) observe that induction is a comprehensive, structured, and sustained group process that fosters a true learning community by continuing to provide support and training to new teachers into their tenure. To Wong and Wong, induction is a lifelong experience and process that teaches the social and cultural practices that centre on learning. Rebore (2007) also identifies induction as a process designed to acquaint newly recruited individuals with the school system and the relationships, they should develop to be successful. To him, this is an administrative function that is often neglected or loosely organized in many schools. He contends that this is unlike industrial and business communities where a high premium is placed on induction because they have come to realise that, there are a cause-and-effect relationship of this process to employee retention and job performance.

Rebore (2007) maintains that the importance of the proper induction and induction of new appointees cannot be overestimated. He continues that, too many capable teachers, including many who have devoted years of preparing their careers, resign their positions and give up teaching because of an unnecessarily unpleasant and frustrating initial experience in a school that lacks an effective comprehensive induction programme. The consequence according to Rebore (2007) is unfortunate, not only for the young teacher but also for society, which loses the valuable services of a trained teacher. He believes that induction should be designed for both newly employed individuals as well as reassigned employees. Rebore (2007) recognises two main levels of an induction process – informational and personal adjustment programmes. Informational programmes are concerned with providing either initial material or updating information. Initial material according to Rebore, consists primarily of information about the school system, the community it serves, and the school where the employee will work. This he suggests should be for new employees. Updating informational programmes on the other hand is geared towards the employee who is reassigned. These programmes should also concentrate on the

particular school and community to which he/she has been reassigned (Rebore, 2007).

At the personal adjustment level, Rebore (2007) states that the new employee must know and be known to all categories of workers in the institution to enable him to interact effectively with them. Thus, at the informational level, he proposes that the newly employed worker must be given all information concerning the school and the community in which he is to work. Rebore continues that the teacher must be informed about school policies and procedures, administrative procedures, location of classrooms, laboratories, resource centres, workshops, class streaming and class size. Also, information about students' attitude to time, games, studies, class assignments and discipline among others must be known to the teacher. About the community, he recommends that the teacher should be informed about the economic, social, cultural, ethnic and religious make-up of the community.

There is the recognition that the first two or three years of teaching (induction period), is critical in developing teachers' capabilities and beginning teachers should not be left alone to sink or swim (Clement, 2011). Breaux (2011), therefore, suggests that the school should adopt internal support systems and strategies that (that is, the daily support activities and continual learning opportunities) are most important for the continuous professional development of new teachers. In the National Teacher Training College (NTTC) in Lesotho for example, Stuart, Kunje and Lefoka (2000) found that tutors had not been specifically prepared for their role as teacher educators. The NTTC had no formal induction or preparation for new tutors. Informal induction was sparse and differed by the department, with some offering more help than others. Peer observation was unknown. Tutors with only secondary training started teaching content and graduate later to methodology. Otherwise, tutors learn on the job, drawing on memories of their training, often from colleagues and using what books they could. It was clear that when they had first come to the college many had not known what to do, and did not always get the help they needed.

Furthermore, researchers have long recognized the potential relationship that personal characteristics such as age, gender, education and work experiences have on how principals execute their instructional leadership behaviours (Mehdinezhad & Sardarzahi, 2016; Johnson, 2004). Among these personal characteristics, work experience has been commonly used as criteria in selecting principles and vice-principals (Mehdinezhad & Sardarzahi, 2016; Johnson,

2004). The Ministry of Education (MoE, 1996) for instance, has set criteria for selecting principals that require at least five years of teaching experience or experience as a unit leader, department head, and head of the pedagogical centre or school supervisor. The relationship between principals' work experience and their instructional leadership behaviours was examined in some studies. Mehdinezhad and Sardarzahi (2016) established no significant relationship between any of the components of instructional leadership behaviours and the experience of principals. Johnson (2004) also found in his study of instructional leadership behaviours of principals and student achievement that there is no significant relationship between experience and leadership behaviours of principals. So, if the relationship between instructional leadership behaviours and work experience failed to reach statistical significance, then could there be any statistically significant difference between principals' work experience and their instructional leadership behaviours?

Edwards and Aboagye (2015) recommended that instructional supervision skills are needed to bridge the gap between theory and practice in Ghana's education system. Another related study was conducted by Donkor and Asante (2016). Their study looked at the instructional leadership styles of basic school headteachers in the Kwaebibirim district. The study found that instructional leadership exists in the basic schools in the district and some aspects of instructional leadership activities (supervision, evaluation, and direct personal support to teachers) seemed to be implemented more than others (curriculum planning, organization and delivery). However, the available literature failed to adequately assess the differences in principals' instructional leadership behaviours based on their work experience. This study, therefore, is worth the effort.

Research Question

What instructional leadership behaviours do principals of CsOE in Ghana commonly demonstrate?

Hypothesis

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference in instructional leadership behaviours (self-reported) when principals are grouped according to their experience.

H₁: There is a statistically significant difference in instructional leadership behaviours (self-reported) when principals are grouped according to their experience.

Method

Research Design: This study used a survey design to gather the data. This design gathers data at a particular point in time, through a questionnaire to answer the research question and to test the hypothesis. The essence of the study was to describe the nature of instructional leadership behaviours of principals and assess whether or not differences exist in such behaviours when these principals are classified according to work experience. Data collected through survey design also enable the generalisation of findings of the study from a sample to the entire population. Surveys are versatile and practical, especially to the administrator, in that they identify present conditions and point to present needs (Sarantakos, 2005).

Population: The population of the study comprised forty-two (42) principals from the 42 CsOE in Ghana.

Sampling: The sample size for the study was thirty-six (36) principals based on the recommendation of Krejcie and Morgan (1970). In selecting the sample, a simple random sampling technique was used. In the first place, a sample frame consisting of the names of all the principals was prepared. The fish-bowl draw (lottery) technique, a form of simple random sampling was used to pick the 36 principals to participate in the study. The names were written on a piece of paper, folded, put in a bowl and thoroughly shuffled. Afterwards, the bowl was raised and a friend was asked to pick one of the folded pieces of paper at random without looking into the bowl. The selected number was recorded, and removed from the bowl. This process of selection continued until the 36 principals were randomly selected who gave their informed consent to participate in the study.

Instrument: The instrument used for the collection of data for the study was a structured questionnaire and in paper form. The items on the questionnaire were guided by the literature on instructional leadership behaviours of principals. The items on the questionnaire were used to elicit information on five constructs that were conceptualised as principal instructional leadership behaviours (PILB). These were the promotion of in-service training (in-service) which had seven (7) items, supervision of tutors' work (supervision) with eleven (11) items, provision of support for tutors' work (support) contained eleven (11) items, promotion of collaboration among tutors (collaboration) had eleven (11) items and provision of induction for tutors (induction) also contained eleven (11) items bringing the total items to fifty-one (51). The researcher adopted a Four-point Likert Type scale for the study ranging from: Very Often - 4 points,

Often - 3 points, Sometimes - 2 points, and Never - 1 point. Content and face validity were established for the instrument. The overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.810. Pallant, (2007) suggests that the ideal Cronbach's alpha coefficient of a scale should be above 0.70.

Data Analysis: Statistical means and standard deviations were used to analyse the research question. For the hypothesis, descriptive statistics in the form of means and standard deviations and inferential statistics (one-way ANOVA) were used to test the hypothesis.

Results

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The working experience (number of years spent as principal) among principals was first assessed. Three classifications were adopted in categorizing principals' working experience. The classification was based on the assumption that between 1-5 years, a principal could be regarded as a novice because he/she may still be learning on the job. Between 6-10 years, instructional leadership of the principal could moderately be demonstrated. Whereas between 11-15 years, the principal may blend maturity with profound instructional leadership behaviour. The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of Principals according to their Experience

Working Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-5 years (Novice)	18	50.0
6-10 years (Intermediate)	12	33.3
Above 10 years (Advanced)	6	16.7
Total	36	100

Table 1 reveals that 18 (50%) of the principals had worked between 1 and 5 years, 12 (33.3%) had worked between 6-10 years and 6 (16.7%) of them had worked as principals for more than 10 years. From this, one can conclude that most principals of CsOE in Ghana who participated in the survey were relatively novice concerning the number of years spent on the job as principals. Similarly,

the number of principals with intermediate experience was quite encouraging but the number of principals with advanced experience was quite small. From the results, it can be concluded that most principals nearly retire before their tenth year as principals, eroding many CsOE of rich instructional leadership.

Research Question: What instructional leadership behaviours do the principals of CsOE in Ghana commonly demonstrate?

This research question examined instructional leadership behaviours commonly demonstrated by the principals of CsOE in Ghana. The responses to the 51 items were spread across the five (5) sub-scales and presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Instructional Leadership Behaviours Demonstrated by Principals

Instructional Behaviours	Mean	Std. Dev.	Decision
Promotion of in-service training	2.68	.27	Often
Supervision of instruction	2.40	.26	Sometimes
Provision of support for tutors' work	2.81	.35	Often
Promoting collaboration among tutors	2.93	.23	Often
Provision of induction	2.92	.10	Often
Mean of Means and SD	2.75	.24	Often

Note. $1.0 \leq M < 1.5$ (Never), $1.5 \leq M < 2.5$ (Sometimes), $2.5 \leq M < 3.5$ (Often), $3.5 \leq M \leq 4$ (Very Often)

The results in Table 2 indicate various perceptions held by principals regarding their instructional leadership behaviours in CsOE in Ghana. The mean of means and standard deviations of 2.75 and .24 respectively were computed for the five sub-constructs. The estimated mean of 2.75 suggested that these behaviours were often exhibited by principals. However, by comparing the calculated mean of means of 2.75 to the individual means in the instructional leadership behaviours,

“promoting collaboration among tutors” appeared to be commonly demonstrated by principals (self-reported) in CsOE in Ghana (M=2.93, SD=.23). Another instructional leadership behaviour commonly demonstrated by principals (self-reported) was the “provision of induction” (M=2.92, SD=.10), followed by “provision of support for tutors’ work” (M = 2.81, SD = .35) and “promotion of in-service training” (M=2.68, SD=.27). However, the supervision of instruction was sometimes demonstrated by principals (M=2.40, SD=.26).

Hypothesis Testing

To assess whether or not differences in instructional leadership behaviours of principals exist based on their experience (number of years spent as a principal), the following hypotheses were tested at an alpha level of 0.05.

H₀: There is no statistically significant difference in instructional leadership behaviours (self-reported) when principals are grouped according to their experience.

H₁: There is a statistically significant difference in instructional leadership behaviours (self-reported) when principals are grouped according to their experience.

Table 3

Instructional Leadership Behaviours of Principals in CsOE by Experience

Instructional Leadership Behaviours	Working Experience					
	1-5 years		6-10 years		Above 10 years	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Promotion of in-service training	2.60	.31	2.83	.20	2.65	.08
Supervision of instruction	2.42	.32	2.47	.23	2.26	.03
Provision of support for tutors’ work	2.80	.42	2.98	.18	2.58	.20
Promoting collaboration among tutors	3.01	.17	2.74	.23	3.06	.23
Provision of induction	2.94	.11	2.86	.05	2.99	.09

Note. Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD) 1.0≤M< 1.5 (Never), 1.5≤ M<2.5 (Sometimes), 2.5≤M<3.5 (Often), 3.5≤M≤4 (Very Often)

From Table 3, it can be observed that principals with 6-10 years of experience appeared to promote in-service training often in their respective CsOE in Ghana ($M=2.83$, $SD=.20$) whereas principals with 1-5 years of experience least promote in-service training for tutors ($M=2.60$, $SD=.31$). Regarding supervision of instruction, it was reported that principals with more than 10 years of experience sometimes engage less in this behaviour ($M=2.26$, $SD=.03$) as compared to principals with 6-10 years of experience ($M=2.47$, $SD=.23$). Concerning the provision of support for tutors' work, it was reported that principals with 6-10 years of experience often exhibit this behaviour more ($M=2.98$, $SD=.18$) whereas principals with above 10 years of experience engage less in this behaviour ($M=2.58$, $SD=.20$). On promoting collaboration among tutors, it was realised that principals with above 10 years of experience often engage more in this behaviour ($M=3.06$, $SD=.23$) whereas those with 6-10 years of experience often engage less in this behaviour ($M=2.74$, $SD=.23$). Finally, it was established that principals with above 10 years of experience provide induction more often for tutors ($M=2.99$, $SD=.09$) as compared to principals with 6-10 years of experience ($M=2.86$, $SD=.05$).

To test whether these differences in the mean scores have reached statistical significance, a one-way ANOVA test was performed. The result is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA test on Principals' Experience on their Instructional Leadership Behaviours

		Sum of	Df	Mean	F	Sig.
		Squares		Square		
Promotion of In-service training	Between	.386	2	.193	3.003	.063
	Within	2.119	33	.064		
	Total	2.505	35			
Supervision of instruction	Between	.199	2	.100	1.481	.242
	Within	2.221	33	.067		
	Total	2.421	35			

Provision of support for tutor's work	Between	.697	2	.348	3.233	.052
	Groups					
	Within	3.555	33	.108		
	Groups					
	Total	4.252	35			
Promoting collaboration among tutors	Between	.609	2	.304	7.593	.002
	Groups					
	Within	1.322	33	.040		
	Groups					
	Total	1.931	35			
Provision of induction	Between	.084	2	.042	4.681	.016
	Groups					
	Within	.296	33	.009		
	Groups					
	Total	.380	35			

Note. * $p < .05$ (2-tailed)

The results in Table 4 show a significant statistical mean difference at the .05 probability alpha level for the groups on promoting collaboration among tutors [$F(2,33)=7.593$, $p = .002$, $Eta^2 = .315$] and provision of induction [$F(2,33)=4.681$, $p = .016$, $Eta^2 = .221$]. However, differences in principals' supervision of instruction failed to reach statistical significance [$F(2,33) = 1.481$, $p = .242$, $Eta^2 = .082$], promotion of in-service training [$F(2,33)=3.003$, $p = .063$, $Eta^2 = .154$], and provision of support for tutor's work [$F(2,33)=3.233$, $p = .052$, $Eta^2 = .164$]. On the whole, it can be concluded that differences exist in the self-reported instructional leadership behaviours of principals in CsOE in Ghana. Consequently, the alternate hypothesis that "there is a statistically significant difference in instructional leadership behaviours (self-reported) when principals are grouped according to their experience" is accepted while the null hypothesis is rejected at an alpha level of 0.05.

To ascertain where these differences lie within the group, a Post Hoc analysis was conducted using the Tukey HSD test and the statistically significant results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Results of Post Hoc Test on the Comparative Difference of Experience on Instructional Leadership Behaviours of Principals in CsOE in Ghana

Dependent variable	Experience of Comparison	Mean diff.	Sig.
Provision of support for tutors	6-10 years vs. above 10 years	.401*	.042
Promoting collaboration among tutors	1-5 years vs. 6-10 years	.261*	.005
	Above 10 years vs. 6-10 years	.321*	.006
Provision of induction	Above 10 years vs. 6-10 years	.132*	.018

Note. * $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed significant results)

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for principals with 6-10 years of experience ($M=2.98$, $SD=.18$) was significantly different from principals with more than 10 years of experience ($M=2.58$, $SD=.20$) on the provision of support for tutors. However, the mean score for principals with 1-5 years of experience did not differ significantly from either 6-10 years or above 10 years of experience group. Concerning the promotion of collaboration among tutors, it was found that the mean score for principals with 1-5 years of experience ($M=3.01$, $SD=.17$) was significantly different from the mean score principals with 6-10 years of experience ($M=2.74$, $SD=.23$). Similarly, the mean score for principals with above 10 years of experience ($M=3.06$, $SD=.23$) differed significantly from the mean score for principals with 6-10 years of experience. Finally, the mean score for principals with above 10 years of experience ($M=2.99$, $SD=.09$) was significantly different from the mean score for principals with 6-10 years of experience ($M=2.86$, $SD=.05$). The remaining comparisons between the groups failed to reach a significant level.

Discussions

From the analysis of the research question, it was found that principals in CsOE in Ghana often promote collaboration among tutors, provide an induction for newly appointed tutors, provide support for tutors' work in the college, and

promote in-service training in the college. However, supervision of instruction is sometimes exhibited by these principals in CsOE in Ghana. On the promotion of collaboration among tutors, Jarzabkowski, (2003) observed that tutors are increasingly being admonished to move away from the traditional norms of isolation and autonomy and to move towards greater collegiality and collaboration. In their study of educators in the United States on supporting the lifelong study of teaching and learning, Blasé and Blasé (2004) found that effective instructional leadership was frequently based on the belief that such principals provided formal and informal opportunities for teacher collaboration which yielded vast positive results for tutors. In the CsOE in Ghana, principals create opportunities for tutors to work collaboratively to discuss and share teaching approaches with other tutors, plan and share assessment practices with colleagues, engage in peer review, develop research and projects with colleagues, participate in collaborative enquiry and problem-solving and collect, interpret and apply feedback from students' work. This enhances teacher professional growth and development (Jarzabkowski, 2003), and teacher professionalism (Dufour, 2004). Collaboration also provides more systemic assistance to beginning tutors, helping them to avoid the sink-or-swim, trial-and-error mode that novice tutors usually face during the initial stages of their career and brings experienced and beginning teachers closer together to reinforce the competence and confidence of the beginners (Nias, 2000).

Another significant revelation that emerged from the principals' instructional leadership behaviours in CsOE in Ghana was the provision for induction for tutors. According to Rebores (2007), the importance of proper induction and induction of new appointees cannot be overestimated. He continues that, too many capable teachers, including many who have devoted years of preparing their careers, resign their positions and give up teaching because of an unnecessarily unpleasant and frustrating initial experience in a school that lacks an effective comprehensive induction programme. The findings contrast a study conducted by Stuart et al. (2000) in Lesotho and Malawi on *Career Perspectives of Tutors in Teacher Training Colleges*. The authors found that no formal induction is offered to new tutors. The study finding agreed with Clements' (2011) view that induction is critical in developing teachers' capabilities, and so beginning teachers should not be left alone to sink or swim. Schools should therefore adopt internal support systems and strategies that (that is, the daily support activities and continual learning opportunities) are most important for the continuous professional development of new teachers (Breux, 2011).

However, the findings failed to support Stuart et al.'s (2000) study that tutors had not been specifically prepared for their role as teacher educators. In Ghana, principals often provide induction service for newly appointed senior members. This programme aims at briefing newly appointed tutors on their duties and responsibilities in the college. Also, during this programme, newly appointees are formally introduced to the college community and informed about the college policies, systems and administrative procedures. Often, the newly tutors are paired with experienced tutors who meet regularly to offer support and encouragement, as well as identify and discuss general concerns and challenges of the new tutors. The essence is to prepare new tutors psychologically for the task ahead. It is therefore not surprising that these new tutors easily adapt and adjust to the colleges' culture of effective teaching and research.

On the provision of support for tutors' work in the college, it can be deduced that principals in CsOE in Ghana are much concerned by the professional growth of their tutors in the college. This because their supports continue beyond the induction phase for the tutors. Blasé and Blasé (2004) report that effective instructional leaders helped to develop faculty by providing essential resources and that this greatly enhanced teacher growth, classroom teaching, and student learning. According to Duke (2004), principals influence classroom instruction by supplying teachers with the necessary resources. Providing resources in Duke's view includes not only monetary resources and materials but also providing resources such as scheduling, developing the school calendar, hiring and correctly placing teachers, adopting textbooks, and purchasing necessary materials to support instruction. In support of Duke's (2004) position, principals in CsOE in Ghana encourage tutors to use research-based teaching strategies, allow tutors to make decisions regarding instructions, support tutors to practise new skills/innovation and creativity in teaching, maintain a school climate that is conducive to teaching and learning, protect instructional time, take the initiative to discuss tutors' concerns with them, give specific ideas on how to improve instructions and provide professional and educational literature (journals, articles, research findings) for use by tutors.

Regarding the promotion of in-service training in the colleges, it was found that principals often promote in-service training to tutors. The finding affirms Obi's (2002) observation that principal instructional leadership behaviours include promoting attendance to conferences, seminars and workshops, professional associations and in-service educational programmes, and, building a culture and a climate of collaboration and learning, promoting coaching, collegial

investigation, study teams, providing resources to support teachers in their work, providing resources and in-services that cultivate teacher innovation, teacher reflection and teacher leadership and building a culture of lifelong learning through inquiry and collaboration (Glickman et al., 2014). It can be deduced that principals often plan and execute college-based in-service training programmes for tutors, alert tutors on in-service training programmes available for participation, encourage tutors to participate in in-service training programmes in CsOE in Ghana. They also ensure that tutors are informed early about in-service training programmes to be attended, provide sufficient funds and resources for tutors attending in-service training programmes, bring in experts in certain areas for in-service training and support individualised efforts of tutors to participate in in-service training programmes. This behaviour is often exhibited due to the reason that such training serves as a bridge between prospective and experienced educators to meet the new challenges of guiding students towards higher standards of learning and self-development to promote excellent and effective teaching and learning environment for student teachers in CsOE in Ghana.

The results show that supervision of tutors' work was found to be the least practised/demonstrated instructional leadership behaviour in the opinion of principals. This finding should be of concern to principals because Nolan and Hoover (2008) observed that instructional supervision is a crucial tool used in building effective teacher continuous professional development. Supervision is also seen as an organisational function that seeks the growth of teachers and improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning (Tefaw & Hofman, 2012). Zepeda (2007) further intimates that a clear connection of instructional supervision to continuous professional development is needed to enhance teachers' continuous professional development. In-depth studies of teachers' perceptions of characteristics of school principals that influence teachers' classroom instruction have also concluded that the behaviours associated with instructional leadership positively influence classroom instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Specifically, Blasé and Blasé's (2004) findings indicated that when instructional leaders monitor and provide feedback on the teaching and learning process, there were increases in teacher reflection and reflectively informed instructional behaviours, a rise in implementation of new ideas, greater variety in teaching strategies, more response to student diversity, lessons were prepared and planned more carefully, teachers were more likely to take risks and had more focus on the instructional process, and teachers used professional discretion to make changes in classroom practice. Teachers also indicated positive effects

on motivation, satisfaction, confidence, and sense of security. Thus, if college principals are not performing this instructional leadership function regularly, then it is likely that this will affect the continuous professional development of college tutors. This development may in turn affect tutors' performance and consequently teacher trainees' achievement. Blasé and Blasé (2004) found that principals who did not engage in monitoring and providing feedback on the teaching and learning process hurt teachers and classroom practices.

The trainees in Ghana's CsOE are being prepared to teach pupils at the basic level (primary and junior high schools) of education in Ghana and are expected to help their pupils to develop as fully as possible all aspects of their potentials; which includes among other things their physical, intellectual, emotional, moral and spiritual wellbeing. Ensuring that principals of CsOE in Ghana perform this instructional leadership role of supervising tutors' work can therefore not be underestimated. Because supervision and instructional leadership often go hand-in-hand and findings of researches on instructional supervision suggest that there is a significant relationship between instructional supervision and continuous professional development (Burant, 2009). The finding is particularly important because the result of all these instructional leadership behaviours when demonstrated by the principal is a collaborative learning environment where learning is not confined to the classroom and is the objective of all educators. These behaviours attract more commitment and satisfaction from teachers as well as establish a climate that encourages mutual trust, risk-taking, experimentation, reflective thinking and collaboration, all in a stimulating, supportive and professionally challenging environment. These influences in turn culminate into a classroom where students experience lessons designed around learning theory and diverse learning strategies (Blasé & Blasé, 2002).

The study found statistically significant differences in principals' instructional leadership behaviours when they are grouped according to their level of experience (number of years spent as principals). In the first place, it was revealed that principals with 6-10 years of experience, more often, provide support for tutors than principals with above 10 years of experience. However, the magnitude of the difference is small (Cohen, 1988). It can be reasoned that moving away from 'novicism', these group of principals appeared to understand the needed import for supporting tutors to discharge their responsibilities tactfully in the colleges. Having acquired the needed experience, they seemed to understand the specific needs of tutors and resources tutors need to be more effective and efficient on the job. Secondly, a moderate statistically significant difference was estimated for the promotion of collaboration between tutors with 1-5 years of

experience and 6-10 years of experience and between principals with above 10 years of experience and 6-10 years of experience. The results suggest that both novice principal (1-5 years of experience) and advanced principal (above 10 years of experience) may want to create opportunities for tutors to work collaboratively, plan and share assessment practices with colleagues, engage in peer review, develop research and projects with colleagues, participate in collaborative enquiry and problem-solving and collect, interpret and apply feedback from students' work. These behaviours may leave lasting impressions in the minds of tutors about the novice principal and advanced (nearly exiting) principal. Another small statistically significant difference was reported in the provision of induction when the principals were grouped according to their level of experience. Specifically, principals with above 10 years of experience often provide induction service for newly appointed tutors as compared to principals with 6-10 years of experience. One reason accounting for this difference is that these group of principals believed that knowledge of content, research and school culture need to be integrated and explained to new tutors to psychologically adjust to new challenges concerning college responsibilities. This study finding confirms Royster (2015) who found a moderate to weak relationship between principals' experience and their instructional leadership behaviours.

Furthermore, no statistically significant differences were reported for the promotion of in-service training and supervision of instruction when the principals were grouped according to their experiences. This suggests that principals in CsOE in Ghana often promote in-service training on equal terms and sometimes supervise instructions in their respective colleges. The finding is consistent with Mehdinezhad and Sardarzahi's (2016) findings in their study of leadership behaviours and its relation with principals' experience that from the perspective of teachers and principals, there is no significant relationship between any of the components of leadership behaviours and experience of principals. It is again in line with Johnson (2004) who found in his study of instructional leadership behaviours of principals and student achievement that there is no significant relationship between experience and leadership behaviours of principals.

Conclusions

Tutors are benefiting from principals' instructional leadership behaviours in the CsOE in Ghana. Instructional leaders provide focus and direction to curriculum and teaching, establish conditions that support teachers and help students succeed, provide the resources needed for learning to occur and, supervise and evaluate teachers. Instructional leaders also coordinate staff development

programmes, build collegial/collaborative and empowering relationships with and among teachers, and inspire them to reach ambitious goals. These leaders are accessible and interact with the faculty and staff about day-to-day happenings in the school continuously, creating a trusting atmosphere through developing a positive relationship with teachers, allowing teachers to take risks without penalty, building the capacity to develop teachers' abilities and personal awareness through reflection, providing opportunities for continuous professional development, giving leadership in staff development and working collaboratively.

It is further concluded that instructional leadership behaviours of principals in CsOE are affected by their year of experience as principals. Principals with an intermediate level of experience (6-10 years of experience) often provide support for tutors. Both novice principals (1-5 years of experience) and advanced principals (above 10 years of experience) often promote collaboration among tutors while advanced principals (above 10 years of experience) often provide an induction for newly appointed tutors.

Recommendations

Based on the findings from the study:

1. It is recommended that principals of CsOE need to improve upon their supervision of instruction since it was the least instructional leadership behaviour college principals were found in the study to exhibit. As indicated earlier, supervision of tutors' work is one of the instructional leadership behaviours of principals that help to promote the continuous professional development of tutors.
2. Again, the national executive committee and the sector zones of the National Conference of Principals of CsOE (PRINCOF) should collaborate to establish a forum for discussing and sharing information on best practices on their roles as principals in the area of functioning as instructional leaders.
3. Councils of CsOE and the National for Council Tertiary Education (NCTE) should make efforts to provide principals with the necessary education, and training they need to function effectively in their instructional leadership roles. Capacity building for principals by appointing authorities, NCTE and development partners, therefore, will be a step in the right direction. The principals should also be encouraged to read books, articles, research publications and other relevant materials to broaden their knowledge span regarding their roles as instructional leaders.

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Dynamics of Leadership and Teacher Effectiveness in Universities in North-Central Nigeria

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Abstract

The study examined the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in Universities. The uninspired roles played by university leadership for societal development seem to implicate the qualities of teacher effectiveness in teaching, research and community service. Teachers' performance appears lower than expected as personal observation has shown in most institutions in Nigeria. The study adopted a correlational survey design. The sample for the study consisted of one thousand six hundred and thirty-three (1, 633) academic staff members out of the population of eight thousand six hundred and thirty-four (8, 634) academic staff members working in the thirteen public Universities in North-central Nigeria as at April 2019. The data were collected through a structured questionnaire tagged: Dynamics of Leadership and Teachers' Effectiveness Questionnaire (DLTEQ) confirmed to be of 0.86 reliability coefficient. The data collected were analysed using mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions, and the hypotheses were tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson r) at a 0.05 significance level. The major findings of the study revealed that the dynamics of leadership are largely lacking; teachers' effectiveness in teaching and research are lower, and there is a significant relationship between dynamics of leadership and teachers' effectiveness in universities. It is recommended among others that University leaders should ensure the use of quality dynamic leadership skills to have a sense of mission with good interpersonal relationships, monitor frequently, et cetera considering the situation of the work environment, and the National University Commission should set urgent dynamic leadership training for University leaders through seminars and workshops for teacher effectiveness.

Keywords: dynamic leadership, teacher effectiveness, university, Nigeria

Introduction

Universities are established and accentuated to build knowledge to produce the manpower needs of a nation for development, which the goals and aspirations are achieved through the implementation of formulated policies by the influence

of leadership. Undoubtedly, leadership in the University in Nigeria is faced with the dilemma of meeting up with global changes in the educational systems. Many relevant educational requirements for effective teaching and research appear to be scarce in the Universities in North Central Nigeria. The neglect of quality dynamic leadership possibly explains teacher ineffectiveness and the dysfunctional state of University education in Nigeria (Orji, Olowu, Boman, & Akhimien, 2017).

Dynamic leadership is a dual-focused form of adaptive leadership where a leader reacts to changes by being proactive by adjusting the style of leadership based on situations to influence subordinates. It requires calculated decision making that adequately evaluates the outcome of actions and refines instructions to produce desired results (Fajana, 2000). Dynamic leaders do not only influence their people but, can read and react to different individuals and situations (Matthew, 2017). Leadership is a social process whereby people interact, the leader inspires, and the followers willingly perform tasks to achieve the goals of education. The kind of leadership exhibited by the leader often determines the extent of teacher effectiveness (Fajana, 2000; Orji, Olowu, Boman, & Akhimien, 2017).

Teacher effectiveness in the University is the level of teacher performance in terms of teaching, research and community service that could facilitate the achievement of set goals of the University (Wachira, Gitumu, & Mbugua, 2017). Paradoxically, the neglect of quality leadership in the Universities has negatively decline teacher effectiveness and fails to meet the global standing and competitiveness. Consequently, a positive learning environment, sufficient opportunity for quality teaching, research and community participation are lacking in the education sector. It is therefore important to examine the essence of dynamic leadership and teacher effectiveness in Universities to ensure that sustainable footprints of quality and standard are left to the system on the path of positive growth.

Statement of the Problem

Most University leaders fail to adjust their style of leadership to the changing contemporary situations. The high-handed skills of some leaders to be respected have weakened the use of leadership dynamics that could be vibrant in promoting teacher effectiveness. They tend to ignore situational leadership that is flexible in addressing complex issues. A cursory look can testify that communication gaps exist between leaders and their subordinates. For instance, it is often difficult for teachers to see their Vice-Chancellor with matters concerning them.

Meaning that the communication channel is directional from top to bottom. Such conditions can weaken the relationship between the leaders and subordinates and would affect organizational growth. Adequate motivation, a suitable work environment, teamwork, efficient communication between managers and subordinates play important roles in promoting teacher effectiveness. However, University teachers have lukewarm attitudes over teaching and research for lack of resources and motivation, attributed to the use of poor leadership behaviours. This is evident in the incessant strike of university teachers to tender their dissatisfaction with issues that bother them and the entire system. The broad knowledge of dynamic leadership behaviours in an organization can improve institutional effectiveness that can facilitate goal achievement. Despite efforts made by the National Universities Commission and Association of Vice-Chancellors of Universities through mandatory seminars, workshops and staff development programmes for university leaders; yet, teacher effectiveness in universities in terms of teaching, research and community service seems lower than expected. Therefore, the major question to answer in this study is; what is the relationship between the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in Universities in the North-central zone, Nigeria?

Aims and Objectives of the Study

The study aims to examine the relationship between the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives of the study are to:

1. examine the extent of how leadership dynamics are fit for purpose in public University in North-central Nigeria.
2. examine the extent of how teacher effectiveness is visibly reflected in teaching, research, and community service in public Universities in North-central Nigeria.
3. find out the relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in Universities in North-central Nigeria

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. To what extent is the leadership dynamics in public Universities in North-central Nigeria fit for purpose?
2. To what extent is teacher effectiveness reflected visibly in teaching, research and community service activities in public Universities in North-central Nigeria?

Hypothesis

The hypothesis was tested at a 0.05 level of significance.

Ho: There is no significant relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria?

Theoretical Framework

The study is based on Hersey and Blanchard (1980) situational leadership theory also referred to as the life-cycle-theory of leadership. The principles of the theory suggest that no single leadership style is best. But that the type of leadership exhibited depends on situations and tasks. The key element of this theory is 'adaptability' and the attributes are flexibility, changes, directing, coaching, participating, delegating, integrity, courage, clear vision and humanity. This theory applies to this study in the sense that University leaders are expected to adopt dynamic leadership behaviours considering situations and tasks of teaching, research and community services. The leader's leadership styles and skills are modified to suit the requirements of the organization and in consideration of the rapid educational changes. These will lead to being flexible to adapt to situations and the kind of leadership skills to exhibit to achieve teacher effectiveness in the Universities.

Leadership Dynamics in University

Leadership can be viewed from different perspectives. Leadership is a dynamic personal process that varies with circumstances and the individuals involved. It is also said to be a personal influence because of the inter-personal interactions experienced in educational institutions. It involves those statutorily empowered to see to the smooth running of the organization. Hallinger (2014) posited that leadership is about the person in charge of a group. For instance, University leadership refers to the officers of the institutions as recognized by the laws and statutes that establish those institutions. In another perspective, leadership is a dynamic process of influencing people whose effectiveness is dependent on the followers, the situation and the environment. Leadership is a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the support of others in the accomplishment of a common task and a sense of mission is encouraged by all (Yukl, 2002; Idokoko, 2016). The effectiveness and efficiency levels of institutions are performed by people who are competent, enterprising and committed to the institution. It involves the use of power to influence people and get things done in any situation.

The main components of dynamic leadership are skills or styles, situation, change and adaptability in vision setting to inspire people and bring into fore the drive for an organization's success. In the University, the constituent organs of leadership are those established by the laws and the status of the Universities Miscellaneous Provisions Act 2003 thus:

1. The Governing Council which is at the apex of the organogram which is the governing authority of the institution with powers over the general management of the University in charge of personnel, finances and expenditure, and property of the University. The Council is headed by a Pro-Chancellor who is the Chairman.
2. The Senate/Academic Board statutorily superintends over the academic matters of the University. Membership of Senate comprises the Vice-Chancellor, all professors, Deans and Heads of Institutes/Departments/Academic Units and the University Librarian with the Registrar as the statutory Secretary. The body also exercises its authority through committees.
3. The Congregation, the Convocation. Each of these bodies, although statutorily recognized, does not have executive functions, yet they are strategic to the good order and governance of the University. The Vice-Chancellor is the Chairman with all Principal Officers, all full-time members of the academic staff, and every member of the administrative staff who holds a degree of any University are members. The convocation, however, is presided over by the Chancellor or in his or her absence, by the Vice-Chancellor, and where both are absent, by the Deputy Vice-Chancellor. The main purpose of the convocation is to confer degrees and academic distinctions on qualified individuals. The Universities Miscellaneous Provisions Act 2003 (Autonomy Bill) provides for the Convocation of each University to elect one of its members to serve on the Council of the University.
4. The Faculty Boards/ Boards of studies form the basic unit of the academic structure of each University, and they report their activities to the Senate at its meetings for approval. Its composition comprises the Vice-Chancellor, Deputy Vice-Chancellors, Deans, Professors and Heads of Departments in the Faculty, other academic staff in the faculty as approved by senate and others including persons from outside the University approved by Senate following recommendation in that regard by the Faculty. The Dean of the Faculty is the Chairman.

The National Universities Commission (NUC) is in charge of monitoring the progress of the universities. Indeed, for quality assurance, the senate/academic boards have significant roles to play in leadership (Owolabi & Chukwuma, 2007). The quality of the membership of these bodies appears questionable as many individuals with inadequate qualifications or inappropriate pedigree are recruited into the institutions, and lack the operational motivation that can influence positive dynamic leadership. The dynamics of leadership in the University requires building a culture of teamwork through interactions in the interplay of management, time and task within the system (Bryant, 2003). The changing world has prompted the growing interest to determine which leadership dynamic can influence teacher effectiveness in the University. This study focuses on leadership dynamics classified into; a sense of mission, strong leadership, culture of teamwork, interpersonal communication, positive learning environment, time management, and monitoring.

Teacher Effectiveness in the University

Teachers' effectiveness in the University is the duties perform by teachers towards the achievement of set goals. The effectiveness is tied to the academic outcome of education, the extent to which students and lecturers achieved their educational goals (Akinfolarin & Ehinola, 2014). Fajana (2000) noted that employee job performance is ineffective when leaders fail to develop workgroups and establish rapport with employees by observing situational leadership skills in an appropriate environment. Teacher effectiveness in the University is determined through quality teaching, research and contributions to society (Paul, 2017). Ogurunku (2016) observed that the four characteristics of an effective teacher consist of; good grasp of subject matter, use of appropriate methodology, establishing a cordial or caring atmosphere, as well as showing students' enthusiasm. Teacher dedication and commitment towards the attainment of educational set goals are quite important.

Research is one of the major criteria to discover new ideas and solve existing problems and stands as one of the major functions of university teachers. Teachers hardly get grants and sponsorship for research. As such, lack of materials and financial resources often slow down the rate of teachers' research work in the Universities. Paul (2017) noted that dynamic leadership facilitates teacher effectiveness at the University. When lecturers are given the necessary backing, they can perform their functions appropriately. Another function of lecturers is community service which involves service to various university associations, the community and the larger society. Socially, a University is expected to serve

its immediate and adjoining communities in areas such as public enlightenment through public lectures, workshops, seminars, and conferences as individuals or group (Usoro & Etuk, 2016). As such, the current trend of community service is meant to promote the development of the university community and the general society.

Dynamics of Leadership and Teacher Effectiveness

Dynamic leadership in the University has no standard benchmark but requires the use of tactical skills to approach challenges in the system. The use of a mix of methods and techniques to suit the environment of work is important. Dynamic leaders manage conflict, solve problems, envision others, build teams, motivate people and set good examples; their techniques of leadership relate to organizational effectiveness (Matthew, 2017). Building teamwork through cordial relationships influence share efforts and maximize mutual solutions in the workplace.

The use of inadequate leadership skills that encourage the culture of corruption and mismanagement of the available scarce resources result in ineffectiveness in the universities system (Igaekemen, 2014; Wachira, Gitumu, & Mbugua, 2017). Lack of accountability can only contribute to the breakdown of moral norms to the disruption of academic activities affecting lecturers' productivity (Habbe & Ibrahim, 2017). The system requires transformational dynamic leaders that are task-oriented and people-oriented to influence teacher effectiveness. In Nigeria, the National Universities Commission (2012) expressed worries over the increase in the number of universities without qualified teachers that are proportionate to the size and coupled with constant brain drain. Consequently, the academics seem to be overloaded with tasks that could result in stress which can negatively affect academic staff effectiveness in teaching. The necessary priority for teacher effectiveness in the University system seems neglected. Teachers are not motivated and morale is dampened.

Paradoxically, teacher effectiveness in the university to some extent depends upon dynamic leadership which can facilitate to address the changes in society. Lack of a positive environment, poor time management, and disruptive interpersonal communications within the system could frustrate teacher effort leading to poor performance. Dynamic leaders build strong leadership and monitor activities to ensure teachers keep abreast of their field and be able to communicate knowledge to others at the level of comprehension (Hallinger, 2014). Disruptive leadership behaviours can frustrate teacher efforts in performance. It is argued

that effective leadership positively influences teachers' performance (Hallinger, 2014). Dynamic leaders can effectively transform their schools and influence teacher effectiveness. The art of leading in the University is a direct fur of interpersonal effectiveness on awareness, ability and commitment. Dynamic leaders are admired when they listen, present issues, prepare well, coach others and challenge people appropriately (Matthew, 2017). Thakur (2014) revealed the relationship between transformational, transactional and teacher performance as being influential in the work environment. Similarly, Gyang (2014) confirmed a significant relationship between principals' leadership styles and teachers' morale in secondary schools in Plateau State, Nigeria; and teacher morale matters in teacher effectiveness. However, it seems some leaders do not consider their leadership styles as crucial in teachers' job effectiveness. Although a series of studies have been embarked upon leadership styles, there is a need to examine the relationship between the dynamics of leadership and teacher effectiveness in North-central Nigeria.

Method

The study adopted a correlational survey design. Correlation design is a type of non-experimental research design that measures two or more variables, understands and assesses the statistical relationship between them with no influence from an extraneous variable (Asika, 2006). The choice of this design is justified in the sense that it can be used to determine prevalence and relationships among variables and to forecast events from current data and knowledge.

The population of the study consists of all the eight thousand six hundred and thirty-four (8, 634) academic staff members working in the thirteen public Universities in North-central Nigeria as of April 2019. The sample consisted of one thousand six hundred and thirty-three (1, 633) academic staff members for the study in six public Universities in North-Central Nigeria. The rationale for this sample size is based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) ideas that the larger the sample size, the more reliable will be the result of the study. A simple random sampling technique using the lottery method was used to obtain the sample.

The data were collected through a structured questionnaire tagged: Dynamics of Leadership and Higher Education Effectiveness Questionnaire (DLHEEQ). What informed the use of a questionnaire is that relevant data can easily be collected and is relatively effective in collecting large amounts of information from a larger sample size. Nigeria to allow for data gathering and ensuring them about the confidentiality of any information elicited from them. The questionnaires

were hard copies and administered through face-to-face direct delivery to facilitate prompt response from respondents. The validity of the instrument was ascertained by two experts in the fields of Educational Administration and Planning, and Educational Measurement and Evaluation at the University of Jos. The reliability of the instrument on multi-variables (University dynamic leadership elements and teacher effectiveness) were tested via the Cronbach's Alpha Method and yielded 0.87, an acceptable reliability coefficient.

The data collected for the study were analysed using mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions with a criterion mean of 3.00. The level of agreement is when the mean score is equal to or more than the criterion mean and that of disagreement is when the mean score is less than the criterion means. The hypotheses were tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson r) at a 0.05 significance level. The decision rule for the benchmarks is when the p-value is greater than the 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was accepted and when the yielded p-value was less than the level of significance of 0.05, it is not significant and the null hypothesis is rejected.

Results

Research Question One

To what extent is the leadership dynamics in public Universities in North-central Nigeria fit for purpose?

The result shows a cumulative mean of 2.91 below the criterion mean of 3.00, indicating that dynamics of leadership issues such as sense of mission, interpersonal communication, a positive learning environment (motivation), time management, and parent/community involvement matter to public Universities in North-central Nigeria but are largely lacking by education leaders in the zone. All the items have mean scores below the criterion mean except items 2 and 4. This also implies that the dynamic leader's building strong leadership and frequent monitoring of progress do matter so much to respondents as result confirmed agree. Table 1 reveals the Mean and Standard Deviation result on the extent of leadership dynamics in public Universities in North-central Nigeria.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation Result on Leadership Dynamics in public Universities in North-Central Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Decision
1	Sense of mission extent	1633	2.91	0.28	Disagree
2	Building strong leadership	1633	3.42	1.12	Agree
3	Interpersonal communication (Teamwork)	1633	2.71	0.46	Disagree
4	Frequent monitoring of progress	1633	3.36	1.10	Agree
5	Positive learning environment (motivation)	1633	2.29	0.53	Disagree
6	Time management	1633	2.91	0.28	Disagree
7	Parent/Community engagement	1633	2.83	0.38	Disagree
Cumulative mean			2.91		

Note: Criterion mean: 3.00 Key: Std. Dev = Standard Deviation, N = Number

Research Question Two

To what extent is teacher effectiveness reflected visibly in teaching, research and community service activities in public Universities in North-central Nigeria?

The finding shows that lecturers are not effective in teaching by the Cumulative Mean of 2.65 which is below the criterion mean of 3.00. The result indicates that most academic staff are not punctual, poor in pedagogy, lecturers are absent from duty, have poor students' application, do not promptly give feedback to students have poor personality hence they are not effective in teaching in North-central Nigeria. Table 2 reveals the Mean and Standard Deviation result on the extent of academic staff effectiveness in teaching in public Universities in North-central Nigeria.

Table 2

Mean and Standard Deviation Result on Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching in Public Universities in North-Central Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Decision
1	Punctuality	1633	2.49	0.52	Disagree
2	Pedagogy	1633	2.33	0.50	Disagree
3	Absenteeism	1633	2.39	0.49	Disagree
4	Students' application	1633	2.50	0.50	Disagree
5	Feedback to students	1633	2.79	0.44	Disagree
6	Personality	1633	2.67	0.51	Disagree
7	Academic calendar	1633	3.36	1.60	Agree
Cumulative mean			2.65		

Note: Criterion Mean = 3.00

The result reveals the Cumulative Mean of 2.47 which is lower than the criterion means of 3.00, an indication that the majority of the respondents agreed that teacher effectiveness in research is lower. This implies that teachers do not access research grants to perform their research activities and sponsorship for training, orientation for new lecturers, and mentorship programme hence they perform poorly in research works in public Universities in North-central Nigeria. Table 3 shows the Mean Score and Standard Deviation result on the extent of academic staff effectiveness in research in public Universities in North-central Nigeria.

Table 3

Mean and Standard Deviation Result on Extent of Teachers' Effectiveness in Research in Public Universities in North-Central Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Decision
1	Sponsorship for training	1633	2.63	5.281	Disagreed
2	Accessing research grants	1633	1.73	2.25	Disagreed
3	Orientation for new staff	1633	2.79	0.440	Disagreed
4	Mentorship programme	1633	2.71	0.459	Disagreed
Cumulative mean			2.47		

Note: Criterion mean: 3.00

Table 4 shows that the mean score for knowledge sharing outside the community and contribution to cultural activities in local communities (= 3.61 and 3.33) respectively are higher than the criterion mean of 3.00, indicating that most lecturers are effective in knowledge sharing outside the community and contribution to cultural activities in local communities. This implies that the majority of the University teachers rated their community services in terms of knowledge sharing outside the community and contribution to cultural activities in local communities as effective and matters most than other factors in term of academic staff effectiveness in community service.

Table 4

Mean and Standard Deviation Result on Extent of Teachers' Effectiveness in Community Services in Public Universities in North-Central Nigeria

S/N	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Decision
1	Paper presentations in conferences	1633	2.23	0.54	Disagreed
2	Conduct consultation services within the university	1633	2.54	0.51	Disagreed
3	Knowledge sharing outside the community	1633	3.36	1.07	Agreed
4	Contribution to cultural activities in local communities	1633	3.72	1.20	Agreed
Cumulative Mean			2.96		

Note: Criterion mean: 3.00

Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in Universities in North-central Nigeria.

The result yielded $r = 0.381$, $p < 0.05$; indicating a weak positive relationship between the two variables. Since the p-value of 0.000 is less than the 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded that there is a significant relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria. Table 5 reveals the results of the relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria.

Table 5

Pearson Correlation of Relationship between Dynamics Leadership and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria

Variables	N	Mean	SD	r	p-value	Decision
Dynamics leadership	1633	129.39	37.44	0.53	0.000	Reject H ₀
University teachers' effectiveness	1633	2363	363.59	85.95		

Note: (N = Number; = mean; SD = Standard Deviation, r = Correlation; p = Calculated alpha level of significance).

Discussion

The discussion is based on the findings derived from the research questions and hypothesis formulated in the study. On the extent of leadership dynamics in Universities in North-central Nigeria, the result reveals a cumulative mean of 2.91 below the criterion mean of 3.00. This implies that the dynamics of leadership influence teacher effectiveness minimally in Universities in North-central Nigeria. However, findings signified that strong building leadership and frequent monitoring of progress with mean above the criterion mean were exhibited maximally. The findings agree with the National Universities Commission (2012) report that indicated that many University leaders lack adequate, effective leadership approaches and skills in their function and that has been a major barrier to the achievement of educational goals in the country. This also supports Akinfolarin (2014), and Orji, Olowu, Boman and Akhiemen (2017) findings that there is no passion and enthusiasm on the part of the leaders for ensuring teamwork, teacher motivation, effective time management for effective teaching and learning. The implication is for leaders to share some aspects of passion and enthusiastic leadership skills, and consider the situational environment that can influence teacher effectiveness and promote close interpersonal relationship for mutual respect. When leaders fail in their leadership role teacher morale is dampened for any effective performance to take place. University leadership needs to face the challenging world by exhibiting dynamic leadership skills for competencies to improve teacher effectiveness.

The result also showed the extent of low teacher effectiveness in teaching in public Universities in North-central Nigeria with the Cumulative Mean of 2.65 which is below the criterion mean of 3.00. This means that most academic staff are not punctual, lecturers exhibit poor knowledge in pedagogy, lecturers are absent from duty, have poor students' guidance, lecturers do not promptly

give feedback to students, have poor personality hence they are not effective in teaching in North-central Nigeria. This finding supports findings by Fajana (2000), that employee job performance is ineffective when leaders fail to develop workgroups and establish rapport with employees with situational leadership in an appropriate environment.

The result on the extent of academic staff effectiveness in research in public Universities in North-central Nigeria show that sponsorship for training, accessing research grants, orientation for new academic staff, a mentorship programme for younger lecturers and recruitment processes are not adequately carried out by academic staff for effectiveness. Findings by Fajana (2000), and Paul (2017) showed that teacher effectiveness in the University is determined through impart of knowledge; being proficient in research and contributions to society. It is only through research that educational problems can be solved and new issues could be discovered for the development of society.

Results also revealed that most lecturers are effective in knowledge sharing outside the community and contribution to cultural activities in local communities which matters most than other factors in term of academic staff effectiveness in community service. These findings are consistent with Usoro and Etuk (2016) views, that socially, a University is expected to serve its immediate and adjoining communities in areas such as public enlightenment through public lectures, seminars, debates as individuals or group. However, a teacher ineffective in teaching and research could be attributed to leadership failures in the university which are required to be solved by the use of quality situational dynamic leadership.

Results confirmed that there is a weak positive significant relationship between leadership dynamics and teacher effectiveness in public Universities in North-central Nigeria. The result shows the p-value 0.000 below the 0.05 level of significance, and the null hypothesis is rejected. This is consistent with Wachira, Gitumu and Mbugua (2017) that effective and appropriate dynamic leadership is very important in the achievement of higher education goals. It could therefore be argued that the extent to which Universities achieve their anticipated educational objectives, the extent to which University students acquire the content of the curricular experiences and the quality of capabilities that University students manifest depend to a large extent on the interactions that leaders have with subordinates. This is supported by Habbeb and Ibrahim (2017), that the Nigerian university has been plagued with challenges including leadership and administrative direction and inappropriate application of

leadership styles leading to poor relational working ties between employees and university management. Hence, University leaders have the task of embracing dynamic leadership skills to promote effective teacher performance and in turn facilitate the achievement of stated goals.

Conclusion

Universities have numerous challenges despite the introduction of different policies meant for developing society. Good leadership whether internal or external is a major factor for success in the University system which cannot be overlooked. The study highlights on dynamics of leadership with particular reference to; a sense of mission, building strong leadership, interpersonal communication, monitoring, positive learning environment, motivation, time management, and community involvement. Other areas include; teacher effectiveness in teaching, research and community service. Leadership dynamics were confirmed to relate to teacher effectiveness. Dynamic education leaders focus on positive changes through the use of situational leadership behaviours that are reactive and proactive to increase positive influence on the achievement of set goals. The study concludes that university leaders should identify dynamic leadership behaviours that are mostly and widely practised based on situations for teachers' effectiveness.

Recommendations

To improve the effectiveness of the Universities, the following are recommended:

1. University leaders should ensure the use of dynamic leadership that is proactive, creative, innovative and prudent, and devoid of undue political interference to meet the educational paradigm shift of changes in the Globe.
2. Leaders should promote reliance on appropriate leadership pattern in the University sector to promote teacher effectiveness considering the situation of the work environment to adapt to contemporary changes in the educational sector.
3. National University Commission should set urgent dynamic leadership training for University leaders through seminars and workshops to have the basic knowledge of dynamic leadership skills that can promote quality teacher effectiveness.
4. The government should provide the necessities for teacher effectiveness in terms of teaching, research and community service.

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Challenges and Coping Strategies of Student Mothers of 'UCC' College of Distance Education: The Case of the Cape Coast Centre

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Abstract

Student mothers in distance education programmes in Ghana have to combine family roles with work and academic pursuits. Therefore, this study sought to find out the challenges and coping strategies of student mothers at the College of Distance Education (CoDE) of the University of Cape Coast (UCC), Cape Coast Centre. In this descriptive survey, a questionnaire was used to collect data from 175 conveniently sampled student mothers attending classes at Cape Coast Centre, CoDE, UCC. The data collected was analysed using frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations. The findings from the data gleaned that majority of student mothers (a minimum of 71%) performed a lot of laborious non-academic activities daily in their homes and the combination of these roles with their academics pose a negative high effect on their family lives and academics. Unfortunately, the coping strategies they employed were, to a large extent, ineffective. Thus, student mothers have inevitable academic impediments that emanate from the non-academic activities they perform at home, posing challenges to their academic pursuit. Therefore, CoDE, in collaboration with the Counselling Unit of the University of Cape Coast should provide counselling services to these student mothers to be aware of the academic challenges and ways to effectively navigate these challenges to be successful.

Keywords; student mothers, challenges, coping strategies, distance education

Introduction

Some decades ago, women were seen to be for the home, they were to marry and raise a home or a family. Women were not working or going to school since much of the responsibility of money or other resources needed for the upkeep of the family rested on the man. However, the pressures of life in this modern era have necessitated that women go through the educational system and work for their independence and to support the family financially (Pinto, 2019). This

means that women have to combine family roles, work and academic pursuit. The combination of these roles poses some challenges to both their academic and family lives.

Education is an important tool for development, for enhancing social, economic and human development and has a general intrinsic value. While education of both genders has a substantial impact on economic growth, the education of girls was a stronger predictor of growth in poorer countries of sub-Saharan Africa (Sutton, 1998; World Bank, 2011). Female education makes it possible to tap the potentials of women to support nation-building, which seems to be low in sub-Saharan Africa. For example, education provides women with greater earning capacity and promotes healthier and better families to effectively deal with the challenges of the 21st century (Ityavyar, 2005).

Education is a key to transforming women's attitudes and values, from traditional to more modern and from constrained to emancipation (Jejeebhoy, 1995). Female education affects the way household decisions are made and have effects on issues like fertility, children's health, and school attendance. For instance, Bartels (1999) has stated that women who began childbearing early had more children than others who started later in life, probably because of education. Moreover, the education of a mother is consistently one of the most powerful determinants of child health. That is, educated mothers have the propensity for taking care of the health of the children (Sutton, 1998), including preventive health-care services and to demand timely treatment for their children. Besides, such mothers provide an enhanced nutritional standard for their children that also reduces child mortality by five to ten per cent for each additional year of schooling (Sutton, 1998). The multiple benefits of female education are cumulative, in that they become mutually reinforcing over time, with the advantages transmitted across generations.

By the middle of the 1990s, most education development projects focused on primary and secondary education claiming they have a better rate of return (World Bank, 1980) and play a key role in poverty reduction (World Bank, 2004). Most development partners regarded universities as white elephants (institutional enclaves) without direct participation in the development process of the African communities. Unfortunately, this view was nurtured by the World Bank for many years. It is, therefore, worth noting that the collaborative effect of Joint Japan - World Bank Graduate Scholarship Programme (JJ/WBGSP), *New Challenges for Tertiary Education*, with the aim of constructing knowledge

societies. The programme acknowledges the role of higher education as the engine of development in the new knowledge economy whereby the new modes of economic growth are dependent on knowledge and information technology (Msolla, n.d.). Thus, university education is found to prepare high calibre professionals to take charge of policies and administrative management of nations and facilitates national development. It has been observed that though all the universities in Ghana have adopted affirmative action to increase the enrolment of female students and have gender desks to ensure their welfare, conditions of operation in the universities conflict with the cultural expectations of a woman's role in the family (Kwapong, 2007).

Students mothers generally have to overcome many barriers to successfully pursue and reach their educational goals. As part of a survey on the needs of students who care for children, the researcher noted that student parents were juggling the roles of parents and students, thus, trying to balance the workload of their studies with family life and responsibilities (Lidgard, 2004). Considering these potential time allocation conflicts, the student mothers aim to find the balance between academics, work, leisure and family activities (Bratton & Gold, 2003). Thus, the current need for knowledge update as well as taking care of the home has promoted distance learning among mothers (Bratton & Gold, 2003). In that this case, time spent in academic processes could be a source of conflict for mother learners. For instance, studies on mature students found balancing work, study and family life particularly problematic (Arskey, Marchant, & Simmill, 1994; Callister, Newell, Perry & Scott, 2006). Neale (2001) also identified dealing with family issues and problems at home as one of the main barriers preventing or limiting mothers' ability to achieve their higher education aims.

There is also the issue of emotional costs (Merrill, 1999), for student mothers whose partners are not so supportive and feel threatened by their (wife) participation in higher education. Dewart (1996) provides a more specific insight with common issues and anxieties such as lack of time, difficulty meeting family demands, fear of failure, stress and anxiety, the need to set priorities, and integrating family issues with study issues. Heenan (2002) identifies that the three main obstacles for women progressing further with higher education are their caring responsibilities, financial constraints, and lack of career advice. Similarly, Walkup (2006) confirms that student parents face challenges such as time constrain, as a result of managing academic, childcare and domestic tasks. Moreover, such parents, feel excluded because tertiary education providers fail

or have a limited approach to meeting specific needs, emotional stress about childcare provision.

Funding childcare is perhaps the most consistent problem faced by mothers who are students (Lidgard, 2004). Students who are also mothers often feel they are adversely affected by increased financial pressures and become very reliant on positive support from their partners and/or families (Kantanis, 2002). This is particularly problematic for such mothers because of the practical component of their university degree. This means additional costs for travelling to schools and resources for studies. Taking time out from their traditional roles at home to prepare for and complete their professional job practices can cause these student mothers particular anxiety, which needs a high number of coping skills. Merrill (1999) notes that a lack of integration between home and university life often requires students to engage in complex coping strategies. Therefore, having extended family members, friends and partners seem vital in determining how well mothers cope with these experiences (Kantanis, 2002). Edwards (1993) found that students who are also mothers had various ways of both separating and connecting these dual roles. These women simply added studying to their traditional domestic roles. This stance requires them to find new or additional ways of managing their domestic responsibilities and childcare arrangements. Due to these issues, childbearing mothers who wish to pursue further studies have resorted to distance education opportunities provided by some tertiary institutions.

Distance learning in developing countries emerged as a way of widening access to education for tertiary applicants who qualify but could not otherwise gain admission due to the limited space in the existing tertiary institutions (Kwapong, 2007). The delivery of the programme in Ghana is predominantly print-based and is supported with regular (every fortnight) face-to-face tutorials. Currently, four of the public universities, the University of Ghana (UG), University of Cape Coast (UCC), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), and University of Education, Winneba (UEW), are offering academic programmes in a dual-mode - regular and distance. In most distance learning institutions, the percentage of female enrolment is rather higher than that found in on-campus programmes (Kwapong, 2007).

These student mothers do not only play the role of being a mother but also workers and students. Such multiplicity of tasks poses challenges like a high level of stress and anxiety, failure in courses being studied, inability to meet

family needs, inadequate funding and lack of support from partners. As a result of the challenges, they are sometimes unable to achieve their educational aims. However, distance education allows these mothers to combine their professional role with being a student, a wife, and a mother. Unlike the mainstream where the mother leaves home and resides on campus to undertake her studies, women in distance education reside at home and combine their traditional roles with academic pursuit, with attendant challenges. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to investigate the challenges and coping strategies of student mothers, focusing on the Cape Coast centre of the College of Distance Education at the University of Cape Coast. Specifically, the study looked at the non-academic roles undertaken by student mothers and how these roles influence their academic lives. The influence of academic pursuits on the family lives of the student mothers was also investigated.

Method

This study employed a descriptive survey design involving 175 conveniently sampled student mothers who were studying at the Cape Coast centre, CoDE, UCC. They included mothers with age range 21 to 40 years. They included students who were studying various degrees such as Diploma in Basic Education 76(43%), Diploma in Psychology and Foundations of Education 23(13%), Diploma in Science and Mathematics Education 3(2%), Diploma in Management Studies 24(14%), Diploma in Commerce 2(1%), Bachelor in Basic Education 11(6%), Bachelor of Psychology and Foundation in Education 3(2%), Bachelor of Management Studies 24(14%), Bachelor of Commerce 8(4%) and Bachelor of Science in Marketing 1(1%).

Permission was sort from the College Registrar to administer the questionnaires which were in print form to student mothers. The participants were people who could read and write. Thus, the researchers used a closed-ended item questionnaire for this study. The items were based on the relevant literature about the phenomenon under study. The questionnaire had five sections, 'A' to 'E'. Section A had seven items and solicited information on the bio-data such as age, programme, school standing (level), marital status, number of children, and economic status. Section B had twelve items and looked at the non-academic roles undertaken by the respondents, such as cooking at home, caring for the children and husband, other house chores, and work activities. Section C also had twelve items that solicited from the students how their non-academic roles influence their academic lives. Also, Section D had nine items that were based on the influence of the student mothers' academic pursuits on their family lives.

Finally, Section E which had thirteen items measured the coping strategies of the student mothers. Some of the items included “*constantly seeking for support from my husband*”, “*employing the services of a paid domestic worker*”, “*skipping lectures sometimes to breastfeed my child*”, among others.

A pilot test of the questionnaire was conducted using five student mothers drawn from the College of Distance Education of the University of Cape Coast, Agona Swedru study centre. Choosing students from this Centre was basically due to the homogeneity in their characteristics. It was discovered that some of the student mothers did not respond to a few statements, perhaps, they did not understand them. Such statements were noted and later restructured. The questionnaire was also given to four Master of Education students who reviewed it. The comments and suggestions from these candidates were also incorporated into restructuring the questionnaire. Again, the questionnaire together with the purpose of the study and research questions were submitted to two Senior Lecturers in education who finalised the instrument. Moreover, the main data yielded high KR-21 reliability value of .78, which is deemed appropriate.

The research protocol was approved by the University Institutional Review Board (IRB). Moreover, we sought and obtained permission from the University Registrar and the Director of CoDE to survey their students. Besides, we asked permission from the tutors and the students and explained the purpose of the study before data collection. Data collection took place at the CoDE, UCC centre where the participants were met in their various lecture theatres. The instrument was given to each participant and allowed about 10 minutes to complete, where we were able to retrieve all (100%) of the completed instrument, giving us a return rate of 100%. The process disrupted lecturing for about 15 minutes. The participants were assured of their anonymity, the confidentiality of their information and voluntary participation and that they can stop answering the questionnaire in the process. Furthermore, each participant signed an informed consent form before taking part in the study.

To provide answers to the various research questions, frequency and percentage, and arithmetic mean and standard deviation were calculated. This was possible because the items measuring the constructs were in nominal and ordinal scales and even those on Likert scales were reduced into categories.

Results

The result in Table 1 generally showed that student mothers had a lot to grapple with in their daily responsibilities at home. About 71% of the student mothers either strongly agreed or simply agreed to all the items on the Table, except doing farm work and fetching of water, that they perform these duties daily like they have to cook, wash, tidy up their homes and care for little children each day.

Table 1

Non-academic Roles Student Mothers of CoDE, UCC, undertake in their Life

Role	SD	DN	A	SA	Total
	N(%)	(%)	N(%)	N(%)	
Cook for my family every day.	-	5(3)	56(32)	114(65)	175(100)
Have to care for my child/ children every day.	-	5(3)	37(21)	133(76)	175(100)
Have to fetch water for my family every day.	30(17)	56(32)	53(30)	36(21)	175(100)
Have to wash for my family every day.	21(12)	10(6)	96(55)	48(27)	175(100)
Assist in farm work every day.	113(64)	52(30)	10(6)	-	175(100)
Must take my child/children to school and bring him or her/ them home every day.	15(9)	36(20)	65(37)	59(34)	175(100)
Must assist my child/children in his or her/their homework every day.	-	20(11)	52(30)	103(59)	175(100)
Must report to my workplace every weekday.	-	-	16(9)	159(91)	175(100)
Must take my child/children to the hospital when they are sick.	-	5(3)	29(16)	141(81)	175(100)
My responsibility to tidy up my house /home every day.	-	5(3)	35(20)	135(77)	175(100)
My responsibility to satisfy the sexual pleasures of my husband anytime.	15(9)	15(9)	39(20)	106(62)	175(100)

Note: SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; A = Agree; SA = Strongly Agree
The result further indicated that student mothers were not able to prepare well

for and concentrate on semester examinations (M= 3.20; SD= .93), and they arrive late at examination centres (M= 2.98; SD= 1.07). Ultimately, this has made them believe that the non-academic activities they perform, at home, are responsible for the poor grades that they usually get (M= 3.10; SD= .63). The student mothers, however, did not ascribe forgetting times for lectures and tutorials (M= 2.01; SD= 1.09) and sleeping in class (M= 2.24; SD= .91) to the plenty of house chores that they engaged in (see Table 2). This implies that other factors take them off lecturers and sometimes forget tutorials times or made them sleep in class.

Table 2

Influence of Non-Academic Roles on Academic Lives

Statement	M	SD
I am not able to attend lectures regularly because of the many non-academic activities I perform.	3.47	.79
As a student mother, I am not able to get enough time to learn.	3.23	.88
As a student mother, I am not able to prepare well for and concentrate on examinations.	3.20	.93
My activities as a student mother always make me attend lectures late.	3.00	.94
Plenty of house chores make me sleep in class.	2.24	.91
As a result of non-academic activities as a student mother, I sometimes forget the time for lectures and tutorials and absent myself.	2.01	1.09
As a result of activities as a student mother, I sometimes report late at examination centres.	2.98	1.07
As a result of non-academic activities as a student mother, I am not able to complete and submit assignments on time.	2.68	.94
As a result of non-academic activities as a student mother, I am not able to attend group discussions regularly.	3.50	.85
The non-academic activities I perform are responsible for my bad grades.	3.10	.63

Note: Standard Deviation (SD); Mean (M); Mean of Mean (MM)= 3.041; MSD= .91;

With a mean of means (MM) of 3.31, the results again revealed that the respondents generally agreed (with varying degrees) to the items and that their

academic activities affect the family lives (see Table 3). They further indicated that because of their academic pursuits, they tend to have less time for their partners/husbands (M= 3.57; SD= .98) and child/children (M=3.74; SD= .86), to the extent of not being able to breastfeed their newly born babies very well (M= 3.63; SD= 1.04). For family meetings or gatherings, they strongly agreed that they were not able to attend regularly when scheduled on weekends (M= 3.56; SD= .72) and that their academic activities create confusion between them and their husbands/partners (M= 3.15; SD= .90).

Table 3
Influence of Academic Pursuits on Family Lives

Statement	M	SD
I often have less time for my husband because of my studies.	3.57	.98
My academic activities create confusion between me and my husband/partner.	3.15	.90
I often have less time for my child/children.	3.74	.86
I am not able to attend family meetings or gatherings regularly when scheduled on weekends.	3.56	.72
As a result of my studies in distance education, I am not able to breastfeed my newly born baby very well.	3.63	1.04
I am not able to have good sleep during the night due to my studies.	3.69	.62
I sometimes skip my breakfast due to my studies as a student mother.	1.81	.81

Note: Standard Deviation (SD); Mean (M)

As presented in Table 4, the majority of the student mothers generally agreed (in varying degrees) that they employed the coping strategies in dealing with challenges associated with their academic workers as mothers (i.e., MM= 3.10). Moreover, a larger proportion of the respondents either agreed (36%) or strongly agreed (25%) that they employed the services of a paid domestic worker (M= 2.65; SD= 1.06) or a family member (M= 3.79; SD= .83) when attending lectures.

However, those who breastfeed their new-borns had to skip lectures sometimes (M= 3.35; SD= .96). When it comes to accessing support from their partners/husbands, the student mothers appeared divided in their responses: 51% of them disagreed (merely or strongly) while 49% agreed (merely or strongly) to the strategy of constantly seeking support from their partners/husbands (M= 2.32; SD= 1.22). Besides, about 146 (84%) respondents merely or strongly agreed that they do plead for lecturers' help.

Table 4
Coping Strategies of Students Mothers

Statement	SD N(%)	D N(%)	A N(%)	SA N(%)	Total N(%)	M	SD
Constantly seeking support from my husband.	64(36)	26(15)	38(22)	47(27)	175(100)	2.32	1.22
Employing the services of a paid domestic worker.	35(20)	34(19)	63(36)	43(25)	175(100)	2.65	1.06
Skipping lectures sometimes to breastfeed my child.	33(19)	27(15)	40(23)	75(43)	175(100)	3.35	.96
Employing the services of a family member when attending lectures.	10(6)	15(8)	79(45)	71(41)	175(100)	3.79	.83
Pleading for lecturers' help.	16(9)	13(7)	33(19)	113(65)	175(100)	3.39	.97

Note: Standard Deviation (SD); Mean (M)

Discussion

This study aimed to find out the challenges and coping strategies of student mothers at the College of Distance Education (CoDE) of the University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast Centre. It was found that the majority of student mothers performed a lot of laborious non-academic activities daily in homes and the combination of these roles with their academic activities pose a negative effect on their family lives and academics. Unfortunately, the coping strategies they employed were, to a large extent, ineffective.

The foregoing findings exemplify few but hectic non-academic activities that student mothers go through daily. The results support the longitudinal data from the National Survey of Families and Households (Noonan, 2001), that

time spent in female housework chores hurts their formal work and wages and that, the negative relationship between housework and wages is stronger for women than for men. Similarly, the findings by the Bureau of Labour Statistics (2015) indicated that on an average day, women spend more than twice as much time preparing food and drink and doing interior cleaning, and four times as much time doing laundry. These chores would affect the performance of other activities either in the house or the workplace or at school.

Bobbie (2008) admits that poor academic performance among women is a result of overburdening household chores. The findings support that of Dallas (1998) who found that undergraduate studies are time structured and inflexible such that a woman would have to attend classes when they are offered and not when they fit into her day. Hensel (1990) also pointed out how difficult it is for women to pursue academic careers and family life. In the same vein, Williams (2007) added that choosing to become a mother gives the appearance that a woman is unmotivated, less committed, less interested in doing what she must do to get to the next step on the ladder. This has led some of their colleagues to drop out of the programme. As mothers, they are bothered about their babies.

Most of the respondents believed that, as student mothers, the academic activities they engage in have highly affected their family lives negatively. Perhaps, these student mothers have to combine homework with that from an academic setting, dual roles which demand a tremendous amount of time and energy. These mothers may give relatively more attention to their academic works over family duties, a situation that could create problems. For example, Dallas (1998) found out that several problems are created in family management when mothers combine schooling with their responsibilities in the home. Such student mothers often get tired because of workload and this may affect their relationship with their husbands and children. In such cases, these mothers may suffer emotional health issues which could further lower their propensity to achieve good academic grades. Moreover, in such a strained environment, these student mothers are likely to be academically demotivated which limit the attainment of their full potentials.

Furthermore, these student mothers may not be able to put up their best performance academically and may be unable to keep up with colleagues who have either no children or husband. Many of these student mothers are under stress from schooling and responsibilities of home creating an overworked, overstrained couple with the act of always waking up from bed early and

tired. Student mothers, therefore, face the challenge of combining their roles as mothers and/or wives with their academic work effectively if the problems persist. This is corroborated by Milner-Home, Power and Dennis (1996) who state that the traditional image of a mother is that of a self-sacrificing being. If taken as such, the student mother is likely to exhaust herself as she attends to both her studies and the parenting role. Chen and Kaplan (2003) added that breastfeeding babies is also one of the challenges that are encountered by most students. Consequently, some of these learners miss classes as they are expected to attend to crying babies just within the teaching hours and area sometimes. Some babies get sick and thus, put pressure on the mothers, as they have to take them to hospitals, even where such babies are under a caretaker, the other faces a concentration difficulty as she has to be thinking about her baby. Similarly, Suiter (2008), observed a decline in marital happiness, among couples where one is in a university when women return to school. This is especially pronounced over time when wives enrolled as full-time students, but better where wives were in part-time studies. This implies that the marital happiness of the student mothers of CoDE, UCC is relatively lower than when they had not enrolled in their programme of study. In such a situation, the academic achievement of these mothers will suffer as they may face challenges with concentration for effective academic work, resulting in poor grades and low class at the end of the programme.

We have also found that many of the student mothers used varied coping strategies, which, unfortunately, to a large extent, were ineffective. Perhaps, apart from their immediate families, these student mothers do not have many alternatives for home care assistance. Thus, Grohman and Lamm (2009) found out that one coping strategy that cannot be ignored is the support from the family, especially, husbands, parents, grandparents and other relatives in Africa. They added that emotional support from husband and peers and time management strategies was used by many as a stop measure. For instance, emotional and physical supports from close relatives like husbands are important student others especially those with first-time birth. Meanwhile, in a financially established family, student mothers and couples could pay for domestic aids to either carry the baby and stay at home or follow the mother to class. A situation like that gives the student mother leverage and emotional stability as she can always have access to her baby.

Furthermore, more than half of the student mothers wished to change their coping strategies because they believed such strategies were not effective. Probably, many of the mothers keep searching for better strategies that could let

them cope with the situations they face. Given all the multiplicity of domestic roles, economic duties and academic pursuits of student mothers and the effects they tend to have on their family lives, a question worth-answering is “whether they would wish to stop or continue reading their programmes?” Whatever their answer(s) may be, the Transactional Coping Theory can be used to explain and that, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) the mother are likely to appraise and cope with situations in several means. For instance, most of the mothers will not abandon their programme of study, rather show more dedication because of the general gains of education they anticipate. Thus, their commitments, beliefs and personal traits contributed to their resilience towards completing the programme. Therefore, these student mothers may need to be taught varied coping strategies and means of using them effectively. In that case, they could complete their programme in good academic standing and even be able to multi-task in future.

Conclusions

This explored the challenges and coping strategies of student mothers at the College of Distance Education (CoDE) of the University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast Centre. Student mothers had a lot of laborious non-academic activities that they performed daily in their homes. It is therefore concluded that CoDE student mothers have very limited time for their study. Moreover, the non-academic activities performed by these mothers negatively affect their academic lives. Thus, these student mothers have inevitable academic impediments that emanate from the non-academic activities that they perform. In another breath, it was found that the academic activities that the student mothers engaged in harmed their family lives, putting the success of their academic pursuits at the expense of the time for their families. Besides, these student mothers would continue to experience some of these challenges they face, unless they are taught appropriate and effective coping strategies. In effect, many of these mothers may not be able to achieve full academic potentials.

Recommendations

1. Student mothers need to delegate or share their responsibilities with their partners/husbands and any other person they deem fit. Their husband(s)/partner(s) or the persons they deem fit, should in turn give their full support to the student mothers to reduce their daily schedules and chores to get time for their studies.
2. Counselling Unit at CoDE with the assistance of the Counselling Centre of the University of Cape Coast needs, as part of their orientation programme, provide intensive counselling services to all the female students to be

aware of the academic challenges that await them when they conceive/deliver in the course of reading their programmes.

3. Student mothers need to endeavour to explain the consequences of enrolling in the CoDE programme to their families, especially, partner/husband for them to fully understand their actions to offer the necessary assistance when the need arises.
4. To save the student-mothers from the overwhelming challenges they face, the strategies such as establishment a breastfeeding room at the centre where student mothers can store milk and feed their children; a day-care centre at the study centre for the babies of CoDE student mothers; the provision of hostel facilities on campus for CoDE student mothers; guidance and counselling on how to manage academics with family responsibilities are important.

Implications for Administrators

The academic and non-academic activities of student mothers have effects on their academic and family lives. It is therefore pertinent that Administrators consider them when executing their duties. Based on the conclusions and recommendations of the study, the following are the implications for the Administrator:

1. The Administrator has to organise Counselling sessions on diverse topics including family life and academic progression of fresh students during the University's orientation programmes.
2. The Administrator should liaise with the Counselling Unit to speak on topics related to the challenges that are associated with the academic pursuit and family life.
3. The Administrator should ensure access to physical resources such as breastfeeding rooms, hostel facilities and a day-care centre to student mothers to provide some comfort to them in their academic pursuit.
4. The Administrator should factor the needs of the student mother into the planning of the academic calendar and also ensure that academic programmes and semester schedules are adhered to since a minute delayed is a loss to the student mother.

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Students' Satisfaction with the University of Cape Coast Residential and Academic Experiences

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Abstract

The purpose of the study is to explore students' satisfaction with the University of Cape Coast experience. The study adopted a sequential explanatory mixed-method design and used current students as the population of the study. A sample size of 420 students was used for the study. The study used questionnaires and focus group interview guides to obtain data from participants. The study used descriptive statistics and a thematic analysis approach to analyse the data obtained. The study revealed that students are less satisfied with residential services and attributed this to irregular water supply, unsanitary toilet and urinal facilities, congestion in student rooms. Furthermore, the study showed that students were less satisfied with some academic services. The study recommended that the leadership of departments, faculties and colleges need to review their curriculum with the approval of the Academic Board to enhance students' practical experiences in their academic programmes.

Keywords: academic, resident, higher education, service, student satisfaction

Introduction

Schools, colleges and universities have no value without students. Students are the most essential asset for any educational institute. Demands of students towards higher education institutions have drastically increased as they are more aware of the high tuition fees that they have to pay during their courses (Jones, 2006). The massification of higher education with a greater range and variety of students has also contributed to complex levels of student expectations and explanatory variables that influence and increase student satisfaction levels at universities.

Fortino (2012) claimed the creation of prepared minds of students as the purpose of higher education. Hence, higher education institutions are increasingly recognising and placing greater emphasis on meeting the expectations and needs of their customers; that is, the students (DeShields Jr, Ali, & Erdener, 2005). So, successful completion and enhancement of students' education are the major reasons for the existence of higher educational institutions. This positive development in higher education shows the importance of educational institutions understanding student satisfaction in a competitive environment

(Yusoff, McLeay, & Woodruffe-Burto, 2015). Now the higher education industry is strongly affected by globalisation. This has increased the competition among higher education institutions to adopt market-oriented strategies to differentiate themselves from their competitors to attract as many students as possible satisfying current students' needs and expectation.

In non-compulsory higher education systems, students are considered the primary customers of a university (Douglas, McClelland & Davies, 2008). Hence, a critical need for universities to compete is identifying factors that drive students' satisfaction levels with their learning environments (Alvis & Raposo, 2006). The student satisfaction level relies on educational experiences, services and facilities students encounter during the learning process (Elliott & Shin, 2002; Weerasinghe & Dedunu, 2017; Weerasinghe & Fernando, 2017). The student satisfaction level is a function of the relative level of experiences and perceived performance of educational services provided by higher educational institutions (Mukhtar, Ahmed, Anwar & Baloch, 2015).

Student satisfaction definitions have varied widely depending on the research approach and focus. In this study, student satisfaction was examined from an educational perspective. Elliott and Healy (2001) defined student satisfaction as a temporary attitude from an evaluation of a student's educational experience and claimed that student satisfaction was achieved when their actual experiences or performances met or exceeded their initial expectations. Aldridge and Rowley (1998) divided student satisfaction evaluations into two categories, with the first being focused on classroom teaching and learning evaluation and the second being focused on the comprehensive student experience. For this study, student satisfaction is defined as student happiness or contentment with their overall college experience. Elliott and Shin (2002) define students' satisfaction as the favourability of a students' subjective evaluation of the various outcomes and experiences associated with education, student satisfaction is being shaped continually by repeated experiences in campus life.

Kotler, Lane, Koshy, and Jha (2009) define satisfaction as a person's feeling of pleasure that results from comparing a product's perceived performance (or outcome) to their expectation. It means if the performance matches the expectation, the customer will be satisfied. In the context of higher education, the matter of satisfaction is what students expect from their educational institution, in fact, everything that makes them eligible to become productive and successful person in their practical lives. Reid (2008) has classified a few

basic characteristics that employers normally seek from university graduate. Reid further states that these include knowledge, intellectual abilities, working in modern organisations, interpersonal skills, and communication skills. Besides, there are other invisible characteristics required by the market and that includes the willingness to learn, be participative and positive to work in teams, problem-solving skills, analytical abilities, leadership qualities, adaptability, flexibility, ability to summarise key issues, and last but not least the ability to be productive and loyal team/organisational member. The attainment of these skills and abilities is what parents expect when they decide to send their children to higher education in universities.

One of the issues under consideration is whether university graduates are provided with the necessary facilities that make their experience conducive and the attainment of the necessary competencies and skills possible. This is crucial not only to students' success but to the growth of the national economy of the country. In this regard, Umbach and Porter (2002) argued that the institutional impact on the students' outcome is still unknown, and if anything is known, that is somewhat contradictory. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that different academic disciplines vary in terms of their application of practical problems, cognitive processes, faculty time commitment and scholarly output.

Students' satisfaction is a multidimensional process that is influenced by different factors. According to Walker-Marshall and Hudson (as cited in Weerasinghe & Fernando, 2017), Grade Point Average (GPA) is the most influential factor in student satisfaction. Appleton-Knapp & Krentler (2006) identified two groups of influences on student satisfaction in higher education as personal and institutional factors. Personal factors include age, gender, employment, preferred learning style, student's GPA and institutional factors cover quality of instructions, promptness of the instructor's feedback, clarity of expectation and teaching style. Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013) identified quality of lecturers, quality of physical facilities and effective use of technology as key determinant factors of student satisfaction. Besides, student satisfaction in universities is greatly influenced by the quality of the classroom, quality of feedback, lecturer-student relationship, interaction with fellow students, course content, available learning equipment, library facilities and learning materials (Sojkin, Bartkowiak, & Skuza, 2012). In addition to that, teaching ability, flexible curriculum, university status and prestige, independence, caring of faculty, student growth and development, student-centeredness, campus climate, institutional effectiveness and social conditions have been identified

as major determinants of student satisfaction in higher education (DeShields Jr, Ali, & Erdener, 2005; Palacio, Meneses & Perez-Perez, 2002).

According to Khurshid and Arshad (2012), there are many factors affecting students' satisfaction related to their educational institute. These are:

1. **Faculty Approachability:** The relationship between students and faculty is very important for the success of the student and the institute, and to facilitate this relationship approachability is very important. It involves accessibility and approachability of faculty or teachers inside and outside of the institute for the student.
2. **Learning Experiences:** Providing meaningful learning experiences to students is the important mission of educational institutes. It helps to produce economically independent and civic responsible citizens. When meaningful learning experiences are absent, then students become dissatisfied.
3. **Learning Environment:** Satisfaction with the learning environment of the institute positively affect the learning of students. If the educational institution provides a healthy environment student will be more comfortable and satisfied.
4. **Students' views and participation:** The approach of students' satisfaction emerges from the belief that students' views matter. At higher level education students should be recognised as a key stakeholder as such freedom should be given to students for feedback because it is very important for quality assurance.
5. **Instructional Effectiveness:** Effectiveness of instruction and teachers are very important in and out of the class for students' satisfaction.

Students' different types of experiences and characteristics affect satisfaction level. Academic experiences and faculty preparedness directly affect campus services (Thomas & Galambos, 2004). Many studies have identified the factors influencing student satisfaction in higher education. Napoli and Wortman (1998) assessed that psychological measures, that is life events during university, self-esteem, social competence, social support, personal conscientiousness, psychological well-being and satisfaction of the academic, administrative and social systems of universities have an impact on university persistence among students. However, it is not known what the situation is at the University of Cape Coast (UCC).

The impact of educational services provided by UCC on the satisfaction level of its students has largely been an area that remains unexplored. Higher education institutions especially universities are similar to practice grounds where students learn and acquire all the necessary skills and abilities that potential employers in the job market seek. To ensure that this is the case, UCC tends to package its services which include i) core services i.e. knowledge, intellectual abilities, interpersonal and communication skills; ii) actual services i.e. degrees like undergraduate and postgraduate through regular teaching and research; and iii) augmented services including infrastructure i.e., building, transportation facilities, libraries, labs, computer labs, hostel/residence facilities, medical, sports, and lecture facilities coupled with administrative support. The underlying question in this study is whether UCC students are satisfied with the services. To measure personal satisfaction of the university students' experience, this study was initiated to empirically measure the phenomenon taking UCC as a case.

Research Questions

1. How are students at the University of Cape Coast satisfied with residential services?
2. How are students at the University of Cape Coast satisfied with academic services?

Method

Study Design

The study aimed at exploring, understanding, documenting, explaining and reporting students' satisfaction with the University of Cape Coast experience. In line with this, the study explored both quantitative and qualitative data in the form of insights from semi-structured face-to-face interviews, focus group interviews and questionnaire from students will be collected for analysis. A sequential explanatory mixed-method design was therefore preferred for this study (Creswell & Plano, 2011). This method begins with qualitative phase of data collection and analysis, followed by a phase of quantitative data collection and analysis, with a final stage of integration of data from the two separate types of data. This, we believe, was the most appropriate design to enable the researchers to explain quantitative results by using qualitative data to explore certain findings. This helped to explain unexpected results (e.g., using follow-up focus group discussions to understand better the results of a quantitative study).

Population

The population of the study was made of all undergraduate students at the University of Cape Coast. According to the Directorate of Academics Affairs, the estimated target population was 18,679 students for the 2018/2019 academic year. The target population consisted of Level 100 (5,001 students), Level 200 (4,919 students), Level 300 (4,348 students) and Level 400 (4,411 students). Furthermore, there were 11,438 males and 7,241 female students at the University of Cape Coast. These students were used for the study because the researchers believe that these students have benefited from the services and would therefore have better ideas about the University of Cape Coast experience. Table 1 presented the level and gender characteristics of the target population.

Table 1

Distribution of Estimated Target Population

Level	Male	Female	Total
100	2919	2082	5001
200	2889	2030	4919
300	2663	1685	4348
400	2967	1444	4411
Total	11438	7241	18679

Source: Students Records, UCC (2019)

Sample Size and Sampling Strategy

Recognising the importance of sample size and sampling strategy in research as they determine how participants of a study are selected. The researchers employed a sample size and sampling strategy that best offers the needed information for data-driven findings that inform policy, practice and further research. Sample and sampling refer to the process of learning about the population of a study based on a part drawn from it (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The study used stratified, simple random and purposive sampling techniques to select sample size for the study. The stratified sampling technique was used to group the students into four levels (Level 100, Level 200, Level 300 and Level 400). The purposive sampling was used to 20 students for the focus group (FG) discussions (five students from each level). Finally, the simple random sampling technique was used to select students from various levels. Considering the purpose of the study, the research questions, the choice of mixed-method design, and taking into account Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) formula for selecting sample size for research studies, the sample size for the proposed study was 400 participants.

The equation below expresses how samples were selected from each Level:

$$\text{Sample size (LEVEL)} = \frac{\text{Total population at a Level}}{\text{Total population of students}} \times \text{sample size required}$$

Table 2 presents sample size representation based on Level and gender.

Table 2

Distribution of Sample Size Based on Level and Gender

Level	Male	Female	FG	Total
100	63	44	5	112
200	62	43	5	110
300	57	36	5	98
400	64	31	5	100
Total	246	154	20	420

Source: Field data (2019)

The researchers used stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques to select the sample for the research. Participants were stratified according to level and gender. The simple random sampling technique was used to select 400 students (246 male and 154 female students). An overall sample size of 420 participants (survey=400, focus group discussion=20) was used for the study.

Data Collection Instruments

The study used a questionnaire and focus group guide were used to data. The researcher designed the instruments. The questionnaire contained 14 items. Triangulation was used in this study to enhance the validity and reliability of the instruments. The instruments were content-validated by two experts in the field of Higher Education (one each from the Centre for Diversity and Inclusion in Higher Education at the University of Maryland, USA; and Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, UCC). The questionnaire was pilot tested on 60 students comprising 35 males and 25 females at the University of Ghana. The Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire was 0.89. Furthermore, a field test was conducted to ascertain the trustworthiness and credibility of the interview and focus group discussion guides. This served as a justification and precursor to this study. The pilot study and field test revealed the flaws in the research design were corrected to make the study research design much

better. The validity and reliability of the findings of this study were ensured and assured by following through with the necessary research follow-up activities and analytical procedures to ground the findings in the evidence generated.

Data Collection Approach

A questionnaire, interview guide and focus group interview guide were the data collection instruments employed to gather data from the 400 participants who are undergraduate students of the University of Cape Coast. With approval and permission from the UCC Institutional Review Board, the researcher administered the questionnaires to students at their lecture rooms. The completed questionnaires were retrieved the same day. The researchers conducted 4 thirty-five minutes focus group discussions with 5 students from each level.

Data Management and Analytical Approach

The study aimed at exploring students' satisfaction with the University of Cape Coast experience. Quantitative data from the study were analysed by using descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation). The criterion for judging the satisfaction or otherwise of service was that a mean of means scores of 2.50 or higher showed that students were satisfied with the service while a score less than 2.50 indicated that students were not satisfied with the service offered. Data derived through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions with the participants was analysed qualitatively using NVivo. This ensured that responses from the focus group and face-to-face interviews are analysed thematically, drawing out key issues, observations and lessons that helped gain insights into students' satisfaction with the University of Cape Coast experience.

Findings

This section is the presentation of data obtained from participants which gave rise to a wealth of information and richness of themes that fell both within and beyond the scope of this research exercise. Data was analysed based on research questions. The descriptive statistics tools (means and standard deviation) were used to analyse the quantitative data. The qualitative data (focus group discussion) was analysed using content analysis. The themes arising out of the data analysis are presented below:

Students' Satisfaction with Residential Services

Research Question one sought to determine how students at the University of

Cape Coast were satisfied with residential services. The data obtained from the respondents were analysed using means and standard deviation. A cut-off point of 2.5 was used to establish the level of satisfaction as against the means and mean of means. A higher mean above the cut-off point implies that most of the participants agreed to the statement and vice versa. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

<i>Residence Services</i>		
Statement	M	SD
Rooms are spacious and conducive	1.57	.50
Good water, toilet and urinal facilities	1.57	.50
Facilities are disability-friendly	2.09	.75
Free and high-speed internet facility	1.56	.75
Total	1.70	.63

Source: Field survey (2019)

The purpose of this research question was to determine students' satisfaction with residential services. It can be seen from the table that the item 'facilities are disability friendly' recorded the highest mean of 2.09 and a standard deviation of 0.75. Next to this, good water supply, toilet and urinal facilities (M=1.57, SD=0.50), rooms are spacious and conducive (M=1.57, SD=0.50), and free and high-speed internet facility (M=1.56, SD=0.75). Again, the majority of the participants indicated that all the traditional halls apart from SRC and Superannuation - i.e., bedbugs' infestation, sockets repairs, etc. (388 [97%]), study areas i.e., projector, fans etc. (376 [94%]), washrooms (400 [100%]), internet (340 [85%]), and utilities (372 [93%]) – need improvement in the provision of residential services.

The overall mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this section were as follows; M=1.70 and SD=0.63. The overall mean score of students' satisfactions with residential service fell below the cut-off point of 2.5 indicating poor residential services with regards to facilities and service delivery. This was similar to the views of students during the focus group discussion. Some of the critical statements of the participants are:

As for the residential services, it depends on some parts of the campus. Some students stay at good hostels and others stay at very bad hostels. In some halls, for instance, the furniture, the beds and other items don't make you feel comfortable. I entered some hostels and the ventilation was

very bad. How the hostel was situated and structured, when I entered the heat was unbearable so I think the university authorities should check that because it is not the best. (Participant 1, Level; 300)

Even with the halls on campus, they don't give full attention to students because you lodge a complaint and they won't mind you because they feel you came to meet it and then people have been living with it so why can't you cope with it that seems to be the system here. I see this to be a very bad practice because that is what have been affecting the whole country, we have a poor maintenance culture and if the university is not able to provide these basic services at the end of the day there will be deterioration in facilities. (Participant 3; Level 200)

Students' Satisfaction with Academic Services

Research question two sought to determine the satisfaction of students at the University of Cape Coast with academic services. The data obtained from the respondents were analysed using means and standard deviation. This research question had two sections; Section 'A' elicited views of students on academic instruction based on their colleges, whiles Section 'B' elicited responses on academic activities. A cut-off point of 2.5 was used to establish the level of satisfaction as against the means and mean of means. A higher mean above the cut-off point implies that most of the participants agreed to the statement and vice versa. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Students' Satisfaction with Academic Services

Statement	M	SD
<i>How satisfied have you been with the quality of instruction in:</i>		
Humanities, Art and Legal Studies	2.62	.80
Education Studies	2.82	.66
Agriculture and Natural Science	2.44	.97
Health and Allied Sciences	2.68	.60

During the current academic year, how often have you done each of the following activities:

Participated in class discussion	2.55	.96
Participated in hands-on activities (lab work, experiments, project-based experiences, etc.)	2.38	1.00
Attended a campus lecture, conference, symposium or arts event required by a course	2.52	.93
Used a computer to analyse data (statistics, forecasting, etc.)	2.34	1.07
Total	2.45	.99
<i>How satisfied have you been with your undergraduate education so?</i>		
Overall Satisfaction	2.21	.65

Source: Field survey (2019)

The purpose of this research question was to determine students' satisfaction with academic services. From Table 6, College of Education Studies recorded the highest mean 2.82 and a standard deviation of 0.66, College of Health and Allied Sciences (M=2.68, SD=0.60), College of Humanities, Art and Legal Studies (M=2.62, SD=0.80), and College of Agriculture and Natural Science (M=2.44, SD=0.97). This implies that all the colleges (College of Education Studies, College of Health and Allied Sciences and College of Humanities, Art and Legal Studies) offer satisfactory academic instruction except College of Agriculture and Natural Science that needs improvement.

Furthermore, it can be seen from the table that the item 'participated in class discussion' recorded the highest mean of 2.55 and a standard deviation of 0.96. Next, to this, attended a campus lecture, conference, symposium or arts event not required by a course (M=2.52, SD=0.93), participated in hands-on activities [lab work, experiments, project-based experiences, etc.] (M=2.38, SD=1.00), and used a computer to analyse data (statistics, forecasting, etc.) (M=2.34, SD=1.07). The overall mean and standard deviation scores obtained in this section were as follows; M=2.45 and SD=0.99. The overall mean score of students' satisfactions with academic services fell below the cut-off point of 2.5, indicating poor services with regards to academic activities. Again, the overall satisfaction (M=2.22, SD=0.65) of students concerning their undergraduate education fell below the cut-off point. These findings were similar to the views of students expressed during the focus group discussion. Some of the critical statements of the participants are:

For me, I am not satisfied at all. My programme of study is supposed to be more practical but then we are being taught more of the theoretical aspect and then we are asked to do an internship after Level 300 during the long break which lasts for a month or something. So, my problem has to do with the practical aspect. (Participant 1; Level 300)

I would say they are not satisfied with academic services because most students, especially, new students (freshers) find it hard to cope with the academic services on campus. (Participant 4; Level 400)

I am not satisfied with the academic as my programme happens to be a new one and me being part of the first batch of the student. The lecturers had to improvise with teaching some courses which were new to them as such had a challenge grasping concept yet alone knowledge. (Participant 2; Level 100)

Discussion

The study revealed that students are not satisfied with residential services concerning water, toilet and urinal facilities; rooms spacious and conduciveness; and disability friendliness of facilities. Again, the majority of the participants indicated that all the traditional halls apart from SRC and Superannuation provided sufficient residential facilities like bedbugs, sockets repairs, fans, lighting system, washrooms, internet, and services. The emerging issues in the study confirm the findings of Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013) that the quality of residential facilities and effective use of technology is key determinant factors of students' satisfaction. According to these scholars, residential facilities include the provision of quality utility services, resident halls, good lighting system, high-speed internet.

The study further agrees with the findings of Elliot and Shin (2002) that all services provided by academic and non-academic staff to students as well have touched residential facilities and other related services being offered to students in a university environment. Elliott and Shin stressed that residential satisfaction as the favourability of a students' subjective evaluation of the various outcomes and experiences associated with campus life as a result of using facilities provided. Again, the findings are in line with the findings of Khurshid and Arshad (2012) that satisfaction with quality residential facilities of an institution positively affects the learning of students.

Furthermore, the study showed that students were not satisfied with academic services with regards to activities such as participation in hands-on activities such as laboratory work, experiments, project-based experiences, etc., computer-based data analysis (statistics, forecasting, etc.), attendance of campus conferences, symposia or art event required by a course. Again, the study revealed that all the colleges (College of Education Studies, College of Health and Allied Sciences and College of Humanities, College of Arts and Legal Studies) offer satisfactory academic instruction except College of Agriculture and Natural Science that needs improvement. Additionally, the majority of the students were not satisfied with their undergraduate education.

The emerging issues of the study confirm the findings of Sojkin, Bartkowiak and Skuza (2012) and DeShields Jr, Ali and Erdener (2005) that students' satisfaction in university's academic service is greatly influenced by the quality of classroom, quality of feedback from lecturers, lecturer-student relationship, interaction with fellow students, course content, available learning equipment, library facilities and learning materials. Similarly, the findings are in line with the findings of Palacio et al. (2002) that teaching ability, flexible curriculum, university status and prestige, independence, caring of faculty, student growth and development, student-centeredness, campus climate, institutional effectiveness and social conditions have been identified as major determinants of student satisfaction in higher education academic services. In addition to that, the study findings agree with the findings of Wilkins and Balakrishnan (2013) that identified quality of lecturers, quality of physical facilities and effective use of technology as key determinant factors of student satisfaction in academic service.

Implications for Practice

From the findings, leadership and management of Ghanaian higher educational institutions need to pay attention to services such as academic and residential to ensure continuity and innovation to enhance students' learning experience. In offering services, leaders need to be guided by the university's guidelines. To ensure positive satisfaction, augment facilities need to be expanded as well as training of staff. Leaders need to understand the changing dimensions of Ghanaian higher educational institutions such as changing student characteristics, the call for restructuring of the academic curriculum from theory to practice as well as student-centred. This understanding fosters effective collaboration among students and related industries.

Conclusion

The question under consideration here is whether students are provided with the necessary services and facilities that make their experience conducive and the attainment of necessary skills and competencies possible. Overall results reveal that university students are satisfied with library services, room allocation procedures, peer support and roommate relationships on campus. On the other hand, students expressed their dissatisfaction with academic services (instructional methodology and academic activities), the behaviour of some academic and administrative staff especially, student-staff relationships. The study further indicated that students feel strongly about the need to expand residential facilities on campus. Based on the above-stated facts, it can be concluded that the majority of the students studying at the University of Cape Coast are dissatisfied with the services currently offered. This confirms what is in the literature that seems to suggest that enhancing service quality has the potential of improving the students' satisfaction, and that should be a priority of higher educational institutions because they have to create a conducive campus environment that fosters student development and success.

Recommendations

1. The Academic Board of the University of Cape Coast should encourage academic departments to redesign their curriculum to be skills and competencies centred. Similarly, the management of the University of Cape Coast should empower departments to have affiliations with industries.
2. The University management should prioritise improving upon residential facilities. The University of Cape Coast Management should strengthen existing policies to regulate non-residential facilities (private hostels) on campus more effectively.

Suggestion for Future Research

1. The study suggests that further research is needed to ascertain the experiences of differently abled-students regarding residential facilities.
2. Similarly, future study should be conducted to establish the impact of residential services on academic performance in the University of Cape Coast.

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