



EDITORIAL NOTE

'The early years are critical in laying the foundation for children to develop to their full potential and to be successful in school and later life. ' (Kotlus, 1996)'

Policy makers constantly make critical decisions that impact the destiny of our youngest citizens. It is critical that the decision makers recognize that societal shifts are requiring a shift toward high-quality early care education if these choices are to be made in the best interests of the children and society at large. The creation and sharing of cutting-edge information and research discoveries in the field of early childhood development is crucial to JSADTU's continued commitment to this course. The ever-evolving landscape of education and the challenges it faces necessitate examining a wide range of problems and subjects, some of which are not limited to early childhood development. This is in light of the need to discover a cooperative strategy for social change, which is the natural end of the social transformation.

The vast range of topics included in this edition of JSADTU relate to the journal's focus. The contributions' multidisciplinary character is one of the edition's main advantages. The edition's viability and its contribution to trustworthy knowledge are attested to by the contributions of experts with a variety of backgrounds. The meticulous evaluation of every piece submitted for publication has further guaranteed the edition's publication process's excellence. Therefore, I'm taking this opportunity to thank our reviewers for their diligence. It is also noteworthy that the writers of the chosen articles addressed the reviewers' issues in a qualitative manner. This illustrates the need for collaboration in the production of high-calibre scholarly publications. I think the purpose of this edition is to fill in the research gaps in the several fields that have contributed articles to the education community. Additionally, I think that this edition has advanced the idea that education is relevant when it comes to social transformation. For this reason, I want to thank everyone who helped with the edition's production.

Dr Malau David Matsepe,
Chief Editor
Department of Research
South African Democratic Teacher Union
Glen Marais, Kempton Park
South Africa
DMatsepe@sadtu.org.za

**JOURNAL OF SOUTH AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC TACHERS UNION (JSADTU)
EDITORIAL COMMITTEE**

Chief Editor

Dr David Matsepe,
South African Democratic Teachers' Union,
South Africa Email Address:
DMatsepe@sadtu.org.za
Contact Number: (W) 011 971 2000 / (C) 060 992 8392

Members of Editorial Committee

Prof Shireen Motala, University of Johannesburg, South Africa
Prof Victor Ojatorotu, North West University, Mafikeng, South Africa
Dr Thokozani Mathebula, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa
Prof Benjamin Ohwovoriole, Valencia College, Orlando, Florida, USA
Dr Logan Govender, University of Johannesburg, South Africa
Prof Kenneth Omeje, Bradford University, UK
Prof Dayo Akinbobola, Christland University, Abeokuta, Nigeria
Dr Mmakotsedi Agnes Magampa, Human Science Research Council, South Africa
Dr Nelson Goldpin Obah-akpowoghaha, University of the Gambia, Banjul, Gambia
Prof Tshilidzi Netshitangani, University of South Africa, South Africa
Dr Phefumula Nyoni, University of Johannesburg, South Africa
Adv Kanuku Ramatji, University of Limpopo, South Africa
Prof Adeleke Morufu Ademola, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile- Ife, Nigeria

TABLE OF CONTENT

Work-life Balance and Sex Differences As Correlates Of Organisational Citizen Behaviour.

Atiri, S. O. & Oke, P.I. 1

Quality of School Facility and Academic Success among Science-Based Students in Eti-Osa Local Government Area, Lagos State, Nigeria

Umukoro, O. S. & Sobowale, O.F. 10

Carrot and Stick Approach On Effective Decision Enhancement (A Case Study Of Selected Secondary Schools in Education District III In Lagos State)

Adeniyi, A. S. & Oshilaja, O. O. 21

The influence of perceived injustice and age on corruption proclivity of selected workers in lagos state nigeria

Ibidapo, S. J., Arogundade, O. & Akinbode, G. A. 30

Exploring The Role of Built Work Environment on Job Performance Of High School Teachers In Lekki - Lagos

Isreal, U. N. & Oladipupo O. B. 36

WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND SEX DIFFERENCES AS CORRELATES OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZEN BEHAVIOUR.

Atiri, S. O. & Oke, P.I.

Department of Psychology,
University of Lagos, Akoka, Nigeria.
Email: satiri@unilag.edu.ng

Abstract

This research examined work-life balance and sex differences as correlates of organizational citizen behaviour among employees of three fast moving consumer goods manufacturing organizations in Nigeria (TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR), with a aim to identify the relationship between work-life balance and organizational citizen behaviour of the participants. It also, determined the influence sex differences on organizational citizen behaviour. The study employed a cross-sectional survey design involving 306 employees of three fast moving consumer goods manufacturing organizations in Nigeria namely TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR. A paper and pencil questionnaire and two psychological measures were utilized to acquire data from the participants in this study. A bio-data form elicited information on respondent's demographic data. The organizational citizenship behaviour scale (OCB-18) elicited information on organizational citizenship behavior from the respondents, while the work-family balance (WFB) elicited data on respondent's work-family balance. The findings indicate that, organizational citizenship behaviour has significant effect on work life balance of employees, (001). The study also, found there was no significant difference in male participants' scores (M=22.6903, SD= 4.8182) and the scores of female participants (M=22.3308, SD=4.65290). According to the findings of the study, work-life balance has a moderately good link with organizational citizenship behaviour. The study also, concluded that there were no sex differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of employees of the organizations involved in the study.

Keywords: Work life Balance, Sex Differences, Organisational Citizen Behaviour.

Introduction

Every organization's goal is to mobilize its staff to work efficiently and effectively towards the achievement of her goals and objectives. It is because of this that managers and human resource experts take measures to improve the efficiency and productivity of their personnel in order to succeed in achieving organizational goals. Some of the measures taken by human resource experts have been, to motivate employees and improve their overall performance. Simply put organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is an employee's willingness to go the extra mile to achieve the goals and objectives of an origination. Organizational citizenship behaviour is a group of discretionary workplace behaviours that go above and beyond one's essential job obligations, (Zarea, 2012). Recently some scholars posited that, OCB is linked to an ethical organizational working environment and business sustainability performance (Fein et al., 2023).

However, research has indicated that some organizational factors could make workers display different behaviours, tied to the employee's direct professional responsibilities, and these behaviours greatly contribute to increasing workers' real work performance and efficiency of the organization (Chandrasekar, 2001; Dorgan, 1994; Leon &

Finkelstein, 2016; & Hasun & Makhbul, 2005). This assertion has an empirical back up, for example the research by (Podsakoff, et al., 1997), suggest OCB links individuals with the level of organizational performance that influences the efficacy and efficiency of individuals and organizations, contributing to the organization's total production. It can also assist managers in understanding the aspects impacting OCB, allowing them to select what type of work environment gives their staffs the motivation they require, (Podsakoff, et al., 1997).

Organizational citizenship behaviour notions first arose in the realm of organizational behaviour about three decades ago. Ever since, much research is being conducted, particularly in the modern corporate world, that organizations are frequently looking for ways to maximize their employees' skills and potentials through innovations in the workplace, (LePine et al., 2002). The resulting innovations, and flexibility, necessitates voluntary behaviour from members of an organization, while also, making them more efficient for their organization (LePine et al., 2002).

According to (Organ, 1988), who coined the term Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, OCB can be categorized into a five-factor model namely. 1). Altruism: This is the natural tendency to help

without expecting a reward in return. For instance, assisting a colleague with a task 2) Conscientiousness: going the extra mile in your usual task. 3) Sportsmanship: like the name depicts it involves showing an understanding, friendliness and support even when things don't turn out as planned. 4) Courtesy: being courteous or polite about the needs or emotions of colleagues. 5) Civic virtue: this is how well an individual or employee's attitude stand for the organization that employs them, (Heilman & Chen, 2005) As defined by (Zarea, 2012), OCB suggest that, employees demonstrate behaviors that help them perform their organizational expected roles better. They are usually regarded as exceeding the call of duty. Several benefits have been found by researchers of OCB that helps the realization of organizational goals. For instance, (Podsakoff et al., 2000) analyzed research that has been conducted to investigate the advantages of organizational citizenship activities. In terms of the impact of organizational citizenship on organizational effectiveness, he discussed the different mechanisms through which an individual's OCB is believed to affect organizational success. These techniques include: 1) increasing the productivity of their coworkers by assisting them in learning new skills and best practices; 2) increasing the productivity of higher-level management personnel by providing them with meaningful feedback on a given job task, 3) by being careful and demonstrating that time-consuming supervision is unnecessary, you may free up resources that can be employed for other productive duties, (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Furthermore, minimizing the need to commit scarce resources to simply maintenance activities, minimizing group conflict through group assisting behaviours, and requiring less effort for dispute resolution by displaying respect and keeping members of other teams informed, you may effectively coordinate activities among team members and cross-work groups, (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Also, promoting group cohesion and morale, making the workplace more appealing and making it simpler for the business to attract and retain the finest individuals, improving organizational performance stability by giving more resources to sustain peak performance, improve an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes by demonstrating a desire to adopt new abilities. (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

This study was interested in the context of the link between work-life balance and organizational citizen behaviour. Work life balance is defined as "the allocation of one's time and concentration between working and family or leisure activities" by the Oxford online dictionary, (Oxford, 2022). This

means the need to find a balance point between your activities outside work and work. It is the balance between your career and personal life (Chan, et al., 2018; Clutterbuck, 2003; Greenhaus, et al., 2011). Work-Life Balance is fulfilling productive and healthy life such that, it allows for work, play, love, and integrates a whole lot of activities of living such as personal and spiritual development that makes a person unique, (Chan, et al., 2018; Clutterbuck, 2018). While, (Greenhaus, et al., 2003), view work-life balance as satisfaction derived from equal involvement at work and at home. They discovered that work-life balance was connected to quality of life when persons were active in and happy with job and family responsibilities, (Greenhaus, et al., 2003; Harikaran & Thevanes, 2018)).

Recently, Work-life balance has emerged as a critical concern for employee well-being, (Chan, et al., 2018; Harikaran & Thevanes, 2018). According to (Varatharaj & Vasantha, 2012), Work and personal life are inextricably linked and intertwined. Spending more time in the office, dealing with clients, and dealing with professional demands can have an impact on personal life, making it difficult to fulfill home responsibilities, (Varatharaj & Vasantha, 2012). Personal life, on the other hand, might be stressful, like if an employee has a child or ageing parents, financial troubles, or problems in the life of a close family member. It can cause absenteeism from work, worry, and a lack of attention at work, (Varatharaj & Vasantha, 2012). When the burdens, commitments, and responsibilities of job and family roles become irreconcilable, work-personal life conflict emerges. (Varatharaj & Vasantha, 2012). Obligation to one might lead to disregard of the other. Work-life integration can be viewed as a balance point on a see-saw, with work on one side and home and personal life on the other, (Greenhaus, et al., 2003).

Maintaining a balance between personal and work life necessitates emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is essential to attain day-to-day living objectives, which is a struggle for everyone to achieve. It is the key to achieving the appropriate balance between work and life, which eventually leads to professional and personal success, (Greenhaus, et al., 2003). There is a need of a balance between an employee's private life and work demands; this makes an individual tend to display more organizational citizenship behaviour than when there is conflict between personal life and work demands, (Harikaran & Thevanes 2018).

An organization strives to maximize its profit and, as a result, emphasizes its manufacturing process (Saari, 2011). Organizations must focus on the whole management system's effectiveness in order to maximize profits in the long run, (Saari, 2011). In

this context, human resources are the most important of all the resources on which the company must focus, (McGaughey, 2018). Employee well-being and contentment are two more critical factors that influence an enterprise's success. The notion of work-life balance has recently gained popularity (Mathis, & Jackson, 2003). This might be attributed to rising task complexity, increased specialization, efficiency, and productivity.

This study was also interested in understanding the influence sex differences has on organizational citizen behaviour. According oxford online dictionary, sex can be simply viewed as the biological distinction between male or female in human and animals (oxford, 2022). Studies show that sex roles encourage women to be more helpful than men, (Suar & Gochhayat, 2016). making women feel more compelled to engage in OCB even when they have low levels of perceived organizational support (POS), whereas men may only engage in OCB when they have high levels of POS, (Anu & Radhey, 2017).

so are different as well. From the current study it is evident that there is a difference between the kind of behaviour displayed and the motivation to do so. The reason of this difference may be attributed to prescriptive gender stereotype that leads to a certain biasing in the reward system that is followed by the organisations. This prescriptive behaviour leads to women being disadvantaged i.e. no special reward for displaying OCB but being penalised for not indulging in these dimensions. The study by (Anu & Radhey), suggest that women demonstrate less OCB as compared to men. This is due the effect of sex role stereotype that make females involve more in Prosocial behavior while men engage more in OCB because of the reward attached to it and avoid being evaluated negatively in their organization

In light of the foregoing, this study was conducted to evaluate the link between organizational employee citizenship behaviour in the workplace, having found that despite numerous studies (Abun, et al., 2021; Hafidz, et al., 2012;) that investigated some of the variables that influence organizational citizenship, but not many have investigated the work-life balance, and gender, in relation to organizational citizenship behaviour, (OCB)

The earlier empirical research conducted on the links between the independent variables and dependent variables suggest the following findings. A study by, (Harikaran & Thevanes, 2018) conducted a study to review the connections between work-life balance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and organizational effectiveness. The review's findings indicate that there are positive correlations between the topics examined. Furthermore, organizational citizenship

behaviour (mediating variable) mediates the association between work-life balance (independent variable) and organizational performance (dependent variable). A study by, (Leon & Finkelstein, 2016) investigated the link between organizational citizenship behaviour, citizenship motives, and employee well-being. The study employed a quantitative research strategy, and data was obtained from 144 respondents using a structured questionnaire. people at 17 educational companies completed surveys measuring the above constructs. The mean, standard deviation, and correlation were used to analyze the data. The impression of organizational citizenship behaviour as in role was shown to have no moderating effect on the link between OCB, citizenship reasons, and employee well-being. It was also revealed that OCB and citizenship motivations were substantially related to happiness.

Pradhan, et al. (2016) looked at how organizational commitment influences the link between work-life balance and organizational citizenship conduct. A study of 206 employees and executives from eastern India's manufacturing companies was done using a series of standard questionnaires on work-life balance, organizational citizenship behaviour, and organizational commitment. The study found that work-life balance has a substantial impact on organizational citizenship behaviour. It also demonstrates the moderating role of organizational commitment in the link between work-life balance and organizational citizenship conduct.

Another a study by (Mayel, et al., 2013) in selected Tehran hospitals, to analyze the link between OCB and demographic factors (including gender, marital status, academic qualification, type of profession, age, pay and earnings, ethnicity, kind of work, department/office, job position, and term of employment). The research was descriptive and cross-sectional in nature. The sample consists of 333 personnel from the hospitals determined through multistage selection. The hypothesis was examined using the Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests, as well as one-way ANOVA. The findings revealed that, with the exception of race, all demographic factors had a substantial influence on OCB. The association between demographic variables and OCB was investigated, and particular managerial techniques and consequences were proposed.

According to (Anu & Radhey, 2017), in their study on identifying the differences in female and male employees' presentation of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), and whether there is also a difference in their motivation for showing non-mandatory OCB. In an organisation of 140 employees, 70 were female and 70 were male, all from the information technology industry. Their findings suggest that women are more driven by pro-

social values, whereas males are more motivated by impression management.

Methodology

Research Design

The study employed a cross-sectional survey design. This was because the study intended to make a connection between the independent and dependent variables. Also none of the variables was actively manipulated. The dependent variable in this study was organizational citizenship behaviour while the independent variables were work-life balance, and sex differences.

Participants

The population for the study was 306 employees drawn from staffs in the administrative arms of the three manufacturing companies involved in the study namely; TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR. The sample size of 306 participants was arrived at using G-power calculated is as follows:

$$SS = \frac{Z^2 p(1-p)}{\alpha^2}$$

Where:

SS = required sample size

Z2 = Z-value (e.g., 1.96 for a 95 percent confidence level

P = Percentage of population picking a choice, expressed as decimal in this case (0.15)

α = Confidence interval, expressed as decimal (e.g., .15 = +/- 5 percentage points)

$$SS = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.15(1 - 0.15)}{0.04^2}$$

$$SS = \frac{0.489804}{0.0016}$$

$$SS = 306.1275$$

$$S = 306 \cong \text{whole number}$$

Research Instruments

A questionnaire and two psychological assessment instruments were utilized to collect data from respondents. The questionnaire elicited information from respondents concerning their bio-data. The organizational citizenship behaviour scale (OCB-18) developed by (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), helped in eliciting information on participant's behaviour at work. It is an 18- item, self-report assessment of the level to which employees have engaged in volunteer work behaviours characterized by the scale as particularly useful and helpful to their coworkers and their company in the last three months. All of the items are scored directly as on a five-point likert scale. According to (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), the coefficient alpha was 0.91, and the concurrent validity was 0.83. Nigerian authors (Akinbode 2011; Lawal, 2001) reported coefficient alpha values of 0.89 and 0.86, respectively. While the Work - Family Balance Scale by (Carlson, et al.,

2009), assessed the work-life balance of respondents. It is a six-item scale that, participants self-reported their work/family balance. The authors used an exploratory factor analysis using Principal Axis Factor Analysis. The Eigen value was 4.49%, and 74.9%. The variation was explained by all six items loading at .77 or higher on a single factor. Grzywacz & Carlson (2007) reported a cronbach's alpha reliability of .93. The current research conducted a pilot study with the utilizing a work-life balance scale to determine the scale's dependability for application in a Nigerian environment fifty workers of the Daily Food Custard and found a cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.92 and a Guttman's split half reliability of 0.89.

Procedure

The research protocol was administered to respondents by the researchers within their office this was preceded by permission of the Human resource unit of the three companies involved in the study. Also, an explanation of the research objectives to each participant and anyone who freely gave consent to be part of the study was handed a research protocol to complete. Completed questionnaires were retrieved from respondents and carefully sorted to ensure they were properly completed before leaving the presence of each respondent.

Guiding Statement of Hypotheses

- 1.) There will be a significant positive relationship between work life balance and organizational citizenship behaviour among employees of FMCGs (TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR),
- 2.) Male participants will score significantly higher on organizational citizenship behaviour compared to female participants.

Results

The stated hypothesis that There will be a significant positive relationship between work life balance and organizational citizenship behaviour among employees of FMCGs (TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR), was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The result is presented in table 1]

Table 1.: Correlation Matrix

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient		
	WORK LIFE BALANCE	ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR
	Correlation coefficient	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.402**
	N	285
WORK LIFE BALANCE		.000
		285

	Correlation coefficient	.402**	1
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	285	285

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey, 2023

Table 1, presents the result of correlation analysis for hypothesis 1 which depicts the connection between work-life balance and organizational citizenship behaviour. As shown, because the correlation significance of .001 is smaller than the alpha level of .01 in Table 1, therefore the hypothesis was accepted. This indicates that organizational citizenship behaviour has significant effect on work life balance of employees.

Also, the correlation coefficient of .402 reveals that there is a moderate positive relationship between work life balance and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Male participants will score significant higher on organizational citizenship behaviour compared to female participants

second hypothesis which stated that male participants will score significantly higher compared to female participants on Organizational citizenship behaviour was tested with the t- test for independent sample. The result is presented in table 2 and shows

TABLE 2 T-TEST

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR					
SEX	MEAN	N	Std.dev	T	Sig
MALE	22.69	155	4.82	-.637	.524
FEMALE	22.33	130	4.65		

Source: Researcher’s Field Survey, 2023

the mean score and standard deviation of male and female respondents on organizational Citizenship behaviour. There was no discernible change in the scores of male participants (M=22.6903, SD=4.8182) and female participants (M=22.3308, SD=4.65290). It was also revealed from the table that the significant level is 0.524 which is greater than 0.05. Therefore, hypothesis which states that male participant will score significantly higher on organizational citizenship behaviour compared with female participants was rejected

Discussion

This research examined work-life balance and sex differences as correlates of organizational citizen behaviour among employees of three fast moving consumer goods manufacturing organizations in Nigeria (TGARLA, NESTLE and PROMASIDOR), with a aim to identify the relationship between work-life balance and organizational citizen behaviour of the participants. It also, determined the influence sex

differences on organizational citizen behaviour. The results of the study a quite interesting. The following conclusions were revealed based on the analysis of field survey, the examination of the relationship between work-life balance and organizational citizenships revealed that work-life balance had an impact on organizational citizenship behaviour among employees. This implies favorable organizational citizenship behaviour can be explained by work-life balance. Also, Employees' organizational citizenship behaviour is influenced by work-life balance. The results of this study concur with that of (Harikaran & Thevanes, 2018) which was conducted to review the connections between work-life balance, organizational citizenship, and organizational performance. The review's findings indicate that there are positive correlations between the . Furthermore, organisational citizenship behaviour (mediating variable) mediates the association between work-life balance (independent variable) and organizational performance (dependent variable).

The result also indicated that male workers did not score higher than female participants. This study's findings are consistent with those of Mayel, Memarpour, Kandi, and Pourreza (2013) studied the relationship between OCB and demographic characteristics in a sample of Tehran hospitals (including gender, marital status, academic qualification, type of profession, age, salary and wages, ethnicity, type of employment, department/office, job position, and duration of employment). The findings revealed that, with the exception of race, all demographic factors had a substantial influence on OCB. The association between demographic variables and OCB was investigated, and particular managerial techniques and consequences were proposed.

Conclusion

This study looked at work-life balance and sex as correlates of organizational citizen behaviour among employees from the research findings, the following conclusions were drawn: Work-life balance influences organisational citizenship behaviour in a somewhat good way. This implies that, firms that maintain a balance between the work and the life of the employees it tends to contribute more significantly to their behaviour towards the organization. Also, male participants do not make a greater contribution to organizational citizenship behaviour than their female counterparts. The implication of this is that the both sexes tend to contribute towards the organizational citizenship behaviour.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this and the conclusion, the following recommendations are set forth:

1. Given that this study found a significant beneficial association between work-life balance and organizational citizenship behaviour, it is strongly advised that enterprises that desire to experience good organizational citizenship behaviour provide an enabling working environment that allows for an equal balance of work and life. may improve firm performance.
2. According to this study, male workers have no substantial influence on organizational citizenship behaviour compared with female workers, it is therefore recommended that firms should not discriminate against any of the sexes while employing workers as both genders contribute positively to organizational citizenship behavior.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J.S. (1963). 'Toward an understanding of inequity.' *J. Abnormal. Soc. Psychol.* 67: 422-436.
- Akinbode, G.A. (2005). Personal factors and dispositional characteristics as predictors of job behaviour and outcomes. Lagos: Unpublished PhD Monograph.
- Armstrong, M. (2006). *A Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice*. London: Kogan Banking in Uganda. (n.d). Retrieved from <http://www.guideafrica.com>
- Anu Priya Punia & Radhey Shyam, (2017), Gender Difference in of Organisational Behaviour (OCB) and Motives Underlying OCB Psychol Behav Sci Int J Volume 4 Issue 2 DOI:10.19080/PBSIJ.2017.04.555633
- Bal, P.M., De Lange, A.H. & Jansen, P.G.W. (2008). Psychological Contract Breach and Job Attitudes: A Meta-Analysis of Age as a Moderator. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour.* 72(1), 143 – 158.
- Barnard, C. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge: Harvard Press.
- Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, 26 , 587-595.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.
- Butts, M. M., Ng, T. W. H., Vandenberg, R. J., Dejoy, D. M., & Wilson, M. G. (2007). *Interactions between work-life balance practices and informal support: Differential effects on organisational commitments of men and women*. Paper presented at the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology Conference, New York, NY.
- Cable, D. M. & DeRue, D. S. (2002). The Convergent and Discriminate Validity of Subjective Fit Perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 875-884.
- Chandrasekar K. (2011). Workplace Environment and its Impact on Organizational Performance in Public Sector Organizations, *International Journal Of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems*, Vol:1, Issue:1.
- Chiu, W. C. K., & Ng, C. W. (1999). Women-friendly HRM and organisational commitment: A study among women and men of organizations in Hong Kong. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 72, 485-502.
- Cohen, A. (1993). Organisational Commitment and Turnover: A Meta-Analysis. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 36 (5), 1140-1157.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J., & Kessler, I. (2000). Consequences of the psychological contract for the Employment relationship: A large-scale survey. *Journal of Management Studies*, 37, 903-930.
- Coyle-Shapiro, J., & Kessler, I. (2002). Exploring reciprocity through the lens of the Psychological contract: employee and employer perspectives. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 11, 69-86.
- Cropanzano, R. & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31, 874-902.
- Cullinane, N. & Dundon, T. (2006). The Psychological Contract: A Critical Review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*. 8(7), 113 – 129.
- Daft, R.L. (2003). *Management* (6th Ed.). Thomson Learning.
- Dawis, R. V. (1992). *Person-environment fit and job satisfaction*. In C. J. Cranny, P. C. Smith, & E. F. Stone (Eds.), *Job satisfaction* (pp. 69-88). New York: Lexington.
- Dimitriades, Z. S. (2007). "The influence of service climate and job involvement on customer-oriented organisational citizenship Behaviour in Greek service organizations: a survey." *Employee Relations* 29 (5): 469-491.
- Dorgan, C.E. (1994). The Productivity Link to indoor environment. *Proceedings of Health Buildings*
- Dubinsky, A.J., Howell, R.D., Ingram, T .N. & Bellenger, D .N. (1986). "Sales force socialization". *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 50, pp. 192-207.
- Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person-job Fit: A Conceptual Integration, Literature Review, and Methodological Critique, In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International*

- review of industrial and organisational psychology (Vol. 6, pp. 283-357). West Sussex, England: Wiley.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Naumann, S. E. (2004). Organisational citizenship Behaviour in work groups: A group norms approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 960-974.
- Ehtiyar, V.R., Alan, A.A. & Omuris, E. (2010). The role of organizational citizenship behavior on university student's academic success. *Tourism and Hospitality Management, 16*(1), 47-61.
- Eisenberger, R., Cotterell, N., & Marvel, J. (1987). Reciprocation ideology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(4), 743-750.
- Fassina, N. E., Jones, D. A., & Uggerslev, K. L. (2008a). Meta-analytic tests of relationships between organisational justice and citizenship Behaviour: Testing agent-system and shared variance models. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 29*, 805-828.
- French, J. R. P., Jr., Caplan, R. D., & Harrison, R. V. (1982). *The mechanisms of job stress and strain*. London: Wiley.
- Gakovic, A., & Tetrick, L.E. (2003), "Perceived organisational support and work status: a comparison of the employment relationship of part time and full-time employees attending university class", *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 24*, 649-66.
- George, J. M. (1990). Personality, affect, and Behaviour in groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 107-116.
- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial Behaviour, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 698-709.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review, 25*(2), 161-178.
- Grover, S. L., & Crooker, K. J. (1995). Who appreciates family-responsive human resource policies: The impact of family-friendly policies on the organisational attachment of parents and non-parents. *Personnel Psychology, 48*, 271-288.
- Grzywacz, J.G. & Carlson, D.S. (2007) Conceptualizing work-family balance: implications for practice and research. *Adv Dev Hum Resour 9*:455-471.
- Guest, D.E., & Conway, N. (2000). *Can an organization have a psychological contract? A Conceptual and Empirical Analysis*. Paper presented at the academy of management conference, Toronto.
- Hasun, F. M & Makhbul Z.M. (2005). An overview of workplace environment and selected demographic factors towards individual's health and performance enhancement. Synergizing OSH for Business Competitive, 45-53.
- Hassan, M. U. (2012). The Relationship between Person Organization Fit, Person-Job-Fit and Turnover Intention in Banking Sector of Pakistan: The Mediating Role of Psychological Climate. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies* 2, No. 3.
- Heilman M.E, Chen J.J (2005) Same behaviour, different consequences: Reactions to Men's and Women's Altruistic citizenship behaviour. *J Appl Psychol* 90(3): 431-441
- Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J.P. (2002). Commitment to organisational change: Extension of a three -component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 474-487.
- Heuvel, S. V. & Schalk, R. (2009). The Relationship between Fulfilment of the Psychological Contract and Resistance to Change during Organisational Transformation. *Journal of Social Science information. 48*(2), 283 – 313.
- Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. (2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person-organization fit and Behavioural outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 68*, 389-399.
- Jawad, M., Tabassum, T. M., Raja, S. & Abraiz, A. (2013). Study on Work Place Behaviour: Role of Person-Organization Fit, Person-Job Fit & Empowerment, Evidence from Pakistan. *Journal of Business and Management Sciences, Vol. 1*, No. 4, 47-54.
- Kagari, J. (2014). Psychological Contract Breach Management and Organizational Citizenship Behaviours in Selected Commercial Banks in Kampala District. *Global Journal of Human-Social Science: A arts & Humanities-Psychology Vol. 14* (4).
- Katz, D. & Kahn, O. (1964). Motivational basis of organisational Behaviour. *Behavioural Science, 9*, 131-146.
- Kim, T. Y., Aryee, S., Loi, R., & Kim S. P. (2013). Person-organization fit and employee outcomes: test of a social exchange model. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*, 3719-3737.
- Kingshott, R.P.J. & Dincer, O.C. (2008). Determinants of Public Service Employee Corruption: A Conceptual Model from the Psychological Contract Perspective. *Journal of Industrial Relations. 50*(1), 69 – 85.

- Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2004). *Comportamento organizzativo*. Milano: Apogeo.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization Fit: An Integrative Review of Its Conceptualizations, Measurements, and Implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 1-49.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Guay, R. P. (2011). Person-environment fit. In S. Zedeck (Ed.) *APA Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology* (pp. 3–50). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kuehn, K. W., & Al-Busaidi, Y. (2002). Citizenship Behaviour in non-western Context: An Examination of the role of satisfaction, Commitment and Job Characteristics on Self-Reported OCB, *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 12 (2), 107-125.
- Lawal, O. A. (2001). The influence of Ingratiation and Self-Monitoring on Employee Behaviour in the Workplace. Unpublished M.Sc Dissertation, Ibadan.: University of Ibadan
- LePine, J., Erez, A. and Johnson, D. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), pp.52-65.
- Lovelace, K.; Rosen, B. (1996): "Differences in achieving person-organization fit among diverse groups of managers", *Journal of Management*, vol. 22, p. 703-722.
- Martin, J. (2005). *Organisational Behaviour and Management* (3rd Ed). Thomson learning London. pp 420-466.
- Mathias A., Mohammed Z. T., (2019) *International Journal of Contemporary Research and Review* www.ijerr.info, Vol. 10, Issue. 05 Page no: ME 21501-21514 DOI: <https://doi.org/10.15520/ijerr.v10i05.698>
- Mayel A. M., Memarpour M., Kandi M. J., & Pourreza A., (2013) *Academic Journals* <http://www.academicjournals.org/AJBMV> ol. 7(34), pp. 3324-3331, 14 September, 2013
- Mogaji, A.A. (1997). *Effects of organisational climate on employees' commitment, involvement and motivation in some Nigerian manufacturing industries*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. University of Lagos.
- Moorman, R.H. & Blakely, G.L. (1995). Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16: 127–142
- Morrison, E.W., & Robinson, S.L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of How psychological contract Breach develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22, 226-256.
- Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. M., & Steers, R. M. (1982). *Employee-organisational linkage*. New York: Academic.
- Moynihan, D. P. & Pandey, S. K. (2007). *Finding Workable Levers over Work Motivation*.
- Mullins, L.J. (2005). *Management and Organisational Behaviour* (7th Ed.) FT Prentice Hall.
- Newstrom, J.W., & Keith, D. (2002). *Organisational Behaviour, Human Behaviour at work* 11th Edition, New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill publishing company limited.
- Ng, T. W. H. & Feldman, D.C. (2009). How broadly does education contribute to job performance? *Personnel Psychology*; 62 (1), 89.
- Organ, D. W. & Ryan, K. (1995). "A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organisational citizenship Behaviour", *Personnel Psychology*, 48: 775–802.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organisational citizenship Behaviour: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Book.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). *Organisational citizenship behaviours: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. USA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Park, O. S., & Sims, H. P. (1989). *How subordinate prosocial Behaviour influences performance ratings*. Paper presented at the National Academy of Management Meeting, Washington, DC.
- Pearce, C. L., & Herbig, P. A. (2004). Citizenship Behaviour at the team level of analysis: The effects of team leadership, team commitment, perceived team support, and team size. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 144, 293-310.
- Perry, J. L., Mesch, D., & Paarlberg, L. (2006). *Motivating Employees in a New Governance* Publishing C. Ltd.
- Pleck, J.H. (1985). *Working wives/working husbands*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1995). An examination of substitutes for leadership within a levels of analysis framework. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6, 289-328.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, & Scott, B. (1997). Impact of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour on Organisational Performance: A review and suggestions for future research. *Human Performance*, 10.

- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organization citizenship Behaviours: a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26, 513–563.
- Porter L. W. (1961). A Study of Perceived Job Satisfactions in Bottom and Middle Management Jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 45,1-10.
- Porter L. W. (1962). Job Attitudes in Management: I. Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Job Level. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 46, 375-384.
- Resick, Ch. J., Giberson, T. T., Dickson, M. W., Wynne, K. T., & Bajdo, L. M. (2013). *Person organisational fit, organisational citizenship, and social-cognitive motivational mechanisms*. In A. L. Kristof-Brown & J. Billsberry (Eds.) *Organisational Fit. Key issues and new directions* (pp. 99–123). Chichester: UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (2000). The development of psychological contract breach and Breach: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 21: 525-546.
- Robinson, S.L., & Rousseau, D.M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: not the exception but the norm. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 15, 245-259.
- Roehling, P. V., Roehling, M. V., & Moen, P. (2001). The relationship between work-life policies and practices and employee loyalty: A life course perspective. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 22(2), 141-170.
- Rousseau, D. M. (1989). Psychological and implied contracts in organizations. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 2: 121-139.
- Scandura, T. A., & Lankau, M. J. (1997). Relationships of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organisational commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 18, 377-391.
- Skarlicki, D., & Folger, R. (1997, June). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 434-443.
- Smola, K., & Sutton, D. (2002). Generational Differences: revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 23 (4), 363-382.
- Spector, P.E. & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work Behaviour: Some parallel between counterproductive work Behaviour and organisational citizenship Behaviour. *Hum. Resour. Manage. Rev.*, 12: 269-292. .
- Varatharaj, V., & Vasantha, S. (2012). Work Life Balances a Source of Job Satisfaction - An Exploratory Study on The View of Women Employees In The Service Sector. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research Vol.2 Issue 3*.
- Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relationship between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 63, 473–489.
- Vilela, B.B., González, J.A.V. & Ferrín, P.F. (2014). Person-Organization Fit, Ocb And Performance: An Empirical Investigation In The Spanish Sales Context.
- Wagner, S.L & Rush, M.C. (2000). Altruistic Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: Context, Disposition and Age, *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 140 (3), 379-391.
- Werner, J. M. (1994). “Dimensions that make a difference: Examining the impact of in-role and extra-role Behaviours on supervisor ratings” *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79: 98–107.

QUALITY OF SCHOOL FACILITY AND ACADEMIC SUCCESS AMONG SCIENCE-BASED STUDENTS IN ETI-OSA LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, LAGOS STATE, NIGERIA

Umukoro, O. S.

University of Lagos, Nigeria

&

Sobowale, O.F.

Meadowhall College of Education, Nigeria

Abstract

Many schools in Nigeria today do not have certain school facilities that can make teaching and learning to be easier and enjoyable to both the teachers and the students. This inadequate provision or the non-availability of school facilities in secondary schools has prompted related investigations. This study therefore examined the potency of school infrastructure on academic success among secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. Through a quantitative cross-sectional research design, relevant data was obtained. An appropriate was used for the study. A multistage sampling technique was used to select a sample size of 184 students from selected schools within the study area. A well-structured and standardized questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. *Data obtained from the field was input and coded in SPSS software. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied in providing suitable answers to the research questions of the study.* Participants' ages ranged from 13 years to 21 years. Results showed that the quality of the classroom [$t(168)=-.825; p>.05$] and library [$t(168)=-1.000; p>.05$] did not significantly influence academic success while the quality of laboratory [$t(168)=3.869; p<.05$] significantly influenced academic success. No significant gender difference was observed in academic success between male and female students [$t(177)=-.955; p>.05$]. It was recommended that school management should prioritize the construction of well-equipped laboratories for science based students in order to improve their academic performance.

Keywords: Academic success, School facility, Secondary school,

Introduction

Education for All (EFA) an enactment that holds educational institutions accountable in providing quality education and maintaining high academic achievements for all students in the country—appears to be almost unfeasible for many schools in Nigeria, which is highly challenged to meet EFA's requirements. Essential factors to consider in order to fully attain the provisions in this enactment include a curriculum that ensures student proficiency in taking standardized tests; and the adequate number of teachers who can effectively translate the curriculum into meaningful instructional practices. Nevertheless, an often-overlooked factor that influences knowledge and skills acquisition of learners is physical school facility. The school facility refers to the entire environment of the school or an organisation, it refers to both the physical and material resources available to the students and teachers in the school to facilitate the learning - teaching process. Hughes et al (2005) and Lyons (2010) opined that student performance and achievement is often

implicated in the age, design, and condition of the school facility. Depending on the quality of its design and management, the facility can contribute to a sense of ownership, safety and security, personalization and control, privacy as well as sociality, and spaciousness or crowdedness.

The importance of school facilities or amenities in the development and growth of the educational sector cannot be overemphasized. Many schools in Nigeria today do not have certain school facilities that can make teaching and learning to be easier and enjoyable to both the teachers and the students (Akamolafe & Adesua, 2016). Often times, there has been a constant outcry of the inadequate provision or non-provision of the school facilities, especially, the laboratories, the classrooms (buildings) and the libraries which are the main school facilities that aid teaching and learning, for example due to lack of necessary equipment in the school, teachers in the science fields find it difficult to experiment and carryout practical

teaching in the school, and the resultant effect is that most science students fail their science related subjects in the external and internal examinations. Due to lack of provision of libraries, and sufficient classrooms in the school, year after year, the academic performance of students both in arts and science courses continue to go down (Qaiser & Ishtiaq, 2014). This is because the teaching-learning process is not facilitated by the lack of school facilities for the better understanding by the students.

An effective school facility is responsive to the changing programs of educational delivery, and at a minimum should provide a physical environment that is comfortable, safe, secure, accessible, well illuminated, well ventilated, and aesthetically pleasing (Adewunmi, 2002). The school facility consists of not only the physical structure and the variety of building systems, such as mechanical, plumbing, electrical and power, telecommunications, security, and fire suppression systems. The facility also includes furnishings, materials and supplies, equipment and information technology, as well as various aspects of the building grounds, namely, athletic fields, playgrounds, areas for outdoor learning, and vehicular access and parking. The school facility is much more than a passive container of the educational process: it is, rather, an integral component of the conditions of learning. The layout and design of a facility contributes to the *place experience* of students, educators, and community members.

Many communities recognize that in addition to school facilities being cost effective, they should be more learner-centered, developmentally and age appropriate, safe, comfortable, accessible, flexible, diverse, and equitable. By location of new facilities in residential neighborhoods and partnering with other community-based organizations, schools are becoming true community centers. In addition, schools are taking advantage of educational resources in the community, as well as partnering with museums, zoos, libraries, and other public institutions and local businesses. Based on mounting evidence that smaller schools lead to improved social climate as well as better achievement, school leaders have begun to create smaller schools or have created schools within schools. Research indicates that smaller class size is a factor contributing to improved achievement. Learning settings are being designed to support individualized, self-directed learning and small informal group learning, in addition to traditional large-group instruction. Rather than lining up classrooms along a long corridor, instructional areas are being organized around central cores of shared instructional support.

Libraries and laboratories are also main areas of facilities identified in the school system or environment (Elaturoti, 2008). Popoola (2011) states that in terms of the availability of the libraries as one of the school facilities, a great many of secondary schools in Nigeria have no functional libraries, and where some libraries are found,

there are no new or current books that are relevant to the current secondary school programmes. The importance and uses of the library cannot be under-rated. Libraries and books give great assistance to both the teachers and the learners, as it provides an avenue to update knowledge from older books. In terms of laboratories, Owate and Okpa (2013) claims that only few schools in Nigeria have science laboratories which are well equipped to carry out scientific experiments in courses such as biology, physics, and chemistry. Some other schools teach the three branches of science without laboratories in the hope that they would use other schools' laboratories during their examinations.

Learning, according to Lyons (2010), is a complex process that situates students' motivation and school's physical conditions into constant evaluation. These internal and external resources interrelate to achieve holistic learning within a learner. Educators should perceive each variable important in maintaining an uninterrupted flow of the process—there was no one variable that operated in isolation (Lyons, 2010). School facility must be equally viewed as an active contributor in this process. Thus, stakeholders must be aware of the different ways by which the conditions of the school facilities make or break the education of the students. Poor condition of school facilities brings about critical concerns on teachers' and students' general welfare. Consequently, it becomes imperative that the functions school facilities fulfill in in the student acquisition and learning of life-long knowledge and skill competencies should be taken into account by policy makers and administrators when designing a curriculum that provides equitable and efficient education.

Beyond the direct effects that poor facilities have on students' ability to learn, the combination of poor facilities, which create an uncomfortable and uninviting workplace for teachers, combined with frustrating behavior by students including poor concentration and hyperactivity, lethargy, or apathy, creates a stressful set of working conditions for teachers. It is possible that the aforementioned characteristics of school facilities have an effect upon the shortage of teachers. What is lacking in the body of research related to the effects of school facilities upon student performance and achievement is analysis of key characteristics such as lighting, ventilation, acoustics and temperature control in relation to measures of student performance. According to Bowers and Urick (2011), most studies have focused on single environmental media, neglecting the critical issue of interaction effects between day lighting, air quality, noise, thermal comfort, or other factors. It is possible that relationships exist between specific dimensions of school facilities and students' outcomes.

Research Questions

In line with the study objective, the following research questions are presented to guide the direction of the study

- 1 Does the quality of classroom facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State?
- 2 Does the quality of library facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State?
- 3 Does the quality of laboratory facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State?
- 4 Do gender differences exist in the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State?

The School Facility

School facilities refers to the physical facilities and learning resources that aid optimum teaching-learning conditions for both the student and the teacher, that is, the school buildings, classrooms, library, laboratories, toilet facilities, offices and other materials and infrastructures that would likely motivate students towards learning. Physical facilities are germane to effective learning and academic performance of students. In support of this, Onyebuanyi et al (2022) identified facilities as the main factor contributing to academic achievement in the school system; they include the school buildings, classroom, libraries, laboratories and recreational equipment among others. Other previous studies have also emphasized the importance of the availability of physical facilities. For instance, Ajayi and Ayodele (2011) emphasized that the availability of these resources are quite important to achieving effectiveness in instructional delivery and supervision in the school system. They further buttressed the fact that non-availability of basic facilities such as classrooms, office accommodation, workshops, sporting facilities, laboratories, library et cetera which is being experienced in secondary schools is a perfect reflection of what obtains in the university system. Adeyemi (2008) claimed that laboratories play a key role in the teaching and learning of science that is why Ajayi (2012), noted that these facilities have to be adequate and should be in good condition for schools to function properly.

School facilities are perhaps the most important fixture in communities across the nation. They are a symbol of the commitment of community members to what many consider to be the strongest need of society today, the education of our children. It is ironic that these symbols of the community are often allowed to fall into such a state of disrepair and neglect that they become unsafe to serve their original intended purpose. Schools in a district with a high percentage of students from low-income families and with a large minority enrollment are likely to be in the

worst physical condition (21st Century School Fund, 2006). School administrators must assure that the school facility is as conducive to learning as possible, and make administrative decisions to best utilize educational funding that has not proportionally grown to meet the needs of school facilities (Akomolafe & Adesua, 2016). Numerous studies published in the last decade indicate that the school building in which a child attends school can positively or negatively affect his or her educational attainment (Stevenson, 2006). Among many policymakers and school officials, there is an assumption that learning can take place anywhere and that a good teacher can accomplish their task while “sitting on a log” (Guy, 2001, p.12). The enhancement of the physical characteristics of the learning space will improve the teacher’s ability to teach and the student’s ability to learn and will affect other characteristics of students such as health, attendance, and discipline (Bowers & Burkett, 1987). Stevenson (2006) adds, “If one school has modern, aesthetically pleasing school facilities, while another struggles with undersized classrooms and a poor physical environment, the playing field is not level” (p.14).

School administrators execute many tasks throughout the school year. In the quest to improve academic performance, principals and other educational leaders tend to focus on curriculum and pedagogy rather than the physical learning environment. However, Maiden and Foreman (1998) state that all school administrators should possess a basic understanding of facility assessment and use this knowledge to continually evaluate the condition of school buildings and its impact upon student success. The school principal is not the only individual who should be mindful of the role that facilities play in school success. Teachers, parents and students are encouraged to reflect upon the condition of their school facilities (Sanoff, 2001). Sanoff (2001) notes that school facility assessment can be simply determining the arrangement of classroom furniture, or a more complex identification of the mechanical, electrical and plumbing systems. Assessment can include various methods of data collection, including direct observation, interview and simulation (Friedman, Zimring & Zube, 1978). School facility assessment normally conjures up thoughts of designers, architects, engineers and other professionals trained specifically to evaluate buildings. However, a growing trend considers that the users of a building such as teachers, students and community members, are the most reliable people to assess school facilities (Sanoff, 2001). This involvement of building occupants helps to ensure that facility quality assessment is an ongoing process rather than one only done when design professionals visit the building (Lackney, 1999).

School facility assessment can focus on many factors of educational adequacy and excellence. Most obvious is an investigation of the environmental factors that impact academic performance and the delivery of curriculum

(Sanoff, 2001). However, schools are increasingly evaluating the safety and security of their campuses. Efforts to improve safety and security should consider facility systems as well as policies and preparedness. Vigue (2002) reports that a site survey which assess campus safety and security should address the school's perimeter integrity, internal access control and entryways. Facility assessment can determine the likelihood that building design may contribute to misbehavior and violence by examining sightline obstruction, door hardware security and space for student circulation (Reid, 2000). Facility assessments can often prove to be expensive and time-consuming. However, formative facility assessments can be executed by school administrators during the normal course of their job duties. Software and other assessment instruments have been developed to assist the layperson in determining facility condition (Oualline & Rabenaldt, 2002). Other technological advances, such as hand-held computers containing facility condition history, have made data access more efficient for building managers as they assess the physical environment (Bhimani & Pantaleo, 2001). Additionally, an extensive and accurate assessment of current facilities can assist in persuading elected officials and taxpayers to financially support improved and innovative construction (Rabenaldt, 2000).

Academic Success and School Facility

Often, academic success and academic performance are used interchangeably in research. Academic performance is the achievement of a person in an educational course. Academic success refers to a phenomenon that fuses academic performance, the outcome of learning objectives, persistence, procurement of desired competencies and skills, fulfilment, and performance after college (York, Gibson, & Rankin, 2015). Academic performance of students, as stated by Opoko, Oluwatayo, and Ezema, (2016), measures the degree to which a student has been able to attain the educational set-goal. Academic success is vital in achieving the objectives and knowledge during the learning process. Hence, the need to understand the various environmental factors affecting the academic performance (and thus, the academic success) of students. The learning environment, as defined by Zais (2011), simply is the extent to which school students promote the health and safety of students, which may include the academic environment, the physical plant, mental and physical health services and supports available and the adequacy and fairness of disciplinary procedures, as supported by the research of relevance. On the academic success of students, a significant amount of literature has been published. The review of the various literature on the academic success of students has led to the conclusion numerous factors affect the academic success of students. Qaiser and Ishtiaq (2014) assert that what plays a significant role in any activity and makes it more conducive, achievable, and successful is the physical

environment. Many factors constitute the school facility including classroom environment, acoustic factor, visual factor, lighting factor, spatial factor, ventilation system, and facilities and teaching aids.

Many factors constitute the classroom environment: time factor, acoustic factor, visual factor, spatial factor, thermal factor and facilities. According to York, Gibson, & Rankin (2015), the spatial factor, which is classroom arrangement, seating positions and space management, in general, has a more significant impact on the students' level of understanding, and consequently, their academic performance, as it affects the core of teaching and learning – communication. It is suggested, hence, that the classroom environment should be equipped, well-organised and facilitated. Students' performance is also affected grossly by the spatial attributes and ambient attributes of the classroom which are influenced by the design, management, and, after that, maintenance of the same (Zheng, Burcin, & Laura, 2013). The conceptual framework for this study (in Figure 2.1) shows the hypothesized relationship between the independent and dependent variables. From the diagram, it can be observed that the independent variable in school facility which is evaluated based on three dimensions of classroom quality, library quality and laboratory quality. The dependent variable is students' academic performance. Each of the dimensions of school facility are hypothesized to have independent influence on academic performance of students. It is further hypothesized that that all of the dimensions will jointly influence academic performance of students.

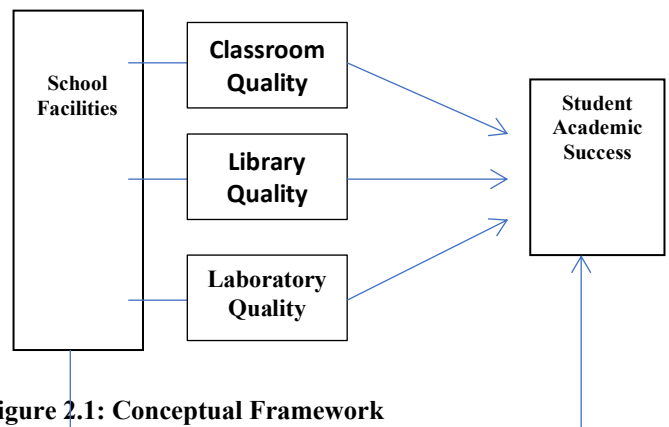


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Theoretical Framework

Walberg's theory of academic achievement posits that psychological characteristics of individual students and their immediate psychological environments influence educational outcomes (cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal) (Reynolds & Walberg, 1992). Further, Walberg's research identified key variables that influence educational outcomes as: student ability/prior

achievement, motivation, age/developmental level, quantity of instruction, quality of instruction, learning environment, home environment, peer group, and exposure to mass media outside of school (Walberg, Fraser, & Welch, 1986). Among these variables, a school facility is situated within the learning environment. Researchers working on the assessment of learning environments have also developed and validated constructivist-based, personal forms of learning environment measures to tap students' individual, rather than collective perspectives of classroom life (Fraser, Fisher, & McRobbie, 1996; Rugutt, Ellett, Culross, 2003). Learning environment has often been studied for the purposes of ensuring maximum student achievement in his/her education endeavors. Further, learning is a highly individual process which occurs within a larger environment. Learning is thus mediated by an individual's interactions with and perceptions of the external environment (Maye, 1998; Oliver & McLoughlin, 2001).

With the use of technology in the teaching and learning environments, research has highlighted the benefits of web-based learning for students. Research studies indicate that the use of educational technology afford the learners greater anonymity and opportunities to practice a range of generic skills (for instance, management of self, others, task, information) (Howe, 1998; Oliver & McLoughlin, 2001). Further, through online technologies, learners can profit from an interactive and engaging environment with a range of learning scaffolds and supports thus enabling them to broaden and make sense of their experience (Hammond & Trapp, 2001; Krantz & Eagly, 1996). With computer resources, learners are provided with the opportunity to interface with computers on a regular basis. Indeed, library resources are largely retrievable online and students do not have to be in a physical location like a library facility to be able to access most research articles and technical research reports. With advanced computer technology and library online databases, retrieving research has been made much easier. Further, with computer resources, learners have a chance of improving their computer literacy, which can be considered a "critical filter" for the employment market of the future (Heinssen, Glass, & Knight, 1987).

Methods

Research Design and Setting

This study adopted a quantitative cross-sectional research design in which data was obtained via survey methods. The use of a cross-sectional design enabled the researcher to obtain data from a homogenous population, having varying attributes, at a specific point in time. This also enabled the researcher to make valid inferences about the phenomenon under study with respect to the target population. In this study, the independent variables are school facilities while the dependent variable is academic

performance. The study was conducted in a selected public secondary schools in Eti-OsaLocal Government Area, Lagos State. Eti-OsaLGA. Eti-Osa LGA administers the council area as Ikoyi-Obalende LCDA, Eti-OsaEast and Iru Victoria Island LCDA. Within Eti-Osa are several important areas of Lagos State, including Lagos' Victoria Island. Before the Nigerian capital moved to Abuja, Eti-Osa LGA served alongside Lagos Island LGA as the seat of the national capital. There are more than a dozen public secondary schools situated in Eti-OsaLGA, from which the participating schools in this study was selected.

Population and Sampling

The target population for this study consisted of both male and female senior secondary school students in science-based classes within the selected institutions. A sample size of 184 participants was obtained for the study. A multistage sampling technique was used to select the participating secondary schools and participants for the study. The first stage involved the selection of five public secondary schools in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. Purposive sampling was adopted in selecting the participating secondary schools based on criteria of proximodistal location, accessibility, cooperation from school management etc. The second stage involved stratified sampling techniques in which the participating classes were grouped into science-based stratum and art-based stratum. For this study, the focus was on the science based stratum; due to their eligibility in utilizing laboratory facilities as part of their learning requirements. The third stage involved simple random sampling techniques in which the researcher randomly selected one of the science-based classes (from the stratum) to participate in the study. This was achieved using the ballot technique. The fourth stage involved total enumeration sampling in which every member of the selected class participated in the study.

Instrument and Data Collection

A well-structured and standardized questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. The questionnaire consisted of 3 sections. The first and second sections of the questionnaire were completed by the students while the third section was completed by the class teacher. The first section comprised items that measured socio-demographic characteristics of the participants including age, sex, class etc. The second section of the questionnaire comprised items that evaluated the availability and quality of school facilities; with specific focus on classroom, library and laboratory facilities. The items in this section were developed from an extant review of related literature and instruments from previous studies. Then third section contained checkboxes for the class teacher to input the students' overall performance in their most recent examination. In order to measure the extent to which the survey instruments have been able to achieve their aims, the process of content validity will be employed by cross

examination and verification. The knowledge gained from other investigations, literature review, theoretical framework and research methods were used for an initial face validation while expert assessment from the project supervisor provided content validation for the instrument. Consequently, a number of items in the questionnaire were subject to amendment. In measuring the reliability, a pilot study was carried out among a sample with similar characteristics to the study population. Outcomes from the pilot study were subjected to a split half reliability test in order to obtain the reliability coefficient for the instrument. Split half reliability coefficients of .78 and .71 were obtained for the study instrument.

The research was carried out and data was collected after the approval from the appropriate Research Ethical Review Committee. A letter of introduction was obtained from the researcher’s department to ‘whom it may concern’ within the management of the participating secondary schools. The researcher sought the cooperation of the management in providing a contact person among the teaching staff to assist in providing the necessary information and guidance for the researcher. Having selected the participating class via appropriate sampling methods, the contact person also assisted in facilitating the data collection process by introducing the researcher to the class teacher who was directed to set up the class and organize the students for questionnaire distribution. The class teacher was also present (with a class register containing the students’ results in their most recent examination) during the questionnaire distribution session. The questionnaires were distributed to all available members of the class. The students were informed by the researcher of the need to follow the instruction strictly and they were encouraged to respond accurately, honestly and promptly to the instruments. During the filling of the questionnaires, the students were told to write their names on the questionnaire with a pencil to allow for easy erasure of the names afterwards. After filling out the questionnaire, the students were told to submit the questionnaire to the class teacher, who then input the students’ overall result (in percentage) from the register in the available column on the questionnaire. The student’s name was then erased completely from the questionnaire. After the entire process, the questionnaires were retrieved from the class teacher by the researcher.

Ethical Considerations and Data Analysis

The researchers conducted this study in an ethical way: First, before the study, the respondents were informed of their rights and those who participated in the study did so by their own free will. Principle of confidentiality on the identity of the respondents was upheld by making sure that the identities of the respondents were not revealed. Finally, the researcher ensured that no physical or psychological harm was inflicted on the respondents

during the study. Data obtained from the field was input and coded in a current version of the SPSS software. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were applied in the providing suitable answers to the research questions of the study. Specifically, percentage frequency distribution tables and t-test for independent measures were used as statistical techniques for the analyses.

Results

Results obtained for this study were based on the data obtained from one hundred and eighty four (184) science students in five selected secondary schools, and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Results are presented in the following sections.

Demographic Characteristics

This section presents the frequency distribution of respondents across age, sex, class. Results are presented in the following table.

Table 1: Demographic frequency of Participants

		Frequency	Percent
Age (in years)	13.00	8	4.3
	14.00	40	21.7
	15.00	41	22.3
	16.00	48	26.1
	17.00	30	16.3
	18.00	10	5.4
	19.00	5	2.7
	20.00	1	.5
	21.00	1	.5
Gender	Male	70	38.0
	Female	114	62.0
Class	SS1	11	6.0
	SS2	96	52.2
	SS3	77	41.8
Total		184	100.0

Results from Table 1 show that the participants’ ages ranged from 13 years to 21 years. However, the majority (92.1%) of the participants were between ages 14 and 18 years. The age distribution presented in the Table is in tandem with the expected secondary school ages of Nigerian students which are usually within teenage years.

Research Question One

Does the quality of classroom facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State? This research question was tested using t-test for independent measures. Results are presented in Table 2

Table 2: Summary of t-test showing difference in academic performance across the quality of classroom facilities

	Classroom Quality		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	sig
	High	Low						
Academic Performance	High	93	5.39	1.28	168	-.825		
	Low	77	5.56	1.42				

Results from Table 2 show that there is no significant difference in academic performance between students in high quality classrooms and their counterparts in low quality classrooms [t(168)=-.825;p>.05]. The results imply that classroom quality did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State.

Research Question Two

Does the quality of library facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State? This research question was tested using t-test for independent measures. Results are presented in Table 3

Table 3: Summary of t-test showing difference in academic performance across the quality of library facilities

	Library Quality		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	sig
	High	Low						
Academic Performance	High	101	5.32	1.21	168	1.000	-	.319
	Low	70	5.53	1.56				

Results from Table 3 show that there is no significant difference in academic performance between students with access to high quality library and their counterparts with access to low quality library [t(168)=-1.000; p>.05]. The results imply that library quality did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State.

Research Question Three

Does the quality of laboratory facilities have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State? This research question was tested using t-test for independent measures. Results are presented in Table 4

Table 4: Summary of t-test showing difference in academic performance across the quality of laboratory facilities

	Laboratory Quality		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Df	t	sig
	High	Low						
Academic Performance	High	94	5.81	1.04	169	3.869		.000
	Low	77	5.04	1.53				

Results from Table 4 show that there is a significant difference in academic performance between students with access to high quality laboratory facility and their

counterparts with access to low quality laboratory facility [t(168)=3.869; p<.05]. The results imply that laboratory quality has an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State; with the former performing better than the latter in their academics.

Research Question Four

Do gender differences exist in the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State? This research question was tested using t-test for independent measures. Results are presented in Table 5

Table 5: Summary of t-test showing gender difference in academic performance

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	df	t	sig
	Female	111	5.49	1.31			

Results from Table 5 show that there is no significant difference in academic performance between male and female students [t(177)=-.955; p>.05]. The results imply that gender did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State.

Discussion of Findings

The first research question sought to examine the impact of classroom facilities on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. Results obtained however showed that there was no significant difference in academic performance between students in high quality classrooms and their counterparts in low quality classrooms, implying that classroom quality did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. While it may have been expected that better classroom conditions should yield better academic performance, the results obtained in this study may be justified by the fact that many students in Nigerian public schools have begun to adapt and cope effectively amidst the harsh realities of poorly structured classrooms. In fact, there are likely to be Nigerian students in many rural settings who have no knowledge of what a standard classroom ought to be. Thus, many students in Nigerian public secondary schools have been able to concentrate on course contents without allowing the supposed deficiencies in classroom quality affect their academic performance. These results are in contrast with outcomes of studies by Ajani and Akinyele (2014) and Zyngier (2014) where it was established that a significant relationship existed between classroom quality and student’s performance. However, in support of this study, Owoye and Olatunde-Yara (2011), found that classroom quality has no significant impact on academic performance.

The second research question aimed at understanding the impact of library facility quality on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. Results obtained showed that there was no significant difference in academic performance between students with access to high quality library and their counterparts with access to low quality library. This implies that library quality did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. While the library still remains a necessity for any secondary school, the library culture of many public secondary schools is gradually fading away. This is because many of these schools have inculcated measures that enable students excel without library facilities. For instance, it is now common practice for parents to be mandated to buy all the textbooks needed for the class curriculum of their children and wards. This singular act of providing all textbooks and resources for students has the potential of devaluing the impact of library access on academic performance, especially when the teachers judiciously rely on these specific textbooks throughout all the lessons in the subject. These results are contrary to some of the outcomes in the literature. For instance, research by Martin (2011) showed improvement in reading abilities of students at schools adequate library facilities. He stated that those students who were habitual of attending library, got more scores as compare to those who were fail to used school library; and Jato et al., (2014) noted that there was a body of research supporting the view that school libraries could have a positive impact on academic achievement. However, in support of the results obtained in this study, Lance (2012) suggested that the impact of the school library reduced as students moved through high school.

Then third research question sought to examine the impact of laboratory facilities on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. The results showed that availability and quality of laboratory facilities had a positive impact on the academic performance of students as students with access to quality laboratory performed better than their counterparts without laboratory access. The significant impact of laboratory facility on academic performance stems from its inability to be replaced by other measures. Therefore, unlike the school libraries which can be rendered impotent by substituting it with buying students textbook, the laboratory cannot be substituted with other alternatives. These results are buttressed by Buhatwa (2014) who investigated the effect of laboratories in community secondary schools on students' performance in science subjects in Tanzania. The findings of the study revealed that, performance of science subject students have been affected by lack of practical lessons, and scarcity of laboratory facilities. Similarly, Dahar and Faize (2011) identified great deficiency in the availability and

the use of science laboratories which affects the performance of students.

The fourth research question examined the existence of gender differences in the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. Results showed that there was no significant difference in academic performance between male and female students; implying that gender did not have an impact on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. The result is justified by the fact that academic performance is not a gender based construct due to its cognitive elements which can be expressed in equal measure between boys and girls. Therefore, students who are exposed to the same learning content and teaching methods are more likely to report academic performances which do not reflect gender differences. This is a similar position held by many researchers (Adeyemi & Ajibade, 2011; Akinsola, 2007; Awofala, Adeneye & Nneji, 2011 & Amosun, 2011, Apata, 2011; Umukoro & Okurame, 2017; Atovigba et al, 2012, etc) who have pointed out that there is no significant gender difference in students' academic achievement and retention in various subjects while others (Talabi, Emiola & Ogunsakin 2003; Mustafa, Khan & Fabunmi, 2004; Rusillo & Arias, 2004) found significant difference with either the boys or the girls performing better.

Conclusion

The study set out to examine the impact of school facilities on the academic performance of secondary school students in Eti-Osa LGA of Lagos State. This was achieved through an empirical analysis of relevant data. Results obtained yielded insightful conclusions which have implications for policy formulation and implementation. For instance, it was concluded that facilities of libraries and a conducive classroom environment, which hitherto are important facilitators of academic performance, did not have an impact on the students' academic performance. This was attributed to the fact that Nigerian students are gradually adapting to the anomaly of functioning optimally or otherwise in deficient classroom environments and inaccessibility to libraries. While this in itself are indicators of high resilient and adaptive traits among Nigerian students, best practices of having a conducive classroom setting and access to libraries have their potent benefits and should therefore not be relegated. Further results however showed that these resilient and coping strategies could not surmount the challenges of learning without the aid of a practical science laboratory. It was observed that science based students who had access to well-equipped laboratories performed better than their counterparts without access to such facilities. This implies that the laboratory facility is an important facilitator of learning and cannot be substituted by improvised alternatives. Therefore, a well-equipped science

laboratory is an essential facility that must be established and maintained in all secondary schools in Nigeria. Finally, the fact that no gender difference in academic performance was established is a positive indication of how far the nation has been able to achieve girl-child education. The ability for girls to compete effectively with their male counterparts in Nigerian secondary schools is commendable and worthwhile for the human capital development of the nation.

Recommendations

Based on the outcomes of the study, the following recommendations are proposed.

- Principals should work hand in hand with parents, sponsors and other stakeholders in education to prioritize the provision of adequate laboratory facilities to ease the problems of inadequacy of laboratories in public secondary schools.
- Science teachers should be encouraged and motivated to use science laboratories more frequently. Science teachers should also be taken to workshops and in-service training to make them more competent in teaching sciences subjects theoretically and practically. This could trigger teachers' creativity and innovation in the use of laboratory equipment in teaching and learning process.
- Students should be given more opportunities to experience science by being exposed to more laboratory practicals which may enhance better performance in science subjects.
- The government should provide some laboratory equipment to schools to subsidize their costs and encourage the local chemical manufacturers to produce more affordable chemicals and laboratory equipment.

Limitations and Future Directions

There are some limitations to this study. As noted by researchers, a common concern of self-report data is social desirability (i.e., the bias in self-report data accounted for by respondents' desire to look good, which is because of the respondents' need for self-protection and social approval). Since the data for the study were collected using self-report questionnaires, the participants' responses may have been influenced by social desirability. This, in turn, might have affected the predictive power of some independent variables on the criterion variables. The research design of this study was cross sectional and it is thus enough to specifically infer a causal relationship. Undertaking research at one period in time can only reflect that period in time. Therefore, it would be interesting to replicate this study, with a longitudinal design, assessing individual student performance over time during different stages of academic development. The research only focused on students in secondary schools within Eti-Osa LGA in Lagos state; therefore the likelihood that the sample represents a good cross section from the national

population of all secondary school students in the country is slim. Future research studies should make use of stratified random sampling to ensure satisfactory representation of different groups. The use of larger sampling might also provide increased confidence that study findings would be consistent across other (similar) groups. Further studies should be more diverse and have national coverage so that economic, cultural, ethnic and geographical differences can be highlighted. Despite these limitations, these findings contribute to our understanding of the important issue of school facilities in Nigerian secondary schools and highlight areas that deserve additional study.

References

- Ademilua, A.A. (2002). Factors Affecting Students' Academic Performance in some selected schools in Ekiti State. *Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, University of Ilorin, Nigeria.*
- Adewunmi, T.B. (2002). The Influence of Physical Resources on pupils Academic Performance in Lagos State Primary School. *Unpublished M.Ed. Dissertation, University of Benin.*
- Adeyemi, T. O. (2011). A comparative studies of students' academic performance in public examinations in secondary schools in Ondo and Ekiti State, Nigeria
- Adeyemi, B. A. & Ajibade, Y. A. (2011). The Comparative Effects of Simulation Games & Brainstorming Instructional Strategies. *African Journals Online*.5(3), pp. 64-80.
- Adeyemi, T.O. (2008). The influence of class-size on the Quality of Output in Secondary Schools in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*. 5(2): 202 – 208.
- Ajani, I. R., & Akinyele, O. B. (2014). Effects of Student-Teacher Ratio on Academic Achievement of Selected Secondary School Students in Port Harcourt Metropolis, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 24(5), 100-106.
- Ajayi, I. A. (2012). Resource factors as correlates of secondary school effectiveness in Ekiti State. *Nigerian Journal of Counselling and Applied Psychology*, 1(1), 109-115.
- Ajayi, I.A. and Ayodele, J.B. (2001). *Introduction to Educational Planning, Administration and Supervision*. Ado-Ekiti, Yemi Printing Services.
- Akinsola, M. K. (2007). Instructional Methods Employed by Mathematics Teacher. A Managerial Approach. *African Journal of Educational Planning and Policy Studies*. 3(1), pp. 25-32.
- Akomolafe, C.O. & Adesua, V.O. (2016). The Impact of Physical Facilities on Students' Level of Motivation and Academic Performance in Senior Secondary Schools in South West Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(4), 38-42

- Amosun, P.A. (2011). Performance and Attitude of Male and Female Students in Physical Geography in Urban and Rural Schools of Ogun State, Nigeria. *African Journal for the Study of Educational Issues*, 4(3, 4), pp.195- 198
- Apata, F. S. (2011). Assessment of Students' Numerical Proficiency in Solving Physics Problems in Senior Secondary Schools in Kwara State. Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Ilorin, Ilorin.
- Atovigba M.V., Vershima A. Michael, & O'Kwu E.I. and Ijenkeli Emmanuel (2012). Gender Trends in Nigerian Secondary School Students' Performance in Algebra. *Research Journal of Mathematics and Statistics* 4(2):42-44, 2012.
- Awofala, A. O. A & Nneji, L. M. (2011). Effect of Framing and Team Assisted Individualized Instructional Strategies on Students' Achievement in Mathematics. *African Journal For The Study Of Educational Issues* 4(3,4) pp. 75-89
- Bhimani, K., & Pantaleo, A. (2001). Getting a grip on facility condition assessments. *College Planning and Management*, 4(11), 31-33.
- Bowers, A. J., & Urick, A. (2011). Does High School Facility Quality Affect Student Achievement? A Two-Level Hierarchical Linear Model. *Journal of Education Finance*, 37(1), 72-94. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23018141>
- Bowers, J.H. & Burkett, C.W. (1987). Relationship of student achievement and characteristics in two selected school facility environmental settings. Paper presented at the Council of Educational Facility Planners, International conference, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.
- Buhatwa, Jackson Alex (2014) *The Effect of Laboratories in Secondary Schools on Students' Performance in Science Subjects*. Masters thesis, The Open University of Tanzania.
- Dahar, M. A., & Faize, F. A. (2011). Effect of the availability and the use of science laboratories on academic achievement of students in Punjab (Pakistan). *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 51(2), 193-202.
- Elaturoti, D.F. (2008). Learning Resources and Development for Nigerian School Libraries in D.F. Elaturoti (2008) Ed. *Nigeria School of Librarianship, Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow* p. 58-62
- Fraser, B., Fisher, D.L., & McRobbie, C.J. (1996). Development, validation and use of personal and class forms of a new classroom learning environment instrument. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, N.Y.
- Friedman, A., Zimring, C., & Zube, E. (1978). *Environmental design evaluation*. New York: Plenum.
- Guy, L. (2001). Student achievement and school condition: Examining the relationship in West Virginia's High Schools. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, West Virginia University.
- Hammond, N. V., & Trapp, A. L. (2001). How can the web support the learning of Psychology? In C. R. Wolfe (Ed.), *Learning and Teaching on the World Wide Web* (pp. 153-169). New York: Academic Press.
- Heinssen, R. K., Glass, C. R., & Knight, L. A. (1987). Assessing computer anxiety: development and validation of the Computer Anxiety Rating Scale. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 3, 49-59.
- Howe, C. (1998). Psychology teaching in the 21st Century. *The Psychologist*, 11, 371-373.
- Hughes, J. N., Cavell, T. A., & Willson, V. (2005). Further support for the developmental significance of the quality of the teacher-student relationship. *Journal of School Psychology*, 39(4), 289-301.
- Jato, M., Ogunniyi, S. O., & Olubiyo, P. O. (2014). Study habits, use of school libraries and students academic performance in selected secondary schools in Ondo West Local Government Area of Ondo State. *International Journal of Library and Information Science*, 6(4), 57-64.
- Krantz, J. H. & Eagly, B. M. (1996). Creating psychological tutorials on the world-wide web. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers*, 28, 156-160.
- Lackney, J. A. (1999). Assessing school facilities for learning/assessing the impact of the physical environment on the educational process: Integrating theoretical issues with practical concerns. Starkville, MS: Mississippi State University, Educational Design Institute. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 441 330)
- Lance, K. C. (2012). The impact of school libraries on academic achievement. *School Libraries Matter*, 65-77.
- Lyons, J. N. (2010). Child effortful control, teacher-student relationships, and achievement in academically at-risk children: Additive and interactive effects. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 25(1), 51-64.
- Maiden, J., & Foreman, B. (1998). Cost, design and climate: Building a learning environment. *School Business Affairs*, 64(1), 40-44.
- Martin, A. J. (2011). Courage in the classroom: Exploring a new framework predicting academic performance and engagement. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 26(2), 145-160. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023020>

- Maye, T. (1998). Teaching, technology and talk. *The Psychologist*, 11, 375- 377.
- Mustafa, J., Khan, A. & Ullah, A. (2011). Investigating Students' Achievement in Mathematics through Non Technological Game Based Teaching. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education*. 4 (3&4), pp151 - 164.
- Oliver, R., & McLoughlin, C. (2001). Exploring the practice and development of generic skills through web-based learning. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia*, 10, 207-225.
- Onyebuanyi P. N., Onovo N. , Ewe U. & Njoku, N. (2002) Impact of School Physical Facilities on Students' Academic Performance in Senior Secondary Schools in Aba Education Zone of Abia State. *Sch Bull*, Oct, 2022; 8(9): 276-282
- Opoko, A. P., Oluwatayo, O. A., & Ezema, I. C. (2016). Factors Affecting Academic Performance of Architecture Students in Nigerian Private Universities. Joint International Conference 21st Century Human Habitat: Issues, Sustainability and Development". Federal University of Technology, Akure.: Covenant University Repository
- Oualline, J., & Rabenaldt, C. (2002). The next phase. *American School and University*, 74(12), 172-174.
- Owate, C.N. & Okpa, O. (2013). The availability and Utilization of Schools Library Resources in some Selected Secondary Schools (High Schools). In River State. *Journal of Educational Research and Reviews*. Retrieved from www.accedamicjournal.org/article/1379926831 Owate and Okpa pdf.
- Owoeye, J.S. and Olatunde-Yara, P.J. (2011) School Facilities and Academic Achievement of Secondary School Agricultural Science in Ekiti State, Nigeria. *Asian Social Science*, 7, 64-74. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v7n7p64>
- Popoola, S.O (2011). Facility Awareness about Library Information products and services in Nigeria Libraries. *Gateway Library Journal*, 4(1&2):1-12
- Qaiser S., Ishtiaq, H. (2014). Effects of classroom physical environment on the academic achievement scores of secondary school students in Kohat Division, Pakistan. *International Journal of Learning & Development* 4, (1) 71-82
- Rabenaldt, C. (2000). Making your case. Facilities upgrade and retrofit. *American School and University*, 72(11), 20-24
- Reid, D. L. (2000). Building a safe environment. *American School and University*, 73(3), 386-390.
- Reynolds, A. J., & Walberg, H. J. (1992). A structural model of science achievement and attitude: An extension to high school. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(3), 371–382. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.84.3.371>
- Rugutt, J. K., Ellett, C. D., & Culross, R. (2003). Discriminating student learning and efficacy levels in higher education: Contributions of classroom environment and teaching and learning effectiveness. *Planning and Changing*, 34(3 & 4), 229-249.
- Rusillo M. T. C. & Arias P. F. C. (2004). Gender differences in academic motivation of secondary school students. *Electronic Journal of Research in educational Psychology*, 2(1) 97 – 112
- Sanoff, H. (2001). *School building assessment methods*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities.
- Stevenson, K. (2006). Educational facilities within the context of a changing 21st century America. National Clearinghouse for Educational Facilities: Washington, D.C.
- Talabi, A. E., Emiola, L. & Ogunsakin, E. A. (2003). Activity Level and Academic Ability of Primary School Children Aged 6-11 Years in Kwara State. *Ilorin Journal of Education*. 22 (1), pp. 58-60
- Umukoro, O.S and Okurame, D.E. (2017) Culture-Specific Perspectives of Age and Gender Disparities in Entrepreneurial Intuition, *Global Journal of Human Social Sciences*, 17(8),12-21
- Vigue, B. (2002). Setting priorities. *American School and University*, 75(2), 29-31.
- Walberg, H. J., Fraser, B. J., & Welch, W. W. (1986). A test of a model of educational productivity among senior high school students. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 79(3), 133–139. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.1986.10885664>
- York, T., Gibson, C. & Rankin, S. (2015). Defining and measuring academic success. *Practical Assessment, Research and Evaluation*, 20(5)
- York, Travis T., Gibson, Charles, & Rankin, Susan. (2015). Defining and Measuring Academic Success. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 20(5). Available online: <http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?v=20&n=5>
- Zais, M. (2011). South Carolina School Environment Initiative. South Carolina Department of Education, Columbia.
- Zheng, Y., Burcin, B.-G., & Laura, M. (2013). A study on student perceptions of higher education classrooms: Impact of classroom attributes on student satisfaction and performance. *Building and Environment*, 70, 171-188.
- Zyngier, D. (2014). Class size and academic results, with a focus on children from culturally, linguistically and economically disenfranchised communities. *Evidence Base*, 1, 1-24.

**CARROT AND STICK APPROACH ON EFFECTIVE DECISION ENHANCEMENT
(A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN EDUCATION DISTRICT III IN LAGOS
STATE)**

Adeniyi, A. S.

Department Of Educational Management, Faculty Of Education,
Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos State

&

Oshilaja, O. O.

Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences,
University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos State

Abstract

The study examined carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement among teachers/instructors in public secondary schools in Lagos State Education District III. In this study, relevant and extensive literatures were reviewed under sub-headings. The descriptive research survey was used in the assessment of the opinions of the selected respondents with the adoption of the self-constructed questionnaire and the sampling technique. A total of 200 respondents were selected and used as samples for this study. A total of four null hypotheses were generated and the Chi-Square Statistical tool was used to test the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. At the end of the data analyses, the following results emerged: there is a significant relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers, there is a significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach, there is a significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach. There is a significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made: Managers should increase the frequency and level of teachers' participation in decision-making because they are the ones carrying out the main operative work and they are in the better position to know what goes on in school operations. Schools should recommend proper mood to discipline students who violate the school codes and conduct through the knowledge of the teacher or instructor, There should be reward for good conduct in the school in other to motivate student's behaviour and learning habits, teachers/instructor should serve as a mediator between the student and the management and teachers should be drafted into the management system so as to be balance measure in dealing with the student.

Keywords: Carrot and Stick, Decision Enhancement, Punishment, Students.

Background of the study

Children and Adolescent education in the bedrock of any given society especially developing country like Nigeria that has top the chart of out of school population in the world as the 2018 UNICEF report. And with this report the SDG 2020 (sustainable development goal) may not be achieved. No country can thrive if education of her citizens is not prioritized. Carrot and stick approach will be extensively reviewed in this study to see effectiveness in enhancing decision making among the teacher instruction. Over the year's decision making has been a thing of concern in other to bring out desired outcome in organisation. The study will be taken a shift from the norm of investigating decision making in organisation to decision making among the teacher/instructor using carrot and stick approach in determining academic performance outcome. The Skinnerian view or theory which emphasized and has been subjected to empirical evidence shows that reward and punishment which could be called carrot and stick is highly effective in enhancing decision

making. Many educators organisational expert and behavioural experts have spent time trying to identify the key element of achieving best result in school, like the Abraham Maslow motivational theory and Mcgregor theory has consistently reviewed in performance.

However, carrot and stick approach covers the combination of rewards and punishment to bring about good behaviour as well as pro activeness in students in other to achieve academic excellence in enhancing decision making on the part of the instructor to reduce the number of student that are vulnerable to drop out of school.

Ernest Wilson 2017, describes carrot and stick approach as an art of making students/teachers acted otherwise. In other words, you get students/teachers to do what does not follow the school rules in enhancing decision making. They are going to be re-enforce either positively or negatively.

Parter's and lawler's also propound that individual/student bring out their best when rewards is given to them. A major responsibilities of teachers/instructor is the ability

to make effective and rational decision which produce result in student academic performance. Every act of the instructor/teacher will bring about a change in the student performance either positive or negative. Decision making can be seen as an art of selecting a choice between alternative which will bring about changes on student. Peretomode et al were at the opinion that for performance of student to be at the peak or at the, lower or negative side re-enforcement is at play. Also according to Kendra Cheng 2018 student behaviour is motivated by a desire for reinforcement or incentive, which has effect on the academic performance of the students. The goal of enhancing decision is to help department and school heads improves their processes for handling decision that affect the students academically.

In recent times, carrot and stick approach has been introduced as enhancing decision making in other to fast track or motivate students in school setting and beyond. It is seen as medium that will enhance decision making which may promote the school. As a result of this, the study of carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement is worth pursuing. It is hoped that the result of the study will provide more proactive measure in fine tuning decision making and give basis for the use of reinforcement approach in making decision in schools or academic environment. This research work therefore seeks to gather information about carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement among teachers/instructors.

The carrot-and-stick principle is this: the stick is tied to the bridle of a mule or donkey, or held by the human rider or cart driver so that it extends above and in front of the animal's head, and the carrot hangs on a string from the far end of the stick, just out of reach of the pack animal's mouth. Attracted by the sight and smell, the donkey steps forward to bite at the carrot, but of course, as it is attached to the stick, the carrot also moves forward and remains out of reach. Not especially brilliant, the beast repeats the same ineffective strategy ad infinitum, thereby pulling or carrying whatever or whomever it's laden with, until the poor animal collapses from exhaustion.

Thus, the metaphor can serve as a visualization of what can sometimes happen in corporate and other settings, with executives "dangling" a promotion, for example (the "carrot") in front of the rank and file in order to get massive amounts of work out of them in exchange for very little reward. In general usage, any promised reward that is really a tease may be referred to as a "dangling carrot." In more contemporary times, the phrase has been broadly amended to "carrot or stick," an illustration of an authority figure holding a reward (the carrot) in one hand and a punishment (the stick) in the other, to signify a no-brainer of a choice presented to the other party. For example, in

politics, "carrot or stick" sometimes refers to the realist concept of soft and hard power.

Statement of problem

Previous researches have focused primarily on the student outcome like the academic performances, academic motivation, academic decisiveness. Also it has been deduced that when decision is left to make without any form of consequence to be followed, individual/student may not elicit the desirable response to stimulus. However, this study is interested in examining or investigating the instructor/teacher in the use of carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement and how it positively or negatively affect the secondary school student. Therefore, this has created a gap in the body of knowledge in which this study will hope to fill.

Purpose of study

The main purpose of the study is to determine the significant of carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement among teachers/instructors.

The specific objectives of the study include:

- i. Examine the role of gender in the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.
- ii. Investigate year of experience of the teacher in the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.
- iii. Examine the role of the teacher's age in the adoption of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.
- iv. Determine the significance of the year of practice of teacher in the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

Research hypotheses

The corresponding hypothesis to test the question raised are as follows;

- i. There is no significant relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers.
- ii. There is no significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach.
- iii. There is no significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach.
- iv. There is no significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

Carrot and stick approach in educational setting

Teachers' use of punishment and involvement failed to relate to the attitudinal measures. Teacher-student discussion, which focused on the impact of misbehaviour on classmates, related positively to student connectedness to school. Students who perceived greater use of aggressive strategies, such as yelling or sarcasm, felt less

connected to school or interested in schoolwork, even though its importance remain effectively unchanged.

There were no significant associations between wellbeing and the other factors considered, which would seem to argue for a growing separation of a student's self-esteem and the actions of teachers. It's possible that, as they enter secondary schooling in their early teens, students are becoming more independent, no longer drawing on teacher behaviour for their sense of wellbeing, but more dependent on other means of affirmation and reinforcement.

It seems reasonable to interpret punishment as a 'neutral' set of strategies given its lack of direct relationships with the various other factors considered (Lewis 2009). It would seem that punishment is essentially a universal given in the classroom when misbehaviour occurs. Few would contend that teachers should not use punishment of some form to restrict or prevent behaviour that puts at risk the classes' safety or learning opportunities. Nevertheless, it appears that not all punishment is equally just effective. Punishment combines with the other styles so that we can have punishment mitigated with discussion, established with student involvement, following hints, and balanced with rewards and recognition, or, alternately, applied with aggression. It is these other strategies that seem to influence the results and consequences of punishment, whether it's a learning experience, includes or excludes, is justified, or makes students the victims of teacher anger tick might be the threat of military action.

With respect to this, it seems safe to assume that hinting is of benefit within a teacher's repertoire of discipline techniques (Lewis 2009). Hinting effectively combines the need to censor behaviour without power abuse or conflict. Teachers do not need to constantly punish when they are able to deploy a range of strategies before actually having to take overt action. Hinting is the only technique to positively associate with students' sense of responsibility for engaging in work and communicating respectfully, and this may be the result of hinting placing students on a more equal footing with their teacher, thus building their sense of control and self-esteem. Hinting places the student in a position where they are asked to meet adult expectations in an adult manner, thus building their experience base for self-discipline and self-control, whilst simultaneously allowing a student to save 'face'.

The correlations also suggest that discussions have a positive effect on the establishment of goodwill between teachers and students, and set an example for students to follow in their relationships with peers. The results indicate that discussion alone is inadequate in terms of actually reducing misbehaviour, it needs to be used in combination with the other positive disciplinary techniques. Nevertheless, it is central to the establishing of a rapport between student and teacher by once again setting this relationship on a level playing field on which both participants communicate their needs and points of

view, whilst making it clear that the teacher doesn't dislike the student, but is instead correcting their unfair behaviour. Recognising and rewarding positive student and class behaviour would also appear to have obvious positive benefits for building relationships between students and teachers. It appears to help establish an environment of trust and respect in which students are less likely to misbehave in the first place (Lewis 1997, 2008). In this regard, recognition and reward represent management techniques not based on discipline, but instead on a referent relationship (Lewis 2009) in which students feel included in the class group and individually acknowledged by their teachers. The use of recognition would seem to create an opportunity to balance sanctions with positive reinforcement, thereby allowing teachers to discipline without overtly antagonizing the student concerned, or their peers. This is possibly the result of teachers appearing to be even-handed and fair when they highlight good behaviour as much as bad, and are thus seen as more justified when they do need to intervene to control misbehaving students.

Contrary to the preceding three positive styles mentioned, involvement of students in the decision making process (both in regards to their own appropriate behaviour and that of their peers) does not appear to help teachers build the pile of goodwill essential to minimizing misbehaviour. This may be related to the focus of group involvement frequently revolving around class rules, rather than an individual's rights and responsibilities. It may be that involvement is seen more as a systemic or procedural set of activities or strategies, designed to facilitate the 'pseudo-imposition' of predetermined rules on students. This may be avoided with a genuine group engagement in the decision-making process acting to reinforce each individual's right to have a voice and their responsibility to act in accordance with group decisions.

Carrot and stick approach for teaching motivation

Motivation in terms of this notion and so their efforts to motivate are limited to asking the question; should I bribe people or simply threaten them? However, when put into practice, this concept is found to be more complicated than this. To motivate is to change behaviour. How can you change the behaviour of people, both as individuals and as a group or team? Using the carrot and stick approach, there are basically two ways; behaviour is changed by force or by choice through the use of incentives.

The 'stick' or fear is a good motivator and when used at the correct times can be very helpful. In that context, fear has always been the 'convenient' choice of Malaysian managers and organisations. When all else fails, the stick approach is somehow most attractive as it usually produces instantaneous compliance and hence immediate results. Fear is also attractive as in the short term; an employee's performance may be improved without any need for incentives or financial remuneration.

Fear however has its weaknesses in that an organisation motivated by fear is prone to mutiny. It can also be stressful for employees. It is extrinsic, which means that the motivation only works while the motivator is present. When the motivator goes, the motivation also usually goes. Fear is also only useful on a short-term basis, as it needs to be applied in ever-increasing doses. In a worst case scenario, fear motivation can backfire and could even lead to cases of sabotage.

On the other hand, people contribute or become more productive because they are offered incentives i.e. the carrot approach. The major advantage with this is that it can work very well as long as the incentive is attractive enough.

Teachers' Participation in Decision-Enhancement

Participation in decision making is of prime importance for effective school management. But teachers, in most cases, have been excluded in the process of decision making. This is revealed by Muindi (2010) who conducted a research in Kenya and came up with findings that decision-enhancement on school staffing, curriculum and resource allocation had been made by school principals or selected members of administrative managerial teams. The study also established that in most cases, teachers were usually excluded by school administrators in the process of decision-making. Contrary to this trend, researchers have indicated significance of teachers' participation in decision making. Sen [2013] for instance, contends that teachers' participation in decision-making helps the school administration to achieve organizational objectives. Njideka [2011] recommended that managers should increase the frequency and level of teachers' participation in decision-making because they are the ones carrying out the main operative work and they are in the better position to know what goes on in school operations.

According to Murphy, David and Brown as cited in Keung (2011), teachers' participation in decision-making improves job satisfaction and commitment, which are positive indicators for effective management. While there are many areas in which teachers can be involved in decision making, schools can particularly encourage and open avenues for teachers to participate in activities outside the classroom such as textbook selection, curriculum development, learning assessment, student placement, personnel staffing and professional development [Olaniyi 2011]. This is because teachers who participate in decision-making are expected to make a more sincere efforts to implement those decisions. Through collaborative decision making approach, teachers benefit from one another's experiences and enhance their teaching effectiveness by offering constructive suggestions and appropriate feedbacks to each other. Teachers' getting together to make decisions can bring about school transformation and positive changes.

According to Wadesango [2013], teachers need the opportunity and space to participate in decision-making at a level that satisfies their needs. This is because those who participate in the decisions of the organization, feel like they are a part of a team with a common goal, and find their sense of self-esteem and creative fulfilment heightened. Therefore, teacher participation approach can be used as a tool to enhance relationships in the organization, to increase employee work incentives and to increase the rate of information circulation across the organization.

Participation in decision-making gives teachers the opportunity to voice their opinions, and to share their knowledge with both school administrators and fellow teachers. While this improves the relationship between school leaders and teachers, it also encourages a strong sense of teamwork among teachers. According to Omobude [2013], participation in decision-making is a good way for school administrators to gather information about the teachers as to how they work and where training may be necessary, both of which leading to an increased effectiveness and ultimately good teamwork and performance. The findings of Muindi [2010] in Kenya indicate a significant strong and positive correlation to exist between job satisfaction and participation in decision-making. Since job satisfaction is important for teaching effectiveness, participation in decision-making becomes an important factor for school effectiveness.

Wainaina [2012] conducted a research about effect of teachers' participation in decision making on the organizational commitment amongst academic staff in the private and public universities in Kenya and found that decisions made in consultation with teachers are more effective. Particularly, those teachers who are involved in decision-making are better equipped to implement such decisions. Similarly, the study of Omobude [2009] revealed that private school teachers participate more in decision-making than public school teachers. Teachers in private schools are given more involvement in the decision-making.

Moshet [2013] conducted a research about teacher participation in school decision-making and job satisfaction as correlates of organizational commitment in senior schools in Botswana and found that allowing teacher participation in decision-making results into a more satisfied teacher with greater commitment to organizational goals.

Teachers' Commitment to Teaching

Organizational commitment involves people's feelings about the organizations for which they work and the degree to which they identify with the organizations that employ them. Those committed to their work have intrinsic drives and aspiration toward higher output.

The importance of teachers' commitment is brought to view by the fact that committed teachers strive more for better students' performance [Olaniyi 2013]. A committed individual usually will have a sense of responsibility, involvement, loyalty and ownership towards something [2009]. A series of studies have been consulted to throw light on the essence of teachers' commitment. Brown [1], for instance, concluded that teachers' commitment and loyalty are central features for better performance.

Studies indicate variation in commitment between those of public and private secondary schools. Particularly, teachers in private schools are more committed than teachers in public schools. Similarly, Khan [2013], for instance, conducted research about Organizational Commitment among Public and Private School Teachers in India to determine their overall organizational commitment. The findings indicate that private school teachers are more committed as compared to public school.

Teachers Effectiveness as a tool for Effective Learning

Teachers' effectiveness has been accepted as a multidimensional construct since it measures a variety of different aspects of teaching such as; subject mastery, effective communication, lesson preparation and presentation (Onyeachu, 2014). The influence of teachers' teaching effectiveness on the learning outcome of students as measured by students' academic performance has been the subject of several studies (Starr 2012). The above studies suggest that effective teaching is a significant predictor of students' academic achievement. Therefore, effective teachers should produce students of higher academic performance.

Poor academic performance of students in Nigeria has been linked to poor teachers' performance in terms of accomplishing the teaching task, negative attitude to work and poor teaching habits which have been attributed to poor motivation (Ofoegbu, 2004). It has also been observed that conditions that would make for effective teaching such as resources available to teachers, general conditions of infrastructure as well as instructional materials in public secondary schools in Nigeria are poor (Oredein, 2010). Other factors that may contribute to teachers effectiveness include; relationship between the students and the teacher; teachers' teaching experience and qualifications. The prevailing conditions would definitely show a negative or positive influence on the instructional quality in public schools, which may translate to either good or poor academic performance, attitude and values of secondary school students. Ijaiye (2013) concurred that improving the quality of the teaching force in schools is the key to raising student achievement, consequently Lassa (2010) and Guya (2010) claimed that education cannot be provided by just anybody, it requires a teacher who plans and delivers the lessons or instruction in such a way that objectives can be achieved. Corroborating this, Owolabi (2017) stated that

government should find all possible means to retain veteran and experienced teachers who are still willing to serve so that they can contribute their wealth of experience to improve the system.

Although teachers' strong effect would significantly influence students' academic achievement, other factors such as socio-economic background, family support, intellectual aptitude of student, personality of student, self-confidence, and precious instructional quality have been found to also influence students' examination score (Starr, 2002) either positively or negatively. To this end, (Blankstein, 1996) had stated that students' grades and test scores are not good indicators of the quality of teachers' instruction. In support of this view, a study carried out in Nigeria by Joshua and Kritsonis (2006) showed that Nigerian teachers condemn the use of student achievement scores as indicators of teachers' competence, performance or effectiveness.

Since students' academic scores are not the only predictors of teachers' effectiveness, researchers have sought other fairer ways of evaluating teachers' effectiveness. Students, administrators, colleagues and the teachers' self-evaluation have been used to evaluate teachers' effectiveness. Students' competence in the evaluation of the effectiveness of their teachers has been of great concern to researchers in education. However, studies have shown that students' ratings are valuable indicators of teachers' effectiveness (Barnett, Matthews and Jackson, 2003; Imhanlahini and Aguele 2016; Pozo-Munoz et al. 2016). Despite the fact that there are researches reports in support of students' rating of their teachers' effectiveness, Nuhfer (2004) and Pozo-munoz et al. (2013) warned that students rating should become of a comprehensive evaluation system and should not be the only measure of teachers' effectiveness. Ekwesili (2006) however, opined that students' success depends on the amount of learning that takes place in the classroom. The school administrators' evaluation has also been used to evaluate teachers' effectiveness. The accuracy of school administrators' evaluation of teachers' effectiveness has also been studied. Jacob and Lefgren (2016) found a positive correlation between a principals' assessment of how effective a teacher is at raising students' achievement and that teacher's success in doing so as measured by the value-added approach. The above study suggests that administrator's rating may also be one of a comprehensive evaluation system to measure teachers' effectiveness in secondary schools.

Bangbade (2014) found that out that teachers' attribute has significant relationship with students' academic performance. Such attributes according to Bangbade (2004) include teachers' knowledge of the subject matter, communication ability, emotional stability, good human relationship and interest in the job. Rena (2000) explained that for students to perform well in any examination one of the prerequisites is that their teachers must know them

and have profound knowledge of their state of physical, intellectual and psychological readiness.

In many countries, teachers' qualifications that are considered to be related to student learning have become desirable targets of teacher education reform. Some of these reforms call for the professionalization of teacher education by making it longer, upgrading it to graduate programs, and regulating it through mechanisms of licensure, certification, and promotion align with standards Frelow (2012).

Research Method

Introduction

This research methodology sub-divided into the following sub-heading: Research Design, Population of the study, Sample and Sampling Technique, Research Instrument and Instrumentation, Reliability of instrument, Validity of Instruments and so on.

This study adopts the descriptive survey research design. Descriptive survey was considered suitable for this study. It is aimed at finding out the implications of carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement (case study of Some selected secondary school in district III). The population of the study comprised some selected public secondary school in educational district III. The sample involved five selected secondary school in Educational district III randomly selected from public secondary school. The sampling procedure adopted in this study was the stratified sampling techniques whereby respondents is been selected by schools from the target population.

A self-structured questionnaire will be use to obtain information from the teachers/instructors. The questionnaire contains twenty (20) questions. The questionnaire is titled "carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement" (CSAEDE). The instrument which was developed by the researcher has a four-point Likert type scale. The four point Likert scale was used to accommodate all the research questions in the questionnaire, as shown below:

The Questionnaire was segmented into two sections – Section A and Section B. The Section A was used to collect facts and information's about the demographic data of the teachers/instructors, which include gender, year of experience, age and qualification.

Section B consists of questions on carrot and stick approach on effective decision enhancement. The teachers were expected to respond to the four likert scale options of strongly agreed (SA), agreed (A) disagreed (D) and strongly disagreed (SD). The instrument designed for the study was administered to the selected public secondary school by the Researcher and three researches assistant that had have been given some orientation about the assignment. This is administered to teachers in junior and senior secondary section in the sampled public secondary school by the researcher and the research assistant.

Data Analysis and Presentation Of Results

This chapter presents the analysis of data and results of the findings. The analysis is present in two parts. Part A is the descriptive analysis while Part B is the test of hypothesis. Out of the two hundred (200) questionnaires that were distributed, One hundred and thirty-four (134) were properly filled and returned.

From the table above, 57 respondents representing 42.5% are male while the remaining 77 respondents representing 57.4% are female. The age distribution of the respondents are, 32.0% of the respondents were within age range of 25-35years, while 51.5% of the respondent was within the age range of 36-45years, while 14.1 % of the respondents were within the age range of 46-55years while 14.9% of the respondent was within the age range of 55years and above.

The Table 3 shows the professional qualification of the respondents; teachers with NCE were 26 representing 19.4%, while B.SC were consisting of 87 representing 64.9%, while M.SC were consisting 14 representing 10.4%, while P.hD and other were consisting of 7 representing 5.2%, Hence, respondents of B.SC/B.ED were the majority.

The respondent's years of Experience, 31.3% of the respondents were within years' experience of 0-5 years, while 41.0% of the respondents were within the years' experience of 6-10 years, while 20.1% of the respondents were within the years' experience of 11-15 years, while 7.4% of the respondents were within the years' experience of 16-20years and above. Hence, respondents between 6-10 years and 11-15 years of experience were the majority.

Hypotheses 1

Ho: There is no significant relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers.

The data collected to test this hypothesis is analysed using the chi-square statistical technique. Summary of findings is presented in table 5.

Table 1: Chi-Square Analysis of the relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers.

N	DF	Level of sign.	X ² Cal	X ² Tab	decision
134	6	0.05	18.3	10.0	Rejected

Source: Author computation, 2023

Table 4 shows that the calculated value of Chi – square at 18.3 is greater than the table value of 10.0 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is significant relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers.

Hypotheses 2

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach.

Table 1: Chi-Square Analysis of the significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach.

N	DF	level of sign.	X ² Cal	X ² Tab	decision
134	6	0.05	21.0	12.0	Rejected

Source: Author computation, 2023

Table 2 shows that the calculated value of Chi – Square at 21.0 is greater than the table value of 12.0 at 0.05 level of significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach.

Hypotheses 3

Ho₃: There is no significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach.

Table 3: Chi-Square Analysis of the significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach.

N	DF	level of sign.	X ² Cal	X ² Tab	decision
134	6	0.05	11.0	5.0	Rejected

Source: Author computation, 2023

Table 3 shows that the calculated value of Chi – Square at 11.0 is greater than the table value of 5.0 at 0.05 level of significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach.

Hypotheses 4

Ho₄: There is no significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

Table 4: Chi-Square Analysis of the significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

N	DF	Level of sign.	X ² Cal	X ² Tab	decision
134	6	0.05	22.3	13.0	Rejected

Source: Author computation, 2019

Table 4 shows that the calculated value of Chi – Square at 22.3 is greater than the table value of 13.0 at 0.05 level of significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Therefore, there is a significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

Discussion of Study

There is a significant relationship between carrot and stick approach and decision enhancement among instructor/teachers this goes in line with Samuel (2013) view that carrot and stick approach and decision covers the combination of rewards and punishment to bring about good behaviour as well as pro activeness in students in other to achieve academic excellence in enhancing decision making on the part of the instructor to reduce the number of student that are vulnerable to drop out of school. There is a significant relationship between the role of gender among teacher/instructors and carrot and stick approach this goes in line with Olaniyi (2016) propound that individual/student bring out their best when rewards is given to them. A major responsibility of teachers/instructor is the ability to make effective and rational decision which produce result in student academic performance. Every act of the instructor/teacher will bring about a change in the student performance either positive or negative.

There is a significant relationship between the year of experience of the teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach. According to Yakub (2009) in his study he concludes that teachers with long services of experience know how handle students properly than those with short years of experience.

There is no significant relationship between age of instructor/teacher and the effectiveness of carrot and stick approach in enhancing decision making.

Conclusion

Teachers’ use of punishment and involvement failed to relate to the attitudinal measures. Teacher–student discussion, which focused on the impact of misbehaviour on classmates, related positively to student connectedness to school. Students who perceived greater use of aggressive strategies, such as yelling or sarcasm, felt less connected to school or interested in schoolwork, even though its importance remained effectively unchanged.

There were no significant associations between wellbeing and the other factors

Considered, which would seem to argue for a growing separation of a student’s self-esteem and the actions of teachers. It’s possible that, as they enter secondary schooling in their early teens, students are becoming more independent, no longer drawing on teacher behaviour for their sense of wellbeing, but more dependent on other means of affirmation and reinforcement.

It seems reasonable to interpret punishment as a ‘neutral’ set of strategies given its lack of direct relationships with the various other factors considered (Lewis 2009). It would seem that punishment is essentially a universal given in the classroom when misbehaviour occurs. Few would contend that teachers should not use punishment of some form to restrict or prevent behaviour that puts at risk

the classes' safety or learning opportunities. Nevertheless, it appears that not all punishment is equally justified or effective. Punishment combines with the other styles so that we can have punishment mitigated with discussion, established with student involvement, following hints, and balanced with rewards and recognition, or, alternately, applied with aggression. It is these other strategies that seem to influence the results and consequences of punishment, whether it's a learning experience, includes or excludes, is justified, or makes students the victims of teacher anger tick might be the threat of military action. With respect to this, it seems safe to assume that hinting is of benefit within a teacher's repertoire of discipline techniques (Lewis 2009). Hinting effectively combines the need to censor behaviour without power abuse or conflict. Teachers don't need to constantly punish when they are able to deploy a range of strategies before actually having to take overt action. Hinting is the only technique to positively associate with students' sense of responsibility for engaging in work and communicating respectfully, and this may be the result of hinting placing students on a more equal footing with their teacher, thus building their sense of control and self-esteem. Hinting places the student in a position where they are asked to meet adult expectations in an adult manner, thus building their experience base for self-discipline and self-control, whilst simultaneously allowing a student to save 'face'.

Recommendation

The following recommendations are gotten from the study.

- I. Managers should increase the frequency and level of teachers' participation in decision-making because they are the ones carrying out the main operative work and they are in the better position to know what goes on in school operations.
- II. Schools should recommend proper mood to discipline students who violate the school codes and conduct through the knowledge of the teacher or instructor.
- III. There should be reward for good conduct in the school in other to motivate student's behaviour and learning habits.
- IV. Teachers/instructor should serve as a mediator between the student and the management.
- V. Teachers should be drafted into the management system so as to be balance measure in dealing with the student.
- VI. Teachers should be allowed to operate with free hand with minimum supervision and maximum checkmating with the running of the idea.
- VII. The management should promote student teacher relationship a great deal to promote a better learning atmosphere and a better decision enhancement.
- VIII. Teachers that are just drafted into the profession should be giving more training and more exposure to managerial role/area to promote better decision making.
- IX. Female teachers should be giving more role in managerial and decision enhancement process to promote and give them voice in the decision making.
- X. Teachers in the lower carder should be giving more tasks and a proper monitoring should be in place to upgrade and improve them in the profession.

References

- Aidis, R. and Adachi, Y. (2007), '*Carrot and Stick Approach*, Educational Systems, 31(4), pp. 391–411.
- Akinwale, G.A. & Ogunleye, Oluwaseun A. (2024). Exploring the Connection between Social Media Usage and Identity Formation among Selected Emerging Adults in the University of Lagos. Lagos Journal of Psychology, 2(1), 92-108.
- Akinwale, G. A. and Israel, U. N. (2022). Parenting in the 21st Century. In Lauree, Tilton-Weaver, Akinbode, Gabriel et al (Eds)., Issues of Child Development in Nigeria. A Festschrift in Honour of Professor Agiobu-Kemmer. Markabliss Press Chap. Thirteen, 258 -271
- Alexeev, M. and Pyle, W. (2003), '*discipline system in school*', Economics of Transition, 11(1), pp. 153–175.
- Allingham, M. and Sandmo, A. (1972), '*teachers roles in teaching: A Theoretical Analysis*', Journal of Public Education, 1(2), pp. 323–338.
- Allen, L. (2003) '*How should we reward teaching?*', Exchange5, ILTHE, LTSN, NCT.
- Bruce A.J (2016) Published by arinze article (*is the carrot and stick method useful in higher education*).
- Boyer, E L (1990) Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate. Princeton, New Jersey: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.USA
- Colbeck, C (1992) Extrinsic rewards and intrinsic interest: *The influence of tenure on faculty preference for teaching or research*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association for the study of Higher Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota, October/ November. (ERIC Document Service No.ED 352 904).
- USA Department of Education and Skills (2003) *The Future of Higher Education*HMSO, UK
- Gibbs G and Habershaw T (2002) *Recognising and Rewarding Good Teaching* – a guide to good practice Centre for Higher Education Practice OU Milton Keynes UK
- Glasner, A. (2003) '*Can all teachers aspire to excellence?*', Exchange 5, ILTHE, LTSN, NCT.

- Joseph Nye & Ernest Wilson (2017) *An article on carrot and stick for school system*
- Hayes, C.C & Akhari.F (2008) published by peer reviewed article (*creating effective decision aids for complex tasks*)
- Keen P.G W, Sol, H.G home catalogue book decision enhancement (2008) published by Delft university press.
- Mcalpine L and Harris R (2002) *Evaluating Teaching Effectiveness and teaching Improvement: a language for institutional policies and academic development practices*. The International Journal for Academic Development, Taylor and Francis, UK
- Porter, L W and Lawler, E E (1968) *Managerial Attitudes and Performance*. Irwin USA
- Ramsden et al (1995) *Recognising Good teaching in Australian Higher Education*. A project commissioned by the Committee for the Advancement of University Teaching. Available at: <http://www.autc.gov.au/caut>
- Trigwell, K, Martin, E, Benjamin, J and Prosser, M (2000) '*Scholarship of Teaching: a model*', *Higher Education Research and Development* Vol.19, No2, HERSDA, Aus.
- The New York times (2012) *editorial board carrot & stick for school system*.
- Transforming our world: *The 2030 agenda for sustainable development united nation sustainable development knowledge platform* (2015)
- Warren, R and Plumb, E (1999) '*Survey of Distinguished Teacher Award Schemes in Higher Education*', *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, NATFHE, UK

THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED INJUSTICE AND AGE ON CORRUPTION PROCLIVITY OF SELECTED WORKERS IN LAGOS STATE NIGERIA

Ibidapo, S. J., Arogundade, O. & Akinbode, G. A.
Department of Psychology, University of Lagos, Akoka.

Abstract

Corruption is a global problem which has defied several interventions; it usually results when there is an opportunistic coincidence of motivation to act corruptly with actual occasions to so do (Treisman, 2007). This becomes heightened when employees perceive that they are being unfairly treated in their workplaces. Anchoring on Pinder and Harlos' (2001) organizational injustice (interactional and systemic injustice) the study investigates the influence of perceived injustice on corruption proclivity. The study was carried out on 1011 workers (Male = 541; Female = 429; 41= not specified); 423 old (40 years and above), 518 young workers (below 40 years) and 70 participants who did not specify their ages. Data was collected using the Perceived Injustice Scale developed by Hodson, Creighton, Jamison, Reible and Welsh (1994) and the Attitude Towards Corruption Scale. Results showed that Perceived injustice and age influenced workers' corruption proclivity. The results were discussed and recommendations made.

Keywords: perceived injustice; age; corruption proclivity; workers.

Introduction

Corruption is a global problem which is not localised to any particular region of the world and has defied several solutions aimed at curbing it in times past. As a global challenge, corruption presents severe economic and socio-political consequences which cut across developed and developing economies, whether directly or indirectly (World Bank, 2019; Johnston, 2010; Ogungbamila & Ojogo, 2020). An estimated 2 trillion dollars is lost to corruption annually, the world over, while African nations reportedly lose up to 25 percent of their annual GDP to corruption (Lawder, 2016). All forms of corruption take place at the instance of individuals, while such exhibitors of corrupt acts usually do so when opportunities present themselves to act in such manner (Okezie, 2012). Incidences of corruption do not take place in isolation but within specific contexts which include economic, political socio-cultural and especially organisational settings (Rabl, 2011; Julian & Bonavia, 2020).

Independent investigations, on the causes of corruption in developing nations, especially Nigeria, have suggested poverty as the major cause (Folarin, 2014). Other suggested causes of corruption include colonialism, ethnicity, and ostentatious lifestyle, overdependence on non-renewable natural resources, among others (Lawder, 2016). Awasthi (2015) identified five broad casual categories which he tagged: economic, political, administrative, social and legal causes. Furthermore, scholars such as Connor and Fischer (2012; Treisman, 2007) posited that perpetration of corrupt acts takes place when there is an opportunistic coincidence of individual motivation to commit the act with an occasion for actual misappropriation of public fund. Opportunistic coincidence for the perpetration of corruption becomes

very well pronounced when employees perceive that they are being unfairly treated in their workplaces. Corruption proclivity which is also described as corrupt tendency, refers to the disposition to indulge in unethical and disreputable behaviours while sacrificing public good for private benefit (Ogungbamila & Ojogo, 2020; Kauffmann, 1997). One of the motivators of corrupt behaviours which may have been grossly overlooked is the feeling of being unfairly treated especially when according to Siegrist, (2002) after personal evaluation they have perceive *negative imbalance* in their effort-reward ratio.

Corruption proclivity which is also known as corruption propensity according to Agbo and Iwundu (2016) is defined as: "the degree to which an individual is likely to engage in corruption compared to other persons irrespective of whether the individual had engaged in corruption or not." Corruption proclivity in this study is measured with the attitude towards corruption Corruption according to Agbo and Iwundu (2016) is a form of criminal behaviour whose measurement and conceptualization have gone beyond the objective method since the perpetration also includes intent, cognitive and executorial proclivities that make them not just a form of criminal behaviour, but a planned one at that. Thus, evaluating corruption proclivity through an attitude measure must cover the three components of attitudes as stipulated by Ajzen and Fishbein (2001) viz: Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural components. The attitude towards corruption scale used to measure the attitude of participants towards corruption in this study was designed by the first author and covers all three components of attitude measurement.

Perceived injustice according to Hodson, Creighton, Jamison, Reible and Welsh (1994, as cited in

Fields, 2013) “*is the extent to which employees perceived their employers to treat them unfairly.*” In contrast however, Skarlicki and Folger, (1997, as cited in Ogungbamila, 2018) defined perceived justice as the:

“extent to which employees felt that the procedure for distributing workplace resources and outcomes as well as the quality of interpersonal treatment received from the organization and other organization members met some acceptable rules of justice and fairness”

The above definition construes perceived justice which is the opposite of injustice as when an employee understands that certain principles of justice have been adhered to in allocating resources and outcomes in the workplace. Thus, Perceived injustice in this study is defined as the experience of being unjustly and uncourteously treated, after an effort-reward appraisal by the employee in question, particularly, in comparison to significant others within the same space.

Perceived organizational injustice may be a catalyst for positive disposition towards corruption possibly as a way of getting personal retribution against the offenders (Ogungbamila & Ojogo, 2020). Pinder and Harlos (2001) in their research into how employees respond to perceived injustice within the space of a work organisation noted that silence was one of such critical responses. Silence, according to them was a usual response particularly when the victim of injustice envisages a boomerang after they lodge (usually formal) complaints (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, as cited in Pinder & Harlos, 2001). According to them, while certain employees who have experienced injustice within the workplace may choose to give voice (report to those who can take action), many others prefer to be silent. Silence however, does not remove the hurt of injustice as the victim of organizational injustice may still see a need to get revenge in the future. One of the many ways in which such employees seek retribution is by rationalizing acts of corruption as a form of retribution, an act which has been described by Ogungbamila and Ojogo (2020) as retaliatory intentions.

Pinder and Harlos (2001) identified two types of organizational injustice viz: interactional injustice as well as systemic injustice. According to them, Interactional injustice which itself has four identifiable dimensions, comes to the fore in an organisation, especially between a subordinate and their superiors to whom they are responsible when such subordinates imply unfair, poor and questionable treatment. The four dimensions of interactional injustice include: surveillance, intimidation, degradation and manipulation.

Systemic injustice on the other hand refers to perceived mistreatment in the broader organisation. Pinder and Harlos (2001) defined systemic injustice as:

the perception of unfairness involving the larger organizational context within which work

relationships are enacted (that is interactional), and where allocation decisions are made (that is, distributive) and/or implemented, (that is procedural) the last two injustices are procedural and distributive injustices.

In organisations where an employee has perceived injustice, the personal decision to pursue justice may be a motivator for engaging in corrupt acts (Ogungbamila & Ojogo, 2020). A research conducted by Ojedokun (2010) on how the imbalance between effort and the rewards of 225 police officers was significantly positively linked to the tendency to engage in unethical behaviour. Furthermore, the intention of employees to engage in retaliatory behaviours increased when perceived injustice within the organisation increased and the more trust employees expressed in the organisation, the lesser the retaliatory attitudes expressed.

Results of a study conducted by Goergen, Pauli, Cerutti and Perin (2018) to investigate the influence of perceived injustice on the retaliatory intentions among 163 selected employees in Brazil showed that the more employees see themselves as being fairly and justly treated by their organization, the less likely they were to engage in retaliatory behaviours against the organization. On the contrary however, whenever employees perceived injustice in the ways they were treated by their organisations, such were able to rationalize and make excuses for corrupt behaviours within the context of their organisations (Dupuy & Neset, 2018). Ogungbamila and Ojogo (2020) clearly posited that in the eventuality that employees perceive that they are being fairly and justly treated within their organisations, such are less likely to engage in corrupt acts. One of the major ways employees in an organisation evaluate their level of being fairly or justly treated is by comparing themselves to other employees, whether on the same level (or rank) or persons to whom they have reasons to compare themselves.

Age is another variable that is being suggested in the current study to influence corruption proclivity. Age can be defined as the number of years that a person has lived or a thing has existed (Obi, Nwankwo, Agun, Aboh & Sydney-Agbor, 2013). Researchers have attempted to investigate the influence of age on corrupt tendencies. For example, results of a study by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) submitted that age as a factor did not significantly predict or explain crime. Furthermore, some studies have observed that socio-personal variables such as educational qualification, age, gender and job differences do not appear to have strong connections with corrupt tendencies (Ogungbamila, 2017; Ogungbamila & Udegbe, 2014). However, it should be noted that the age of workers may play an important role in determining their corruption proclivity, given that most workers regardless of their establishments or places of work would usually start their Careers at younger ages and continue to grow in their careers; while there have been studies linking corruption proclivity to the

Hypotheses

Two hypotheses were tested in this study, these are highlighted below:

1. Perceived injustice will significantly influence workers’ attitude towards corruption.
2. Young workers (below 40 years) will report significantly positive attitude towards corruption compared to their older counterparts (aged 40 and above).

Method

Participants

As indicated in table 1, a total of 1,011 workers selected from government agencies, organised private sector and some private businesses took part in the study (Male = 541; Female = 429; 41= didn’t specify gender). Participants indicated their educational qualifications and 504 participants constituting 53% of the participants had Higher National Diplomas or a Bachelor’s Degree as qualification; 202 participants constituting 21% of the participants had National Certificate in Education or Ordinary National Diploma as their qualifications, while 254 participants, which constituted 26% of the total participants had the School Leaving Certificate as their highest qualification. Of the entire participants, 423 workers were 40 years and above (42% and SD = 23), while 518 participants were below 40 years (51%; SD = 26.1); 70 participants (7%) did not specify their ages.

Measures

Sociodemographic information

Participants were asked to indicate their age, Sex, and highest educational qualifications.

Attitude Towards Corruption Scale (ATCS)

Corruption proclivity in this study was measured using the Attitude Towards Corruption Scale which was developed and standardised by the researcher. The 28-item scale yielded a Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of .91. The scale which has four sub-scales namely Fraud, Nepotism, Embezzlement and Bribery yielded Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients of: .83, .83, .73 and .72 for each subscale respectively. The scale yielded a concurrent validity score of 0.33 with Hathaway & Mckinley’s/ (1967) Psychopathic Deviate Scale.

Perceived Injustice Scale

Hodson, Creighton, Jamison, Reible and Welsh (1994) developed the Perceived Injustice Scale. The Scale describes the extent to which employees perceive their employer treats them unfairly; presenting four questions for evaluation of injustice within their workplaces. The Perceived Injustice Scale showed a reliability coefficient of .07. The scale showed via multivariate regression significant positive relation to workplace participation, working in a physically demanding job and working in a larger organization. Furthermore, the scale also showed negative relationship with being married, being in a higher socio-economic status and having more solidarity.

Procedure

The research tools were administered to workers through research assistants in 11 Local Authorities, after obtaining the informed consent of participants. Tools included the Attitude Towards Corruption Scale, Perceived Injustice Scale and a section on the demographic variables of participants. A total of 1,308 questionnaires were given out while 1,011 questionnaires were returned, giving a 77% response rate.

Results

Table 1: Showing Means and Standard Deviation

Demographic characteristics	Categories	Mean	SD	N	%
Sex	Male	53.70	23.340	541	56%
	Female	55.37	27.064	429	44%
Age	Young (<i>Age < 40 years</i>)	57.78	26.045	518	55%
	Old (<i>Age ≥ 40 years</i>)	49.57	22.934	423	45%
Educational level	Low (O/Level)	62.87	28.793	254	26%
	Avg (NCE & OND)	56.65	26.462	202	21%
	High (HND, B.Sc. & above)	50.47	22.744	504	53%

In order to investigate the influence of perceived injustice on attitude towards corruption, an independent t-test comparison of mean attitude toward corruption was computed and the results presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Independent t-test of mean difference in Attitude Towards Corruption by Perceived Injustice

Perceived Injustice	N	Mean	SD	t	df	P
ATC	High (<i>≥ 10</i>)	476	60.71	6.88	1009	P < .05*
	Low (<i>< 10</i>)	535	49.87			

P < .05*; n = 1011; df = 1009; significant (one-tailed)

Result of independent samples t-test was computed as presented in the t-table shown in table 2, with means and Standard deviations of the result. The result showed that t is significant $t(1009) = 6.88, p < .05$. This indicates that participants who perceived injustice ($M = 60.71, SD = 28.37$) had significantly higher scores indicating more positive attitude towards corruption than participants who did not perceive injustice ($M = 49.87, SD = 21.61$). Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported.

To investigate age differences in attitude towards corruption, an independent t-test was carried out comparing mean attitude towards corruption as presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3: Independent t-test of mean difference in Attitude Towards Corruption by Age

Age		Independent samples test				
ATC	N	Mean	SD	t	df	P
Young (< 40 years)	519	57.82	26.032	5.164	940	P < .05*
Old (≥ 40 years)	423	49.57	22.934			

P < .05*; n = 942; df = 940; significant (one-tailed)

Results from Table 3 showed that t is significant $t(940) = 5.164$, $p < .05$. This indicates that young workers (below age 40) had a significantly higher mean score on attitude towards corruption ($M = 57.82$, $SD = 26.032$) than Older workers ($M = 49.57$, $SD = .47$). Given the observed result from table 3, hypothesis 2 is therefore confirmed. By implication, younger workers show higher proclivity to corrupt behaviour, compared to older workers.

Discussion

This study found that perceived injustice influenced the attitude of workers towards corruption, as workers who perceived high injustice showed more positive attitude towards corruption than those who do not perceive injustice. The findings can be explained by the suggestions of Kennedy, Homant and Homant (2004), as well as Aquino, Tripp and Bies (2006), who emphasised that whenever people perceive injustice, they are motivated to exhibit behaviours that are targeted at bridging the justice gap. Furthermore, the finding agrees with that of Ogungbamila's (2018) study which emphasized workplace neutralization before employees' perceived injustice can adequately engender corrupt acts. The natural human response when unfairness is perceived in the workplace is to fight back and take revenge through acts of corruption (Aquino, Ashforth and Joshi, 2006). This response becomes unavoidable especially in systems where there are no legal ways to formally lodge complaint against injustice. Findings of the current study also agree with those of Ogungbamila and Udegbe (2014) who concluded that an increase in perceived injustice was associated with a corresponding increase in the intent for corruption. Individuals who have seen themselves as unjustly and unfairly treated by their organisations and employers may seize any opportunity to engage in corruption, to get back at the unfair system. The study also agrees with the findings of another study conducted by Ogungbamila and Ojogo (2020) which showed a significant positive correlation between perceived organisational injustice and the tendency of employees to engage in corrupt behaviour. While it is expected of organisations to operate internal mechanisms for addressing injustice and provide succour to already dissatisfied employees through addressing the injustice suffered, some organisations often end up vilifying such complainants with numerous backlashes (Harlos & Pinder, 2000).

Such situations as these unfortunately engender the culture of silence in organisations, a culture which has often been

described by Nigerians as the culture of: "*suffering in silence*". Such silent suffering usually act as trigger for engaging in corrupt acts whenever the opportunity presents itself. It is therefore very important to address the problem of workplace injustice as failure to do this will inadvertently encourage the proliferation of counterproductive work behavior (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh & Kessler, 2006 as cited in Ogungbamila & Ojogo, 2020). According to Ojedokun (2010), corruption is one of the many potential responses put up by employees to obtain retribution against their organisations whenever they perceive injustice. For workers who feel unfairly treated by their employers and organisations, corruption probably provides the needed opportunity to get their "pound of flesh" from the seemingly unappreciated or insensitive employer or organisation (Ogungbamila & Udegbe, 2014).

The study also found out that Young workers (Below age 40) reported significantly positive attitude towards corruption compared to their older counterparts (40 years and above). This finding agrees with those of Torgler and Valev (2014) who found that justifiability of corruption as a variable, was much lower for persons whose age ranges were from 30 – 65 years when compared with a referent age group of below 30. Torgler and Valev further noted that the effect of age grew even stronger and significantly so, when the age group increases.

This observed age difference in the attitude towards corruption may not be unconnected to the fact that younger workers are likely to have more financial burdens, higher job prospects as well as turnover intentions. Moreover, younger workers are more likely to be tech savvy and as a result, deploy their technological skills to perpetrate corrupt acts. A study by Morris and Venkatesh (2000) compared older workers and their younger counterparts in technology usage decisions and found that younger workers were more strongly influenced by attitude toward using technology, while older workers were more influenced by subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Consequent upon this, the ability to engage with and manipulate technology may be a trigger for corrupt behaviour, especially through the use of technology. Findings from this study are however opposed to the position of Rehmke (2016) who stated that the older political office holders get, the more likely they are to become naturally corrupt. Rehmke also observed that it would benefit democracies to ensure to vote out political leaders out of office as they age to prevent corruption. The study also disagrees with finding from a study by Obi, et al. (2013) which concluded that age was not a significant determinant of the attitude towards crime among adolescents.

Conclusion

This study focused on the influence of perceived injustice and age in predicting attitude towards corruption of selected workers in Lagos State Nigeria. The results have

shown that perceived injustice of workers significantly influenced corruption proclivity and thus increased the likelihood of their engaging in corrupt acts. The study also showed that age significantly influenced attitude towards corruption; as younger workers (below the age of 40) showed higher corruption proclivity than older workers (above age 40).

It is therefore recommended that organisations and employers of labour carry out periodic assessment of their employees' level of perceived injustice and ensure to adequately address injustice. This will not only help to prevent corrupt behaviours exhibited as a form of retaliatory action by employees, but also encourage employee commitment and improved work performance in the organisations.

It is also recommended that organisations develop policy frameworks to discourage and punish corrupt acts; encourage honesty and expose their employees to these policies through orientations and sensitizations. Furthermore, organisations should develop internal mentoring and capacity building programs where younger workers in organisations or establishments would be linked with reputable, older and senior workers for mentorship and workplace coaching to model the culture of probity and prevent counterproductive work behaviours while also imbibing important Organisational Citizenship Behaviours.

Suggestions for future research

Furthermore, an investigation into the link between the ability to use and manipulate modern technological tools and corruption proclivity is an area suggested for future research.

References

- Agbo A. A. & Iwundu, E.I. (2016). Corruption as a propensity: Personality and motivational determinants among Nigerians. *The Journal of Psychology*, 150:4, 502-526, DOI: 10.1080/00223980.2015.1107523
- Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and operation of attitudes. *Annual review of Psychology* 52,27-58.
- Awasthi, A. (2015). Critical analysis of aspects of corruption. *Summer Internship Society Vol. VII Issue-1*
- Connor, S. O. & Fischer, R. (2012). Predicting societal corruption across time: values, wealth, or institutions? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* 43(4) 644–659 DOI: 10.1177/0022022111402344.
- Dupuy, K., & Niset, S. (2018). *The cognitive psychology of corruption: Micro-level explanations for unethical behaviour*. Retrieved from: <https://www.u4.no/publications/the-cognitive-psychology-of-corruption>.
- Fields, D. L. (2013). Taking the measure of work: A guide on validated scales for organisational research and diagnosis. *Perceived injustice* (p 181). NC: Information Age Publishing
- Goergen, C., Pauli, J., Cerutti, P. & Perin, M. (2018). The organizations justice, trust and retaliatory attitude: A study in a company in the metal-mechanic sector. *Cuadernos de Administracion (Journal of Management)*, 34(62), 33-49.
- Gottfredson, M. R. & Hirschi, T. (1990). *A General Theory of Crime*. Stanford University Press, Redwood City.
- Harlos, K. P. (1999). Cultures of injustice: Organizational correlates of unjust employment relationships. *Proceedings: Third Australian Industrial and Organizational Psychology Conference* (pp. 111-119). Brisbane, QLD. Australian Psychological Society.
- Harlos, K. P. & Pinder C.C. (2000). *Emotion and injustice in the workplace*. Retrieved from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/224767272>
- Julian, M. & Bonavia, T. (2020). Psychological variables related to corruption: A systematic review. *Annals of Psychology*, 36(2), 330-339.
- Kaufmann, D. (1997). Corruption: The facts. *Foreign Policy* 107, 114-131.
- Lawder, D. (2016). IMF: Global corruption costs trillions in bribes, lost growth. Retrieved from: <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-imf-corruption-idUSKCN0Y22B7>.
- Morris, M. G. & Venjatesh, V. (2000). Age differences in technology adoption decisions: Implications for a changing work force. *Personnel Psychology* 53(2):375 – 403 DOI:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2000.tb00206.x
- Obi, T. C., Nwankwo, B. E., Agu, S. A., Aboh, J. U. & Sydney-Agbor, N. (2013). Influence of personality and age on attitude towards crime among adolescents. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences Vol 17(1)*, pp 80-86.
- Ojedokun, O. A. (2010). Effort-reward imbalance and attitude towards unethical work behaviour among police personnel: Emotional intelligence as a moderator. *Ife Psychologia*, 18(1), 137-155.
- Ogungbamila, B. & Udegbe, I. B. (2014). Gender difference in the effects of perception of organizational injustice on workplace reactivity. *Europe's Journal of Psychology*, 10(1), 150–167, <https://doi.org/10.5964/ejop.v10i1.575>
- Ogungbamila, B. (2017). An examination of the relationship between perceived injustice, workplace neutralization and corrupt tendencies: A study on employees in Nigeria.

South Asian Journal of Management, 24(3), 7-27.

- Ogungbamila, B. (2018). An examination of the relationship between perceived injustice, workplace neutralization and corrupt tendencies: A study on employees in Nigeria. 24. 7-27. Retrieved from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/326919672>
- Ogungbamila, B. & Ojogo, B. F. (2020). Perceived organizational injustice and corrupt tendencies in public sector employees: mediating role of life satisfaction. *Romanian Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 2, 42-50.
- Pinder, C. C. & Harlos, K. P. (2001). Employee silence: Quiescence and acquiescence as responses to perceived injustice. *Research in personnel and Human Resources Management Vol 20* (pp331-369) ISBN: 0-7623-0840-0
- Rabl, J. (2011). The impact of situational influences on corruption in organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 100, 85-101. <https://doi.org/10.1007/J110551-01 1-0768-2>
- Siegrist, J. (2002). Effort–reward imbalance at work and health. In P. L. Perrowe, & D. C. Ganster (Eds.), *Historical and current perspectives on stress and health* (pp. 261–291). Amsterdam: JAI Elsevier.
- Treisman, D. (2007). What have we learn about the cause of corruption from ten years of cross-national empirical research? *Annual Review of Political Science*. (10)211-44.
- World Bank Group. (2019). Poverty & equity brief: Sub-Saharan Africa. Retrieved from <https://databank.worldbank.org/data/download/poverty/33EF03BB-9722-4AE2-ABC7-AA297>.

Research Paper

EXPLORING THE ROLE OF BUILT WORK ENVIRONMENT ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN LEKKI - LAGOS

Isreal, U. N. & Oladipupo O. B.

Department of Psychology, University of Lagos, Akoka.

Abstract

The role of the built work environment in shaping job performance among high school teachers is a topic of great interest and relevance. This study investigates the relationship between the built work environment and job performance among high school teachers in Lekki, Lagos. Additionally, the study seeks to explore the influence of working experience and gender on job performance. To address these research questions, a quantitative research design is employed. A sample of high school teachers from selected schools in the Lagos State, Education District III, Falomo, Ikoyi are surveyed using standardized measures to assess their perceptions of the built work environment and job performance. Statistical analysis, including correlation and regression analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables of interest. Furthermore, teachers with varying years of experience are compared to explore whether those with greater experience exhibit higher levels of job performance. Additionally, the study expects to find that teachers with more years of experience will exhibit higher levels of job performance. Regarding gender differences, the study will explore whether male teachers outperform their female counterparts in job performance. In conclusion, the implications of this research are relevant for educational institutions and policymakers. Understanding the impact of the built work environment on job performance can guide the design and management of school facilities to create environments that promote teacher effectiveness and satisfaction. The findings have the potential to inform educational practices and policies, ultimately leading to improved job performance and well-being among teachers, and subsequently enhancing the quality of education provided to students.

Keywords: Built Work Environment, Job Performance, Teachers.

Background of the Study

One of the ways of enhancing an individual ability/performance lies on the environmental factors and its influences. Psychologists opined that nature is the gene that that we inherited from our parents while nurture is the environmental factors like the siblings, relatives, friends, school, organization, church and the likes. So, it is the environmental factors that influence the performance of the teachers in school and the way they impact on their students. Teacher's job performance plays a crucial role in student's learning process and development. In the context of the built work environment encompasses the physical, social, and psychological aspects of the workplace that can significantly impact teacher performance and well-being. Understanding the different types of work environments that may influence job performance among high school teachers is essential for creating conducive educational settings. One type of work environment that can impact job performance is the physical environment of the school. Factors such as classroom layout, lighting, temperature, acoustics, and aesthetics can either enhance or hinder teacher performance. A well-designed physical environment can promote concentration, collaboration, and effective teaching strategies, while a poorly designed or uncomfortable environment may lead to distractions, fatigue, and reduced productivity.

Another aspect to consider is the social work environment. The interactions and relationships among teachers, administrators, and colleagues can significantly influence job performance. A positive and supportive social environment fosters collaboration, teamwork, and a sense of belonging, which can contribute to increased job satisfaction and motivation. Conversely, a negative or unsupportive social environment characterized by conflicts, lack of communication, and limited professional growth opportunities can have adverse effects on teacher performance and job satisfaction.

The psychological work environment is equally crucial in understanding job performance among high school teachers. Factors such as job autonomy, workload, job demands, and the level of stress can influence how teachers feel about their work and their ability to perform effectively. High levels of job autonomy, manageable workloads, and opportunities for professional development can contribute to job satisfaction and increased performance. Conversely, excessive work demands, lack of control, and high levels of stress can negatively impact job performance and well-being.

Teachers have a direct responsibility to shape a student's academic performance, and are the most important school based factor in their education (Lindsay, 1995; Griffin,

2012). That is why it is important to examine some of the variables that could enhance teachers job performance. Though, there are many variables/factors that plays both positive and negative roles in teacher job performance, however, the work environment plays the greatest role. The work built environment touches all aspects of our lives, encompassing the buildings we live in, the distribution systems that provide us with water and electricity, and the roads, bridges, and transportation systems we use to get from place to place. Ininline with this, Akinyele (2014) found that working environment could impact on employee performance positively or negatively. High school teachers spend greater part of their lives in a work built environment which influences their mental health status, abilities, action and performance greatly. Good outcome and increase in productivity is assumed to be the result of better workplace environment. Past findings on work environment revealed that cluttered workplaces, dissatisfaction and physical environment all played great role in lowering the performance of the employees (Christian, 2015). Tough, presently, the working environment have change due to various factors like social environment, information technology and the flexible ways of organizing work processes. When employees are physically and emotionally fit, they will have the desire to work and their performance outcomes shall be increased.

Statement of the problem

Since various scholars in Nigeria have beamed their search light on factors that influences the student's performances and neglecting the role of work built environment on teacher's performance. This study wants to fill the gap in

Objectives of the study

The main purpose of this study is to examine role of built work environment on job performance among high school teachers. Other specific objectives includes:

- (a) To examine the relationship between built work environment and job performance among high school teachers
- (b) to investigate the influence of working experience on job performance among high school teachers
- (c) to ascertain the role of gender on job performance among high school teachers

Statement of Hypotheses

- (a) There will be a significant relationship between work environment and job performance among high school teachers
- (b) Teachers with higher years of working experience score higher on job performance than teachers with lower years of working experience
- (c) Male teacher score higher on job performance than female teachers

Goal-setting Theory

knowledge by investing the role of built work environment on job performance among high school teachers

The performance and the growth of the students are of great concerned not only to the schools but also for their entire society. It has also been observed that the performance of some high school teachers is declining. One of the factor that attention is always focused-on is pay rise while neglecting the environmental factors.

Most workplace environment in organizations tend to be unhealthy and unsafe. This involves unsuitable furniture, poorly designed offices, lack of ventilation, excessive noise, poor lighting, lack of protective equipment for human resource and inadequate safety measures (Duru & Shimawua, 2019). As such, individuals working within that kind of environment are susceptible to occupational disease and this influences their productivity. The environment in most government organizations and public companies according to Manu, (2015) are insecure and harmful to employees in terms of air quality, equipment and tools, furniture, security measures, lighting as well as workplace design. Consequently, employees who work under this kind of environment are subjected to job related diseases and their work productivity is likely to be influenced.

Noble (2009) states that more attention should be paid in identifying and dealing with working environment because when employee have negative perception to their environment they sometimes suffer from chronic stress. The working environment also includes policies, rules, culture, resources, working relationships, work location, internal and external environmental factors, all of which influence the ways that employee perform their job functions

The goal-setting theory had been proposed by Edwin Locke in the year 1968. This theory suggests that the individual goals established by an employee play an important role in motivating him for superior performance. Skills required include the ability to engage employees in mutual goal setting clarify role expectations and provide regular performance feedback. Time and energy will also need to be given to providing relevant performance incentives, managing processes, providing adequate resources and workplace training. It also advice that in order to drive the organization to peak performance managers and supervisors must put out front the human face of their organization. Principle here is the human-to-human interaction through providing individualized support and encouragement to each and every employee (Salaman & Storey, 2005). Employee performance is a major multidimensional construct aimed to achieve results and has a strong link with planned goals of an organization (Abbas and Yaqoob, 2009). Performance is the key multi character factor intended to attain outcomes which has a major connection with planned objectives of the organization (Sabir, Iqbal, Rehman, Shah, & Yameen,

2012) Employees 'goals achievement in this theory is by creating of work environment attractive, comfortable, satisfactory and motivating to employees so as to give them a sense of pride and purpose in what they do. How working environment is designed and occupied affects not only how people feel, but also their work performance, commitment to their employer, and the creation of new knowledge in the organization (Taiwo, 2009).

Expectancy Theory

The most widely accepted explanations of motivation have been propounded by Victor Vroom. His theory is commonly known as expectancy theory. The theory argues that the strength of a tendency to act in a specific way depends on the strength of an expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual to make this simple. Expectancy theory says that an employee can be motivated to perform better when there is a belief that the better performance will lead to good performance appraisal and shall result into realization of personal goal in form of some reward future events. The theory focuses on three things efforts and performance relationship, performance and reward relationship, rewards and personal goal relationship (Salaman et al, 2005).

This theory is based on the hypothesis that individuals adjust their behavior in the organization on the basis of anticipated satisfaction of valued goals set by them. In order for employees to perform in this theory is by making sure each employee's workplace goals and values are aligned with the organization's mission and vision is important for creating and maintaining a high level of motivation. That can lead to higher productivity, improve employee performance, reduce the chances of low employee morale, encourage teamwork and instill a positive attitude during challenging times (Salaman et al, 2005).

Empirical Review

The empirical analysis gives a discourse on various studies in relation to working environment and how it impacts on employee productivity. In a review of Brenner, (2012) in a work place for steel case, he identified the employees perceive and needs to improve their productivity in the work environment as being; better lighting, creative methods for assessing space, personalization, more impromptu meeting for work well done and involvement in the decision that impact everyday lives at work. He at that point inferred that, an organization that wants to ensure employee productivity improvements will exploit those tools used for managing the work environment in which such employees work. These incorporate a successful workplace that is appealing, creative, comfortable, satisfactory and motivating to employees so as to give employees a feeling of pride and reason in what they do. Akinyele (2014) conducted a research on the influence of work environment on workers' productivity:

A case of selected oil and gas industry in Lagos, Nigeria. The respondents were randomly chosen from four selected oil and gas industry in Lagos metropolis. Primary data used for this study were collected with the aid of a close ended structured questionnaire. T-test was used to test the research hypotheses. The results of T-test indicate that conducive work environment stimulates creativity of workers, hence their productivity. It means that unhealthy working conditions contribute to low productivity of employees.

Hope, Arachie, Ibrahim and Okoli, (2018) examined the nature of relationship that exists between physical working environment and employee performance in selected Brewing Firms in Anambra State. The work was anchored on the human relation theory. The work adopted a survey research design. The population of the study was 550 and sample size was 233 arrived at using Taro Yamane formula while the questionnaire was allocated using Bowley's proportion allocation formula. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation statistics was utilized in the test of hypotheses. The finding revealed that there is a significant relationship between ergonomic and job satisfaction in the studied firms. The study recommended that equipment and machineries should be made to suit the workers, manning them by management of the focused firms, and as well, they should put the employee's health into consideration in situating machineries as this will lower the hazard rate and also lower error rate of the workers.

Chika and Dominic (2017) investigated the effect of work environment on employee productivity using Edo City Transport Service. The objective was to ascertain whether the nature of work environment led to low productivity, absenteeism and lateness among employees. From the research findings, good office environment goes a long way to enhance employee morale and performance. Also, if the office is neat, noiseless, properly arranged well lighted and ventilated, employees will feel a sense of belonging and this will make them to work efficiently and effectively.

Naharuddin and Sadegi (2013) studied the factors of workplace environment and its effect on employee's performance: A case study of Miyazu Malaysia. Data was collected through the survey method; a total of 139 employees participated from three main workplaces of Miyazu, Malaysia. Result from the study shows that job aid and physical workplace environment have significant relationship towards the employees' performance.

Christian (2015) investigated the effects of work environment on employee's productivity in government organizations in Obuasi Municipality. 100 questionnaires were administered to the employees of Obuasi Municipal Assembly. A response rate of 78% was achieved. The data collected from the employees was analyzed using multiple regression and descriptive statistics. It was found that, each of the components that define work environment

were statistically significant to productivity of the Municipal Assembly.

Findings by Ajala (2012) indicate that workplace environmental elements such as sufficient light, absence of noise, proper ventilation and layout arrangement substantially increase employees' performance. Puneet (2017) Affirm that a positive work environment is important for worker's satisfaction, health, and even productivity.

A research by Roelofsen (2002) indicates that improving the working environment reduces complains and absenteeism while increasing productivity. Better physical workplace environment will boost the employee and ultimately their performance. A related study done by Chevalier (2004) revealed that when environmental supports are sound, employees are better equipped to do what is expected of them. Chandrasekar (2011) also reported that unsafe and unhealthy workplace environment in terms of poor ventilation, inappropriate lighting, excessive noise etc., affect workers' productivity and health.

A study was conducted by Muchiri, (2016) to establish effects of rewards on employee performance in the hospitality industry in Kenya. The researcher adopted a descriptive survey design. The study had a population of 467, a target population of 100 and a sample size of 80. The data was then analyzed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS. The findings of the study established that intrinsic and extrinsic rewards address employees at the core of their needs, and as a result, form sufficient base that influences and motivates the employees to higher standards of performance.

A study conducted was by Ali Yassin, Abdiaziz and Abdiqani (2013) (to analyze the impact of rewards on the employee performance, by considering the case of Tesco in UK. The researcher used mixed design and collected both qualitative and quantitative data. The study deduced that there are different types of intrinsic and extrinsic variables that impact the employee performance. The intrinsic rewards include delegation, empowerment and appreciation whereas the extrinsic rewards include salary, promotion, bonus and fringe benefits.

Mohamud, (2014) carried out a study to investigate the effect of training on employee performance in public sector organizations in Kenya. The researcher employed descriptive survey research design and quantitative data analysis was done using Microsoft Office Excel 2007 and SPSS. The finds revealed that training has a significant impact on employee's performance and benefits both the individual employees and the organization at large. Another study on effects of training on employee performance in nations support office for African union mission in Somalia was conducted by Githinji, (2014). The researcher adopted survey research design and data was analyzed using SPSS. The study revealed that training imparts positively on job satisfaction by influencing the work activities.

A study was carried out by Nespoli, (2017) to examine impact of supervisor support on employee job satisfaction among fundraising staff within higher education and the research used a primarily qualitative design. Qualitative study involved interviews with 16 fundraisers working in higher education institutions. The findings related that supervisors' impacts on employee' job satisfaction, performance and intention to stay. Another study on the influence of supervisor employee relation on employees' performance in the hospitality industry was carried out in Tanzania by Majule, (2017). The researcher employed a cross sectional research design and the researcher used SPSS for the analysis of quantitative data. The study revealed that found that closely working of employees with their managers enhance relationships, which turn into improved productivity. The researcher further, found that factors which affects the employee's relations were supervision style and internal communication by managers, where the closely and friendly supervision is a likely to enhance worker's productivity or performance.

A study conducted by Duru and Shimawua, (2017) to explore the effect of work environment on employee productivity in city transport services in Nigeria, the researcher employed a survey design with his respondents comprised of executives, administrators and drivers in Edo City Transport Service of Benin City. The findings were that a decent working environment increase individual output therefore leading to growth of the organization. Further, in a survey conducted in Australian in 2016 indicated that 72% of workers said an obsolete innovation was harming their productivity and along these lines organization require workplace tools that help the employees to accomplish results that are explicit to their business.

Awan and Tahir, (2015) conducted a study to find out the impact of workplace environment in relation to employee's productivity in Banks and Insurance company in Pakistan, a descriptive , a descriptive cross-sectional survey was done with a population of drawn from the banks and insurance industry.

Data was then gathered from the both new joiners and experienced employees. The data was then analyzed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS. The findings of the study established that working environment is helpful increasing employees' level of productivity. In Kenya, some studies have been conducted to explore impacts of work environment on employee productivity in certain firms. Nazushi, (2015) studied firms in Kenya and sought to study the effect of workplace environment on mobile telecommunication employee's performance. Data collected was from the three major telecommunication companies in Kenya. The researcher employed a descriptive design. Findings in this study indicated that employees will always perform when they have a feeling that their immediate work environment state matches their obligations.

Nadeem, Ahmad, Muhammad and Hamad (2014) scrutinized varied companies in Multan city, Pakistan to determine if they were significant influences from motivation on employee productivity. Conclusions from the studies agreed with the overall deduction that these workplace environment factors greatly dictated the employee productivity. Another study by Ibrahim and Brobbey (2015) was carried out to investigate the performance of employees in the financial sector in Ghana, and it revealed that, through recognition of the employee's, granting them leadership opportunities and constant interaction with their superiors, employees actually increased their motivation hence their productivity. Additionally, the study found out that motivation within an organisation enhanced individual productivity and this helped employees meet their set personal needs and in the long-run achieving the organisational goals.

Method

This section provides detailed information regarding the method that was employed to evaluate the role of built work environment on job performance among high school teachers. The chapter integrated the information about the research design, research setting, study population, instruments that were administered, procedures used, and the methods that were used to analyze the obtained information. The research was conducted at selected schools under the Lagos State Education District III. They include, St. George's Primary School Falomo-Ikoyi, Falomo High School Lagos, Start Rite School Lagos, Aome Secondary School, Ruxton Road Ikoyi, Madonna International School and Ireti Senior Grammar School. The research population for this project consists of high school teachers in the Falomo-Ikoyi area of Lagos, Nigeria. High school teachers refer to individuals who are employed as educators in public or private high schools and are responsible for teaching various subjects to students in the secondary school level.

Public and private schools: Teachers from both public and private high schools will be included to ensure a diverse representation of the teaching population.

Different subject areas: Teachers from various subject areas (e.g., mathematics, science, social subjects, and languages) are included to capture a range of perspectives and experiences.

The research population encompasses teachers of varying age groups, genders, years of teaching experience, and educational qualifications. By including a diverse sample of high school teachers, the study aims to capture a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between the built work environment and job performance among this specific population. Purposive sampling technique was used in selecting the participants. It is a purposive sampling technique because the researcher has chosen the participants (teachers) which he intends to use in the study. A stratified technique was also adopted because the researcher has divided the participants section

by section according to their work schedule, departments and work cadre. The participants were randomly adopted from these sections.

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. This is due to the nature of the study as it sought to establish the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and none of the variables will be actively manipulated. The dependent variable is job performance while the independent variable is work environment. Two instruments were used to collect data from participants in this study. The instruments are Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES), and Perceived Organizational Support Scales.

Job Performance

The Endicott Work Productivity Scale (EWPS; Endicott, & Nee, 1997): The Endicott Work Productivity Scale (EWPS) is a brief self-report questionnaire developed to quantify the frequency of work performance and productivity attitudes and behaviors during the past week (e.g., 'Arrive at work late or leave work early', 'Have trouble organizing work or setting priorities'). The EWPS consists of 25 items, and each is rated on a 5-point scale (0=never; 4=almost always). The reliability and validity of EWPS has only been tested in patients with depression. The author reported a high internal consistency of 0.93 and 0.92 (Cronbach's α) with psychiatric sample and community sample respectively. A significant correlation of EWPS total score was also reported with Global Clinical Index of Severity, Symptom Checklist (SCL)-90 total scores and Zimmerman total scores in both psychiatric and community samples.

Work environment

Work environment is measured with Perceived Organizational Support Scales developed by Eisenberger et al (1986) was used to measure employee perceptions about the extent to which an organization is willing to reward greater efforts by the employee because the organization values the employee's contribution and cares about his or her well-being. The measures include eight items that measure an employee's perceptions of the degree to which the organization values the worker's contributions and nine items about notions that the organization might take that which would affect the well-being of the employee. On the reliability: Coefficient alpha values ranged from .74 to .95 (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth 1997; Eisenberger, Cummings, Aremi & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger et al, 1990 Hutchinson, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998, Lee & Ashforth, 1993; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999.

On the validity: Perceived organizational support correlated positively with overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment, direct and indirect control at work, job discretion, interpersonal helping, affective attachment to the organization, play/promotion

expectancies, approval/recognition expectancies, and employee performance ratings (Cropanzano et al 1997; Eisenberger et al 1997; Eisenberger et al., 1998) Perceived organizational support correlated negatively with perceived organisational politics, turnover intentions, days absent, role stress, and emotional exhaustion (Cropanzano et al., 1997 Eisenberger et al 1990 Lee & Ashforth, 1993.)

Procedure

The researcher went to the organizations where this study took place to consult with the human resource managers that are in charge in order to engage their employees in the study. The purpose of the study was explained to the employees. The human resource manager granted the researcher permission and asked the researcher to come back on a fixed date.

On the second phase, the researcher met with the respondents in their various organizations and sought for their consent to participate in the research. The participants were told that the aim of the study was for academic purposes and that know information that they gave would be disclosed or used against them. In fact, they were given anonymity by telling them not to write their names or any personal information about them on the questionnaires. Questionnaires were given to participants who agreed to participate after establishing rapport. They were told that there is no right or wrong answer to the questions therein. The researcher ensured that participants understand the contents of the questionnaire and also ensure that they are properly completed before collecting them. Ample time will be given to the participants to read the questionnaire and ask questions where they are confused. The questionnaires were collected after filling them and they were scored according to the manual of the scales. The data collected was analyzed using SPSS version 20. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationship between the variables.

Results

Data collected in this study was subjected to statistical analysis obtaining the mean score and standard deviation of all the variables. The hypotheses were tested using correlation, regression and t-test.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of job performance and work environment by gender

Description Variables		Job performance		Work environment	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Gender	Male	70.67	7.47	61.38	6.20
	Female	69.14	6.20	63.37	8.06

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation of job performance and work environment, by gender. On job performance, the result revealed that male participants reported a higher mean score (M= 70.67; SD=7.47) compared to their female counterparts (M=69.14; SD=

6.20). On work environment, male participants recorded similar mean score (M= 61.38; SD=6.20) than their female counterparts (M=63.37; SD= 8.06).

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant relationship between work environment and job performance among high school teachers

In order to determine the relationship between work environment and job performance, Pearson moment correlation analysis was carried out. The result is presented in table 3.

Table 2: Correlation between work environment and job performance

Variable	Mean	SD	R	P
Job performance	69.92	8.64	1	
Work environment	62.36	7.22	.398*	P<0.05

P<0.05*

Table 2 reveals that work environment has significant positive correlation with job performance (r = .398*; p<0.05). The positive correlation is due to higher levels of work environment scores resulting in higher levels of job performance. Thus the hypothesis one which states that there will be a significant positive relationship between work environment e and job performance is hereby accepted.

To determine the contribution of pay satisfaction to the prediction of work engagement, regression analysis was computed. The result is presented in Table 2.

Table 3: Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the contributions of work environment to the prediction of job performance.

Variables	B	Beta	T	Sig.	R	R2	F-ratio	Pv
Work environment	.476	.398	5.095	.01	.398	.158	25.959	P<0.05

The result indicated that work environment significantly contributes to the variance in job performance (Beta= .398, t= 5.095 at p<0.05). This shows that work environment yielded significant coefficient of regression R2 = .158 (p<0.05). This shows that work environment accounted for 15.8% of the observed variance on job performance.

Hypothesis 2: Teachers with higher years of working experience score higher on job performance than teachers with lower years of working experience

Table 4: Independent t-test comparison of job performance by male and female participants

Variables	Working experience	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig.	Pv
job performance	1-5yrs 6yrs &above	75 65	68.46 71.60	7.68 9.40	-2.168	138	.03	Not Sig

Table 4 shows that there is a significant difference on job performance between teachers with higher years of experience and participant with lower years of experience, 1-5yrs had a score of (68.46) and 6yrs &above mean score of (71.60) at t-test comparison value of -2.168 at $p < 0.05$. Thus the hypotheses which stated teachers with higher years of working experience score higher on job performance than teachers with lower years of working experience is hereby rejected.

Discussion

The study explored the role of built work environment on job performance among high school teachers. The sole aim of the study is to examine the relationship between built work environment and job performance among high school teachers, the influence of working experience on job performance among high school teachers and the role of gender on job performance among high school teachers. The finding of the first hypothesis revealed that work environment has significant positive relationship with teacher performance (job performance). This shows that it is the responsibilities of the organization to provide friendly working environment which will influence employees to work comfortable and perform their job. By having a good environment, the employees could apply their energy and their full attention to perform. This result is in agreement with the reports of Christina, Brahmana and Febrianti (2020); Chika and Dominic (2017) whose results indicate that employee performance can be influenced by the organizational environment in the form of internal control and leadership style. The work environment contributes to teacher’s performance because the environment acts as advocate for employees by gathering and distributing the resources needed by the employees which provide positive encouragement for a job well done. As the working environment factor, a friendly environmental role is important to encourage positive relations and increase self-confidence of the employee and in return improve employee performance. The finding of this study is also supported by the two-factor theory which points out that the environment in which the job is performed motivates the employees to perform better. This finding implies that it is the responsibilities of the organization to provide friendly working environment which will influence employees to work comfortable and perform their job. By having a good environment, the employees could apply their energy and their full attention to perform work Venkataramani, Labianca, and Grosser (2013).

The finding of the second hypotheses revealed that teachers with higher years of working experience score higher on job performance than teachers with lower years of working experience. This mean that experience matters in teaching and impacting knowledge to the students. The finding is supported by the work of Ochonma, and Nwodoh, (2018) which revealed that an increase in the number of years of experience would increase skills on programme planning skill, employee motivation and preparation of strategic plan for the managers. Also the finding aligned with the earlier result which showed that as the years of managers’ experience increases, the skill on creating a vision for would increases (Isa, Ugheoke& Noor,2016).

The finding of the third hypothesis revealed no significant difference between male and female employees job performance. This implies that the level of performance has nothing to do with individual gender identity. So, it was concluded that both male and female teachers are committed to their organization at the same level. This finding is in line with the study carried out by Kmec and Gorman (2010) who raised some questions about gender role on organizational commitment such as do men and women differ in the extent to which they work beyond the level require by their jobs. The result of their study showed no gender difference among the employees with regards to job performance. Also, in a study carried out on 436 government employees in Kuwait, Al-Jayaweera (2015) found that even though the male employees had a higher score on job performance, there was no significant difference between male and female samples. Therefore, the findings of this study support the finding of previous studies that male employees and employees in teaching job perform well to their organization at the same level. This means that the tendency to perform well is not related to individual biological identity.

Conclusion

From the above analysis we have reached the conclusion that working environment is helpful increasing teachers’ level of productivity. Factors like management support, good relation with coworkers, training and development, attractive and fast incentives and recognition plans and adequate work load are helpful in developing a working environment that has positive impact on teachers’ level of performance. The study also concluded that years of teaching experiences help in impacting knowledge to the student and also enhance the teacher’s performance. The results also send a message to school management, that gender identity does not play a significant role in teacher’s performance.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered based on the findings:

The organization should also ensure that the workplace environment is comfortable enough to support teacher's performance by improving the working conditions.

Improving the working environment will increase teachers' performance. When the working environmental supports are sound, teacher are better equipped to do what is expected to them. They then subsequently manage to achieve organizational goals.

Since the work environment is at the core of influencing teachers' performance, these school's management should work hard at availing every needed resource in making sure that the work environment supports their teacher performance.

The findings of this research will enable the organization to know how to address the issues concerning the employees and its work environment as it crops up and also to consider office design as an important factor in increasing employees' productivity.

Physical workplace environment is really significant in maintaining the employees' performance. Organization needs to consider about their physical workplace environment in order to increase the effectiveness of employee performance and to achieve the company's goals. In the workplace, it is often assumed that employees who are more satisfied with the physical environment are more likely to produce better work outcomes.

It will serve as a blueprint in determining the actual workplace environment needed and the impact it has on employee's performance. This study will also help the organization on how to ensure that the employees are satisfied with their workplace environment and ensure all the needs are fulfilled.

The organization must provide enough facilities for their employees to perform their work.

For example, in filing room the organization should provide with suitable drawers to arrange the files and make sure they are easy to retrieve. It can avoid the loss of documents and all documents are kept safely from unauthorized person. This is also crucial as simple work procedures may increase employee's performance.

References

- Abbas, Q. and Yaqoob, S. (2009). Effect of leadership development on employee performance in Pakistan, Pakistan. *Economic and Social Review*, Vol. 47, pp. 269-292.
- Adair, J. (1988). *The effective supervisor*. London: The Industrial Society
- Ajala, E. M. (2012). *The Influence of Workplace Environment on Workers' Welfare, Performance and Productivity*, Available at: www.semanticscholar.org/paper.
- Akinyele, T. S. (2014). *The influence of work environment on workers' productivity: A case of selected oil and gas industry in Lagos*. Nigeria African Journal of Business Management, 4(3): 299-307.
- Ali Yassin S. A., Abdiaziz A. A. & Abdiqani A. A. (2013). Working conditions and employees' productivity in manufacturing companies in Sub-Saharan African context: case of Somalia. *Educational Research International*, 2 (2)
- Amir, F. (2010). *Measuring the impact of office environment on performance level of employees*. Global Environment. Bhurban, Pakistan appraisal. Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley.
- Briner, R.B. (2012). Relationships Between Work Environments, Psychological Environments & Psychological Well-Being. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*, 50., (5) 299-303.
- Chandrasekar, K. (2011). *Workplace environment and its impact on organizational performance in Public Sector Organizations*, Alagappa University, Karaikudi, India
- Chandrasekar. K. (2011). *Workplace Environment and its Impact on Organizational Performance in Public Sector Organizations*, International Journal Of Enterprise Computing and Business Systems, Vol:1, Issue:1
- Chika, E. D. and Dominic, S. (2017). *The effect of work environment on employee productivity: A case study of edo city transport services benin city, Edo State Nigeria*. *European Journal of Business and Innovation Research*, 5(5): 23-39.
- Chika, E. D., & Dominic, S. (2017). *The effect of work environment on employee productivity: A case study of edo city transport services benin city, Edo State Nigeria*. *European Journal of Business & Innovation Research*, 5(5), 23-39.
- Christian (2015). *Effects of work environment on employee's productivity in government organizations in Obuasi Municipality*. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana
- Christina, V., Brahmana, S.S., and Febrianti, R. A. M. (2020). *Influence of organizational environment on employee performance study in the government of the district city*. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation*, 24(1),
- Cooper, C., & Dewe, P. (2004). *Stress, a brief history*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Cropanzano. R. & Mitchell, M.S. (2005). *Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review*. *Journal of Management*, 31(6):874-900
- Duncan, C. S. (1985). *Job aid really can work*. *Performance and Instruction*, 24(4), 1- 4.
- Duru, C. E. & Shimawua, D. (2019). *the effect of work environment on employee productivity: a case study of Edo city transport services Benin city*,

- Edo State Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Innovation Research*, 7(2);22-37
- Govindarajulu, N, & Bonnie, F. (2004). Motivating Employees for Environmental Improvement. *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, 104 (4), pp. 364-372.
- Harris, R., Simon, M., & Bone, J.(2000). Re thinking the role of workplace trainer, NCVER, Adelaide.
- Homans. G.C. (1961). *Social behavior*. NY: Harcourt Brace.
- Hope, N. N., Arachie, A., Ibrahim, M. and Okoli, G. (2018). Physical work environment and employee performance in selected brewing firms in Anambra State, Nigeria. *Journal of Good Governance and Sustainable Development in Africa*, 4(2): 131-14.
- Isa, M. F. M., Ugheoke, S. O., & Noor, W. S. W. (2016). The Influence of Organizational Culture on Employees' Performance: Evidence from Oman. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Business*, 4(2), 1-12.
- Jayaweera, T. (2015). Impact of Work Environmental Factors on Job Performance, Mediating Role of Work Motivation: A Study of Hotel Sector in England. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 10(3), 271-278.
- Korsgaard, M.I. (2010). Paying you back or paying me forward: Understanding rewarded and unrewarded organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(2), 277-290
- Levine, T. R. Kim, S. (2010). Social exchange, uncertainty, and communication content as factors impacting the relational outcomes of betrayal. *Human Communication* 13: 303- 318.
- Molm, L. D. (2003). Theoretical comparisons and forms of exchange. *Sociological Theory*, 21:1, 1-17
- Nadeem, M., & Ahmad, N. (2014). Impact of Employee Motivation on Employee Performance (A Case Study of Private firms: Multan District, Pakistan). *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*.
- Naharuddin, N. and Sadegi, M. (2013). Factors of workplace environment that affect employees performance: A case study of Miyazu Malaysia. *International Journal of Independent Research and Studies*, 2(2): 66-78.
- Nijman, D. J. J. (2004). Differential effects of supervisor support on transfer of training. Enchede: University of Twente.
- Ochonma, O. G. & Nwodoh, C. O. (2018). Assessing the impact of years of work experience on managers' job performance: hospital managers' perspectives in a developing country. *International Journal of Advanced Academic Research | Sciences, Technology & Engineering | ISSN: 2488-9849 Vol. 4, Issue 4 (April 2018)*
- Rabey, G. (2007). Diagnose – then act: Some thoughts on training today. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 39(3), 164-169.
- Roelofsen (2002). The impact of office environments on employee performance, Available at: www.academia.edu.
- Rossett, A, and Downes, G.(2014).What are job aids. Retrieved from <http://edweb.sdsu.edu/Courses/EDTEC540/540WWW/sect1/> th January. 2014.
- Sabir, M. S., Iqbal, J. J., Rehman, K., Shah, K. A. & Yameen, M. (2012).Impact of corporate ethical values on ethical leadership and employee performance. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, Vol. 3, pp. 163-171.
- Salaman, G. & Storey, J. B. (2005). *Strategic Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice*.2nd Edition. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Taiwo, A. S. (2009). The influence of work environment on workers' productivity: a case of selected oil and gas industry in Lagos, Nigeria. *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 4,pp. 299-307
- Venkataramani, V., Labianca, G. J., & Grosser, T. (2013). Positive and negative workplace relationships, social satisfaction, and organizational attachment. *Journal of applied psychology*, 98(6), 1028.
- Zafirovski, M. (2005) Effects of power, status and class on who gets what income, *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 2(12), 22-53