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The Problem of Managing Bicycling Mobility in Latin American Cities: Ciclovias Recreativas Programs as Political Technologies and Governance

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Abstract- This theoretical essay aims at presenting the problem of managing bicycling mobility in Latin American cities through political technologies for planning C*iclovías Recreativas* programs. According to Estrada et al. (2009), C*iclovías Recreativas* consist of events that temporarily open public roads for physical activities, restricting access to motorized vehicles. They generally take place on Sundays and holidays, lasting an average of six hours, and have varying names depending on the country. Despite the management efforts of the Latin American region's main metropolitan areas expanding accessibility for bicyclists through the implementation of bicycling infrastructure, C*iclovías Recreativas* simultaneously promote, within a specific timeframe, the playful experimentation of bicycling mobility. These events, by modifying the dynamics of public roads, have the capacity to include the entire population in participation; however, it seems strategic to investigate how these programs can enhance mobility practices that foster a bicycling culture. The text is organized into four parts: 1) Researcher's perspective: an exposition of the research trajectory situating problematic field; 2) Urban mobility, Cycle Activism, and the use of bicycles on public roads: this section seeks to specify the path of research on public policies for active bicycle mobility; 3) Political technologies and agency: theoretical framework of the Human Sciences for the analytical interpretation; 4) Recreational Ciclovías Recreativas in the Latin American context.

Keywords: bicycling, ciclovías recreativas, public policy, city planning, urban mobility.

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THEPROBLEMOFMANAGINGBICYCLINGMOBILITYINLATINAMERICANCITIESCICLOVIASRECREATIVASPROGRAMSASPOLITICALTECHNOLOGIESANDGOVERNANCE

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

The Problem of Managing Bicycling Mobility in Latin American Cities: Ciclovias Recreativas Programs as Political Technologies and Governance

Leandro Dri Manfiolete Troncoso

Abstract- This theoretical essay aims at presenting the problem of managing bicycling mobility in latin-american cities through political technologies for planning C*iclovías Recreativas* programs. According Estrada et al. (2009), C*iclovías Recreativas* consist of events that temporarily open public roads for physical activities, restricting access to motorized vehicles. They generally take place on Sundays and holidays, lasting an average of six hours, and have varying names depending on the country. Despite the management efforts of the Latin American region's main metropolitan areas expanding accessibility for bicyclists through the implementation of bicycling infrastructure, C*iclovías Recreativas* simultaneously promote, within a specific timeframe, the playful experimentation of bicycling mobility. These events, by modifying the dynamics of public roads, have the capacity to include the entire population in participation; however, it seems strategic to investigate how these programs can enhance mobility practices that foster a bicycling culture. The text is organized into four parts: 1) Researcher's perspective: an exposition of the research trajectory situating problematic field; 2) Urban mobility, cycle activism, and the use of bicycles on public roads: this section seeks to specify the path of research on public policies for active bicycle mobility; 3) Political technologies and agency: theoretical framework of the Human Sciences for the analytical interpretation; 4) Recreational Ciclovías Recreativas in the Latin American context. Given the asymmetrical political relations spheres power between cyclists and drivers motorized vehicles, the justification research lies in problematizing the scope of government technologies that expand conditions possibility agencyment bicycling use in Latin American cities.

Keywords: bicycling, ciclovías recreativas, public policy, city planning, urban mobility.

I. Introdução

Este ensaio teórico buscou apresentar o problema do agenciamento da mobilidade ativa por bicicleta nas cidades por meio da noção foucaultiana de tecnologias políticas para gestão do planejamento dos programas de ciclovias recreativas. Para Estrada *et al.* (2009) ciclovias recreativas consistem em eventos de abertura temporal das vias públicas para a realização de atividades físicas, com restrição do acesso aos veículos motorizados. Acontecem geralmente aos domingos e feriados, com duração média de seis horas e nomenclatura variável a cada país.

No contexto sul-americano de planejamento da mobilidade urbana, nos importa diagnosticar de que forma os programas de ciclovias recreativas reproduzem uma gestão qualificada de trânsito inclusiva. Ao diagnosticar as tecnologias de governo que constituem sua organização política institucional, buscaremos circunscrever as correlações de forças configuradas na presença do que consideramos uma racionalidade política governamental disposta para os transportes motorizados como um heterogêneo de elementos discursivos e não-discursivos, que informam a concepção de uma política institucional estruturante do espaço viário.

Apesar dos esforços de gestão das principais metrópoles da região em ampliar a acessibilidade dos ciclistas com a implantação de infraestrutura cicloviária, as ciclovias recreativas paralelamente promovem, numa temporalidade específica, a experimentação lúdica do ciclismo urbano. Estes eventos, ao modificarem as dinâmicas das vias públicas, contém a capacidade de incluir a toda a população a participar, mas para tanto, nos parece estratégico investigar como esses programas podem potencializar práticas de mobilidade agenciadoras da cultura de bicicleta.

O texto está organizado em duas partes. No "Campo problemático", apresenta-se a perspectiva do investigador, os conceitos de mobilidade urbana, cicloativismo e o uso da bicicleta nas vias públicas, os conceitos de tecnologias políticas e agenciamento e o conceito de ciclovias recreativas no contexto latino-americano. Na Revisão da Literatura, apresentamos o Estado da Arte a partir dos seguintes tópicos: 1) Associação entre saúde pública e ciclovias recreativas; 2) Abordagem multissetorial para criação de ambientes de atividades físicas em ciclovias recreativas; 3) Acessibilidade e inclusão social em ciclovias recreativas; 4) Associação entre infraestrutura cicloviária e ciclovias recreativas; 5) Sustentabilidade dos programas de ciclovias recreativas; 6) Conhecimento, poder e governança em ciclovias recreativas.

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II. Campo Problemático

a) Perspectiva do Investigador

A partir do envolvimento fenomenológico com o ciclismo urbano descrito na dissertação de mestrado, sobre a perspectiva dos cicloativistas da cidade de São Paulo, buscou-se ampliar o percurso de pesquisa. Este caminho decorre da compreensão da diversidade das práticas de mobilidade ciclista no contexto da sua promoção com ciclovias recreativas.

No primeiro semestre de 2015, foi realizada uma cicloviagem do interior do estado até a capital paulista para entrevistar pessoas envolvidas em diversas áreas de atuação com bicicleta e participar da formação sobre ciclomobilidade da Associação dos Ciclistas Urbanos de São Paulo (CICLOCIDADE). Desta investigação, resultaram duas pesquisas sobre práticas de mobilidade ciclística: a) do cicloativismo como direito humano às mobilidades ativas (TRONCOSO et al., 2018); b) do sentido político aplicado aos trabalhos de mecânica de bicicleta, gerente de agência bike courier, organizador de eventos com mountain bike, administrador de bike shop e gestora pública de infraestrutura cicloviária (TRONCOSO et al., 2019).

Neste processo de pesquisa, ao buscar compreender as diversas práticas de mobilidade com ciclismo urbano na cidade de São Paulo, percebe-se que nas cidades do interior o interesse da população pelo *mountain bike* tem sido tanto para ter contatos com paisagens rurais, bem como a fruição de pedalar em segurança distante do trânsito urbano. Com o aumento da procura por este tipo de atividade física, decorre a formação de diversos grupos ciclísticos que se reúnem no tempo livre e do aumento no comércio de peças, equipamentos e serviços com bicicletas.

De outra maneira, as políticas públicas de mobilidade ativa por bicicleta têm sido pouco incorporadas nesses territórios. A obrigação das gestões municipais elaborarem seus Planos de Mobilidade Urbana e que inclusive contam com um documento guia (BRASIL, 2015). Porém, sem uma normativa legislada, o caminho dos cicloativistas em exigir o seu direito, torna-se mais complexo para que os cidadãos se articulem para interpelar as autoridades no cumprimento da política nacional, principalmente com o estabelecimento de ações educativas com bicicleta.

No segundo semestre de 2015, foi realizada uma outra viagem de bicicleta dentro da Colômbia para realizar intercâmbio acadêmico na *Universidad de Antioquia* (UdeA) em Medellín. Esta cicloviagem entre Medellín-Bogotá (ida-e-volta), teve por objetivo entrevistar gestores públicos, cicloativistas, professores, mecânicos e ex-atleta de ciclismo de estrada de renome internacional (TRONCOSO et al., 2022). Estas entrevistas foram realizadas para poder conhecer melhor o campo das políticas cicloativistas, educativas e de gestão públicas de incentivo à mobilidade ativa por bicicleta neste país ao ampliar as perspectivas de agenciamento do seu uso.

No primeiro semestre de 2016, pedalamos aproximadamente 4500 km pelo continente sul-americano, passando por Brasil, Uruguai, Argentina e Chile, para conhecer uma rede de cicloativistas, teve como objetivo participar do *V Foro Mundial de la Bicicleta (FMB) – Energia Humana, Poder Ciudadano*. Durante o trajeto, foram realizadas 30 entrevistas com políticos, mecânicos, professores e cicloativistas.

Em 2017, ao cursar a disciplina "Práticas Sociais e Processos Educativos" do Programa de Pós-graduação em Educação da Universidade Federal de São Carlos (UFSCar), foi refletido criticamente a partir dos referenciais teóricos de Paulo Freire e Enrique Dussel sobre os processos educativos vivenciados na práxis de libertação cicloativista. Pode-se afirmar que para avançar da atual situação de exclusão desta posição epistemológica nas políticas de mobilidade urbana, considera-se a formação do diálogo institucional apoiado pela universidade com o poder público na promoção da cultura de bicicleta (TRONCOSO et al., 2018).

Entre dezembro de 2017 e janeiro de 2018, foi realizada outra cicloviagem, pedalando aproximadamente 3500 km entre os estados de São Paulo, Minas Gerais, Bahia, Espírito Santo e Rio de Janeiro para entrevistar agricultores na perspectiva do cicloturismo agroecológico. A promoção da cultura da bicicleta nestes contextos, contém potencial de ser uma alternativa propulsora para o desenvolvimento da motricidade humana entre ciclistas urbanos e agricultores familiares produtores de alimentos orgânicos, preservando conscientemente a biodiversidade gerando benefícios para o ambiente da saúde coletiva (TRONCOSO et al., 2020).

Em um trabalho sobre a promoção do uso da bicicleta, na perspectiva de docentes universitários em Brasil, Colômbia e Chile, com práticas de mobilidade ciclísticas, na análise discursiva, emergiram as unidades de significado: 1) Ciclismo urbano como temática de pesquisa; 2) Articulação político-institucional para a mobilidade ativa; 3) Ensino-aprendizagem do pedalar na cidade, geradores da categoria "Cultura da bicicleta como processo cognitivo-educativo". Para os autores, o incentivo ao uso da bicicleta contém potencial de política institucional e de alternativa emergente interdisciplinar de ensino, pesquisa e extensão (TRONCOSO et al., 2019).

Buscou-se compreender os processos educativos vivenciados por mecânicos de bicicleta com longa experiência em seis contextos laborais. Na análise discursiva, emergiram as unidades de significado: ensino-aprendizagem no trabalho com bicicleta; b) influência tecnológica no ciclismo; c) saúde e cuidados ao pedalar que sustentam a categoria

"Mecânica da bicicleta como processo cognitivo-educativo". Para os autores, a mecânica de bicicleta é parte fundamental do fenômeno das práticas de mobilidade com efeitos na realidade urbana. (TRONCOSO et al., 2020).

Entre 2018-2019, na cidade de Valdivia, Chile, foi trabalhado junto com a Direção de Serviços da *Universidad Austral de Chile* (UACH), a criação do espaço de mecânica colaborativa "*Bicicletería Austral*". Em paralelo, foi desenvolvido junto ao *Departamento Administrativo de Educación Municipal* (DAEM) o projeto "*Biciudadanía en ambientes escolares*" para gerar processos educativos com bicicleta nas vias públicas (TRONCOSO et al., 2021).

Retomando a experiência vivida na Colômbia, ao conhecer uma diversidade de atores sociais envolvidos no agenciamento da mobilidade ativa por bicicleta neste país, no regresso deu-se participação no "*VIII Foro Nacional de la Bicicleta - Fusagasugá 2022*" para apresentar a perspectiva de Lucho Herrera, importância ciclista colombiano, na promoção do ciclismo urbano neste país (TRONCOSO et al., 2022). Este evento, que começou com uma cicloviagem de 80 km, desde Bogotá até esta cidade, no fechamento total de uma rodovia, com aproximadamente 500 ciclistas, verificou-se o nível de organização dos governos distrital de Bogotá, departamental de Cundinamarca e municipal que, com a articulação política do IDRD, coube a função da sua realização por onde passou mais de 2000 pessoas.

Na Colômbia, o ciclismo de estrada é considerado um esporte nacional com ampla visibilidade midiática sendo representado pelos "*escarabajos*" (nome dado aos colombianos por sua excelência em pedalar em grandes subidas) nas principais competições internacionais. O governo distrital de Bogotá tem incentivado o uso da bicicleta, seja na implantação de infraestrutura com o sistema de "*ciclorrutas*" e de estacionamentos seguros em estações de transporte público e centros comerciais. A promoção institucional de ciclovias recreativas pelo governo nacional inclui apoio logístico e operacional aos governos departamentais e municipais na formação de agentes públicos do setor de educação física.

Esta mobilização do Distrito Central de Bogotá ocorre em uma metrópole que, apesar de ainda não possuir um sistema de transporte público massivo sobre trilhos, segundo contagens oficiais, aproximadamente 8% da sua população utiliza a bicicleta nos deslocamentos diários. Houve entendimento de que esta condição privilegiada, decorre há 50 anos das atividades do Programa Ciclovia.

A entrevista realizada com Jorge Maurício Ramos Martinez, coordenador entre 2003-2013 do Programa Ciclovia do IDRD, afirmou que na participação cidadã, envolve uma correlação de forças entre cicloativistas e governantes, com apoio institucional de normativas que determinaram uma autoridade administrativa competente de controle viário onde são desenvolvidas atividades culturais, recreativas e esportivas cuja gestão qualificada do trânsito é o resultado do apoio intersetorial de governo que ampliou as possibilidades do seu uso na cidade (TRONCOSO, 2019).

b) Mobilidade Urbana, Cicloativismo e o uso da Bicicleta nas vias Públicas

Diante da complexidade de se promover o uso da bicicleta, reconhece-se o argumento jurídico cicloativista de reivindicar o cumprimento da lei na implantação de infraestrutura cicloviária para fomentar a segurança dos ciclistas. Sob outra perspectiva, esta não pode ser a única estratégia política para promover o incentivo da mobilidade ativa por bicicleta, mas que, ao mesmo tempo, está condicionada à aplicação de legislação específica. Ainda assim, esta medida tem encontrado resistência por parte dos condutores de veículos que, além de pouco terem a oportunidade de pedalar na cidade, esta reivindicação contrária tem gerado um ciclo vicioso que impede avanços operacionais na implantação dessas estruturas.

Bonhan e Cox (2010) examinaram a introdução generalizada de infraestrutura cicloviária segregada no Reino Unido e Austrália e destacaram que, apesar dos seus benefícios, tem havido problemas significativos para o ciclismo nos comportamentos de viagem mais amplos. Os autores concluem que esses espaços, ao retirarem os ciclistas do compartilhamento viário, operam para manter as normas existentes e podem estar em desacordo com seu potencial de mobilidade.

Esta resistência decorre da reprodução das necessidades objetivas dos condutores por meio de obras viárias adequadas ao fluxo e velocidade motorizada e subjetivamente através de comunicação massiva permanente sobre o consumo da auto-mobilidade. Esta combinação de formação do pensamento motorista tem influenciado o comportamento da população no uso de transportes individuais.

Urry (2004) define a automobilidade como um sistema de expansão global da necessidade do automóvel devido a flexibilidade de uso do tempo-espaço, status e símbolos de valor associados. Para o autor, a subordinação de outras formas de mobilidade, o consumo de espaços públicos e a utilização demasiada de bens naturais, geram um caráter específico de dominação da sociedade civil. Egan e Caufield (2024) afirmam que a automobilidade é politicamente sustentada no sistema dominante de opinião pública como discurso normativo de prática essencial das tarefas funcionais, sua desconstrução busca descentralizá-la da vida social.

Apesar da bicicleta ser um instrumento de acesso popular para a mobilidade urbana, geralmente os ciclistas se deparam com uma ambiência viária produzida pela automobilidade que causa risco à vida humana. Ao visualizar nos programas de ciclovias recreativas uma política pública eficaz para promover o uso da bicicleta em escala populacional, cabe problematizar as lógicas de operacionalização contidas na organização desses programas que envolvem diversos atores sociais, dentre eles, poder público, técnicos de planejamento, organizações sociais não-governamentais nacionais e internacionais, cicloativistas, iniciativas privadas e usuários em geral.

Ao gerar a condição de possibilidade para uma reconfiguração de forças políticas permanente no planejamento urbano com ciclovias recreativas, os gestores públicos passam a levar em consideração as práticas de mobilidade em relação ao ambiente construído para atividades físicas. Esta relação comumente associada às práticas corporais em parques públicos ou, até mesmo, em academias de ginástica no Brasil, ganha outros contornos sobre a promoção da saúde ao considerar as vias públicas como local apropriado para a reprodução das mobilidades ativas.

Para Cresswell (2010) a mobilidade pode ser pensada como um emaranhado de representação e práticas. O autor defende uma política de mobilidade em termos de força motriz, velocidade, ritmo, rota, experiência e fricção humana ao considerar a existência histórica de frágeis sentidos de movimento e que foram marcados por formas distintas de regulamentação móvel.

Jensen (2011) afirma que a mobilidade se torna visível e real a partir dos seus diferentes aspectos que aparecem e ocorrem em ambientes espaciais específicos sob o funcionamento das diversas formas de poder. Para a autora, a mobilidade se confunde com percepções, experiências e desejos do eu moderno com base no enquadramento de imaginá-la, praticá-la e experimentá-la no sentido de alargar a nossa linguagem para abordar suas questões intrínsecas e futuros possíveis.

Mimi Sheller, acadêmica que colaborou para estabelecer o “novo paradigma das mobilidades”, nos apresenta cinco caminhos aos investigadores para ampliar a compreensão das práticas de mobilidade: 1) uma nova forma de pensar os mundos como emergentes de relações, fluxos e circulações multiescalares; 2) sua investigação fornece informações sobre as agências materiais das vidas móveis contemporâneas; 3) compreender suas representações discursivas enquanto fenômenos móveis ou imóveis, rápidos ou lentos; 4) um método local de ação colaborativo para explorar a ética e desenvolver quadros explicitamente normativos para instigar a sua justiça; 5) existe uma política de mobilidade organizada em torno de “constelações” de movimento, significado e prática desiguais e diferenciais que se unem pelas experiências vividas (SHELLER, 2018, p.20).

Para Manderscheid (2014) apesar do paradigma das mobilidades considerar o contexto onde as práticas de mobilidade das pessoas estão inseridas, a investigação empírica tende a investigar o social separadamente enquanto sentido subjetivo da experiência em contraposição a base discursiva, espacial ou estrutural. A partir disso, a autora faz uma proposta de investigação crítica que busca tecer ligações entre estruturas e práticas de mobilidades com a análise de correspondências múltiplas que reforçam as redes sociais como origem das decisões.

Cook et al. (2022) definem mobilidade ativa como viagens nas quais o esforço físico sustentado do viajante, contribui diretamente para o seu movimento. Por outro lado, Coelho (2020) ao se referir a este conceito nas cidades brasileiras, o caracteriza como uma subespécie do direito à cidade, inspirado por princípios democráticos de justiça social. Para a autora, na cidade forjada pelo capitalismo, a mobilidade urbana estabelece um aparato de exclusão onde aqueles que convivem perto das centralidades, sofrem segregação em seus deslocamentos.

Estes autores fazem parte de uma rede de pesquisa europeia e que está relacionada a abordagem foucaultiana sobre as práticas de mobilidade ao ampliar as condições de possibilidade de se pensar no planejamento urbano inclusivo à bicicleta. De outra forma, ao definir o conceito de mobilidade ativa e sua correlação com o processo político institucional de implementação da pauta dos governos brasileiros, estamos apoiados em uma abordagem que envolve a complexidade de se abordar o fenômeno mobilidade ativa por bicicleta na maneira como está estruturada a condição violenta que sofre o ciclista nas cidades brasileiras.

Para exemplificar esta exclusão, de acordo com o Centro de Liderança Pública (CLP), em 2023 foram 24052 homens e 5045 mulheres que morreram em acidentes de trânsito com taxa de acidentes fatais em 15 mortes por 100.000 habitantes. Ainda, entre 2012-2023, foram perdidos R$ 251 bilhões, uma perda anual de aproximadamente R$ 21 bilhões, R$800 mil por indivíduo, o que corresponde a 0,2% do PIB brasileiro. A nota técnica sugere como medidas os governos implementarem leis de segurança viária, melhorias na infraestrutura rodoviária, campanhas de educação e fiscalização (CLP, 2024).

Mascolli et al. (2023) descreveram as características dos óbitos de ciclistas, sua evolução e o papel da estrutura cicloviária do município de São Paulo. Os autores diagnosticaram que a taxa bruta de mortalidade de ciclistas aumentou entre 2000-2006 e diminuiu entre 2007-2017, com variação positiva de 32% nas viagens diárias de bicicleta (em 2015 foi 2,9 por 100.000 habitantes e no estado de São Paulo, foi 3,7 por 100.000 habitantes). Os autores recomendam o reforço da implementação de medidas protetivas e educativas para esta população.

O Código de Trânsito Brasileiro (CTB) determina o respeito aos ciclistas. No artigo 29, os ciclistas têm prioridade sobre veículos automotores e pedestres têm prioridade sobre ciclistas; no artigo 201, não guardar distância lateral de 1,5m ao ultrapassar bicicleta, infração média e multa; no artigo 220, não reduzir velocidade compatível com a segurança do trânsito, infração grave e multa e, no artigo 170, dirigir ameaçando pedestres ou demais veículos, infração gravíssima, multa, suspensão do direito de dirigir, retenção do veículo e da habilitação (BRASIL, 1997). Entretanto, os ciclistas não são atendidos em suas demandas para reivindicar seus direitos. Zuge Junior (2015) afirma que a posição cicloativista paulistana busca pressionar o poder público no cumprimento destas normas jurídicas, o que motiva a aglutinação de indivíduos em torno da percepção política de risco compartilhado.

Historicamente, as regiões metropolitanas brasileiras se constituíram na segunda metade do século XX com a modificação da circulação urbana do centro, local de trabalho para as moradias nas periferias, gerou um espraiamento urbano com a realização de grandes vias e gerando dependência da população pelos transportes individuais. O uso da bicicleta estabelece-se marginalmente devido às limitações físicas em contraste com o sistema da automobilidade.

Balbim (2016) entende que a lógica da mobilidade urbana no Brasil está relacionada às determinações individuais que influenciam na organização do espaço nos modos de vida. Para o autor, uma das transformações no contexto da mobilidade cotidiana é seu reforço impulsionado pelas novas tecnologias da comunicação, para além do paradigma de circulação que estrutura o espaço urbano, onde o espaço da cidade expande o universo da "vida de relações humanas".

A transformação da mobilidade pelas tecnologias de comunicação que influencia no hábito do indivíduo em mobilizar-se passivamente sendo capturado por uma forma de vida motorizada. Para Silva *et al.* (2016) os modos motorizados permitiram que os tempos de viagem se mantivessem nos mesmos intervalos aqueles observados nas viagens a pé, ainda que, com distâncias percorridas maiores. Esta característica exponencial do transporte tem levado a ampliação das áreas urbanizadas, porém, têm acarretado no excesso de viagens motorizadas saturando, tanto as vias existentes, como aquelas construídas para absorver uma demanda crescente por espaço viário (p. 81).

No Brasil, quando se pensa em ciclovias, a primeira ideia que surge é de espaços segregados nas vias públicas para bicicleta. Na tentativa de ampliar o conceito, esse programa opera no sentido de entregar, de forma temporária, a condição para a pessoa pedalar, sendo uma forma legítima e alternativa de promover o seu uso. Diferentemente de segregar determinada parte da via, este tipo de fechamento das vias públicas implica dar outra forma à bicicleta na cidade que, ao ser explorada para atividades recreativas, entrega um lugar comum no imaginário coletivo ao criar outra função social para formas ativas de deslocamento.

Olekszechen *et al.* (2016) ao verificar como os estudos pessoa-ambiente enfocam a temática do uso de bicicletas como meio de transporte a partir das categorias hábitos e atitudes, ambiente e comporta-mento e percepção, os resultados apontam para a compreensão multideterminada deste modal. Para Carvalho e Freitas (2012) ao analisarem a produção científica que trata da relação entre o ciclismo como meio de transporte e a saúde pública, demonstraram que é recente a preocupação com este tema e que o seu padrão ocorre de forma heterogênea, mas com potenciais de maiores impactos nos países em desenvolvimento, onde torna-se urgente a inclusão deste tema nas agendas de pesquisas sobre a relação entre promoção do transporte ativo, saúde e segurança no trânsito.

Para Tagliari e Pawlowsky (2021) a mobilidade ativa apresenta-se como um meio para a promoção da saúde e para diminuir a quantidade de gases poluentes através da construção de ambientes de aprendizagem educacional formal e não formal, em atividades pontuais, bem como por meio de intervenções de longo prazo, na criação de oportunidades com instrução e encorajamento para a efetuação.

A "Agenda Convergente Mobilidade Sustentável e Saúde" elabora pela Organização Panamericana de Saúde (OPAS) e vinculada a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS), elencam os impactos positivos da mobilidade ativa na prevenção dos acidentes de trânsito, na realização de atividades físicas e na melhora da qualidade do ar nas cidades. Para sua implementação requer haver uma articulação entre agendas de trabalho intersetorial das políticas públicas, de promoção do bem-estar das populações, para ampliar a otimização de recursos nos processos de planejamento institucional ao ampliar o seu alcance e efetividade (OPAS, 2020).

O Guia de Atividade Física para a população brasileira elaborado pelo Ministério da Saúde, indica a promoção da atividade física nos deslocamentos cotidianos, seja a pé, bicicleta, patins e skates, pessoas com deficiência e com mascotes. A tarefa multisetorial deve ser operada por gestores do campo da educação física, recreação e esporte em conjunto com funcionários técnico-administrativos do trânsito e o apoio da iniciativa privada, de organizações sociais e da cidadania para a legitimação dessas atividades (BRASIL, 2021).

Oliveira e Silva (2021) adotando como referencial o conceito de "Saúde em Todas as Políticas", acreditam nas Ciências da Atividade Física, a tarefa de formar uma agenda multisetorial de pesquisa e *advocacy* que possa reorientar o desenho urbano e de uso do solo. Para Nieuwenhuijsen et al. (2017) a poluição atmosférica, o ruído, a temperatura, os espaços verdes, os acidentes com veículos motorizados e a atividade física ligam o planejamento urbano e dos transportes à saúde pública. Para a tomada de decisões políticas, é importante compreender e ser capaz de quantificar toda a cadeia, desde a fonte, passando pelos caminhos até aos efeitos e impactos na saúde, para fundamentar e direcionar eficazmente as ações.

Ainda, Nieuwenhuijsen et al. (2019) apresentam a ferramenta de Avaliação do Impacto na Saúde (AIS) para integrar evidências no processo de tomada de decisão e que, ao introduzir a saúde em todas as políticas, têm sido utilizadas para viabilizá-las para melhorar a saúde pública nas cidades. Para as autoras, o processo sobre como chegar lá é tão importante quanto o resultado real ao fornecer respostas sobre como diferentes disciplinas/setores trabalhar integrados por uma determinada abordagem de saúde pública para provocar mudanças no planejamento urbano.

Varela e Hallal (2024) insta os pesquisadores a considerar o contexto em que a atividade física é praticada em cada comunidade com uma estratégia analítica para adaptar as recomendações às necessidades dos indivíduos. Para os autores, esta abordagem requer que os governos, os decisores políticos e a comunidade científica ajudem a construir sociedades nas quais a escolha da pessoa ser fisicamente ativa seja conveniente, agradável, seguro, acessível e valorizada.

Santos e Santos (2022) afirmam que a bicicleta precisa ser integrada às políticas de mobilidade urbana, partindo da convivência nas vias públicas ao habitar a cidade. Silva (2020) propõe a utilização do conceito mobilidade ativa integrado aos instrumentos urbanísticos do Plano Diretor e Plano de Mobilidade Urbana com base nos critérios: a) na elaboração participativa com base nas condições de circulação dos deficientes, pedestres e ciclistas; b) dos instrumentos legais e normativos em conjunto ao apoio de organizações sociais; c) na consolidação dos levantamentos como produto de leitura técnica; d) na aprovação em lei municipal com diretrizes que orientem a atuação do poder público (p.87).

A principal normativa brasileira que promove o uso da bicicleta é a Lei federal 13.724 de 2018 que instituiu o Programa Bicicleta Brasil. Ao inserir a bicicleta como componente da mobilidade urbana com diretrizes gerais aos agentes públicos.

Quadro 4: Organograma Árvore de problemas

Fonte: ENABICI (2023)

A ENABICI está dividida em cinco eixos: 1) Políticas públicas, legislação e controle social; 2) Infraestrutura cicloviária; 3) Bicicleta movimenta a economia; 4) Promovendo a mobilidade por bicicleta e 5) Orçamento e financiamento. Neste documento, as "Ruas Completas" devem ser incluídas na elaboração de Projetos Cicloviários para redistribuição dos espaços das vias para segurança na circulação humana com normas que precisam ser consolidadas ao garantir maior qualidade aos técnicos que elaboram os projetos (ENABICI, 2023).

O agenciamento das ciclovias recreativas necessita ser problematizado para analisar os fatores que potencializam o desenvolvimento das práticas de mobilidade ciclísticas a partir dos processos de integração técnica e administrativa do planejamento urbano. Diante disso, caberia interrogar se esses programas podem ser caracterizados como estratégias governamentais compostas de tecnologias políticas diversas que colaboram para ampliar a acessibilidade e inclusão social das mobilidades ativas, especialmente à bicicleta, no trânsito das vias públicas.

c) Tecnologias Políticas e Agenciamento

Nesta seção, apresenta-se uma abordagem analítica possível para problematizar os programas de ciclovias recreativas. Neste contexto da promoção do incentivo ao uso da bicicleta, agentes públicos, cicloativistas e de organizações sociais, estão às margens dos processos decisórios das políticas de planejamento urbano, não são considerados. O resultado é o foco da gestão pública na implementação de infraestrutura cicloviária, mas que pouco modifica o atual cenário de segregação nas vias públicas de desenvolvimento das mobilidades ativas

Apesar dos benefícios para a saúde pública, as ciclovias recreativas se tornam uma estratégia de governo intersetorial concebido para a prática de atividade física aos domingos com o interesse do governo municipal. A integração de setores para sua operação, ocorre com a participação desses atores sociais de acordo com o envolvimento das autoridades políticas que se abrem, em mesas de diálogo, para negociar e empreender economicamente a sua atuação.

Para o evento congregar parcela importante da população que tem colaborado para a formação do comportamento ciclista na população, o poder público é fundamental para planejar o desenho de intervenção das atividades recreativas, culturais e esportivas. Para tanto, esta ação administrativa ocorre por meio de um planejamento logístico e operacional entre os níveis de atuação público e privado. Esta articulação se comporta como uma tecnologia de governo ao ampliar as condições de possibilidade para condução de condutas com bicicleta na cidade.

Diante das correlações desiguais de forças na constituição do espaço das vias públicas, a promoção de práticas de mobilidade ativa em ciclovias recreativas contém potencial de modificar a composição de estratégias no campo da mobilidade urbana. A problemática da violência no trânsito resulta da pouca organização desses espaços, por isso há se de requerer tecnologias de governo que conduzam (in)diretamente os condutores de veículos a se responsabilizar pelo comportamento das mobilidades ativas para assim ter a noção de respeitar as normas e regras de trânsito, cabe agenciar uma conduta de segurança nas vias públicas.

Entende-se por agenciamento nesta pesquisa, as tecnologias de governo das condutas, por meio de projetos e programas que ampliam a adesão da população à mobilidade ativa por bicicleta em vias públicas. Na multiplicidade de grupos que promovem o seu uso, apesar das diferenças nas práticas de mobilidade, a condição comum de insegurança vivida nesses espaços.

A congregação de interesses na formação da cultura de bicicleta em ciclovias recreativas, passa pela reconfiguração de forças na ocupação viária. O caminho passa por ampliar as discussões institucionais sobre os processos de agenciamento das políticas públicas de planejamento urbano que possam modificar a atual concepção arquitetônica para garantir segurança aos ciclistas.

Para Savage (2022), a abordagem do agenciamento leva em conta as relações emergentes de exterioridade, a heterogeneidade das composições sociais, a relacionalidade dos saberes na constituição das estruturas de fluxo e a atenção ao poder das agendas políticas. Para o autor, a proposta conceitual do agenciamento busca esclarecer os aspectos organizacionais de como podem funcionar determinar política pública ao ser adotada e adaptada ao contexto local com base nos múltiplos fatores específicos estrategicamente organizados para torná-la viável.

Ao visualizar os programas de ciclovias recreativas na perspectiva foucaultiana, sua operacionalização caracteriza-se por diversas tecnologias políticas compreendidas em ações e estratégicas de planejamento urbano que estabelecem, em uma temporalidade específica no viário urbano, uma intervenção no trânsito motorizado, por meio de uma operação logística que induz a formação de outras condições de possibilidade para transformar o comportamento dos indivíduos com práticas de mobilidade ciclista. Nestes eventos, a promoção das atividades físicas visa transformar as relações de poder na governança das mobilidades ativas ao ampliar a concepção de ambiência nesses espaços públicos livres.

Para Michel Foucault, a partir dos séculos XVI-XVII, a regulação de exercício do poder passou a ser feita da sabedoria para o cálculo das forças, agora regulado pela racionalidade política na perspectiva do comportamento dos indivíduos governados como sujeitos guiados por seus próprios interesses (FOUCAULT, 2008).

Segundo Edgardo Castro, tecnologias políticas são práticas sociais dispostas pela regularidade e que acompanham os modos de fazer. Para o autor, os termos técnica e tecnologia, agrega a ideia de prática aos conceitos de estratégia e tática para mostrar um saber do corpo que se torna cálculo e organização na capacidade do manejo de forças para obter corpos úteis e dóceis, por isso a disciplina é uma tecnologia e não uma instituição ou aparato (p.525-526). Para Foucault, o que define uma tecnologia política é o exercício da estratégia local nas relações de poder subordinadas a um modo de produção operacional de forças em ação sobre a ação compostas no espaço-tempo da infraestrutura (DELEUZE, 2020).

A ciclovia recreativa sendo uma tecnologia política de agenciamento das práticas de mobilidade com bicicleta, com o seu desenvolvimento tem ampliado a estrutura de gestão por estar caracterizada como uma operação intersetorial de governo. Esta intervenção estrategicamente realizada em uma tempor -alidade específica, está organizada institucionalmente por uma lógica de operacionalização particular para induzir os indivíduos a mobilizar-se ativamente pelas vias públicas e com sua permanência, busca transformar a disposição desses espaços.

A hipótese de pesquisa busca afirmar que a ciclovia recreativa sendo uma tecnologia política, opera por meio de uma estratégia intersetorial para criar ambientes de apoio à atividade física nas vias públicas. O seu agenciamento no governo das mobilidades ativas, têm colaborado para gerar novas condições de possibilidades para o uso da bicicleta nas cidades que foram parte do estudo. Na constituição dos programas analisados, coube problematizar como um evento recreativo massivo que necessita de uma operação de trânsito, pode modificar o panorama de planejamento urbano do pedalar com segurança nesses espaços.

Diante disso, como a gestão política desses programas, composta por técnicas e práticas de governo, agencia a atividade física das mobilidades ativas em vias públicas? b) De que forma a organização institucional, composta de leis, decretos, normas, acordos e regulamentos, determina a operacionalização destes programas?

O esforço de pesquisa tem o desafio de construir um vetor de análise sobre o conjunto de estratégias dos atores sociais envolvidos. Ao expor estas táticas de agenciamento com bicicleta, vai ser possível diagnosticar as lógicas de operacionalização em dois níveis: a nível macro, a gestão política desses programas em duas metrópoles sul-americanas e, a nível micro, os processos de constituição intersetorial implicam organizações institucionais diferentes.

d) Ciclovias Recreativas no Contexto das Cidades Latino-Americanas

Para contextualizar o leitor sobre o conceito de ciclovias recreativas, faz-se menção a alguns fatos históricos que consolidaram a Ciclovia de Bogotá. Foi realizada a primeira vez no dia 15 de dezembro de 1974 denominada "*Mitin a favor de la bici*", uma iniciativa da organização *Procicla* e o Departamento de Trânsito, contando com a presença de aproximadamente 5000 pessoas (ORTIZ, 1995).

Os promotores envolvidos passaram a contar com influência política para o fechamento temporário de determinadas vias públicas, e, após crescente apoio popular, a prefeitura promulgou em 1976, os Decretos 566 e 567 que definiam "*Las Ciclovías"*. Para Rodriguez (2017) esses decretos legitimaram os esforços do *Procicla* e motivaram outras entidades a aderirem ao projeto, mas a ideia de pedalar aos domingos, como ato de entretenimento cidadão, levou mais tempo.

A partir do Programa Ciclovia, outras metrópoles passaram a realizar ciclovias recreativas. Em 2005, o IDRD realizou a "*Primeira Conferência Internacional sobre Ciclovías Recreativas*" na qual foi criada a "*Red de Ciclovías Unidas de las Américas*" composta por instituições governamentais, organizações não-governamentais e promotores. Ao final do evento, os participantes assinaram a "*Declaración de Bogotá*":

> Observa-se o desenvolvimento das cidades americanas marcadas por infraestruturas de transporte sem refletir sobre as mobilidades ativas. Considera-se a construção de cidades saudáveis através de programas que promovam a interação humana. Acolhe-se as iniciativas de usos temporários em vias públicas destinadas para as pessoas. Aprecia-se as atuais ciclovias que gozam de apoio popular. Em média, 2.4 milhões de cidadãos saem às ruas todos os domingos com iniciativas que implicam ter maior participação na gestão das suas condições por meio de campanhas de comunicação que promovam a recuperação dos espaços públicos com atividades recreativas. Está formatada por um grupo de trabalho para criar esta rede como uma associação de entidades interessadas em fortalecer esses programas no continente americano (ESTRADA et al., 2009).

Com o aumento do interesse de diversas administrações municipais de vários países em implantar ciclovias recreativas, houve um aumento no número de filiados desta rede de promotores. Em 2009, a rede mudou para *Red de Ciclovías Recreativas de las Américas* (Red-CRA) e com apoio da Organização Panamericana de Saúde (OPAS), do Centro de Controle de Enfermidades dos Estados Unidos (CDC), dos programas de Bogotá, Guadalajara e Santiago e do *Grupo de Epidemiologia de la Universidad de Los Andes da Colombia* (EPIANDES), foi elaborado o *Manual para implementar y promocionar las ciclovías recreativas*.

Esta rede conta com 88 membros de administrações municipais, fundações e institutos públicos promotores do esporte, lazer e atividade física. Entre 2005-2019, foram realizados quatorze congressos em diferentes cidades latino-americanas para reunir os promotores que apresentaram suas experiências de gestão, debates para potencializar as iniciativas entre instituições públicas e setor privado.

Segundo o manual, são oito critérios considerados como bases operacionais para realizar este tipo de evento:

> 1) Vontade política das autoridades no desenvolvimento das atividades; 2) Viabilidade das vias públicas levando em consideração as características das instalações e desvios para veículos durante o evento; 3) Investimentos para a compra de itens e contratação de serviços e trabalhadores; 4) Aprovação do projeto indicando o circuito, sinalização,

pessoal disposto na localização e funções e medidas de mitigação na circulação de veículos; 5) Realização de atividades por usuários com a oferta de água, alimentos e empréstimo de rodados; 6) Seleção de funcionários para garantir a segurança pública; 7) Aquisição de elementos, gestão de seguros e mídia; 8) Manutenção e supervisão da montagem (ESTRADA et al., 2009).

Estas bases operacionais são os elementos constituintes que se pretende problematizar por determinarem a composição local de forças que compõem os momentos da organização e gestão dos programas. Se para Foucault o governo é o conjunto de procedimentos e cálculos que articula poderes-saberes sobre o corpo individual e as populações, caberia interrogar se na sua atuação estratégica, é desenvolvido um investimento em tecnologias políticas de regulação das condutas favoráveis à constituição de ambientes apropriados à mobilidade ativa por bicicleta.

Estas tecnologias políticas ao serem determinadas por uma racionalidade política governamental que conforma as suas formas de agenciamento, nos cabe diagnosticar a lógica de operacionalização composta de técnicas e táticas específicas que geram condições de possibilidade para as práticas de mobilidade com bicicleta nas vias públicas e assim ampliar o seu uso na vida social.

Ao problematizar as ciclovias recreativas como uma prática social histórica e situada, procura-se diagnosticar a função desses programas nos termos da sua articulação com a diversidade de atores sociais envolvidos na sua organização. Se por um lado, o risco de acidentes é proporcional a aptidão física do indivíduo em pedalar nas vias públicas, por outro, as normativas que reordenam esses espaços envolvem o esforço do governo para propor um sentido de mudança.

III. Revisão da Literatura

Neste capítulo, apresentamos o estado da arte dos estudos sobre ciclovias recreativas. Foi realizada uma revisão bibliográfica de artigos científicos publicados na base de dados do Portal de Periódicos da Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior e do Scielo Brasil com a expressão ciclovias recreativas e de estudos publicados pelo Grupo de Epidemiologia da Universidade de Los Andes da Colômbia, encontramos 25 artigos. Também foi incluído um livro sobre a Ciclovía de Bogotá devido a abordagem teórica e metodológica estar em consonância com a nossa problemática de pesquisa".

A partir da pesquisa realizada, agrupamos as referências nos seguintes temas: 1) Associação entre saúde pública e ciclovias recreativas; 2) Abordagem multissetorial para criação de ambientes de atividades físicas em ciclovias recreativas; 3) Acessibilidade e inclusão social em ciclovias recreativas; 4) Associação entre infraestrutura cicloviária e ciclovias recreativas; 5) Sustentabilidade dos programas de ciclovias recreativas; 6) Conhecimento, poder e governança em ciclovias recreativas. Os cinco primeiros tópicos estão relacionados a estudos epidemiológicos e o sexto a estudos qualitativos das ciências humanas e sociais.

Os critérios de seleção para incluir as categorias de análise apresentadas, foi de diagnosticar em cada pesquisa, a principal temática abordada. Os temas associação com a saúde pública, abordagem multissetorial para criação de ambientes de apoio para atividade física, acessibilidade e inclusão social, infraestrutura cicloviária, sustentabilidade dos programas e conhecimento sobre as formas de governança, estão entrelaçadas entre elas devido à complexidade da gestão desses programas e que fazem parte da construção do nosso problema de pesquisa".

A organização progressiva das temáticas, está relacionada à manifestação de significados que essas pesquisas foram concebendo sobre o que é ciclovias recreativas: da estratégia de governo para a promoção massiva das mobilidades ativas no espaço viário. Se necessita criar uma estrutura urbanística para dar outro uso temporário a esses espaços adequados à prática de atividade física, o que tem gerado maior acessibilidade e inclusão social por estarem sendo realizados em vias públicas. A infraestrutura cicloviária tem aumentado de acordo com o desenvolvimento desses programas, a sustentabilidade ocorre quando a população e as autoridades de determinado local estão convencidas dos benefícios da intervenção e das relações de poder-saber constituídas na sua administração, planejamento e gestão, influencia na operação local deste tipo de política pública.

a) *Associação Entre Saúde Pública e Ciclovias Recreativas*

A associação das ciclovias recreativas com a saúde pública está relacionada principalmente através dos efeitos da participação da população nesses programas. Isso ocorre principalmente nas iniciativas com operação regular, devido a temporalidade e espacialidade específicas para a sua realização, tendo como função promover a atividade física nas vias públicas.

Torres et al. (2009) realizaram uma revisão da literatura sobre programas de ciclovias recreativas e consultas a especialistas com 83 membros, da Rede de Atividade Física das Américas, de 19 países. Dos 55 programas encontrados nas Américas, 38 atenderam esta definição, a maioria implementada em ambientes urbanos, as comunidades variam em tamanho, a extensão e a duração variam de mais de 120 km por 7 horas, na maioria dos domingos, a 1 km por 2 horas em domingos alternados, a distância média de 15,6 km, duração média de 330 minutos por ano e a estimativa média de 78.384 participantes por evento.

Sarmiento et al. (2010) avaliaram as informações existentes desses 38 programas de ciclovias recreativas existentes em 11 países, por meio de uma revisão da literatura complementada por entrevistas e consultas com especialistas. Os autores constataram que a maioria dos programas ocorre em ambientes urbanos, variam de 18 a 64 eventos por ano que contam com duração de 2 a 12 horas, o comprimento das ruas varia de 1 a 121 km, o número estimado de participantes varia de 60 a 1.000.000 de pessoas e 71% dessas iniciativas incluem aulas de atividade física e, em 89%, as ruas estão ligadas a parques.

Montes et al. (2012) realizaram uma análise da relação custo-benefício da atividade física dos programas de Bogotá e Medellín na Colômbia, Guadalajara no México e São Francisco (EUA) com diretores e pesquisas locais. Para os autores, o custo anual per capita foi de US$ 6,0 para Bogotá, US$ 23,4 para Medellín, US$ 6,5 para Guadalajara e US$ 70,5 para São Francisco; a relação custo-benefício da atividade física para a saúde foi de 3,23-4,26 para Bogotá, 1,83 para Medellín, 1,02-1,23 para Guadalajara e 2,32 para São Francisco. No programa de Bogotá, a relação foi mais sensível à prevalência de ciclistas fisicamente ativos, em Guadalajara, foi mais sensível aos custos do utilizador e para Medellín e São Francisco, os custos operacionais.

Rojas-Rueda et al. (2020) quantificaram a saúde nos programas de ciclovias recreativas em 15 cidades latino-americanas, em relação a mortes anuais da incidência de doenças cardíaca isquêmica, acidente vascular cerebral, diabetes tipo 2, câncer de cólon, câncer de mama e demência, anos de vida ajustados por incapacidade e economia de valores sobre mortalidade. Os benefícios estimados são de 1.101 mortes anuais evitadas com o incremento da atividade física, impacto econômico anual de 1.575 milhões de dólares e redução anual de 3.070 mortes.

Para Sarmiento et al. (2019) a saúde urbana está localizada na intersecção dos Objetivos do Desenvolvimento Sustentável (ODS) três da saúde e bem-estar e onze de cidades e comunidades sustentáveis. Ao reconhecerem que as cidades são sistemas complexos, dinâmicos, heterogêneos, interligados e adaptativos, as decisões tomadas sobre a forma como foram construídas e vive-se nelas, têm um impacto profundo na saúde do planeta e no bem-estar e na saúde das populações.

b) Abordagem Multissetorial Para Criação de Ambientes de Atividades Físicas em Ciclovias Recreativas

A realização de eventos que promovem a atividade física em vias públicas, no Brasil, comumente está associada à realização de competições esportivas, em uma data específica, a cargo da secretaria de esporte. Ao contrário, os programas de ciclovias recreativas contêm uma regularidade de operação por estarem envolvidos em diversas instituições públicas e agentes privados, mas dada a complexidade de sua forma de governança, ainda é pouco esclarecida para atingir os objetivos propostos de ampliar o acesso da população à atividade física nesses espaços.

Castillo et al. (2011) realizaram dois estudos de caso da Ciclovia de Bogotá, Colômbia e da CuritibAtiva de Curitiba, Brasil. As autoras concluem que a maioria das políticas que conduzem esses programas foram desenvolvidas fora do setor da saúde, esportes, meio ambiente e transporte, mas para serem bem sucedidas, devem ser tratadas de maneira multissetorial com base nos setores de recreação e planejamento urbano, para criar ambientes de apoio à atividade física.

Silva et al. (2017) analisaram os programas de ciclovias recreativas promovidos pela prefeitura de Curitiba, segundo o modelo lógico do Centro de Controle de Enfermidades dos Estados Unidos. Para os autores, esses programas apresentam características multissetoriais, sendo um fator importante para sua manutenção, apontar a necessidade de alinhamento entre recursos e produtos para conhecer seu custo-efetividade e o alcance dos objetivos, por meio da ampliação e a regularidade de ações informativas junto à comunidade, o que pode auxiliar no processo de construção de apoio político desses programas.

Meizel et al. (2013) analisaram as redes sociais de 25 organizações de saúde e não relacionadas à saúde que participam do Programa Ciclovia de Bogotá, por meio de um estudo transversal, empregando métodos analíticos de rede, baseados em uma análise visual descritiva e um modelo de gráfico aleatório exponencial. A análise mostra que as organizações mais centrais da rede estavam fora do setor da saúde e incluíam os setores de esporte e recreação, governo e segurança que funcionam em clusters formados por diversos setores.

c) Acessibilidade e Inclusão Social em Ciclovias Recreativas

A importância de se diagnosticar as formas de gestão específicas na realização desses programas, contém relação direta com a ampliação acessibilidade e inclusão social da população a prática de atividades físicas das mobilidades ativas. Para tanto, a sua realização implica uma operação logística temporária de trânsito para ampliar as condições de possibilidade no aumento da participação das mulheres, crianças e idosos usufruírem dos espaços das vias públicas em atividades recreativas.

Sarmiento et al. (2017) avaliaram a associação entre comportamentos de caminhada e participação entre adultos e idosos e os potenciais fatores associados ao Programa Ciclovia de Bogotá. Os adultos que relataram participar tinham maior probabilidade de caminhar 150 minutos por semana e, entre os idosos, morar em um bairro com corredores ofertados pelo programa foi associado a ter caminhado pelo menos 150 minutos por semana. Para os autores, as políticas de diferentes setores, o apoio comunitário e das autoridades locais na constituição de uma rede transnacional de especialistas defensores que compartilharam detalhes técnicos e administrativos para organizar um evento, influenciam a participação no programa.

Triana et al. (2019) avaliaram as associações entre atividade física, tempo sedentário, índice de massa corporal e participação no Programa Ciclovia com 923 crianças de 9 a 13 anos de escolas públicas em Bogotá. Os autores constataram que 46% das crianças já participaram, 34% relataram participar pelo menos uma vez por mês e não foram encontradas diferenças na média de minutos de atividade física moderada a vigorosa em dias de semana entre usuários frequentes e esporádicos.

Mejia-Arbelaez et al. (2021) compararam as trajetórias espaciais dos participantes das ciclovias recreativas de Bogotá, Cidade do México, Santiago de Cali e Santiago do Chile de acordo com características de segregação urbana e avaliaram a relação entre os níveis de atividade física dos participantes e as características sociodemográficas. Os autores encontraram maior mobilidade em Bogotá e Santiago de Cali com participantes propensos a visitar bairros periféricos e os participantes da Cidade do México e Santiago do Chile permaneciam no seu meio de origem e concluem que as ciclovias recreativas podem ser inclusivas em ambientes urbanos ao facilitar interações entre diferentes grupos socioeconômicos.

Higuera-Mendieta et al. (2022) buscaram determinar até que ponto o método de ciência cidadã Nossa Voz facilitou a interação entre a pesquisa e a prática para fazer mudanças no Programa Ciclovia. Os autores avaliaram a receptividade dos tomadores de decisão e participantes a este método e analisaram suas contribuições para o exercício dos direitos recreativos e de saúde em Bogotá. Para os autores, o Nossa Voz melhorou a comunicação entre os participantes e os tomadores de decisão ao fornecer uma compreensão sistematizada das experiências dos usuários para implementar mudanças e melhorias do treinamento da equipe do programa.

d) Associação Entre Infraestrutura Cicloviária e Ciclovias Recreativas

A partir de pesquisas sobre o Programa Ciclovia de Bogotá, tem-se constatado uma associação positiva entre infraestrutura cicloviária e ciclovias recreativas, com influências no comportamento da mobilidade ativa por bicicleta em Bogotá.

Cervero et al. (2009) examinaram como a rede de ciclorrutas e o Programa Ciclovia estão associados ao comportamento de caminhar e pedalar e participação no programa. Para os autores, embora os projetos de infraestrutura cicloviária estejam associados à atividade física, outros atributos do ambiente construído, como a densidade e as misturas de uso do solo, não estão. Isto provavelmente ocorreu porque a maioria dos bairros em áreas urbanas de Bogotá evoluíram durante uma época em que viagens não-automobilísticas eram maioria, sendo uniformemente compactos na sua composição e com níveis comparáveis de acessibilidade aos transportes.

Torres (2011) demonstrou como o Programa Ciclovia e a rede de ciclorrutas em Bogotá, representam duas abordagens políticas e ambientais construídas que aumentaram o acesso para as atividades físicas das mobilidades ativas. A autora ao examinar a relação entre frequência de participação associada ao cumprimento das recomendações de atividade física com as características de uso do programa, constatou que a maioria dos participantes relataram atender à recomendação da mobilidade ativa no lazer e de ciclismo para transporte.

Em outro estudo da mesma amostragem, Torres et al. (2013) compararam os participantes dos programas Ciclovia e ciclorrutas em dois estudos transversais, um entre 1.000 participantes da Ciclovia e outro entre 1.000 participantes das ciclorrutas. A maioria dos usuários da *ciclorrutas* relatou residir em categorias de baixo nível socioeconômico, ter menor escolaridade e não possuir automóvel. Os autores concluem que esses programas promovem a atividade física de forma equitativa e oferecem alternativa de mobilidade em ambientes urbanos complexos.

Teunissen et al. (2015) analisaram os níveis de desigualdade no acesso em três iniciativas de transporte sustentável em Bogotá a partir de informações espaciais e de estrato socioeconômico. Para os autores, a rede de ciclorrutas e a Ciclovia não oferecem acesso igualitário, especialmente para estratos socioeconômicos de rendimentos baixos e médios. Os autores concluem que a Ciclovia proporciona inclusão social ao proporcionar acesso a locais de interesse, mas não oferece acesso igual a todos os segmentos da população.

e) Sustentabilidade dos Programas de Ciclovias Recreativas

A sustentabilidade dos programas de ciclovias recreativas está relacionada com recursos financeiros disponíveis para gestão logística e de pessoal qualificado para sua manutenção. Para tanto, são diversos os fatores que influenciam na regularidade da operação em vista de que o financiamento determina a estrutura de operação.

Castillo et al. (2017) identificaram nos programas comunitários de atividade física dos governos distrital e nacional da Colômbia, as características de financiamento, capacitação e os desafios presentes na operação desses programas. Os resultados demonstraram os processos de adaptação para enfrentar os desafios de crescimento com base na flexibilidade/adaptabilidade, investimento nas condições de trabalho e formação de instrutores, alocar fundos públicos e solicitar responsabilização, diversificar recursos, ter apoio comunitário e defensores em diferentes níveis e posições para incluir a atividade física em políticas públicas.

Sarmiento et al. (2017) buscaram descrever as características de 67 programas regulares e os fatores que influenciaram a sua sustentabilidade. As autoras constataram que a maior expansão ocorreu desde 2000, o número de participantes por evento variou de 40 a 1.500.000 e a extensão variou de 1 a 113,6 km. A maioria das vias conectam bairros de renda média-baixa e alta e conta com a participação de populações minoritárias. As autoras concluem que todos os programas partilhavam apoio governamental, alianças, apropriação comunitária, defensores, compatibilidade com a organização anfitriã, capacidade organizacional, flexibilidade, benefícios e estabilidade de financiamento, mas diferiam em fontes de financiamento e alianças.

Para quantificar as diferenças de sustentabilidade entre programas, Abolghasem et al. (2018) desenvolveram uma metodologia DEA que mede a eficiência comparada de desempenho entre cada ciclovia recreativa com um sistema de referência que identifica as suas fontes de ineficiências e oferece recomendações para melhorias. Os autores apresentaram um Sistema de Apoio à Decisão (SSD) centrado na metodologia DEA baseado em planilhas de avaliação.

Com base no estudo anterior, Castillo et al. (2018) apresentaram a ferramenta de avaliação de ciclovias recreativas denominada Bicis de Calidad. Esta qualificação envolve os critérios de extensão e duração, acessos e atrativos, usuários, serviços, inclusão social e segurança e critérios relacionadas à organização, avaliação e monitoramento. Dos 365 programas, 73 responderam ao questionário, são 15 programas na qualidade três, 35 com qualidade dois e 19 com uma bici de calidad (Rio de Janeiro, a única cidade brasileira a participar). São oito programas referentes: Rosario (Argentina), Bogotá, Cartago, Envigado, Pereira e Soacha (Colômbia), Guadalajara (México) e Portland (EUA).

f) *Conhecimento, Poder e Governança em Ciclovias Recreativas*

Com o desenvolvimento das ciclovias recreativas em diversos países a partir do exemplo do Programa Ciclovia, tem surgido o interesse em compreender as relações entre conhecimento, poder e governança. Montero (2017) examina criticamente o caso de Bogotá ser enquadrado como exemplo de melhor prática, lançando luz sobre as constelações de atores, redes e agendas locais e transnacionais que moldaram o programa desde o seu início experimental, na década de 1970, até a sua construção internacional na década de 2000.

Segundo Montero et al. (2023) estas abordagens experimentais para formulação de políticas têm ganhado popularidade nas últimas décadas para intervir em problemas urbanos. No entanto, a evidência destaca como esta linguagem tem sido cooptada por formas de governação que contornam a instituição de planejamento existente em meio a assimetrias de poder na sua operação, relacionam-se a uma política global econômica específica de financiamento desses programas.

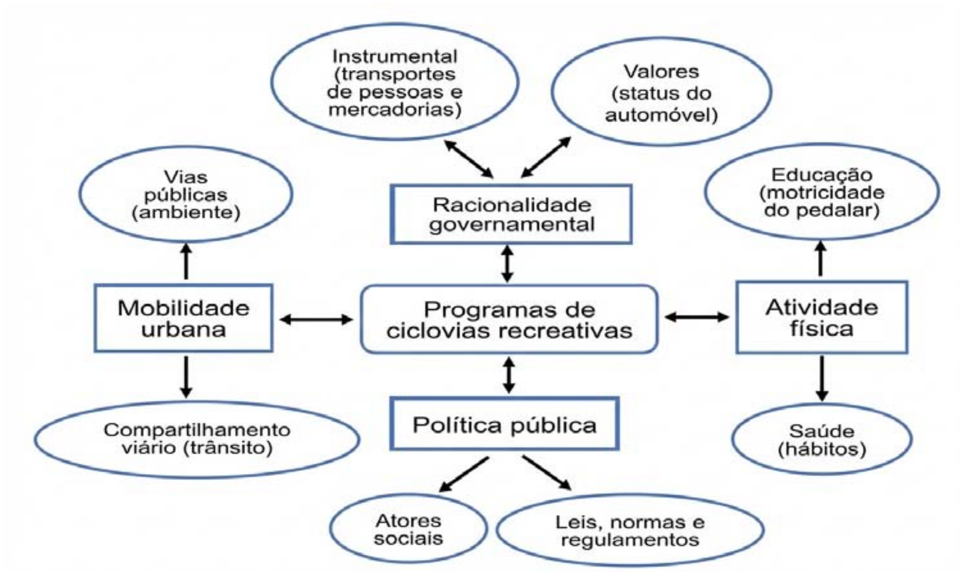
Buscando aprofundar o conhecimento em torno das pesquisas que tentam problematizar as diversas estratégias de poder e táticas de governo, no interior da ciclovia recreativa de Bogotá, há destaque para o trabalho da Profa. Astrid Bibiana Rodríguez Cortés intitulado "*Subjetividades en el espacio público. La Ciclovía de Bogotá*" que construiu uma genealogia histórica das emergências e das condições de possibilidades com o entorno da primeira ciclovia recreativa latino-americana.

A autora estabelece três formas de problematizar o espaço público da ciclovia bogotana: a) o consenso do bem-estar social, a convivência saudável e a placidez visual são privilegiados para a produção de espaços sociais; b) a ciclovia de Bogotá pode ser considerada um grande palco por toda a cidade e que que combina diversos contextos expressões socioespaciais e artísticas e culturais: c) a ciclovia bogotana demarca formas de relacionamento com as ruas por meio do exercício do corpo, lazer e educação, a fruição pessoal e coletiva fazem parte de seus slogans. As perspectivas levantadas reúnem elementos para investigar dois problemas: 1) a produção da subjetividade, como construção sociocultural, fabricação, modelagem e consumo; 2) o espaço público como poder e governamento (RODRIGUEZ, 2017).

IV. Considerações Finais

Como síntese teórica deste ensaio, propõe-se um diagrama analítico da correlação de forças dinâmicas constituintes nos programas de ciclovias recreativas.

Quadro 1: Diagrama de análise dos programas de ciclovias recreativas



Fonte: Troncoso (2024)

Entende-se que estes programas ao serem demarcados por leis, decretos e regulamentos que definem suas respectivas organizações institucionais, os discursos dos gestores e as regulamentações políticas, foram arquivos que colaboraram na construção de um cenário epistêmico de saberes para estabelecer um regime de verdade da mobilidade ativa constituída como forma de governo nesse trabalho. A organização do evento se constitui como tecnologia política, por meio de suas lógicas de operacionalização específicas e variáveis ao contexto de sua execução. Assim sendo, estes programas se constituem como uma ferramenta particular de gerenciamento da conduta ciclista que colabora progressivamente para formar novos adeptos, por meio de uma forma dialógica específica de sensibilização ao educar sobre o uso da bicicleta, transformando a ambiência desses espaços públicos livres.

Diante da situação dramática de promoção de políticas públicas com vistas ao pedalar com segurança, no compartilhamento viário metropolitano, buscou-se problematizar o agenciamento da mobilidade ativa por bicicleta, por meio dos programas de ciclovias recreativas, entendendo que a população motorista ainda não está preparada cognitivamente, para ceder espaços viários para implementação de infraestrutura cicloviária, assim definido nas principais normativas brasileiras. Por fim, sendo uma prática governamental singular, com relações de poder específicas, o seu desenvolvimento operacional tem implicado novas condições de possibilidade para adesão massiva ao seu uso cotidiano com a formação da subjetivação ciclista no interior do conjunto de instituições, procedimentos, análises e cálculos da gestão estatal de trânsito qualificada desta forma de mobilidade ativa.

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A Comparative Study of the Effeect of Promotion on Employee Career Progression in Academics

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Abstract- Promotion is the progression of a worker in the ladder of an organization from a lower position to a higher position at the workplace with greater tasks and better working conditions at the workplace. This study sought to compare and analyze the effects of promotion requirements on career progression in two institutions of higher learning (KNUST and KTU). The mixed method was used as research design and the data was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. Questionnaires were used in this study to collect primary data from 92 respondents from the various institutions of higher learning institutions. Interview guide was also used to collect data from both staff. The analysis of the data revealed that before an academic staff are promoted, they are required to; conduct research work, supervise project works, engage in community services, and teach in fulfilling these requirements they turn to face some challenges; not enough resources to conduct research, stringent promotion criteria and lack of opportunities to serve on committees. The findings also revealed the effects of promotion requirements on career progression of academic staff, and one was that conference participation, teaching and project work supervision broadens knowledge of academic staff. Also, failure to publish the right quality of papers affects career progression. The analysis also goes on to prove if the requirements for non-academic staff promotion and these are knowledge of the university administration system, number of years worked, level of education, memo/report writing and in fulfilling these requirements they face these challenges; workload burden and staff feel pressured to meet promotion requirement.

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Prof. Abomaye-Nimenibo, Williams Aminadokiari Samuel [α] & Abomaye-Nimenibo, Rhoda Ikubesika [σ]

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I. Introduction

a) *Background of the Study*

In every year, employees of an organization enthusiastically wait for rewards of their efforts and achievements during the previous year(s) which would be evaluated and appreciated. Incentives such as rise in salary, employee benefits etcetera given to employees, give them a tremendous sense of satisfaction. But the most important motivating factor, which rejuvenate an employee with more enthusiasm and responsibility is "Promotion." (Employee Promotion; the ladder of motivation, published on 19th May 2011).

Fairweather, (2005) and Young, (2006) stated that promotion is the most important incentive used to motivate academic staff of universities. Also, Heathfield (2016), talked about Promotion as the progression of an employee from one job position to another of a higher service range, with a higher-level job title, with higher-level job responsibility in an organization.

The economists - Baker et al (1988) stated that promotion system served two main purposes. First, it selects able people for higher positions of greater responsibilities and secondly, it motivates employees of lower level to strive harder to reach a higher level (Lazear 1981).

According to an article shared by Chad (2016), there are three types of promotion namely Horizontal, vertical, and dry promotion. Horizontal promotion is lateral promotion. This is because the individuals remain in the same position, but their pay, rewards and benefits increase (Mathur, 2010). Dry promotion occurs when the statuses of individuals increases but not their salaries (Chad 2016). Vertical promotion is where employee advance from one rank to a higher rank with increase in responsibilities and salary.

Promotions in organizations is common but since our project focuses on academic institutions, we will limit ourselves to promotions in academic institutions, especially universities. A study conducted on Promotion system on Malaysian Universities by Azman et al (2016). Malaysian Universities rank system is of four career standings thus from lecturer to Senior Lecturer, Senior Lecturer to Associate Professor and from Associate Professor to a Full Professor. The findings of the study revealed six common criteria Malaysian public universities uses for academic promotion: Research and Publication, Teaching and

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Supervision, Academic Leadership, Consultancy, Conference Participation, and Service to University and Community. The promotion process in Malaysian public Universities starts with applicants submitting their curricula vitae. Their applications were reviewed by a faculty or university promotion committee and after that, the Curriculum Vita's of each of the shortlisted candidates were assessed by external assessors. The candidates are interviewed by a university committee headed by the dean. The University committee will make decision on whether the candidate is qualified for promotion based on the report form of the external assessor and the interview performance report (Omar et al, 2015).

Also, another study was conducted on promotion in South African university called University of KwaZulu-Natal. This study was conducted by Vithal et al. (2013) and the study revealed that the academic ranks start from Lecturer to Full Professor. University of KwaZulu-Natal's academic promotion policy was that promotion applicants should be evaluated in areas of Teaching, Scholarship and Research, Community Service and Development, and University Service. Furthermore, for one to be promoted to a professor, the person must be excellent in two of the areas mentioned above. The study showed that teaching activities do not receive same recognition as research - related activities (Young 2006). The process for which application for promotion in the year is conducted starts with either the Department or at the Faculty Academic Promotion Committee who are responsible for such promotions evaluate each candidate's application based on the relevant criteria and passes a recommendation to the College academic promotions committee. Teaching portfolios submitted by candidates are being assessed by the faculty teaching portfolio assessment committee together with the sub-committee of faculty promotion committee and a member from the Quality Promotion and Assurance Department. After all these assessments, the college academic promotion committee makes the final decision on academic promotion and records the evaluation outcome of both approved and unapproved applications of the candidates, and these are recorded by the Senior academic promotion committee.

The University of Science and Technology succeeded Kumasi College of Technology which was established by a government ordinance on 6th October 1951. It was officially opened on 22 January 1952. The Kumasi College of Technology was transformed into Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) under an Act of Parliament on 22nd August 1961. The school is in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. It has six Traditional Halls for residence. They are Unity, University, Independence, Republic, Africa, and Queen Elizabeth II. The Vision of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology is "Advancing knowledge in Science and Technology for sustainable development in Africa." The vision entails providing an enabling environment for scientific and technological teaching, research and entrepreneurship training for industrial and socio-economic development of Ghana, Africa, and other nations. Some of their core values include Leadership in innovation and Technology, culture of excellence, diversity and equal opportunity for all and Integrity and stewardship of resources (University's website).

Kumasi Technical University (formerly called Kumasi Polytechnic) is in the heart of the Garden city of West Africa, in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Kumasi Technical Institute was established in 1954, but became polytechnic on 30th August 1963 and in 2016, it became a Technical University. The vision of Kumasi Technical University is to be a Centre of Excellence for tertiary level training of technical and professional human resources with entrepreneurial skills. It has the mission of providing a serene environment to for teaching, research, skills acquisition and entrepreneurship training in science, technology, applied arts and social sciences for industrial and community development. This was done to attract students and scholars from local and international communities and to provide consultancy services. Some of the core values are Leadership by example, good stewardship, pacesetting, integrity, and institutional patriotism (University's website).

Based on our research on other universities, we found that most of the universities have academic ranks. According to the Azman et al. (2016) study, the academic ranks of Malaysian Public universities start from Lecturer and ends at full professor. We also found that, for university staff to get promoted, they must meet certain criteria. Examples of such criteria have been illustrated in the same study, and it revealed six criteria for promotion i.e., Research and Publication, Teaching and Supervision, Academic Leadership, Consultancy, Conference Participation, and Service to University, and the University Community. Universities do not just promote staff; they have processes that their staff follow to get promotion. The Azman et al. (2016) study showed that staff of Malaysian Public universities apply for promotion, they are being interviewed, they are assessed by external assessors and based on the report from the external assessor and interview reports, the right staff get promoted.

Many studies have been conducted on promotion systems, but none of them have made comparison of promotion systems between two institutions. Therefore, the reason for this study is to take two institutions of higher learning and make comparisons between their promotion systems to know whether there are differences or similarities between these two institutions.

b) Statement of the Problem

A study was conducted in 2003 by the Scottish Council for Research in education showed that, procedures for promotion in institutes of higher learning are “shrouded in secrecy” and lack of transparency but the “benefit of transparency” depends on who is talking” (p.2).

Another study was conducted by Azman et al (2016) and National Higher Education Research Institute (IPPTN, 2010) on Academic promotion in Malaysian public universities. This study was focused on the critical issues and challenges faced by Malaysian Public universities during promotion of academic staff.

A further study conducted by Omstein et al (2013) on Promotion at Canadian Universities, The Intersection of Gender, Discipline, and Institutions. The study revealed that, male and female gain promotion to associated professor the same time but men get promoted to full professor one year faster than women.

Furthermore, Oforiwaa and Broni (2013) carried out similar study in Ghana on Gender and Promotion at the Workplace. This study was conducted at the University of Education, Winneba and the result revealed that, same promotion criteria used for both male and female senior members, but the female faces more challenges when it comes to promotion.

A study was conducted in University of KwaZulu-Natal by Vithal et al (2013), titled Valuing Teaching in University Academic Promotions and the study revealed that men are more likely to apply for higher ranks than women because of family responsibilities and gender discrimination. It also revealed that applying for a position of lower rank was more successful than applying for a senior rank position.

Many studies have been conducted as far as Promotion system in universities is concerned, some of the studies conducted so far touch on the issues and challenges in academic promotion and Gender discrimination in promoting academic staff but none of them have done a comparative study of two universities. Despite previous studies, our study is still important since it focuses on comparative studies of two traditional universities and polytechnics which are now technical universities.

c) Objectives of the Study

i. General Objective

To compare and analyze the requirements for promotion in the traditional universities, using Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) and Kumasi Technical University (KTU) as comparative cases.

ii. Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

a. To determine the requirements for the promotion of academic and non-academic staff to the various ranks in the comparative cases.
b. To determine whether there are differences in the qualification requirements for promotion of academic and non-academic staff in the comparative cases.
c. To assess the challenges confronting academic and non-academic staff in meeting the promotion requirements in the comparative cases.
d. To determine the effects of the promotion requirements on career progression of both academic and non-academic staff of the comparative cases.

d) Research Questions

a. What is the promotional requirement for academic and non-academic staff in comparative cases?
b. What are the differences in the qualification requirement for promotion of academic and non-academic staff in the comparative cases?
c. What are the challenges confronting academic and non-academic staff in meeting the promotion requirement in the comparative cases?
d. What are the effects of the promotion requirements on career progression of both academic and non-academic staff of the comparative study?

e) Significance of the Study

This study is important in the sense that it will create awareness to the public on how promotion requirements affect their career progression of both academic and non-academic staff in traditional universities. Every prospective employee wants to move forward in terms of their career when they are employed, and this study will help them know what is required of them to get promoted and encourage them to advance themselves to meet the promotion requirement in institutions of higher learning.

Another significance of the study is to point out the difference between qualification requirements for the promotion of both academic and non-academic staff in the two traditional universities. This study will also help outsiders who would like to work in such institutions know what is required of both parties thus, the academic and non-academic to gain promotion so should in case they get employed there, they will know what to do to get promoted.

Also, the findings of this study will show the challenges both academic and non-academic staff go through in meeting the promotion requirement in the two institutions. The study will help prospective staff know the challenges the staff faces to meet promotional requirements in these two traditional universities.

Finally, this study will serve as springboard material for researchers who want to conduct further research on promotion systems, especially in institutions of higher learning since many studies have not been conducted in that area.

f) Scope of the Study

This study is focused on two traditional Universities in Ghana; Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) and Kumasi Technical University (KTU) and both are geographically located in the Kumasi Metropolis in Ashanti Region of Ghana. In these two traditional universities, our target group is the academic staff (Lecturers) and non-academic staff (non-lecturers) and within the non-academic staff, we have targeted the Registrars, and the administrative staff.

This study is engrossed in finding promotional requirements in these two universities. In recent years, these Technical Universities used to be called polytechnics and our study is to find out if there have been changes in their promotion requirement since they are called technical universities now as compared to the old traditional Universities.

The study also seeks to find out the challenges the staff faces in meeting the promotional requirements and the perception these staff have on the current promotional requirement in the two traditional universities.

II. Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

This section presents the literature review and conceptual framework on the study. It focused on defining promotion and underlying theories, definition of motivation and theories, career development and its dimensions or elements and definition of performance.

The study also highlights the promotion requirements in higher learning institutions, the challenges relating to these promotion processes and effects of promotion requirements on career progression.

a) Review of Relevant Concepts

i. Promotion

"Promotion is the progression of a worker in the ladder of an organization from position of lower level to a position of higher level at the workplace with greater responsibilities, better salary, higher status and better working condition at the workplace" (Gupta; 2011, Heathfield; 2016, Chad; 2016). According to Mathur (2010), promotion is not always about increase in ranks or status but one is seen to be promoted when there is increase in their job responsibilities, increase in their tasks, work with core management and increase in the field of work without them moving from their current rank to a higher rank.

The promotion of faculty members of universities is a major mechanism in improving and maintaining the quality and efficiency of higher education and research activities in a country (Gilavand, 2016). We talk of Promotion as the most vital incentive employed by universities to motivate academic staff (Diamond, 1999; Fairweather, 2005; Young, 2006).

Among the various approaches that organizations use to motivate their employees is promotion. This is the practice of placing employees from lower grades in the organization into higher grades with subsequent increase in salary on one hand and responsibilities on the other (Peters, 2014). Chruden and Sherman (1980) view promotion as the means to ensure effective utilization of skills and abilities those employees have been able to develop. Promotion can be viewed as a reward for what an employee has contributed to the organization. Owing to the merit an employee has to the organization; promotion might be a necessity to retain that employee.

ii. Motivation

Motivation is the force within individuals that arouses, directs, and sustains behaviour towards a goal (Bagraim; 2003, Greenberg; 1996; Kinicki; 2004). The Society for Human Resource Management (2010) defined motivation as generally the psychological forces that direct a person's level of effort, as well as a person's persistence in the face of obstacles. Badu (2005) defined Motivation as a human psychological characteristic that adds to an individual's degree of commitment.

Maurer (2001) stated that rewards and recognition are key factors in developing employee job satisfaction and work motivation is sincerely correlated to organizational achievement (June et al; 2006).

Motivation is a planned managerial process which kindles employees to work to the best of their competences, by providing them with motives which are based on their unsatisfied needs (Chad, 2016). "To be motivated is to be moved into action or to decide on a change" (Schopenhauer, 2003). Human resources are essential to the prosperity, productivity, and performance of companies.

Chavakkad (2010) asserted that motivation forms the core of management. Employee motivation is one of the tools and strategies employed by managers to increase effectual job management among employees in organizations (Shadare et al., 2009).

According to the expectancy-valence theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964), people are motivated to put forth effort if they expect that the effort will lead to good performance, and that the effort will be instrumental in attaining valued outcomes (Katzell and Thompson, 1990). Expectancy-valence theory applied to work settings suggests that employees put forth more effort in performing their job tasks if they believe that the satisfactory performance will result in both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

We have a lot of motivational theories that influence organizations in managing employees to maintain a motivated workforce. These theories have explained in one way, or the other, the reasons for the behaviour of people at workplace and the application of these theories on employees brought out the best in them enhancing commitment to work. However, because of the complex nature of the issues arising in motivating people, it has never been an easy task for organizations to motivate workers for effective performance. In support of this argument, Vroom and Deci (1970) stated that what motivates workers to perform effectively is not an easy one to answer. Certainly, a motive is something that triggers a person to act the way he did, being the reason for his/her behaviour.

Whereas motivation is the force within an individual that accounts for the level, direction and persistence of effort expended at work (Schermerhom et al; 1985). Motivation is not the same for top management and employees, as different factors influence different levels of employees and that rewards influences motivation to enhance productivity (Mills and Walton, 1984).

iii. *Performance*

Aguinis (2009) states that, performance is about behaviour of employees and not the results of their work. Also, Campbell (1990) defined performance as Behaviour. Baldrige Criteria (Business performance improvement resource, 2007), states that performance refers to output results which outcomes obtained from processes, products, and services causes evaluation and comparison relative to goals, and standards set, past results of employees, in comparism with other organizations. Performance is expressed in financial and non-financial terms.

Performance Appraisal is a systematic and periodic process that measures the productivity and performance of employees based on the objectives of the organization and certain established criteria (Muchinsky 2012, Flippo 1984). “Performance Appraisal is the formalized means of evaluating employee performance in comparison to certain recognized organizational standards” (Riggio 2008: p 125). Performance appraisal is an integral part of performance management” (Aguinis, 2011: p3).

Performance Management is said to be a continuous process of recognizing, rating, and developing the performance of individual workers in teams and allying performance with strategic goals of the organization (Aguinis, 2007). Armstrong (2006) opined that Performance Management is a systematic process for improving organizational performance of individuals and teams.

According to Prasad (2010), Promotion is the reward for better work performance at the workplace. According to Foschi (2,000), Employees who are due for promotion are to work harder. Effective performance forms part of the criteria used for promotion so therefore, employees turn to increasing their performance by working harder knowing that their outstanding performance will lead to promotion. Performance is therefore relevant as far as promotion is concerned.

iv. *Career Development*

According to Gibbons (1995), career development involves "helping people to choose organizations and career paths and to attain career objectives. In a narrower sense, a career development programme helps employees to analyze their abilities and interests to better match their personal needs for growth and development with the needs of the organization.

By either definition, career development was founded upon the goal of matching individuals' needs and desires with the need of an organization to meet its mission. Christiana (2014) was of the view that career is a sequence of positions in an organization occupied by an individual during his employment.

Consistent with recent studies, career success can be defined in terms of objective and subjective dimensions (Judge and Bretz, 1994; Judge et ah, 1995). Real career success is a visible career achievement that can be measured as pay and promotion rates (London and Stumpf, 1982). Given this definition, career progression can be said to mean the upwards movement or advancement made by people in a particular job including higher remunerations and promotion rates.

Judge et al, (1995) talked about career success as the feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction of an individual over his/her chosen career, that was partially resident upon one’s objective indicators. In relation to this definition, one subjective indicator of career success is the individual's or subordinates self-report of career satisfaction, with features including career advancement, salary growth, and professional development (Greenhaus et al, 1990).

Research has also proposed that applicable others may make judgments about an individual's career success based on objective indicators (Jaskolka, Beyer and Trice, 1985).

In most cases, a subordinate’s supervisor or the human resource manager usually makes the final recommendations for pay raise and promotion decisions, the supervisor's judgments of the subordinate's career success are very crucial in the career success assessment. Thus, the supervisor's assessment of the subordinate's promotability is a second subjective indicator of career success.

Lalith (2003) saw Career development as the process where individual career plans encounter organizational realities. Individual development interacts with the organization and its development through the individual’s career. Career development, therefore, is of significance for both individual and organization and for human resource development. Lalith concluded that career developmental activities include all the off-and-on-the-job training techniques.

b) Review of Theoretical Literature

There are number of theories which have been used to explain the concept of promotion in organization. The following are some of the theories that underpin promotion:

i. *Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (1959)*

Herzberg (1966) two factor theory states that, there are some factors in the workplace that cause job satisfaction, while others causes dissatisfaction at the workplace. The factors that cause satisfaction are known as motivators while the other factors are desirable as the hygiene factors. Herzberg said that humans live at two levels: physical and physiological levels. He asked workers to record why they felt extremely good or bad.

The Motivators place emphasis on the actual job itself with how much opportunity it gives for additional recognition, responsibility, and promotion. The Hygiene factors are factors which surround the job rather than the job itself. A worker will show up early at work only if a company has provided a rational level of pay and better working conditions, but these factors will not make him work extra hard at his job once he is there (Knights and Willmott, 2007).

Herzberg et al (1959), proposed some methods Management can use to achieve the theory and they include job Enlargement, job enrichment, and empowerment. Job enlargement is concerned with an employee being given distinct kinds of tasks to perform which should make the job more exciting. The job enrichment is a management concept that involves restructuring jobs so that they are more challenging to the employee and have less monotonous work and the Empowerment is giving employee more power to make decision concerning the job.

ii. *Equity Theory*

John Stacey Adams, a workplace and behavioural psychologist, introduced the equity theory in 1963, and he introduced the idea of fairness and equity as the key components of a motivated individual.

Equity theory states that if people perceive unfairness when they compare their work situation to others, they are likely not to be motivated to do something about their job and will find other means to create a better sense of fairness. (Contemporary Theories of Motivation-Equity Theory). The theory distinguishes between felt negative inequities and positive inequity. Negative inequity occurs whereby an individual feels that he or she is less paid in terms of compensation, recognition, or advancement when compared to others are, in proportion to work input. On the other hand, felt positive inequity occurs when an individual feels that, compared with others, he or she is getting more (Commonwealth of Learning, 2003).

Adams (1963) believed that people value fair treatment which causes motivation to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their fellow colleagues at the workplace and the organization. Adams (1965) went on to say that anger in a place of work is in most cases not induced by underpayment inequity, While Spector (2008) stated that guilt in the workplace induces overpayment equity.

Studies have demonstrated that, when individuals perceive that compensation and reward systems are equitable, they have greater levels of job satisfaction and are keen to commit to organizational objectives (Commonwealth of Learning, 2003).

iii. *Expectancy Theory*

In 1964, Victor H. Vroom developed the expectancy theory through his study of motivations behind decision making. The Expectancy theory assumes that behaviour results from conscious choices among substitutes whose purpose is to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Vroom and MacCrimmon, 1968). Vroom theory stresses the needs for organizations to link rewards directly to performance, which should be provided to those that deserved it and equally needed by the recipients.

The expectancy theory is of the opinion that individuals have different sets of goals and are usually motivated when they see a positive link between efforts and performance; while favorable performance evokes desirable reward; which satisfy an important need to satisfy the need that is strong enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Vroom developed three key variables in the expectancy theory, and these are Valence (V), Expectancy (E), and Instrumentality (I). Expectancy (E) variable is the belief or trust that a person's efforts will lead to the attainment of his/her desired performance. Instrumentality (I) is the belief that a person is rewarded if he/she meets the performance expectation and the Valence (V) is the value an individual places on rewards.

iv. *Theory X and Y*

Douglas McGregor in 1960 propounded "The theory X and Y" at the MIT Sloan School of Management. This theory describes two contrasting models of workforce motivation, and they are Theory X and Theory Y. These two models are general assumptions of motivation of workers because of two different managerial styles.

Under the theory X, employees in this category inherently do not like work and they will avoid work if they could do so and they also avoid responsibility and only achieve goals when there is a reward or an award attached to it. Most workers dislike work and must be controlled and strictly supervised before they work harder. It is normally associated with the autocratic management style. Under theory X, McGregor meant that managers assumed that some employees are lazy and preferred to be told what to do. Also, managers here believed that achievements, advancement, recognition, and responsibility were not important motivational attitudes held by a worker and because of that they believed that employees are only motivated by money, fringe benefits, good working conditions, and threat of punishment for failure to work.

Theory Y is the opposite of theory X and according to McGregor, this was a better belief for managers to give workers the autonomy to do their work. The theory Y assumes that employees enjoy working, they love to assume responsibility and are taking initiative to complete tasks. Employees here have need for achievement, and they also view work as fulfilling and challenging. Under this theory, employees want organization to succeed so they help solve problems relating to their job in a creative manner to achieve organizational goal. Employees under this theory are not controlled by their managers. McGregor argued that managers who believe in theory Y as a basis of motivation for workers would get the highest productivity from their employees. Managers here believed that achievements, recognition, and responsibility are good motivational attitudes held by employees.

v. *The Three Needs theory*

The Three Needs Theory was developed by an American psychologist called David McClelland, in the 1960s. This theory attempts to explain how needs for achievement, power and affiliation affect activities of people from a managerial context. He created what is known as the TAT — Thematic Appreciation Test, to measure human needs and through that test, he developed the Need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power.

Need for achievement (n-Ach) refers to a person's desire for a significant accomplishment and lofty standards. Achievement based individuals like to work and they want their results to be based on their effort. They also desire to receive feedback on their work. Individuals here are motivated by accomplishment in the workplace and an employment hierarchy with promotional positions.

Need for affiliation (n-Aff) refers to creating social relationships, enjoying being part of a group and having the desire to feel loved and accepted in the group. Individuals here do not compete with fellow workers at the workplace but rather collaborate with them and obey the norms of the organization to avoid rejection at the workplace. People here work better in positions which require social interactions.

Need for power (n-Pow) refers to people who enjoy working and places high value on discipline at the workplace. Individuals here are motivated by the need to enjoy status recognition, competition, winning arguments and influencing others to do things.

According to McClelland, the Need for achievement is the most crucial to a nation's economic progress as it contributes to entrepreneurial success. Achievement-motivated people can be the backbone of most organizations. Managers should raise the achievement need level of subordinates by creating the proper work environment (Gupta, 2011:33.20-33.24).

Five theories have been discussed above, and all the theories underpin promotion. But the theory which is more relevant to this study is the Herzberg motivating factors. Herzberg proposed two factors, and these factors are the motivating factors and the Hygiene factors. As far as promotion is concerned, Herzberg's motivating factors are more linked to promotion. This is because the motivating factors talk about things that are concerned with the job itself and make job more interesting, and promotion is one of those things. Some organizations introduce promotion policies that serve as a direct motivation for employees to work extra harder to gain promotion in the organization just like our study says.

c) *Review of Emperical Literature*

i. *Promotion Requirements in Institution of Higher Learning*

a. *Requirements for Academic Staff*

Schneider (2017) defines Academic staff of a university as the professors of various ranks, lecturers, and/or researchers in the universities. Looking at the promotion requirements of academic staff, the University of Cape coast statute (2012) revealed what is required of academic staff to get promoted. According to the statute, for one to progress from Lecturer to Senior Lecturer, the staff must have been engaged in the University teaching, research and community service as a lecturer for at least four (4) years and have at least five (5) publications to his/her credit. Also, for a Senior Lecturer to get promoted to Associate Professor, he/she must have been engaged in university teaching, research and community service as a Senior Lecturer for at least four years and must have at least seven (7) publications to his/her credit after promotion to the rank of senior lecturer. It was indicated in the statute that, for an Associate Professor to gain promotion to a Full Professor, he/she must have been engaged in university teaching, research and community service as an Associate Professor for at least two (2) years, must have twenty (20) refereed publication and at least eight (8) of which must have been published after appointment as Associate professor.

Also, the University of Ghana Special reporter (2016) revealed some academic positions and their promotion requirements. According to the University's special reporter, gaining promotion to the grade of Senior Lecturer or Senior Research fellow is based on teaching, research, scholarly work, university service, and professional activities. Moreso, getting promotion to Associate professor grade, the requirements include outstanding scholarship in the candidate's field of teaching and research and contribution to the university, department, and the public service. For promotion to a grade of Full Professor, one's promotion requirement is based on internationally acknowledged scholarships in the candidate's field of teaching and research and contribution to the university, department, and public services.

A study which was conducted by Azman et al (2016) on academic promotion of Malaysian public universities had some requirements that are expected of academic staff to meet and gain promotion. These requirements are based on the Ministry of Higher Education guidelines of Malaysia (Moher, 2010) and the study conducted by Omar et al (2015). This study made the requirements general for all the ranks in Malaysian Universities. According to this study, for one to move from one rank to another, staff must be highly active in teaching and learning, engaging themselves in both postgraduate and undergraduate supervisory activities such as thesis supervision and examination invigilation. Also, staff must engage in research activities, write and publish several articles, journals and books both internationally and nationally. Also, for an academic staff to get promoted, they must be engaged in community service activities and other governmental activities that contribute to nation building.

Another study conducted by Gilavand (2016) also revealed some of the requirements that academic staff must meet to get promoted to the next rank in their career. This study was conducted in the Islamic Republic of Iran and the study used universities and Higher education institutions that are affiliated to the Ministry of Health and Medical Education. Four major requirements were used to promote staff, and these requirements are Cultural, Educational, Research and Educational activities. Staff will be assessed based on all these four areas and if they get the appropriate score for all, they get promoted to the next rank. Also, one can apply for promotion after four (4) years of stopping at a current rank and staff are required to publish papers in journals like the Lancet and JAMA.

b. *Requirements for Promotion of Non-Academic staff*

Non-Academic/non-teaching staff are employees within an academic or university environment whose job do not involve teaching (Collins English Dictionary, 2017).

According to the Regulation Governing conditions of service of senior staff in the Obafemi Awolowo University (Ile-Ife-Nigeria, 1982), promotion requirement of non- academic staff varies and depends on the position. No Administrative, technical, and professional staff shall be promoted until the staff has spent two years on a position. For one to get promoted from Administrative Officer II to Administrative Officer I, one is required to have experience in university administration, honest and could keep confidential information and one should be able to respond to training on the job. Gaining promotion from Administrative Officer I to Assistant Registrar requires staff to have knowledge in the university system, report writing and minutes writing, should be dependable and able to anticipate problems and find solutions to them.

The University of Cape Coast Statute (2012) pointed out some non-academic positions and the requirements to meet and gain promotion to those positions within the University. According to the statute, for an Assistant Registrar to get promoted to Senior Assistant Registrar, one must have served as Assistant Registrar in the University for at least four (4) years, the staff must have at least five (5) publications to his credit and also achieve "above average" performance in "ability in work" and average performance in two other areas one of which should be "Promotion of profession". Also, from Assistant Accountant/Junior Internal Auditor to Accountant/Assistant Internal Auditor, staff must have served in that position in the University or similar University for minimum of two (2) years, must attain "above average" performance in "ability in work" and average performance in two other areas and must have at least one publication to his/her credit. Therefore, if staff satisfy all those requirements stated above, he/she gets promoted to the next rank within the University.

The Covenant University statute (2010) in Nigeria revealed the criteria for promotion of non-teaching staff in the university. The University has general criteria that non-teaching staff in the institution are to meet in gaining promotion to the next rank. So, for a non-teaching staff to get promoted to the next rank, the criteria include General ability, Disposition to work, Initiative, personal integrity, attitude to work and experience. Also, staff are required to serve for at least two (2) years in their current rank before progressing to the next level. Additional qualifications and outstanding level of performance forms part of the promotion requirement for non-teaching staff in Covenant University.

A study was conducted by Peter (2014) on the impact of promotion on performance of employees at the Dar es Salaam city council in Tanzania. This study revealed some basic criteria for promoting employees at Dar es Salaam city council which include exhibiting high work performance, showing competency (professionalism) at work and having more working experience. Also, academic qualification forms part of the requirement and this was specified in Public Service Scheme (2003) of Tanzania. Good character and integrity were also considered as a criterion for promoting staff.

Azman et al (2016) conducted study in Malaysia and the objective of the study was to determine the issues and challenges of academic promotion in Malaysian Universities. This study used questionnaires as a method for gathering information. The findings of this study revealed six (6) common promotion requirement (criteria) among the Universities. These criteria include Research and publication, Teaching and supervision, Academic leadership, Consultancy, Conference participation and Service to the University and Community. This study revealed promotional requirements for only academic staff but as far as our study is concerned, we seek to find out the promotion requirement for both academic and non-academic staff of the two Institutions of higher learning.

Gilavand (2016) also conducted a study in Islamic Republic of Iran, and the objective of the study was to determine the faculty member's rank promotion in universities affiliated to the Ministry of Health and Medical Education. The methodology used here was interviews and searching from international databases such as Thomson Reuters, Scopus, PubMed, EMBASE, Cochrane Library and others. The findings of this study revealed four (4) criteria for promotion, and they include Cultural, Educational, Research and Executive activities. Our study is different from theirs in the sense that their focus was on academic staff only but ours covers both academic and non-academic staff.

A study was also conducted by Peter (2014) in Tanzania, and the main objective of the study was to assess the impact of promotion towards employees' performance for the public organization. This study used both interviews and questionnaires as the method for collecting data. The findings of the study revealed some basic criteria for promoting employees at Dar es Salaam city council which include exhibiting high work performance, showing competency (professionalism) at work and having more working experience and educational level. This study focused on promotion in organizations, but our study is based on Institutes of higher learning and not organizations.

c. *Major Differences in Promotion Requirements of Academic and Non-academic staff*

The table below shows the difference in promotion requirements of both Academic and Non-Academic staff.

Table 2.1: Table Showing the Differences between the Requirement for Promotion of Academic and Non-academic Staff

Academic Staff	Non-Academic Staff
1. Academic staff are required to conduct some number of research as part of their promotion requirements.	Non-academic staff are required to conduct some research in their field of work to get promoted.
2. Teaching is part of their requirements for promotion	Teaching is not a requirement for their promotion.
3. Academic staff are to publish a sizable number of articles in journals as part of their promotion requirement.	Non-academic staff are to publish some memos not articles and this forms part of their promotion requirement.
4. Human relations do not serve as promotion requirement for academic staff	Human Relations serve as a requirement for promotion of non-academic staff.

Source: Construct by authors, 2017

ii. *Challenges Confronting Promotion Systems*

a. *Challenges Relating to Academic Staff*

In 2014, Broni and Oforiwaa conducted a study by looking at the challenges staff faces during promotion of Gender in Higher Education. This study was conducted in University of Education, Winneba, Ghana, and it revealed some challenges faced by female staff in the university. One of the Challenges was that female academic staff are less involved in research work which is a major requirement for promotion in the university. Therefore, it makes it difficult for female academic staff to compete with male academic staff who are more involved in research work. Overall, the male academic staff gets promoted faster that female staff.

Creamer (1998) confirmed that, female academic staff involvement in research and obtaining research grants were less in comparism with male academic staff. This resulted in the female academic staff having small publications to their credit as compared to male academic staff. This study further revealed that, male academic staff can produce up to 32 publications in refereed articles, whereas the female academic staff produce 19 refereed articles in journals. In addition, most of the female academic staff tend to be overrepresented as non-publishers and under-represented among prolific authors. The low publishing productivity of women, affect their visibility and ability to write faster in terms of promotion. As a result, most female academic staff who are hired in academia ends up remaining at the bottom of the progression ladder with few of them climbing through the ranks of higher professional grades.

Azman et al (2014) also conducted a study on Promotion in Malaysian Universities and his study also revealed some challenges and issues in academic promotion. One of the challenges was different promotion system within one salary structure. The guidelines and standards for evaluating promotion in Malaysian Universities has become stricter mainly because, their research missions and promotion requirements had risen. Consequently, the competition for research in these universities is high and with single salary system and more strict promotion criteria required of the academic staff, this has served as a disadvantage with increase in research and publication activities added to their teaching workload which is already tedious. The different academic promotion requirements in these universities which entail their own set of descriptive standards, specified number of activities were expected to gain promotion and all this with one salary structure, has created unhappiness and dissatisfaction among many academic staff.

b. *Challenges Relating to Non-Academic Staff*

Studies for the challenges for non-academic staff are quite scant as far as our study is concerned. Therefore, we will review some studies which relate to other staff who are not in the institutions of higher learning.

Peter (2014) conducted a study on the impact of promotion on employee performance at the Dar es Salaam City Council (DCC) in Tanzania. This study also revealed some challenges staff go through to get promotion. One of the challenges was that the Human Resource department does not conduct awareness programs for employees to know more about the promotion process and the rules and regulations regarding promotion at Dar es Salaam city council. It also revealed that the involvement of staff in the promotion process was exceptionally low. These challenges have led to several employees not getting promotion at the council. Also, due to inadequate communication, the promotion criteria are not clearly spelt out to employees, and this makes it difficult for them to fill their promotional forms. The study also revealed biases in promotion as one of the challenges in DCC in the sense that some employees were promoted after every three (3) years but for some employees who are due for promotion were left for more than eight (8) years without getting promotion to their next rank.

A study was conducted by Broni and Oforiwaa (2014) in Ghana and the objective was to explore the structural arrangements and dynamics associated with the promotion process in University of Education, Winneba with specific reference to gender. Semi-structured Interview was used as a method of gathering data for this study. The findings of this study revealed that the promotion criterion was not gender friendly because it places much emphasis on research and presentation of papers which goes against women in the institution. This study looked at gender discrimination as a challenge in promotion, but our study focuses on the challenges staff faces in attaining promotion.

Azman et al (2016) also conducted a study in Malaysia and the objective was to determine the issues and challenges of academic promotion in Malaysian Universities. Questionnaires were used as the method for gathering data. The findings of this study revealed some challenges and some of the challenges include promotion system with one salary structure, and the universities place more emphasis on research work as requirement for promotion. Our study is different from this study because this study focused on challenges relating to academic staff only but ours seeks to find out the challenges relating to both academic and non-academic staff.

Another study was conducted in Tanzania by Peter in 2014. The objective of this study was to assess the impact of promotion towards employees' performance for the public organization. This study used both interviews and questionnaires as the method for collecting data. The findings of this study revealed some of the challenges and they include budget constraints, delayed salary arrears, and bias in the promotion process. This study focused on the challenges of non-educational organization, but our study is focused on finding the challenges relating to all staff in two institutions.

iii. *Effects of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression*

a. *Effects relating to Academic Staff*

Azman et al (2016) conducted a study and it revealed some promotion requirements in Malaysian universities for which Research and Articles publications were some of the requirements for promotion in the universities. Such requirements as stated initially help academic staff to improve upon their current knowledge in their area of specializations because, through the process of getting their articles published and conducting research, they tend to encounter new ideas and knowledge that helps them not to only get promotion, but they end up upgrading their knowledge.

Research as a promotion requirement also has negative effect. Academic staff focuses more on research work and publishing of their articles since these are the main requirements for promotion. This effect teaching, which is the main purpose for which these academic staff were employed. Besides, it becomes tedious for those combining teaching and research resulting in excessive job stress and its consequential effects.

b. *Effects Relating to Non-Academic Staff*

Non-Academic staff also have their requirements different from that of academic staff. Looking at the University of Cape coast statute (2012), one of the promotion requirements of non-academic staff was publication. A Staff is required to publish some number of books and articles to his/her credit to get promoted. This has a positive impact on the non-academic staff because through the publishing of these books, it helps them gain in-depth knowledge in their area of work and get new working ideas and methods. This publication as a promotional requirement also affects non-academic staff in a negative way. This is because publication requires research, time, money and dedication and staff combine it with their main work. This makes it stressful for them to combine both, and it ends up making non-academic staff dissatisfied and makes them underperform.

Another study was conducted by Peter (2014) on employees in Dar es Salaam city council (DCC) in Tanzania and the study revealed some positive impact or outcome that promotion have on employees. The study revealed that employees who were promoted within three years were motivated, and they worked harder towards the achievement of Dar es Salaam city council objectives. Also, employees' remuneration increased as far as promotion is concerned and in 2013/2014 fiscal year, seventy-five (75) employees of DCC were able to acquire housing loans. Promotion also brought about good working relationship between employees and management of DCC. Also, promotion helped in filling vacant posts within the organization.

A study was conducted in Tanzania by Peter in 2014. The objective of this study was to assess the impact of promotion towards employees' performance for the public organization. This study used both interviews and questionnaires as the method for collecting data. The findings of this study revealed some positive effects of promotion, and they include motivation to work harder, increase in remuneration and establishment of good working relationships among management and staff. This study focused on the positive effects only, but our study seeks to find out both positive and negative effects of promotion.

Azman et al (2016) also conducted a study in Malaysia and the objective was to determine the issues and challenges of academic promotion in Malaysian Universities. Questionnaires were used as the method for gathering data. The findings of the study revealed that Research work broadens the knowledge of academic staff. This study focused on academic staff only but ours focuses on both academic and non-academic staff.

d) Implications of the Review of the Study

The Azman et al (2016) study revealed six common promotion requirements for academic staff in the universities in Malaysia and the requirements include Research and publication, Teaching and supervision, Academic leadership, consultancy, conference participation and service to the University and community. This study also revealed some challenges, and they include promotion system with one salary structure, and the universities place more emphasis on research work as requirement for promotion for academic staff. This study also revealed that Research work broadens the knowledge of academic staff.

Another study was conducted by Gilavand (2016) and the findings revealed four (4) criteria for promotion, and they include Cultural, educational, research and executive activities. A similar study was conducted by Peter (2014), and the findings revealed some basic criteria for promoting employees at Dar es Salaam city council which include exhibiting high work performance, showing competency (professionalism) at work and having more work experience. The findings also revealed some challenges, and they include budget constraints, delayed salary arrears, and bias in the promotion process. The findings of this study also revealed some positive effects of promotion, and they include motivation to work harder, increase in remuneration and establishment of good working relationship among management and staff.

Broni and Oforiwaa (2014) also conducted a study and the findings revealed that the promotion criterion was not gender friendly because it places much emphasis on research and presentation of papers which goes against women in the institution.

Studies conducted as far as promotion is concerned but as researchers we seek to find out if there are difference in the promotion requirement in the Ghanaian context as compared to the foreign studies and find out if Ghanaian staff go through same challenges in attaining promotion.

Most of the studies focused on academic staff promotion requirements, challenges and effects but as researchers, we seek to find out the promotion requirements for both academic and non-academic staff, the challenges both staff go through to progress through their careers and both positive and negative effects/outcome of the promotion requirements on their career progression. Also, as researchers we want to find out if there have been any changes in the promotion requirements in Kumasi Technical University since it was recently converted into Technical University.

e) Conceptual Framework

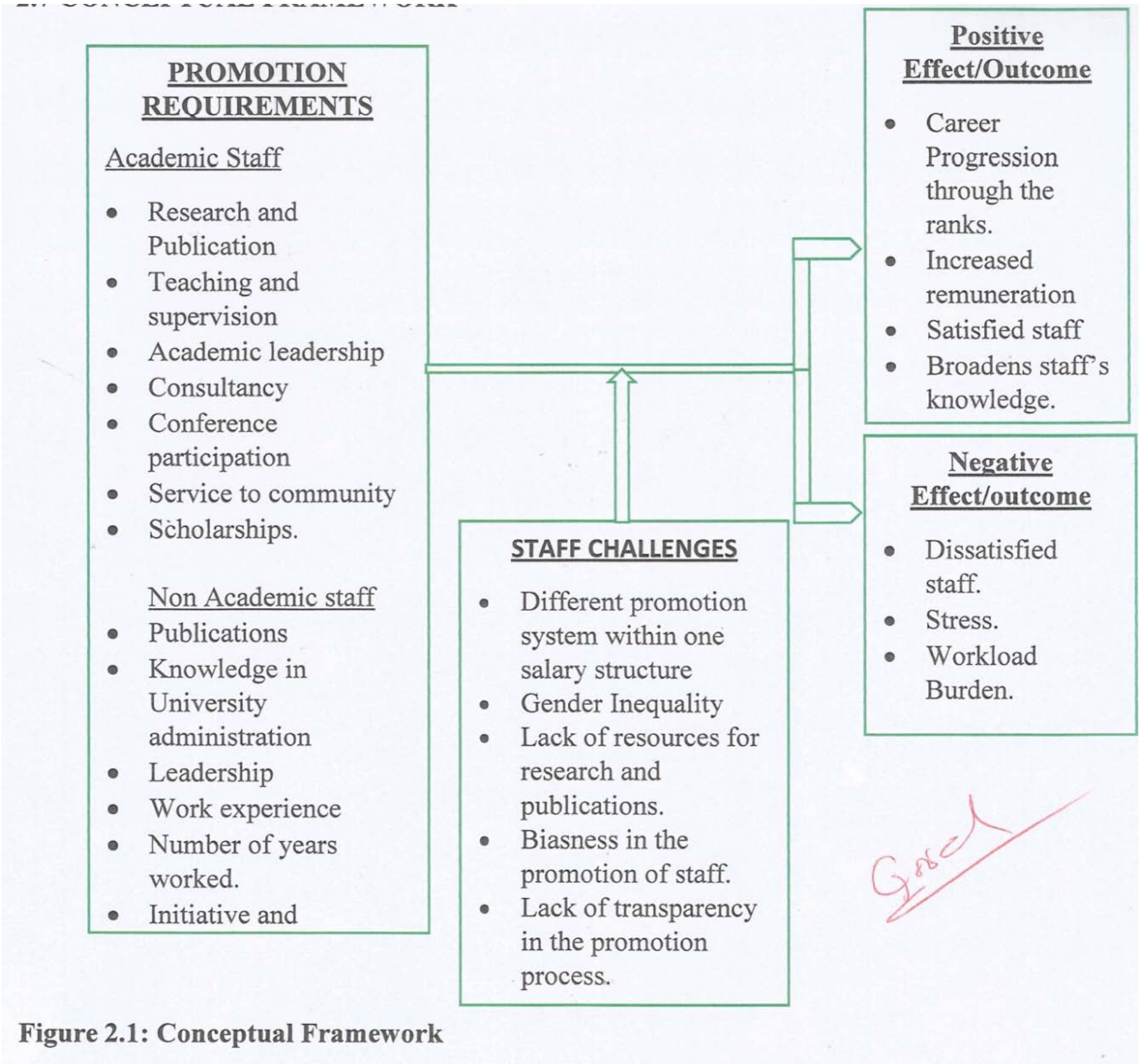

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framwork

The conceptual framework of our study shows the promotion requirement of both Academic and non-academic staff and the challenges they face to undergo the promotion. Through these challenges, we get both positive and negative outcomes. From the framework, we could see that the requirements for the academic staff are made of; Researching and Publication, Teaching and Supervision which are one of the primary assignments of academic staff, academic leadership, consultancy, conference participation, and community service. With the non-academic staff we could also see Publications, Knowledge in university administrative work, Leadership skills, working experience and Number of years one has worked all forming part of the requirements for non-academic promotion. Before both calibers of staff could achieve all these requirements, they turn to face some challenges through this process which includes, Gender inequality, Different promotion system with one salary structure, Lack of resources for research and publications and Biasness in the promotion of staff.

III. Method of Study

This section deals with the method applied in conducting the study through research design, population (Targeted respondents), sampling method, and Sample size. Data collection method and Instruments, Validity and Reliability tests of the instruments and Data Analysis Techniques, forms this section of the research.

a) Research Design

Research design gives the total techniques chosen and the purpose for the choice. The data collection methods, instruments used for data collection and how data was collected and analyzed are all included in the research design (Saunders et ah, 2009, p. 136).

i. *Research Strategy*

Research Strategy is defined as a general plan that helps researchers in answering the research questions in a systematic way (Saunders, 2007). Research strategies can be grouped into three types namely, quantitative research, qualitative research, and mixed method.

(a) Bryman and Bell (2015) stated that quantitative research is a research strategy which emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data. It also requires a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing of theories. Quantitative Research resorts to using measurable data to articulate facts and reveal patterns in research. Quantitative data collection methods are much more organized than Qualitative data collection methods. The data collection methods here include various forms of surveys such as paper reviews, face-to-face interviews, others form of interviews and longitudinal studies.

(b) Bryman and Bell (2015) further stated that Qualitative research is a strategy that usually highlights words rather than quantification in data collection analysis. It places emphasis on an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, in which the emphasis is placed on the generation of theories. It provides insights into the issue or helps to develop ideas that aid in potential quantitative research. Some common methods in quantitative research include focus groups discussions, individual interviews, and participation or observation.

(c) Mixed methodology is a research strategy that combines both quantitative and qualitative research strategies for the purpose of in-depth understanding and corroboration (Burk et al., 2007).

This study employed mixed methods in research strategy to obtain information on the effect of promotion system on career progression.

ii. *Research Purpose*

This study adopted descriptive research design. Descriptive research design is concerned with finding out what, where and how a phenomenon is (Cooper and Shindler; 2003). Descriptive research design is more appropriate as it seeks to establish what, who, where and when a phenomenon is. This design was more appropriate in providing an in-depth understanding of the effects of promotion systems on career progression in institutions of higher learning.

b) Target Population

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) stated that Target population is that population complete of individuals, cases, or objects with some shared features to which the researcher wants to generalize the results of the study. KNUST has a staff population of three thousand, seven hundred and thirty (3,730) and out of the staff population, academic staff are one thousand, one hundred and fourteen (1,114) and non-academic staff are two thousand, six hundred and sixteen (2,616). Kumasi Technical University has staff population of four hundred and ninety-eight (498) academic staff and two hundred and thirty-four (234) non-academic staff. Our target population for this study are the lecturers, registrars, and administrative staff within the two universities.

c) Sampling Method and Sample Size

Trochim (2006) categorized Sampling as the process of selecting units from people of interest so that by studying the sample population, by equitably generalizing results which are traced back to the population from which they were chosen. The sample method used in this study is the simple random method where members of the population stand the chance of being selected. The sample size for this study is fifty (50) each of academic and non-academic staff from KNUST and Kumasi Technical University.

i. *Data collection Methods and Instruments*

a. *Surveying using Questionnaires*

Saunders et ah, (2009, p.360) defined Questionnaires as "a general term to include all data collection methods in which a person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order". These questionnaires will be given to both academic and non-academic staff in KNUST and KTU to find out their promotion requirements, the challenges they go through to meet their promotion requirements and the effects of their promotion requirement on their career progression.

b. *Individual In-depth Interviews*

Interview can be described as a controlled conversation with purpose (Torrington et ah, 2002; Saunders et ah, 2009, p.318). The interview is 'a social encounter between an applicant and a representative, or representatives, of an employer (Pilbeam and Corbridge, 2006).

Our study employed semi-structured interviews because it facilitates in-depth interviewing.

Bernard (1988) is of the view that, in a situation where an interviewer will not have a second chance of interview, the best used method of interview is to send several interviewers out into the field to collect data. These in-depth interviews enabled the researcher to get detailed information from well-informed persons who are conversant with the specific aspects of issues concerning promotion requirement and career progression.

d) Validity and Reliability Test of the Instruments

i. *Validity and Reliability of the Study*

According to Phelan and Wren (2006), Validity is about measuring what was intended to measure while reliability is the degree to which research produces or measures consistent results or attributes. To guarantee validity of the study, the well-validated Comparative Study of Two Institutions of Higher Learning was followed closely. Phelan and Wren went to say that three different and commonly used tests should be used to evaluate the instruments to ensure the quality of the research. These are construct validity, external validity, and reliability.

a. *Construct Validity*

Construct validity is a method that ensures that the interviewer measures what he is projected to measure and not all the other variables. The interviewer may resort to using a board of experts accustomed to the construct validity in carrying out an interview for more accurate result. In construct validity, respondents are given the issues that the interview would be focused on in advance so that in this case, the respondent could prepare adequately for the interview and avoid misinterpretation. The supervisor for this study approves and comments on the interview guide before the interview is conducted. Some Students are also given the interview guide to scan through to make sure that the questions for the interview are understandable and easy to answer. Notes are taken during the interview to prevent loss of valuable data or information; some procedures are being completed to the questionnaires administered to the respondents of various higher learning institutions.

b. *External Validity*

External validity is all about generalization, it was amplified by interviewing people with the most familiarity in the field of Promoting of Employees. Again, some selected people were given questionnaires to answer regarding their experience with Promotion systems in higher level of educational institutions.

c. *Reliability*

Reliability is the degree to which assessment produces stable and consistent results (Saunders et ah, 2009, p. 156). With this, the researcher interviewed the right targeted people with sufficient knowledge that matches the organization. Several meetings took place before the interview was initiated to establish a good relationship with the respondents. This was done to make the respondent feel relaxed and comfortable around the researchers when giving out answers or information out. After collecting the information, the data is compiled and sent back to the respondent to perform correction if necessary to avoid faulty data.

e) Data Analysis Technics

i. *Qualitative Analysis*

Qualitative Analysis is one of the technics used in the range of processes and procedures in which qualitative data that has been collected is turned into some forms of explanation, interpretation in the understanding of the people and situation we were investigating. This type of data analysis is usually based on explanatory philosophy. The main aim of qualitative data analysis is to scrutinize the meaningful and symbolic content of qualitative data (Taylor and Gibbs, 2010).

ii. *Quantitative Data Analysis*

According to Taylor and Gibbs (2010), Quantitative analysis is the systematic method to investigate numerical data during which numerical data is collected, and the researcher transforms the data collected into numerical data. The quantitative data were analyzed using software known as Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). The results from the SPSS were categorized in a tabular form to allow easy discussion. Information gathered from the interview was also used to support the quantitative data analysis.

IV. Data Presentation and Analysis

a) Introduction

This study presents the data collected from the field and analyzes them to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives set which are to determine the requirements for promotion in the traditional universities, the challenges confronting both academic and non-academic staff and the effects of the promotion requirement on their career progression.

The study also will analyze the data from literature review. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze, interpret and present results in frequency, percentages, and tables. Questionnaires and interviews were the major instruments used for data collection.

The researchers administered one hundred (100) questionnaires to selected institutions who were sampled for the purpose of this study. Out of the one hundred (100) questionnaires issued, ninety-two (92) of them were returned dully filled, representing a response rate of 92%.

b) Demographic Details of Respondents

i. *Gender of Respondents*

To determine the gender composition of staff in KNUST and KTU, the respondents were asked to indicate their gender. The results are shown in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Table Showing Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	51	55
Female	41	45
Total	92	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.1 above, ninety-two (92) respondents out of one hundred (100) participated in the study, which represented 92%. Out of the ninety-two (92) respondents, fifty-one (51) were males representing 55% whilst forty-one (41) were females representing 45% of the respondents. The Table above shows that majority of employees of both KNUST and KTU are males, and this is a common thing in public institutions.

ii. *Age Distribution of Respondents*

Table 4.2: A Table Showing the Age Distribution of Respondents.

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
21-30	16	17
31-40	32	35
41-50	36	39
50 and above	8	9
Total	92	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Staff of the two institutions were assessed on their age distribution. Table 4.2 reveals that 17% of the respondents fall within age 21-30, 35% falls within age 31-40, 39% of the respondents also fall within age 41-50 and 9% are 50 years and above. This shows that. KNUST and KTU have more energetic and vibrant staff who continue to contribute to the success of the universities as far as Teaching, learning and University administration is concerned.

iii. *Educational Level of Academic Staff Respondents*

Table 4.3: Showing the Educational level of Academic Staff.

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
First Degree	1	2
Master's Degree	22	50
PhD.	21	48
Total	44	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.3 revealed that 50% of the academic staff respondents are master's degree holders, followed by 48% who have attained PhD, and only 2% are first degree holders. This research shows that staff in the two universities are well educated to execute their work in their various areas of specialization. This agrees with statement made by Peter (2014), Academic qualification is a crucial aspect to be considered during the promotion of employees in an organization.

iv. *Educational Level of Non-Academic Staff Respondents*

Table 4.4: Showing the Educational Level of Respondents.

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
HND	9	19
First Degree	18	37
Master's Degree	21	44
Total	48	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.4 revealed that 44% of the non-academic staff respondents are master's degree holders, followed by 37% first degree holders and 19% have HND. This research shows that non-academic staff in the two universities are well educated, and this will help contribute to the success of the University.

v. *Number of Years Served in the University*

Table 4.5: Showing the Number of Years Served by Staff.

Educational Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below 3 years	10	11
4-7 years	39	42
8-11 years	28	30
12-15years	7	8
15 years and above	8	9
Total	92	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.5 above revealed that 42% of staff worked with the institutions for 4-7 years, followed by 30% of the respondents who had worked between 8-11 years, 8% had worked within 12-15 years and 9% worked for 15 years and above. This shows that staff in the universities have spent more years and have acquired more experience in their various areas of specialization. This agrees with the statement that "All other things being equal, the higher the number of years of experience, the higher the level of performance" (Aguinis, 2009).

c) *Promotion Requirements for Academic and Non-Academic Staff*

Both Academic and Non-Academic staff were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the promotion requirements in their universities.

i. *Promotion Requirements for Academic staff*

During field interviews in KTU, some of the respondents made additional contributions to the requirements for promotion. One of the respondents stated:

"Serving as an exams officer is also a requirement for promotion in this school and also serving on committees" (TA2, 2017).

a. *Research as Part of Promotion Requirement*

Table 4.6(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Research as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	14	61
Agree	9	39
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.6(a) above shows that 61% of the respondents in KTU strongly agree that Research forms part of the promotion requirements and 39% also agree to the fact that research forms part of the promotion requirement. One respondent who was a senior lecturer in KTU also agreed on this. He stated that:

During my promotion, the amount of research that I conducted was taken into consideration and the kind of journals in which my papers were published. I think I presented four (4) papers for my promotion (TA2, 2017).

Table 4.6(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Research as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	16	76
Agree	4	19
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.6(b) above shows that 76% of the respondents in KNUST strongly agree that Research forms part of the promotion requirements, 19% also agree to the fact that research forms part of the promotion requirement and 5% strongly disagree that Research forms part of the promotion requirement for academic staff.

During our field interview in KNUST, we got one respondent who gave us information on research as a requirement for promotion. He detailed that:

As for KNUST, research is very vital during promotion of staff like me. During my promotion to a senior lecturer, I was required to present a minimum of four (4) papers of my research that I had conducted. The various promotion committees also checked the journals in which I published my papers, which is also particularly important. For one to move from the rank of senior lecturer to Associate Professor, one is required to serve as senior lecturer for at least five years and he/she is required to submit a minimum of six (6/ papers out of their own research and at least four (4) out the six (6) papers should be published in a highly recognized and refereed journals (KA2, 2017).

Our findings agree with statements made by Fairweather (2005) and Green (2008), that academic promotion is more pegged to research. Looking at Table 4.6(a) and Table (b), 100% of the respondents in KTU agree that research forms part of their promotion requirement and 95% of KNUST respondents agree that research is part of their promotion requirements. This shows that research is a more important requirement for promotion across the two universities.

b. *Teaching as Part of Promotion Requirement*

Table 4.7(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Teaching as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Academic Staff.

Responsee	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	14	61
Agree	8	35
Neither	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.7(a) above, 61% of the KTU respondents strongly agree that teaching forms part of the promotion requirements and 35% of the respondents also agrees to that. 4% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree that Teaching forms part of their promotion requirement. One respondent in KTU supported this assertion. During the interview, he said this:

Teaching is also especially important when one is being promoted. The promotion committee also checks the Quality and quantity of your exam's questions, teaching materials and students' assessments counts during promotion (TAi, 2017).

Table 4.7(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Teaching as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	11	52
Agree	9	43
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.7(b) depicts that; 52% of the KNUST respondents strongly agree that teaching forms part of their promotion requirements and 43% of the respondents agree to that. 5% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree that teaching form part of their requirement for promotion. In an interview conducted in KNUST, one respondent revealed that:

Teaching is a broad requirement but during assessment one is required to have quality exams questions, good learning materials and learning experiences with students. Student assessment reports are also important (KAi, 2017).

Teaching forms part of their promotion requirement. One respondent in KTU supported this assertion. During the interview, He said this:

Teaching is also particularly important when one is being promoted. The promotion committee also checks the Quality and quantity of your exam's questions, teaching materials and students' assessments counts during promotion (TAi, 2017).

Table 4.7(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Teaching as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	11	52
Agree	9	43
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.7(b) depicts that; 52% of the KNUST respondents strongly agree that teaching forms part of their promotion requirements and 43% of the respondents agree with that. 5% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree that teaching form part of their requirement for promotion. In an interview conducted in KNUST, one respondent revealed that:

Teaching is a broad requirement but during assessment one is required to have quality exams questions, good learning materials and learning experiences with students. Student assessment reports are also important (KAi, 2017).

The results from the above Tables 4.7(a) and 4.7(b) show that 96% of the KTU respondents and 95% of the KNUST respondents agree that teaching forms part of their promotion requirements.

c. *Project Supervision as Part of Promotion Requirement*

Table 4.8(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Project Supervision as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Academic Staff

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	10	44
Agree	9	39
Neither	3	13
Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.8(a) above, 44% of the KTU respondents strongly agree that project supervision forms part of the promotion requirements and 39% of the respondents also agree. 4% disagree, while 13% neither agree nor disagree that Project supervision forms part of the promotion requirement.

Table 4.8(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Project Supervision as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	57
Agree	5	24
Neither	1	5
Disagree	2	9
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The results from Table 4.8(b) show that 57% of the KNUST respondents agree that project supervision forms part of their promotion requirement and 24% also agree. 5% strongly disagree that project supervision forms part of their promotion requirement and 9% disagree while 5% of them neither agree nor disagree to the assertion that it forms part of their promotion requirement.

From the analysis of the two Tables, 4.8(a) and 4.8(b), it shows that project supervision forms part of the promotion requirement for academic staff in both KNUST and KTU. The research revealed that KNUST and KTU highly consider project supervision as a requirement for promoting their academic staff since 83% of KTU respondents and 81% of the KNUST respondents agree to it.

d. *Conference Participation as Part of Promotion Requirement*

Table 4.9(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Conference Participation as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Academic Staff

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	14	61
Agree	8	35
Neither	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From table 4.9(a) above, 61% of the respondents strongly agree that Conferences forms part of their promotion requirements, 35% of the respondents also agree while 4% neither agree nor disagree that Conferences forms part of the promotion requirement for academic staff in KTU. A respondent agreed to this during the interview. He said:

"Just attending conferences do not serve as a requirement but when your knowledge gained from the conference is being published, then it can be' regarded as one" (TAi, 2017).

Table 4.9(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Conference Participation as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	10	48
Agree	6	29
Neither	2	9
Disagree	2	9
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked whether conference participation forms are part of their promotion requirement or not. It revealed that 48% of the KNUST respondents strongly agree that conference participation forms part of their promotion requirement, 29% also agree to it, 5% strongly disagree while 9% neither agree nor disagree that conference participation forms part of their promotion requirement as indicated in Table 4.9(b).

The research further revealed that conference participation is a requirement for academic staff promotion, but KTU highly considers conference participation as a promotion requirement with 96% respondents agreeing to it than KNUST who had 77% agreeing to it.

e. *Community Service as Part of Promotion Requirement*

Table 4.10(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Community Service as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	15	71
Agree	3	14
Neither	1	5
Disagree	2	10
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The results from Table 4.10(a) above show that 71% of the respondents in KNUST strongly agree that Community service is one of their promotion requirements and 14% also agree that it forms part of their promotion requirements. Only 10% disagree with the statement while 5% are uncertain as to whether Community service forms part of their promotion requirement or not.

During our field interview one of the respondents supported this assertion. He stated that:

Yes, community service counts. For instance, when chief of Kotey calls us to give a talk during a community durbar, it is considered for my promotion since I rendered a service to the community. It is not only community service but also rendering services to the nation by serving as a member of a governmental committee (KAi, 2017).

Table 4.10(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Community Service as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Academic Staff

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	15	65
Agree	7	31
Neither	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.10(b) depicts that out of twenty-three (23) respondents, 65% of the respondents strongly agree that community service forms part of their promotion requirement. 31% agreed, 4% were not sure but none of the respondents strongly disagreed. This shows that greater percentage of them support the assertion.

From the analysis of Tables 4.10(a) and 4.10(b), community service forms part of the requirement for promoting academic staff in KNUST and KTU as the percentage of the respondents in agreement were 96% and 85% agreeing to it, respectively. This shows that both KNUST and KTU factors and value Employee Social Responsibility (ESR) as part of their expectations to merit promotion.

ii. *Promotion Requirements for Non-Academic Staff*

In an interview with one non-academic staff respondent in KNUST, he stated that:

There are four (4) main criteria for promotion that non-teaching staff are required to meet to get promotion. These requirements include Ability in work, application of knowledge, Human relations, and Service (KNi, 2017).

During our field interview, one KTU respondent told us that:

"Ability to perform excellently on your work and also ability to work in Team is also part of the requirements" (TN3, 2017)

Another Respondents in KTU stated that:

"One of the promotion requirements in this school is being innovative and also being able to work with minimal supervision" (TNi, 2017).

a. *Book Publication*

Table 4.11 (a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Book Publication as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Non-Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	10	40
Agree	1	4
Neither	2	8
Disagree	3	12
Strongly Disagree	9	36
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the above Table 4.11(a), 36% of the KTU non-academic staff respondents strongly disagree that Book Publication forms part of the promotion requirements of non-academic staff, 12% of the respondents also disagree, 40% strongly agree, 4% also agree whiles 8% are uncertain as to whether Book publication forms part of their promotion requirement or not.

One respondent disagreed with the issue that book publication forms part of promotion requirements of non-academic staff in KTU. He told us that:

"Book publication is not part of our requirement as non-academic staff. Ours is report writing rather" (TNi, 2017).

Table 4.11(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Book Publication as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Non-academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	2	9
Agree	8	35
Neither	1	4
Disagree	6	26
Strongly Disagree	6	26
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.11(b) depicts that, out of the twenty-three (23) respondents, 9% of the respondents strongly agree that book publication forms part of their promotion requirement. 35% agree, 4% were not sure, 26% of the respondents strongly disagree and 26% also disagree. In field interview, a respondent disagreed with this and testified that:

In KNUST, staff who fall into our category do not write nor publish books. Rather, we write memoranda or papers on current Administration procedures, current administration trends, relevant governmental administration procedures, and guidelines as I said earlier. Report writing also forms part of our criteria for promotion. For an Assistant Registrar to be promoted to Senior Assistant Registrar, he/she must publish at least 4 papers. The memoranda must lead to change in policy and must impact on policy implementation. (KN$_2$, 2017).

From the analysis of Tables 4.11(a) and 4.11(b), greater percentage of the respondents in KNUST and KTU representing 52% and 44% respectively disagree with the assertion. This means book publication is not a requirement for promoting non- academic staff in both KNUST and KTU.

b. *Knowledge in University Administration*

Table 4.12(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Knowledge in University Administration as Requirement for Promotion of KNUST Non-academic Staff

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	11	48
Agree	7	30
Neither	4	17
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.12(a) depicts that, out of the twenty-three (23) respondents, 48% of the respondents strongly agree that knowledge in University Administration forms part of their promotion requirement. 30% agree, 17% were not sure and 5% of the respondents strongly disagree that knowledge in the University administration is a requirement for promoting non-academic staff in KNUST. One of the respondents agreed to this in our field interview and stated that:

In fact, this is our main requirement for promotion of non-teaching staff. We are required to understand every hit of the University Administration system (KN3, 2017).

c. *Level of Education*

Table 4.13(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Education as Requirement for Promotion of KTU Non-Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	48
Agree	11	44
Strongly Disagree	2	8
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the above Table 4.13(a), 48% of the respondents in KTU strongly agree that level of education forms part of their promotion requirements, 44% of the respondents also agree and 8% strongly disagree. One of KTU non-academic respondents stated during our interview that:

"Level of education is especially important requirement during promotion. I for instance, I got to the position of Assistant Registrar by attaining a master's degree" (TN2, 2017).

Table 4.13(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Education as Requirement for Promotion of Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	9	39
Agree	12	53
Neither	1	4
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the above Table 4.13(b), 39% of the non-academic respondents in KNUST strongly agree that level of education forms part of their promotion requirements, 53% of the non-academic respondents also agree, 4% strongly disagree and another 4% neither agree nor disagree that level of education is part of their promotion requirement.

A KNUST non-academic respondent also stated in our field interview that:

Professional qualification plays a significant role if you were employed as a professional or specialist as opposed to a generalist (KN2, 2017).

Looking at the two Tables above, it shows that level of education forms part of the promotion requirements of KNUST and KTU since majority from the two institution agrees to that.

d. *Leadership skills*

Table 4.14(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Leadership Skills as Requirement for Promotion for Non-Academic Staff in KNUST

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	6	26
Agree	14	61
Neither	2	9
Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.14(a) pointed out that 26% of the non-academic respondents strongly agree that leadership skills forms part of their promotion requirement, 61% agree, 9% were not sure while 4% disagree.

Table 4.14(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Leadership Skills as Requirement for Promotion of Non-Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	10	40
Agree	10	40
Neither	2	8
Disagree	2	8
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.14(b) pointed out that, 40% of the non-academic respondents strongly agree that leadership skills forms part of their promotion requirement, another 40% agreed, 8% were uncertain while 4% strongly disagreed and 8% also disagreed.

The results from Tables 4.14(a) and 4.14(b) show that leadership skills forms part of the promotion requirement for KNUST and KTU non-academic staff.

e. *Number of Years Worked*

Table 4.15(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Number of Years as Requirement for KTU Non-Academic Staff Promotion.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	15	60
Agree	10	40
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the above Table 4.15(a), 100% of the KTU non-academic respondents agree that number of years spent in the organization forms part of their promotion requirements.

Table 4.15(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Number of Years as Requirement for KNUST Non-Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	52
Agree	10	44
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.15(b) specifies that 96% of the KNUST non-academic respondents agree that the number of years spent in the organization forms part of their promotion requirement while 4% disagree with that. One of the KNUST non-academic respondents during our interview agreed to it and stated that:

"The number of years spent is very necessary when KNUST is promoting staff. For a non-teaching to get promoted to the next rank, he/she serves a minimum of 4 years after appointment" (KA, 2017).

Based on Tables 4.15(a) and 4.15(b), majority of the KNUST non- academic respondents and KTU non-academic respondents agree that number of years spent in the organization forms part of their promotion requirement.

d) *Differences in Requirements for Promotion of Academic and Non-Academic Staff*

i. *Academic Staff*

Table 4.16(a): Showing Differences in Requirement for Promotion.

KNUST	KTU
KNUST has stringent promotion criteria	The promotion criteria in KTU are less stringent.
The level of education for academic staff in KNUST is exceedingly high. Most of them have PhDs and master's degrees.	The level of education of academic staff in KTU is quite high. Most of them have master's degrees and few have PhDs.

Source: Field survey, 2024.

ii. *Non-Academic Staff*

Table 4.16(b): Showing Differences in Requirement for Promotion.

KNUST	KTU
Memoranda publication forms part of their promotion requirements.	In KTU, report writing forms part of their promotion instead of memoranda.
Non-academic staff in KNUST places more emphasis on community service.	Non-academic staff place less emphasis on community service.

Source: Field survey, 2024.

e) *Challenges in the Promotion of Academic and Non-Academic Staff*

Academic and Non-Academic staff were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the challenges confronting them as far as promotion is concerned.

i. *Challenges Confronting Academic Staff*

a. *Having not Enough Resources to Conduct Research*

Table 4.17(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Not Having Enough Resources to Conduct Research as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	7	31
Agree	11	48
Neither	1	4
Disagree	3	13
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The research shows that 79% of the KTU academic staff respondents agree that lack of enough resources to conduct research is a challenge as far as their promotion is concerned, 17% disagree to that while 4% neither agree nor disagree that lack of resources to conduct research is a challenge as indicated in Table 4.17(a). A respondent in KTU agreed to this. He told us that:

"The resources to help us conduct enough research are not there and the incentives that will motivate us to conduct more research are not available. Resources like the book and research allowance" (TAi, 2017).

Table 4.17(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Not Having Enough Resources to Conduct Research as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	57
Agree	7	33
Neither	1	5
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.17(b), 90% of the KNUST respondents agree that lack of enough resources to conduct research is one of their promotion challenges, 5% disagree with that and 5% also are uncertain as to whether it is a challenge or not.

Tables 4.17(a) and 4.17(b) show that lack of enough resources to conduct research is a challenge for Academic staff of KNUST and KTU as far as promotion is concerned. This shows that academic staff promotion is at stake since research is one of the requirements for promoting academic staff in both institutions.

b. *Stringent Criteria for Promotion*

Table 4.18(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Stringent Criteria for Promotion as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	7	33
Agree	10	48
Neither	2	9
Disagree	1	5
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.18(a) above specifies that 81% of the KNUST respondents agree that the university has stringent criteria for promotion which is a challenge to them as far as promotion is concerned and 10% disagree with that. Also, 9% neither agree nor disagree with the fact that stringent promotion criteria are a challenge as far as their promotion is concerned.

Table 4.18(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Stringent Promotion Criteria as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	7	30
Agree	9	39
Neither	2	9
Disagree	3	13
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.18(b) above specifies that; 69% of the KTU respondents agree that the university has stringent criteria for promotion which is a challenge to them as far as promotion is concerned and 22% disagree with that. Also, 9% neither agree nor disagree with the fact that stringent promotion criteria are a challenge as far as their promotion is concerned.

Based on the two Tables 4.18(a) and 4.18(b) above, the research revealed that, majority of the respondents agree that stringent criteria for promotion serve as a challenge for the promotion of academic staff in both KNUST and KTU. Also, KNUST has more strict promotion criteria than KTU based on the number of respondents who agreed to it.

c. *Gender Discrimination*

Table 4.19(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Gender Discrimination as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Disagree	3	13
Disagree	11	48
Neither	4	17
Agree	1	4
Strongly Agree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked whether Gender Discrimination serves as a promotion challenge to them. From Table 4.19(a) above, 61% of the KTU disagree that gender discrimination is a challenge to them as far as promotion is concerned and 21% agree with that. 17% agree that neither do they disagree that gender discrimination is a promotional challenge.

Table 4.19(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Gender Discrimination as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Disagree	7	33
Disagree	7	33
Neither	5	24
Agree	2	10
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.19(b) above, 66% of the KTU disagree that gender discrimination is a challenge to them as far as promotion is concerned and 10% agree with that. 24% neither agree neither that gender discrimination is a promotion challenge.

From the analysis of the two Tables 4.19(a) and 4.19(b) above, conclusion can be drawn that Gender discrimination is not a challenge for the promotion of academic staff in KNUST and KTU since majority of the respondents disagree to it.

d. *Intensified Competition among Academic Staff*

Table 4.20(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Intensified Competition among Academic Staff as a Challenge in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	22
Agree	8	35
Neither	4	17
Disagree	5	22
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked whether competition among staff serves as a challenge for their promotion. The research revealed that 57% of the KTU respondents agree that it is a challenge and 26% also disagree that competition among staff serves as a promotion challenge. 17% neither agree neither to that as indicated in Table 4.20(a).

Table 4.20(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Intensified Competition among Academic Staff as a Challenge in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	2	9
Agree	6	29
Neither	5	24
Disagree	4	19
Strongly Disagree	4	19
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The research revealed that 38% of the KTU respondents agree that it is a challenge and another 38% also disagree that competition among staff serves as a promotion challenge. 24% neither agree nor disagree with that as indicated in Table 4.20(b) above.

From the Tables 4.20(a) and 4.20(b) above, the competition among academic staff in KNUST is higher than that of KTU which is a challenge to them as far as promotion is concerned. Majority of KNUST respondents (57%) agree that competition among staff is a challenge while only 38% of the KTU respondents agree with that.

e. *Limited Research Findings*

Table 4.21(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Limited Research Findings as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	14
Agree	5	24
Neither	3	14
Disagree	4	19
Strongly Disagree	6	28
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.21(a) above depicts that; 47% of the KNUST respondents disagree with the fact that limited research findings serve as one of the challenges and another 38% agree with that. 14% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree strongly agree that it is a challenge.

Table 4.21(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Limited Research Findings as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	2	9
Agree	3	13
Neither	10	44
Disagree	5	22
Strongly Disagree	3	13
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.21(b) above depicts that 45% of the KNUST respondents disagree that limited research findings are a promotion challenge and 22% agree with that. 44% of the 44% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree strongly agree that it is a challenge.

Tables 4.21(a) and 4.21(b) show that limited, limited research finding is not a promotion challenge since majority of the respondents disagree with it, and some do not agree nor disagree.

f. *Being Busy with Work*

Table 4.22(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for being Busy with Work as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	13
Agree	9	39
Neither	5	22
Disagree	6	26
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The results from Table 4.22(a) show that 52% of the respondents agree that being busy with work is one of the promotion challenges confronting academic staff and 26% disagree with it. 22% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree that being busy at work is a promotional challenge confronting academic staff.

Table 4.22(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for being Busy with Work as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	7	33
Agree	6	29
Neither	6	29
Disagree	2	9
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The results from Table 4.22(b) show that 62% of the KNUST respondents agree that being busy with work is one of the promotion challenges confronting academic staff and 9% disagree with it. 29% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree that being busy at work is a promotion challenge confronting academic staff.

The research revealed that being busy at work is one of the promotion challenges confronting academic staff in both KNUST and KTU.

g. *Neglecting Teaching and focusing on Research work*

Table 4.23(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Neglecting Teaching and focusing on Research Work as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	4	19
Agree	4	19
Neither	7	33
Disagree	4	19
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked whether neglecting teaching to focus on research serves as a challenge or not. Table 4.23(a) above reveals that 38% of the KNUST respondents agree that it is a challenge and 28% also disagree with it. 33% of the respondents neither disagree nor agree that focusing on research and neglecting teaching is a challenge.

Table 4.23(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Neglecting Teaching and focusing on Research work as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	13
Agree	2	9
Neither	3	13
Disagree	11	48
Strongly Disagree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.23(b) above depicts that 23% of the KTU respondents agree that it is a challenge and 65% also disagree with it. 13% of the respondents disagree neither disagree nor agree that focusing on research and neglecting teaching is a challenge.

From the analysis of the two Tables 4.23(a) and 4.23(b)above, focusing on research and neglecting is a promotion challenge for academic staff in KNUST since majority (38%) agreed to it and 33% too were not sure. In KTU, it is not a challenge for academic staff since majority (65%) disagreed with it.

h. *Lack of Opportunities to Service on Committees*

Table 4.24(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of opportunity to serve on Committees as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	13
Agree	5	22
Neither	5	22
Disagree	8	35
Strongly Disagree	2	8
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.24(a) shows how lack of opportunities to serve on committees is a challenge to academic staff as far as their promotion is concerned. 35% of the KTU respondents agree that not getting opportunity to serve on committee is a promotional challenge to them and 43% also disagree that it is a promotional challenge. Also, 22% of them neither agree nor disagree with that.

Table 4.24(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of opportunity to serve on Committees as a Challenge Confronting Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	48
Agree	8	38
Neither	10	14
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.24(b) shows how lack of opportunities to serve on committees is a challenge to academic staff as far as their promotion is concerned. 86% of the KNUST respondents agree that not getting opportunity to serve on committee is a promotion challenge to them and 14% of them neither agree nor disagree to that.

From the analysis of Tables 4.24(a) and 4.24(b), Lack of opportunity to serve on committee is not a challenge to academic staff in KTU since majority (43%) of them disagreed with that. But in KNUST, greater percentage of the respondents (86%) agreed that lack of opportunity to serve on committees is a challenge to them as far as their promotion is concerned. This shows that the university authorities in KNUST should provide opportunities for staff to serve on various committees.

ii. *Challenges Confronting Non-Academic Staff*

In our field interview, one Assistant Registrar in KTU gave us one challenge as far as promotion is concerned. She said that:

"When your superior is not in good terms with you, he will find it difficult recommending you for promotion" (TN2, 2017).

a. *Lack of transparency in Promotion Process*

Table 4.25(a): Table Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Transparency in Promotion Process as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	4
Agree	6	26
Neither	8	35
Disagree	4	17
Strongly Disagree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.25(a) above shows that; 4% of the respondents from KNUST strongly agree that Lack of transparency is one of the challenges they face before promotion, 26% also agree to the fact that lack of transparency forms part of the promotional challenges. It went on to show that 17% of the non-academic staff strongly disagree that lack of transparency is one of the challenges they face before being promoted and 17% disagree with the same fact while 35% of them are uncertain.

The Analysis above shows that; majority of the respondents disagrees to the fact that transparency is one of the challenges before they get promoted meaning transparency is one of the things they consider highly or value during promotion exercises in such institution.

During our field interview, one respondent agreed to this, and he stated that:

"The promotion system in KNUST is not fair, but it tries to be fair" (KN), 2017).

Table 4.25(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Transparency in Promotion Process as a Challenge confronting Non-Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	2	8
Agree	9	36
Neither	4	16
Disagree	7	28
Strongly Disagree	2	12
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.25(b) above, it can be seen that 12% of the respondents from KTU strongly disagree that lack of transparency forms part of the challenges they face in their promotion exercise, 28% of the respondents also disagree, 8% strongly agree and 36% agree with the same fact whiles 16% are not certain as to whether lack of transparency forms part of the promotion requirement or not. At the end, we could see that majority of the respondents agree that lack of transparency is a challenge they face in their promotion process.

So, comparing these two institutions from the various tables, KTU faces such a challenge in their promotion process more than KNUST.

b. *Workload Burden*

Table 4.26(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Workload Burden as a Challenge confronting Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	4
Agree	10	44
Neither	4	17
Disagree	6	26
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The respondents from KNUST were asked to indicate whether workload burden is one of the challenges they face in their promotion process and from table 4.26(a) above, it can be seen that 4% of the respondents strongly agree that workload burden forms part of the challenges in their promotion process, 44% of the respondents also agree, 9% strongly disagree, 26% also disagree while 17% are uncertain as to whether workload burden forms part of the challenges they face during their promotion process or not. It can be seen from the analysis that most of the respondents agree to the fact that workload burden forms part of the challenges they face as non-academic staff in KNUST.

Table 4.26(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Transparency in Promotion Process as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	20
Agree	11	44
Neither	4	16
Disagree	5	20
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

When respondents in KTU were asked to indicate whether workload burden serves as a challenge in their promotion process. From the field survey, the results show that 20% strongly agree with the fact that workload burden forms part of the challenges they face during promotion process, 44% agrees whiles 16% are uncertain and 20% disagrees shown in Table 4.26(b) above. The result reveals that majority of the staff believes or agrees with the fact that combining work responsibilities with some of the activities one needs to do before he or she gains promotion is tedious and makes work hectic. So, comparing both institutions, KNUST and KTU from the tables above, staff from both institutions agree to workload as challenge they face in their promotion process combining both their work responsibilities and promotion requirement activities such as paper publishing.

c. *Lack of Grants for Book Publication*

Table 4.27(a): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Grants for Book Publication as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	4	17
Agree	4	17
Neither	8	35
Disagree	3	13
Strongly Disagree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.27 (a) above shows that 17% of the respondents from KNUST strongly agree that lack of grants for book publication is one of the challenges they go through during promotion process and 17% also agree that it forms part of their promotion process challenges, 13% strongly disagree with the statement and 17% disagreeing too whilst 35% are uncertain as to whether lack of grants for book publication forms part of the challenges they face during promotion process or not. From the analysis, majority of the respondents agree that lack of grants for book publications forms part of the challenges that non-academic staff face during promotion process.

Table 4.27(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Grants for Book Publication as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KTU

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	12
Agree	11	44
Neither	2	8
Disagree	6	24
Strongly Disagree	13	12
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

On lack of grants for book publication, one can see from the above Table 4.27 (b) that majority of the respondents believed such serves as a challenge in promotion process with 12% strongly agreeing and 44% agreeing whilst 12% strongly disagree and 24% disagreeing and 8% not certain about the whole fact that non-academic staffs consider lack of grants for book publication as one of the challenges they face in promotion process. So, from both tables analyzing both institutions, the non-academic staff from both institutions do not get enough grants to fund their research' for book publications to meet the requirements for promotion.

Table 4.27(b): Showing the Level of Consideration for Lack of Grants for Book Publication as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KTU

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	12
Agree	11	44
Neither	2	8
Disagree	6	24
Strongly Disagree	13	12
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

On lack of grants for book publication, one can see from the above Table 4.27 (b) that majority of the respondents believed that such serves as a challenge in promotion process with 12% strongly agreeing and 44% agreeing whilst 12% strongly disagree and 24% disagreeing and 8% not certain about the whole fact that non-academic staffs consider lack of grants for book publication as one of the challenges they face in promotion process. So, from both tables analyzing both institutions, the non-academic staff from both institutions do not get enough grants to fund their research for book publications to meet the requirements for promotion.

d. *Staff Personally Pressured to Meet Requirements for Promotion*

Table 4.28(a): Table Showing the Level of Consideration of Staff Personally Pressured to meet Requirements for Promotion as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	4
Agree	9	39
Neither	4	17
Disagree	8	35
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

When respondents from KNUST were asked to indicate whether non-academic staff personally feel pressured to meet requirements for promotion. Table 4.28(a) above, revealed that 4% of the respondents strongly agree that staff feel personally pressured to meet the requirements for promotion, 39% of the respondents also agree, 4% strongly disagree, 35% also disagree whiles 17% are uncertain as to whether it's a challenge or not. From the analysis, majority of the respondents agree that they personally feel pressured in meeting the requirements for promotion.

Table 4.28(b): Showing the Level of Pressure on Non- Academic Staff to Meet the Requirements for Promotion in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	4
Agree	7	28
Neither	6	24
Disagree	9	36
Strongly Disagree	2	8
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked if they personally feel pressured in meeting the requirements for promotion and the following responses were obtained. From the Table 4.28(b) above, 4% of the respondents strongly agree and 28% also agree with the fact that they personally feel pressured to meet the requirement for promotion while 8% disagree and 36% disagree with the same fact as a challenge and 24% are uncertain whether it serves a challenge or not. Looking at the analysis, it is obvious that majority of the non-academic staff in KTU feel comfortable and not pressured in meeting the requirements for promotion in their institution. Comparing both analysis in these two institutions, one could see that KNUST non-academic staff feel pressured in meeting the requirements for promotion because majority of the respondents from this institution indicated that they have challenges while majority of the respondents from KTU indicated the same fact as not a challenge, meaning they do not feel pressured to meet the requirements for promotion process.

e. *Gender Discrimination*

Table 4.29(a): Table Showing the Level of Gender Discrimination as a Challenge confronting Non-Academic Staff in KNUST.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Agree	4	17
Neither	5	22
Disagree	7	30
Strongly Disagree	7	30
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.29(a) above shows that 17% of the respondents agree that Gender discrimination is a challenge non-academic staffs face in promotion process, 30% strongly disagree and another 30% disagrees with the same fact serving as a challenge in promotion process, while 22% of the respondents are not sure if gender discrimination forms part of the challenges of promotion. Looking at the analysis from the table, majority of the respondents from KNUST disagree with the fact that gender discrimination is a challenge in promotion process meaning fairness and equity is one of the things they consider highly in such an institution when it comes to promotion. During our field interview, one of the respondents disagreed. She stated that:

"I can clearly tell you guys that when it comes to promotion, KNUST does it in a more gender balanced manner" (KNi, 2017).

Table 4.29(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Staff Personally Pressured to Meet Requirement as a Challenge Confronting Non-Academic Staff in KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Agree	4	32
Neither	9	16
Disagree	4	36
Strongly Disagree	8	16
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the Table 4.29(b) above, it can be seen that 32% of the respondents agree that gender discrimination forms part of the challenges in promotion process, 36% of the respondents also disagree and 16% strongly disagree to the same fact that gender discrimination is one of the challenges they face as non-academic staffs in their promotion process in KTU, whiles 36% are uncertain about the whole gender discrimination as a challenge. From the analysis, one could see that majority of the respondent do not believe that Gender discrimination is a challenge they face in their institution as non-academic staffs in promotion, meaning fairness is one of the things they value most in their institution when it comes to promotion.

Comparing analysis from both institutions, respondents from KNUST and KTU do not agree to the fact that gender discrimination is one of the challenges they face in promotion making it a similarity between these institutions. Both institutions value fairness in promotion no matter one's gender orientation, if one qualifies for a promotion, he or she gets it without any hesitation.

f) Effects of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression of Academic and Non-Academic Staff

Academic and Non-Academic staff were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the effect of promotion requirement on their career progression.

i. *Effects Relating to Academic Staff Conference Participation which Broadens Knowledge*

Table 4.30(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Conference Participation which Broadens Knowledge as Requirement for Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	11	52
Agree	8	38
Neither	1	5
Strongly Disagree	1	5
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.30(a) demonstrates clearly that 90% of the KNUST academic respondents agree that conference participation which forms part of their promotion requirement have broadened their knowledge in their various field, 5% disagree to that whilst another 5% neither agree nor disagree that it has broadened their knowledge.

Table 4.30(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Conference Participation which Broadens Knowledge as Requirement for Career Progression for KTU Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	52
Agree	9	40
Neither	1	4
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.30(b) clearly shows that 92% of the KTU academic respondents agree that conference participation which forms part of their promotion requirement has broadened their knowledge in their various fields, 4% disagree to that whilst another 4% disagree to that while 4% neither agree nor disagree that it has broadened their knowledge.

The two tables above show that conferences have broadened the knowledge of academic staff in KNUST and KTU since majority of the respondents agreed to that. This implies that authorities of both KNUST and KTU should organize more conferences for staff in their area of specialization since it broadens their knowledge.

Teaching and Supervision of project work have helped upgrade your knowledge.

Table 4.31(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Teaching and Supervision of Project Works as Requirement for Career Progression for KTU Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	8	35
Agree	14	61
Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The research shows that 96% of the KTU respondents agree that Teaching and Supervision of project work have helped them upgrade their knowledge and 4% of them disagree with that as indicated in Table 4.31(a) above.

Table 4.31(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Teaching and Supervision of Project Works as Requirement for Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	9	43
Agree	12	57
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.31(b) indicates that 100% of the KNUST academic staff respondents agree that Teaching and Supervision of project works have helped them upgrade their knowledge. This means none of them disagreed with that.

Tables 4.31(a) and 4.31(b) show that supervision of project work and teaching have helped academic staff in KNUST and KTU to upgrade their knowledge. Therefore, management of the two universities should ensure that each academic staff is assigned to supervise at least 3 students every year to help them upgrade their knowledge.

ii. *Research and Publication affect Social Life*

Table 4.32(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Research and Publication as a Requirement that affects Career Progression of KNUST Academic Staff's Social Life.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	24
Agree	6	29
Neither	5	24
Disagree	2	9
Strongly Disagree	3	14
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.32(a) above depicts that 53% of the KNUST academic staff respondents agree that Research and Publication affect their social life, 23% also disagree that it affects their social life whilst 24% of the respondents neither disagree nor agree that research and publication affect their social life.

Table 4.32(b): Showing the Level of Consideration of Research and Publication as a Requirement that Affects Career Progression of KTU Academic Staff's Social Life.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	7	30
Agree	10	44
Neither	2	9
Disagree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.32(b) above shows that 74% of the KTU respondents agree that Research and Publication affect their social life, 17% also disagree that it affects their social life whilst 9% of the respondents neither disagrees nor agree that research and publication affect their social life.

Two Tables 4.32(a) and 4.32(b) above show that, Research and Publication, which is one of their promotion requirements affect the social life of academic staff in KNUST and KTU.

iii. *Failure to Publish the Right Quality of Papers Affects Career Progression*

Table 4.33(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Failure to Publish the Right Quality of Papers Affects Career Progression of KTU Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	6	26
Agree	1	4
Neither	11	48
Disagree	4	18
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.33(a) above shows that 30% of the KTU academic staff respondents agree that failing to publish the right quality of papers has affected their career progression, 22% also disagree that it has affected their career progression whilst 48% of the respondents neither disagree nor agree that failing to publish the right quality papers has affected their career progression.

Table 4.33(a): Showing the Level of Consideration of Failure to Publish the Right Quality of Papers Affects Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	24
Agree	6	29
Neither	9	43
Disagree	1	8
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The field survey revealed that 53% of the KNUST respondents agree that failing to publish the right quality of papers has affected their career progression, 8% also disagree that it has affected their career progression whilst 43% of the respondents neither disagree nor agree that failing to publish the right quality papers has affected their career progression as shown in table 4.33(b) above.

Based on the analysis of the two tables 4.33(a) and 4.33(b) above, majority of the KNUST academic staff respondents (53%) supported the assertion whilst majority of the KTU academic staff respondents (48%) were uncertain about the assertion. If KNUST academic staff are unable to publish the right quantity of papers, it affects their career progression whilst in KTU, academic staff do not know whether it will affect their career progression or not.

iv. *Failure to Serve on Committees Affects Promotion*

Table 4.34(a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Failure to Serve on Committees Affects Promotion as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	8	38
Agree	8	38
Neither	3	14
Strongly Disagree	2	10
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The field survey revealed that 76% of the KNUST respondents agree that failing to serve on committees affects your promotion, 10% also disagree that it has affected their promotion whilst 14% of the respondents disagree nor agree that failing to on committees has affected their promotion as shown in table 4.34(a) above.

Table 4.34(b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Failure to Serve on Committees Affects Promotion as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	2	9
Agree	4	17
Neither	9	39
Disagree	6	26
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.34(b) above revealed that 26% of the KTU respondents agree that failing to serve on committees affects promotion, 35% also disagree that it has affected their promotion whilst 39% of the respondents disagree or agree that failing to serve on committees has affected their promotion.

The Tables 4.34(a) and 4.34(b) above show that failing to serve on committees affects the promotion of KNUST academic staff but do not affect the promotion of KTU academic staff. This is because majority of the KNUST academic staff respondents (76%) supported that assertion whilst 35% of the KTU academic staff respondents disagreed and 39% of the KTU academic staff respondents were not sure if they agreed or disagreed.

v. *Service to the Community Affects Teaching Jobs*

Table 4.35(a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Service to the Community Affects Teaching Job as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	22
Agree	9	39
Neither	3	13
Disagree	5	22
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Table 4.35(a) above indicates that 61% of the KTU academic staff respondents agree that service to the community affects teaching jobs, 26% also disagree that it has affected their teaching job whilst 13% of the respondents disagree neither disagree nor agree that failing to service the community has affected their teaching job.

Table 4.35(b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Service to the Community Affects Teaching Job as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	5
Agree	4	19
Neither	7	33
Disagree	2	10
Strongly Disagree	7	33
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The Table 4.35(b) above indicates that 24% of the KNUST academic staff respondents agree that service to the community affects teaching jobs. 43% also disagree that it has affected their teaching job whilst 33% of the respondents neither disagree nor agree that they failing to service to the community has affected their teaching job.

It can be seen from the two Tables 4.35(a) and 4.35(b) above that, service to communities affect the teaching job of academic staff in KTU whilst it does not affect the teaching job of KNUST academic staff. This is because majority of the KNUST academic staff respondents disagreed with the assertion while majority of the KTU academic staff respondents supported the assertion.

vi. *Lecturers' Assessment Report affects Promotion*

Table 4.36(a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Lecturers' Assessment Report Affects Promotion as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	24
Agree	6	29
Neither	8	38
Disagree	2	9
Total	21	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The field survey revealed that 53% of the KNUST academic staff respondents agree that lecturers' assessment report affects their promotion, 9% also disagree that it has affected their promotion whilst 38% of the respondents disagree neither disagree nor agree that lecturers' assessment report has affected their promotion as presented in table 4.36(a) above.

Table 4.36(b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Lecturers' Assessment Report Affects Promotion as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	6	26
Agree	10	43
Neither	3	13
Disagree	2	9
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The above Table 4.36(b) depicts that 69% of the KTU academic staff respondents agree that lecturers' assessment report affects their promotion, 18% also disagree that it has affected their promotion whilst 13% of the academic staff respondents disagree or agree that lecturers' assessment report has affected their promotion.

From the Analysis of the two Tables 4.36(a) and 4.36(b) above, majority of the KNUST academic staff respondents (53%) supported the assertion and another greater percentage of the KTU academic staff respondents (61%) also supported it. This means that lecturer's assessment report affects the promotion of academic staff of KNUST and KTU.

vii. *Effects to Non-Academic staff*

a. *Book Publication Affects Major Duties at Work*

Table 4.37 (a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Book Publication Affects your Major Duties at Work as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	13
Agree	5	22
Neither	5	22
Disagree	3	13
Strongly Disagree	7	30
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The research show that 13% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents strongly agree to book publication affecting their major duties as far as outcomes of promotion requirement on career progression is concern, 22% also agree to that, 30% strongly disagree to the same fact, 13% also disagree and 22% of the non-academic staff respondents neither agree nor disagree that book publication affects their major duties at work. So, from the analysis, majority of the non-academic staff respondents from KNUST disagree that book publication affects their duties at work.

Table 4.37 (b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Book Publication Affects your Major Duties at Work as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	20
Agree	5	20
Neither	2	8
Disagree	4	16
Strongly Disagree	9	36
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The study reveals in table 4.37(b) that 20% of the KTU non-academic respondents strongly agree that book publication affects their major duties at work and 20% also agree to that. Also, 36% strongly disagree and 16% of the non-academic respondents also disagree with the fact that book publication affects their major duties at work. And again 8% of the KTU non-academic staff respondents neither agree nor disagree with this factor. The response shows that majority of the KTU non-academic staff disagree with book publication affecting their major duties at work as an outcome of promotion requirement on their career progression.

From both analysis of the two institutions, KNUST non-academic staff respondents and KTU non-academic staff respondents do not agree with the fact that book publication affects their major duties at work either in a negative way or positive way.

b. *The Number of Years Spent in the Institutions Affects Career Progression*

Table 4.38 (a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of The Number of Years Spent in the Institutions Affects your Career progression as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	12	52
Agree	10	44
Strongly Disagree	1	4
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Respondents were asked whether the number of years spent in the institutions affects their career progression and we obtained this. From Table 4.38 (a) above, 52% of KNUST non-academic respondents strongly agree that the number of years spent in the institutions affects their career progression and, 44% agree to that too whilst 4% strongly disagree with this factor.

Table 4.38(b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of The Number of Years Spent in the Institutions Affects your Career progression as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	15	40
Agree	10	60
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

When respondents were asked about how number of years spent in the institution affects their career progression, this is what they indicated. The research revealed that 40% of KTU non-academic staff strongly agree with the fact that the number of years spent in the institution affects one's career progression and 60% of the KTU non-academic staff respondents also agree to the same fact. From the analysis, we can conclude that majority of KTU non-academic staff's respondents strongly agree with the fact that the number of years spent in the institutions affects their career progression.

Comparing these two institutions, the response shows that both institutions strongly agree to these facts the fact of years spent in the institution affects their career progression as non-academic staff because of what majority of the non-academic respondents indicated. When a staff spends long time working in the institution, they acquire enough experience along the way which helps them perform better at the workplace.

c. *Level of Education Leads to Failure in Career Progression*

Table 4.39 (a): Table 4.39(b): Showing Consideration of Level of Education as Requirement for Career Progression as Non-academic Staff of KNUST.

KNUST Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	1	4
Agree	11	48
Neither	3	13
Disagree	6	26
Strongly Disagree	2	9
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

The respondents were asked whether level of education leads to failure in career progression and this is what we obtained. Table 4.39 (a) above shows that 4% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents agree that level of education leads to failure in career progression and 48% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents also agree with the statement. Only 9% strongly disagree and 26% also disagree with the same fact that level of education leads to failure in career, progression in their institution with 13% uncertain with the same facts. Looking at the analysis, we could see that, majority of KNUST non- academic staff respondents agree to the fact that level of education leads to one's failure in career progression.

Table 4.39(b): Showing Consideration of Level of Education as Requirement for Career Progression as Non-Academic Staff of KTU.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	5	20
Agree	7	28
Neither	5	20
Disagree	3	12
Strongly Disagree	5	20
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

Again, when the non-academic staff respondents in KTU were asked to indicate if level of education leads to failure in their career progression. Table 4.12 (b) shows that majority of KTU non-academic staff respondents representing 20% strongly agree and 28% also agree to the whole fact whilst 12% disagree and 20% strongly disagree that level of education does not lead to failure in their career progression with 20% not sure if level of education leads to failure in their career progression.

Analyzing information obtained from non-academic staff respondents from both institutions, it is obvious that majority of non-academic staff respondents from both institutions agree to the fact that level of education leads to failure in their career progression.

iii. *Combination of your Work Duties and Book Publication Affects your Social Life*

Table 4,40 (a): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Combination of your Work Duties and Book Publication affects your Social Life as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KNUST Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	13
Agree	9	39
Neither	4	17
Disagree	3	13
Strongly Disagree	4	17
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From Table 4.13 (a), it shows that 13% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents strongly agree that combining their work duties and book publications affects their social life and 39% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents also agree to the same outcome of promotion requirements on their career progression. But 13% of KNUST non-academic staff respondents disagree and 17% also strongly disagree with the same fact with 17% either agreeing or not disagreeing. So, considering the analysis. One can say that majority of KNUST non-academic staff agree to the fact that combination of one's work duties and book publication affects one's social life.

Table 4.40 (b): Table Showing the Level Consideration of Combination of your Work Duties and Book Publication affects your Social Life as Effect of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression for KTU Non-academic Staff Respondents.

Response	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Strongly Agree	3	12
Agree	6	24
Neither	10	40
Disagree	1	4
Strongly Disagree	5	20
Total	23	100

Source: Field survey, 2024.

From the field survey, the results show that 12% of KTU non-academic staff respondents strongly agree and 24% also believe that combination of work duties and book publication affects their social life. But like every human institution, 4% disagree and 20% strongly disagree with the same statement whilst 40% of the KTU non- academic staff respondents neither agree nor disagree with the same fact. Looking at the whole analysis, it seems to suggest that majority of KTU non-academic staff respondents agree to the fact that combining their work duties and book publication affects their social life.

Comparing the analysis obtained from the two Tables 4.40 (a) and 4.40 (b), KNUST and KTU non-academic staff respondents agree to the fact that combining their work duties and book publications affects their social life.

g) Discussion of Findings

At the end of our research, we found out that some of our findings were similar and some too were different from other studies conducted.

The requirements for Academic staff of KNUST and KTU were research, teaching, and supervision of projects, community service, and conferences. Relating it Azman et al (2016) study which was conducted in Malaysian universities and Gilivand (2016) study which was conducted in Islamic Republic of Iran, we found out that the promotion requirements for KNUST and KTU are like that of their studies in the areas of research, teaching, project supervision, community/Governmental activities and conferences. The difference here was that the Azman et al (2016) study pointed out one requirement which was different from that of our study and this requirement was examination invigilation.

Gilivand's (2016) study revealed a broad requirement namely cultural, educational and research. Under the cultural, we have community service, education qualification, project supervision, teaching, and research work which is like the promotion requirements in the Ghanaian context.

Under the non-academic staff, this is what our study revealed concerning the requirement before promotion. The findings show that before a non-academic staff from either of institutions of studied get promoted, he or she is required to; have a level of education, portray leadership skills, have some knowledge in university administration, publication of memos, spent at least four years in the institution, ability to work on your own, initiative and drive, one must be innovative and sense of responsibility. Comparing our study to some of the studies reviewed in the literature, this study shares some similarities with Peter's (2014) study. His study was conducted on the impact of promotion on employee performance which came up with findings such as High work performance, competency, experience, and academic qualification as requirement for promotion in Des salaam city council in Tanzania.

Comparing Broni and Oforiwaa's (2014) study which was conducted in University of Education Winneba, with our study, our findings revealed that, gender discrimination is not a challenge as far as promotion is concerned in KNUST and KTU because both institutions value fairness in terms of gender promotion. But in the Oforiwaa and Broni study, it revealed that, the male academic staffs in the university were favoured more than the female staff and their reason was because females have more social responsibilities such as taking care of their family in terms of cooking and catering for them than males. Azman et al (2016) also conducted a study on Malaysian Universities and in the study some of the challenges they came up with were different promotion system with one salary structure, but our findings revealed that when an academic staff in any of the studied institutions gets promoted, there is a salary increase.

Also, the Azman et al (2016) study revealed that, because research and publications serve as one of the requirements for promotion in Malaysian universities, academic staff focuses more on research work than teaching.

Looking at the challenges in promotion concerning non-academic staff, a study was conducted by Peter (2014) on Dar es Salaam City Council of Tanzania which revealed that the promotion system is biased but our findings revealed that promotion systems in KNUST and KTU are fair. The same study revealed that the Human Resource Department in Dar es Salaam City Council does not conduct awareness programs for employees to know more about the promotion process and rules and regulations regarding promotion which is consistent with this study. This is because our study revealed that academic staff are less informed in terms of the promotion requirement and process.

At the end of our field survey, respondents from the various institutions of study (KNUST and KTU) helped us uncover the following effects of promotion requirements on career progression for academic staff. Academic staff participation in conferences broadens their knowledge in their field of work, teaching and supervision of project work and helps academic staff upgrade their knowledge. Failure to serve on committees affects one's promotion negatively, and Lecturers assessment report from students affects their promotion. Comparing our findings to findings of the studies we reviewed in the literature such as Azman et al (2016), the findings that research and article publications help academic staff improve upon their current knowledge in their area of specialization and also in the review of literature, through research, academic staff encounter new ideas that help them upgrade their knowledge and all this affect promotion career progression according to Azman et al (2016).

The Peter (2014) study revealed some positive outcome of promotion in Dar es Salaam city council, it revealed that promotion system brings about increase in employee remuneration, good working relationship between employee and management and, it motivates employees to work harder. Relating this to our study, we found out that KNUST and KTU have similar effects with that of Dar es Salaam city council. This is because in KNUST and KTU, the need for career progression motivates employees to work harder to get promoted and academic staff salaries are increased when they progress in their career.

V. Summary of Findings, Conclusion, and Recommendations

The main objective of this study was to compare and analyze the requirements for promotion in the traditional universities, using KNUST and KTU as comparative study. The study sought to find answers to the promotion requirement for both academic and non-academic staff, the difference between their promotion requirements, the challenges staff go through and the effect promotion has on their career progression. This chapter deals with the summary of the thesis, recommendations, and conclusions.

a) *Summary of Findings*

This study tried to find out the promotion requirement for both academic and non- academic staff in KNUST and KTU, the challenges confronting both staff as far as their promotion is concerned and the effects of promotion requirements on their career progression. From the results, the major findings are summarized below.

i. *Promotion Requirement for Academic Staff*

On the requirements for promotion of academic staff, our study revealed some similar requirements for the promotion of academic staff in KNUST and KTU. The promotion requirements revealed here include research work, teaching work, supervision of students' project work, engaging in community service, participating in conferences, serving as an exam officer, attracting research grant for your department or the university, the quality of examination questions and assessment reports on instructions and materials from lecturers.

ii. *Promotion Requirements for Non-Academic Staff*

Looking at the requirement for the promotion of non-academic staff, our research revealed some similarities in the promotion requirements for non-academic staff in KNUST and KTU. These similarities include non-academic staff are required to have knowledge in the university administration system, memoranda publication about the current administration trend and administrative procedures.

Non-academic staff are also required to attain certain level of education, exhibit leadership skills, and spend a minimum of four (4) years in current rank before one is due for promotion and ability to perform excellently on the job. Apart from the similarities that both KNUST and KTU shared on their promotion requirement for non-academic staff promotion, we also came up with other findings for these institutions separately. From KTU, our findings revealed that, before one can be promoted, he/she is required to be able to work with minimal supervision, being innovative and being able to work in teams. From KNUST, it was found that sense of responsibility, drive, and initiative forms part of the promotion for non-academic staff in the university.

iii. *Challenges Confronting the Promotion of Academic Staff*

Looking at the challenges confronting the promotion of academic staff, our study found out some challenges confronting academic staff in KNUST and KTU and one was that academic staff in both KNUST and KTU do not get enough resources to conduct research which is one of the requirements for promotion.

Also, it revealed they both have strict criteria for promotion but KNUST's criteria for promotion of academic staff is stricter than the KTU criteria. Another challenge revealed by our study was that academic staff in both institutions were busy with a lot of work. Apart from the similarities in their challenges, our research revealed some differences. One of the differences was that staff in KNUST focused on research work than teaching since promotion is pegged to research more than teaching which is not so in KTU. Again, KNUST academic staff do not get the opportunity to serve on committees which was part of their promotion requirement, and this is not a challenge in KTU since academic staff get the opportunity to serve on various committees.

iv. *Challenges Confronting the Promotion of Non-Academic Staff*

With the challenges confronting both non-academic staffs from KNUST and KTU, our study helped us found out that both non-academics in KNUST and KTU share some similar challenges in their promotion systems which includes; workload burden, which means, non-academic staffs combining their major duties to the promotion requirements activities such as memo publication turns to create extra work for them and also Lack of grants for their memos or reports publication also serve as a challenge for them. Although both institutions share some similar challenges, our study again helped us uncover some challenges that were faced by the non-academic staff in their institutions separately. From KNUST, we found out that their non-academic staff personally feel pressured in trying to meet the requirement for their promotion systems.

Non- academic staff from KTU regarded lack of transparency as one of the challenges they face in their promotion system. Non-academic staff in KTU also faced a challenge where they are unable to get date for promotion interview on time.

Another challenge that our findings revealed was that KNUST promotion committee sometimes do not get the right external assessors for promotion and if they get too, the assessment report also delays.

v. *Effects of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression of Academic Staff*

The findings of our study revealed some positive and negative effects/outcomes of promotion requirement of academic staff in KNUST and KTU on their career progression. One of the positive effects revealed by our study was that, career progression serve as motivational tool for academic staff of KNUST and KTU to work harder and also through conference participation, academic staff have been able to broaden their knowledge in their various filed of specialization.

Also, teaching and supervision of students' projects have helped academic staff to upgrade their knowledge. Also, the findings of our study revealed some negative effects and one of them was that one's career progression is affected when the academic staff fails to publish the right quality of papers.

Again, our findings revealed that students' assessment report affects academic staff in both positive and negative ways in the sense that academic staff gets promotion when students' assessment reveals high in all areas and when the assessment reveals low, staff do not get promoted.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that staff get demotivated when staff do not get resources for research work.

vi. *Effects of Promotion Requirement on Career Progression of Non-Academic Staff*

It was found that the effects or outcomes of promotion requirements on career progression of non-academic staff for KNUST and KTU was made of the positive outcomes and negative outcomes. The positive outcome we came up with were, The number of years a non-academic staff spends in the institution which is a requirement also turns to affects their career progression positively because it helps them gain experience on their jobs which helps them improve on their performance and non-academic staffs from both institutions thus KNUST and KTU agreed to this effect or outcome. And also both non-academic staffs from both institutions agreed to this negative outcomes or effects we found that, ones level of education leads to failure in career progression, meaning when a non-academic staffs qualifies for a promotion and his educational background does not, he or she will not be promoted and again non-academic staffs combining their work duties and memo or report publications affects their social life.

b) *Recommendations*

The following recommendations were made based on our study:

i. The Management of KNUST and KTU and other institutions of learning should organize training workshops and conferences for academic and non-academic staff that will expose them to the current trends in their various areas of work. This will help the staff contribute to the universities.
ii. The management of KNUST and KTU and other institutions should reduce the level of strictness in their criteria for the promotion of both academic and non-academic staff.
iii. The Management of KTU and other institutions of higher learning should implement systems that will ensure free and fair promotion in their universities.
iv. These and other universities should decrease the workload of both academic and non-academic staff to allow them to focus on other important aspects.
v. KNUST, KTU and others should give their staff the opportunity to serve on various committees.

c) *Conclusion*

Our study sought to compare and analyze the promotion requirements in universities, using KNUST and KTU as comparative study.

The findings revealed that academic staff are required to conduct research, teach, supervise students' project works, engage in community services,

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participate in conferences, set quality examination questions, serve as examination officers, attract research grant for the university in order to get promoted and through the process of achieving these requirements, they face the following challenges: insufficient resources to conduct researches, stringent promotion criteria and lack of opportunity to serve on committees. At the end of it all, these are the outcomes or effect of promotion requirement on their career progression, Teaching and supervision of project works which help to upgrade knowledge of academic staff, failure to publish the right quality papers affects each academic staff's career progression. Also, when staff do not conduct research and publication, such staff's social life and the very lecturer's assessment report are low with no promotion.

Furthermore, the findings of this study revealed some requirements that non-academic staff are to meet to get promoted. The requirements are that non-academic staff in KNUST and KTU are to have in-depth knowledge in the university administration system, draft reports and memoranda on current administration trends and procedures. They are also required to attain some level in education, exhibit leadership skills at work, and spend a minimum of four (4) years on current rank to get promotion to the next rank. In KNUST, community service also forms part of their promotion requirements and in KTU, ability to work in a team and ability to perform excellently on the job also form part of their requirements. In the process of meeting these requirements, non-academic staff in the two universities tend to face some common challenges in the sense that the promotion system in the two universities is not fair, they are overburdened with a lot of workloads, and they do not get enough grants to publish papers and memoranda.

Additionally, our study revealed that staff in KNUST are being pressured to meet the promotional requirements which serve as a challenge to them.

At the end, the study revealed some outcomes or effects of non-academic staff's promotion requirements on their career progression. The study revealed that the number of years spent by non-academic staff in the KNUST and KTU affects their career progression.

We also find that, if one does not attain certain level of education, it leads to failure in their career progression, and the combination of work and memoranda publication affects their social life.

Furthermore, the study revealed that career progression serves as a motivational tool for non-academic staff to perform well in their jobs.

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Appendice 1

Questionnaire for Academic Staff

Our research topic is: *"A Comparative Study of the Effect of Promotion on Employee Career Progression in Academics".*

Consequently, you form part of the sampled employee. We would be grateful if you could spare a few minutes of your time to fill out this questionnaire for us. Your confidentiality is guaranteed.

Section A: Persoisal Data

Instructions: Please thick the option that is applicable, provide details where necessary

1. Gender (a) Male [ ] (b) Female [ ]
2. Age (a)20-30 [ ] (b) 30-40 [ ] (c) 40-50 [ ] (d) 50 and above [ ]
3. Marital Status (a) Single [ ] (b) Married [ ] (c) Divorced [ ] Widowed [ ]
4. Name of Institution (a) KNUST [ ] (b) KTU [ ]
5. Position ……………………………………………………………..
6. Department …………………………………………………………
7. Educational Level (a) HND [ ] (b) First Degree [ ]
   Master's degree [ ] (d) PhD [ ]
8. Numbers of years at work (a) Below 3 years [ ] (b) 4-7 years [ ] (c) 8-11 years [ ] (d) 12-15 years [ ] (e) 15 years and above [ ]

Section B: Promotion Requirements for Academic Staff

	1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree
Research forms part of the requirement for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
Teaching forms part of the requirement for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
Supervision of project forms part of the requirement for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
Community service forms part of the requirement for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
Conferences forms part of the requirement for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5

Instruction; Please tick the scale below to answer the following set of questions:

9. Have you been promoted before? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
10. If yes, from which rank to which rank.
    (a) Assistant Lecturer to Lecturer [ ]
    (b) Lecturer to Senior Lecturer [ ]
    (c) Senior Lecturer to Associate professor [ ]
    (d) Associate Professor to Full Professor [ ]
    (e) Other specify………………………………………………..
11. How long did it take for you to move from your previous rank to the current one?

(f) 2 years [ ] (g) 3 years [ ] (h) 4 years [ ] (i) 5 years [ ] (j) 6 years and above [ ]

12. Which of the following criteria formed part of the requirements to move from your previous rank to the current one? Tick as many as applicable.
    (a) Publish research paper, author books etc. [ ]
    (b) Serve on committees [ ]
    (c) Moderate affiliated institutions [ ]
    (d) Serve as an exams officer [ ]

(e) Attract research grant to your department or the university [ ]
(f) Others (specify)

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Section C: Challenges of Getting Promoted

13. *Instruction:* Please tick the scale below to answer the following sets of questions.

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree	
Not enough resources to conduct research	1	2	3	4	5
Stringent criteria for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
Gender discrimination exists	1	2	3	4	5
Intensified competition among academic staff	1	2	3	4	5
Limited research findings	1	2	3	4	5
Too busy with work (e.g. teaching)	1	2	3	4	5
Neglecting teaching and focusing on research work.	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of opportunities to serve on committees in the university	1	2	3	4	5

Others (Specify):

……
………

Uoremfnts on Career Progression of Academic Staff

Ahm; Please tick the scale below to answer the following set of questions:

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neutral	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree	
Participation in. conferences have broadened your knowledge in the field.	1	2	3	4	5
Teaching and Supervision of project works help you to upgrade your knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5
Research and Publications affect your social life	1	2	3	4	5
Failure to publish the right quality of papers has affected your career progression.	1	2	3	4	5
Failure to serve on committees has affected your promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
Service to the community affects your teaching job	1	2	3	4	5
Lecturers' assessment report affects your promotion.	1	2	3	4	5

Questionnaire for Non-Academic Staff (Senior Members)

Our research topic is: *A Comparative Study of the Effeect of Promotion on Employee Career Progression in Academics.* Consequently, you form part of the sampled employee. We would be incredibly grateful if you could spare a few minutes of your time to fill out this questionnaire for us. Your confidentiality is guaranteed.

Section A: Personal Data

Instructions; Please thick the option that is applicable, provide details where necessary

14. Gender (a) Male [ ] (b) Female [ ]
15. Age (a) 20-30 [ ] (b) 30-40 [ ] (c) 40-50 [ ] (d) 50 and above [ ]
16. Marital Status (a) Single [ ] (b) Married [ ] (c) Divorced [ ] Widowed [ ]
17. Name of Institution (a) KNUST [ ] (b) KTU [ ]
18. Position ………………………………………………………………….
19. Department…………………………………………………………………
20. Educational Level (a) HND [ ] (b) First Degree [ ]
    (c) Master's Degree [ ] (d) PhD [ ]
21. Numbers of years at work (a) Below 3 years [ ] (b) 4-7 years [ ] (c) 8-11 years [ ] (d) 12-15 years [ ] (e) 15 years and above [ ]

Section B: Promotion Requirements for Non-Academic Staff

22. *Instruction:* Please tick the scale below to answer the following set of questions

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree

Promotion Requirements for Non-Academic Staff					
Book publication forms part of the requirement for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
Knowledge in University Administration system forms part of the requirement for promotion	1	2	3	4	5
Level of education forms part of the promotion requirement.	1	2	3	4	5
Leadership skills forms part of the promotion requirement	1	2	3	4	5
Number of years spent at the organization forms part of the promotion requirement.	1	2	3	4	5

Others (Specify)

23. Have you been promoted before? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
24. If yes, from which rank to which rank.
    (a) Assistant Registrar to Senior Assistant Registrar [ ]
    (b) Senior Assistant Registrar to Deputy Registrar [ ]
    (c) Deputy Registrar to Registrar [ ]
    (d) Others (specify) ……………………………………………………………..
    ………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………
25. How long did it take you to move from your previous rank to the current one?

(a) 2 years [ ] (b) 3 years [ ] (c) 4 years [ ] (d) 5 years [ ]
(e) 6 years and above [ ]

Section C: Challenges of Getting Promoted

26. *Instruction;* Please tick the scale below to answer the following set of questions

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither	4. Agree			5. Strongly Agree
Lack of transparency in promotion process.			1	2	3	4	5
Workload burden.			1	2	3	4	5
Lack of grants for book publication			1	2	3	4	5
Staff personally feel pressured to meet requirement.			1	2	3	4	5
Gender discrimination exists			1	2	3	4	5

Others (Specify) ....
....
....
....
....

Section D: Effects/Outcomes of Promotion Requirements on Career Progression of Non-Academic Staff

1. Strongly Disagree	2. Disagree	3. Neither	4. Agree	5. Strongly Agree				
Book publication affects your major duties at work.				1	2	3	4	5
The number of years spent in the institutions affects your career progression.				1	2	3	4	5
Level of education leads to failure in career progression.				1	2	3	4	5
Combination of your work duties and publication of books affects your social life.				1	2	3	4	5

27. *Instruction;* Please tick the scale below to answer the following set of questions

Other (specify) ....
....
....

Interview Questions

1. What is the staff strength of your university comprising academic and non-academic staff?
2. How long have you been working here?
3. Have you been promoted before?
4. What was the requirement for your promotion?
5. What were some of the challenges you faced in meeting the promotion requirements?
6. Are there any positive or negative effects on your career progression?

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The Effectiveness of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in Public Sector Construction Oversight in Nigeria: Challenges and Strategies for Improvement

By Emmanuel Tayo Adu, Familoye, Olajide Stephen & Adeoye Olugbenga Adewolu

University of Uyo

Abstract- Persistent governance failures in public construction projects highlight the need for strategic interventions, with Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) providing a potential pathway toward more transparent, inclusive, and sustainable infrastructure delivery. This study investigates the factors influencing the effectiveness of CSO oversight in Nigeria's construction sector and explores strategies for strengthening their role. Data were collected through a survey of 305 respondents—including CSO staff, government officials, and project beneficiaries—and analyzed using mean score and the Kruskal–Wallis rank test. Findings indicate that CSO oversight is constrained less by technical limitations than by structural and political barriers. Limited information access and weak coordination are further compounded by entrenched patronage, institutional fragmentation, and low civic legitimacy. The study also shows that meaningful contributions to accountability and inclusive governance depend on aligning foundational, operational, and adaptive strategies. Addressing these challenges requires more than transparency tools, calling for broader political and institutional reforms. The study recommends strengthening CSO oversight through legal and regulatory safeguards, diversified and sustainable funding, enhanced technical capacity, and context-sensitive collaborative approaches.

GJHSS-H Classification: *LCC Code: JF1525.C58*

THEEFFECTIVENESSOFCIVILSOCIETYORGANIZATIONSCSOSINPUBLICSECTORCONSTRUCTIONOVERSIGHTINNIGERIACHALLENGESANDSTRATEGIESFORIMPROVEMENT

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:

The Effectiveness of Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) in Public Sector Construction Oversight in Nigeria: Challenges and Strategies for Improvement

Emmanuel Tayo Adu [α], Familoye, Olajide Stephen [σ] & Adeoye Olugbenga Adewolu [ρ]

Abstract- Persistent governance failures in public construction projects highlight the need for strategic interventions, with Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) providing a potential pathway toward more transparent, inclusive, and sustainable infrastructure delivery. This study investigates the factors influencing the effectiveness of CSO oversight in Nigeria's construction sector and explores strategies for strengthening their role. Data were collected through a survey of 305 respondents—including CSO staff, government officials, and project beneficiaries—and analyzed using mean score and the Kruskal–Wallis rank test. Findings indicate that CSO oversight is constrained less by technical limitations than by structural and political barriers. Limited information access and weak coordination are further compounded by entrenched patronage, institutional fragmentation, and low civic legitimacy. The study also shows that meaningful contributions to accountability and inclusive governance depend on aligning foundational, operational, and adaptive strategies. Addressing these challenges requires more than transparency tools, calling for broader political and institutional reforms. The study recommends strengthening CSO oversight through legal and regulatory safeguards, diversified and sustainable funding, enhanced technical capacity, and context-sensitive collaborative approaches.

I. Introduction

Public sector construction projects are central to national development, serving as engines for infrastructure expansion, economic growth, and social welfare (Amoah *et al*., 2020). They span critical sectors such as transportation, healthcare, and education, making their successful delivery essential for achieving sustainable development goals (Hassan *et al*., 2023). Investments in transport infrastructure, for instance, not only facilitate trade but also improve access to essential services, thereby enhancing overall quality of life (Oladapo et al., 2021). Despite their importance, such projects in many developing countries—including Nigeria—are often undermined by recurring challenges. Cost overruns, delays, substandard quality, and project abandonment remain common (Khan *et al*., 2021). These problems are frequently attributed to governance failures, corruption, inefficiencies, and weak accountability structures (Aluko *et al*., 2022). Corruption, in particular, inflates costs, compromises quality, and erodes the expected benefits of public investment. The growing complexity of modern projects, driven by technological change and diverse stakeholder demands, further reinforces the need for robust oversight. In this regard, effective oversight becomes indispensable not only for ensuring transparency and accountability but also for safeguarding outcomes and strengthening public trust (Ihuah *et al.,* 2020).

Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) have emerged as significant oversight actors. As independent, non-governmental entities, they monitor project implementation, promote transparency, and hold government agencies and contractors accountable (Obi & Agwu, 2021). Their contributions extend to policy advocacy, influencing decision-making processes, and shaping broader governance reforms (Burgess & Walia, 2022). Evidence shows that CSO-led interventions—such as expenditure tracking and project monitoring—reduce corruption risks, improve resource allocation, and enhance delivery performance (Agbede & Oloyede, 2023). By engaging communities and amplifying citizen voices, CSOs also strengthen the responsiveness of projects to local needs (Garg & Chatterjee, 2021). Comparative experiences highlight their potential. In Kenya, CSOs play an active role in monitoring large-scale infrastructure projects through participatory evaluation (Mutuku & Mwangi, 2022), while in India, they have been instrumental in improving accountability in rural infrastructure delivery. Nigeria, however, presents a distinct context. Although CSOs have advanced civic participation and transparency, their influence on policy and practice remains limited (Vanguard News, 2023). Barriers such as unstable funding, restrictive registration processes, and shrinking civic space—shaped by state policies and political co-optation—undermine their effectiveness (Daily Post, 2024; Vanguard News, 2023).

Persistent questions therefore remain regarding the extent to which CSOs influence construction project

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outcomes in Nigeria. Their performance depends on organizational capacity, technical expertise, access to information, and the degree of stakeholder support (Musa *et al*., 2022). Yet barriers such as poor data access, weak institutionalized participation, and limited technical resources continue to constrain their credibility (Fox, 2015; Omoleke & Adebayo, 2020). While international models—including open contracting data standards, participatory scorecards, and multi-stakeholder forums—offer promising approaches, their application in Nigeria's construction sector has received little systematic attention. In view of the above, this review highlights a critical gap in understanding the effectiveness of CSOs in public sector construction oversight in Nigeria. Addressing this gap requires examining the factors shaping CSO performance and identifying strategies for strengthening their role. Such an inquiry is not only timely but also essential for tackling Nigeria's enduring governance and accountability challenges in public infrastructure delivery.

II. Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks for the Study

This study applies three interrelated theoretical perspectives—governance theory, stakeholder theory, and public accountability theory—to explain the effectiveness of CSOs in public sector construction oversight in Nigeria. Together, these frameworks clarify how CSOs engage with government institutions, contractors, and communities while shaping project outcomes.

Governance theory emphasizes the role of non-state actors in strengthening accountability, transparency, and efficiency in public administration (Hyden et al., 2018). In many developing countries, weak institutions and pervasive corruption undermine infrastructure delivery. In Nigeria's construction sector, governance theory highlights CSOs as watchdogs that monitor projects, demand transparency, and foster community participation, thereby addressing corruption and inefficiency.

Stakeholder theory views CSOs as legitimate representatives of public interests, particularly marginalized groups (Freeman, 2010). Effective construction delivery requires balancing diverse stakeholder needs, including government, contractors, and communities. CSOs amplify citizen voices, bridge communication gaps, and ensure that projects reflect local priorities rather than narrow political interests. In Nigeria, where top-down planning often neglects community concerns, CSOs play a vital role in enhancing inclusiveness and accountability.

Public accountability theory focuses on mechanisms that hold public officials responsible for their actions (Mulgan, 2000). CSOs advance accountability by monitoring implementation, exposing irregularities, and ensuring compliance with standards. This oversight is critical in Nigeria, where corruption and weak institutions frequently cause cost overruns, delays, and project abandonment.

Collectively, these frameworks provide a comprehensive foundation for the study. Governance theory positions CSOs as complements to state institutions, stakeholder theory emphasizes their role in participatory development, and accountability theory highlights their watchdog function. Their integration enables deeper analysis of how CSOs influence project oversight in Nigeria and informs strategies to strengthen their effectiveness. The conceptual frameworks for the study is presented in Figure 1.

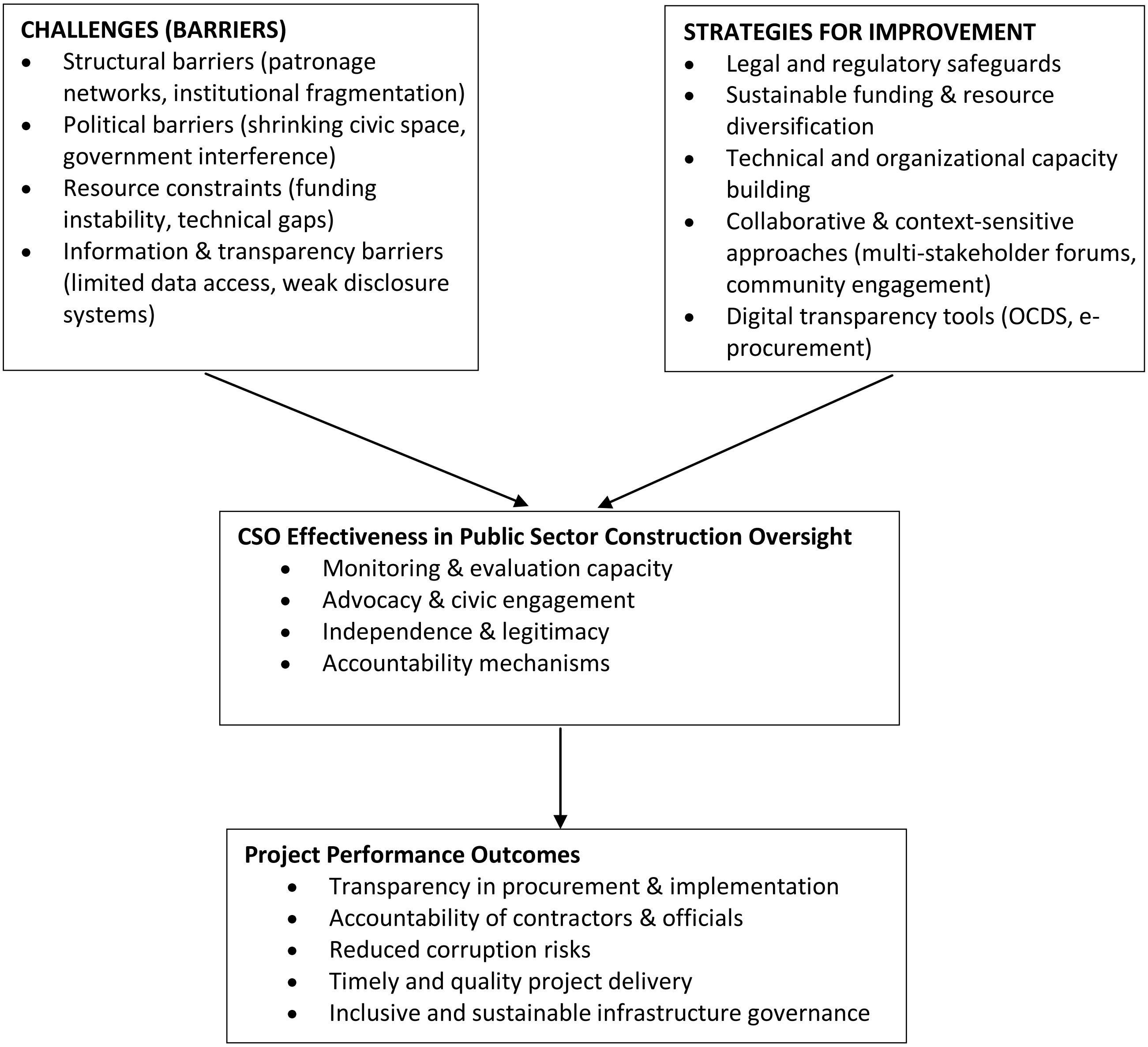

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Study

a) *Overview of CSOs and Roles in Public Sector Construction Projects*

CSOs are non-governmental, non-profit entities that represent public interests and engage in activities aimed at influencing policy, promoting community development, and addressing socio-economic issues. According to Salamon, Sokolowski, and List (2003), CSOs encompass diverse organizations such as advocacy groups, grassroots movements, professional associations, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), all working independently of the state to advance societal goals.

CSOs vary in form and function depending on their objectives, structure, and scope of operation. Common types include NGOs, Community-Based Organizations (CBOs), Professional Associations, and Advocacy Groups, with the latter two playing particularly significant roles in public sector construction oversight. Professional associations in Nigeria—such as the Nigerian Society of Engineers (NSE), the Nigerian Institute of Architects (NIA), and the Nigerian Institute of Quantity Surveyors (QSRBN), —establish standards, regulate professional conduct, and collaborate with government agencies to ensure quality, safety, and sustainability in public infrastructure projects (Anheier, 2014). Advocacy groups, on the other hand, focus on transparency, accountability, and environmental stewardship in construction. For example, BudgIT Nigeria actively monitors public infrastructure projects to track spending, evaluate outcomes, and advocate for policies that prevent corruption while ensuring efficient use of public resources (Keck & Sikkink, 1998).

To promote accountability and effective project delivery, CSOs employ a variety of tools and approaches. These include but not limited to social audits, participatory monitoring and evaluation (PM&E), independent field inspections, community scorecards, public expenditure tracking (PET), geospatial technologies, citizen report cards, contract monitoring, investigative media reporting, and grievance redress mechanisms. Such mechanisms empower communities, foster inclusive participation, and strengthen oversight processes, ensuring that public sector construction projects deliver value for money while meeting the needs of both policymakers and citizens.

b) Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of CSO Oversight in Construction Project Delivery

Effectiveness is commonly defined as the extent to which an entity achieves its intended goals, assessed not only by task completion but also by the quality and impact of outcomes (Drucker, 2006). In the context of this study, the effectiveness of CSOs refers to their capacity to promote transparency, advocate accountability, enhance stakeholder participation, and monitor compliance in public sector construction projects. The literature suggests that this effectiveness is shaped by a combination of enabling and constraining factors. One critical determinant is organizational capacity. Adequate financial resources, skilled personnel, and institutional infrastructure enhance the ability of CSOs to sustain oversight. Well-resourced organizations are better positioned to employ technical experts, undertake research, and maintain consistent advocacy efforts (Musa *et al*., 2022). Conversely, limited resources weaken their ability to engage meaningfully in project monitoring (Obi & Agwu, 2021). Closely linked to capacity is technical expertise. Knowledge of construction processes, project management, and legal frameworks enables CSOs to evaluate projects rigorously and detect inefficiencies. Continuous professional development through training and knowledge-sharing further strengthens their oversight roles (Afolabi *et al*., 2021; Ajibade *et al*., 2020).

Equally important is access to information. Without timely and accurate project documentation, CSOs cannot conduct effective oversight. Scholars highlight the necessity of open data initiatives and stronger transparency laws as essential conditions for accountability (Ibrahim *et al*., 2022). Complementary to this, Akintola and Afolabi (2020) emphasize the importance of reinforcing freedom of information provisions to reduce persistent information blockages. The legal and regulatory environment also emerges as a central factor. Supportive frameworks mandating transparency, participation, and accountability empower CSOs to monitor projects more effectively. Moreover, legal provisions granting CSOs the authority to challenge irregularities in court enhance their credibility and influence (Saidu & Ayodele, 2023; Omotayo, 2021).

Stakeholder engagement further shapes oversight effectiveness. Collaborative partnerships with government agencies, contractors, and communities foster trust and improve information flow. However, political resistance and limited cooperation often undermine such interactions (Adeyemi *et al*., 2022; Ogunbanjo & Ajayi, 2021). Effective communication strategies are also vital, as they reduce misunderstandings, align stakeholder interests, and minimize oversight delays (Lingard & Rowlinson, 2018).

Furthermore, broader contextual dimensions—including political stability, financial sustainability, civic engagement, media advocacy, cultural sensitivity, and public awareness—interact to determine CSO effectiveness. These external conditions influence legitimacy, operational freedom, and the capacity to mobilize citizen support (Obi & Agwu, 2021; Adebayo *et al*., 2022; Owolabi *et al.,* 2022; Adeolu *et al*., 2023; Amadi & Odede, 2023). Thus, an enabling environment that strengthens these factors is critical for improving CSO oversight in Nigeria's public construction sector. A summary of these determinants in relation to project delivery is presented in Table 1. The literature indicates that the effectiveness of CSOs is multidimensional, shaped by their internal capacity, the prevailing legal and institutional frameworks, stakeholder relationships, and broader socio-political contexts. Strengthening these factors in combination—rather than in isolation—appears necessary for enhancing accountability and ensuring better outcomes in public construction oversight.

Table 1: Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of CSO Oversight in Construction Project Delivery

Factors	Source
Strengthened Organizational capacity	Musa *et al*. (2022), Obi & Agwu (2021).
Enhanced Technical Expertise	Ajibade *et al*. (2020)
Access to Comprehensive Information	Ibrahim *et al*. (2022; Akintola and Afolabi (2020)
Adoption of Technological Tools and Innovation	Obi & Agwu (2021)
Robust Legal and Regulatory Frameworks	Saidu and Ayodele (2023; Omotayo, (2021).
Fostering Stakeholder Engagement and Collaboration	Adeyemi *et al*. (2022)
Conducive Political and Social Environment	Obi & Agwu (2021)
Promotion of Civic Engagement and Public Participation	Adeolu *et al*. (2023)
Leveraging International Partnerships and Networks	Johnson and Brown (2021)
Capacity Building and Continuous Learning	Agbaje *et al*. (2023)
Commitment to Independence and Neutrality	Smith *et al.* (2022)
Effective Communication Strategies	Lingard and Rowlinson (2018)
Cultural Sensitivity and Community Integration	Adebayo et al. (2022)
Financial Sustainability	Amadi and Odede (2023
Transparency and Accountability of CSOs Themselves	Obi and Aluko (2021)
Proactive Risk Management and Contingency Planning	Ngugi *et al*. (2022),
Media Advocacy and Public Awareness	Owolabi *et al*. (2022)

c) Strategies for Improving the Effectiveness of CSOs' Oversight in Public Sector Construction

One of the most significant barriers to effective CSO oversight is the absence of an enabling legal and institutional environment. Restrictive laws and ambiguous procurement frameworks continue to undermine transparency and accountability (World Bank, 2020). To address this, reforms granting CSOs legal recognition and operational space have been widely recommended (CIVICUS, 2022; Ojo, 2019). Promoting institutional autonomy is equally important. IDEA (2023) highlights the need for safeguards against political interference, while Brinkerhoff and Wetterberg (2013) argue that independent oversight bodies are essential to shield CSOs from arbitrary state control.

Access to open data has also emerged as a critical enabler of oversight. The Open Contracting Data Standard (OCDS) provides a framework for real-time tracking of procurement processes, enabling CSOs to detect irregularities and corruption. Evidence from countries such as Ukraine and Colombia demonstrates the potential of OCDS to transform accountability in infrastructure projects (Open Contracting Partnership, 2021). Another major constraint is limited technical capacity. Many CSOs lack the engineering, legal, or financial expertise required to assess complex construction projects (Ghaus-Pasha, 2005). Addressing this gap requires structured capacity-building initiatives, including training programs, secondments into government oversight units, and collaboration with technical professionals (OECD, 2021; AfDB, 2020). Co-production models, where CSOs work directly with experts, can further enhance the credibility and robustness of oversight findings (Fung *et al*., 2007). Financial fragility also undermines CSO independence and sustainability. Diversified funding strategies—including membership dues, donor partnerships, and income-generating activities—are essential for reducing donor dependency and ensuring operational resilience (Tandon, 2008; USAID, 2014; CIVICUS, 2017). Equally, institutionalizing multi-stakeholder collaboration is vital. Evidence from participatory budgeting experiences in Brazil and the Philippines shows that platforms enabling CSOs, government actors, and communities to jointly engage in planning, monitoring, and grievance redress mechanisms foster accountability and citizen trust (Ackerman, 2004; Shah, 2007; UNDP, 2020).

Recent advances in technology further expand the toolkit for effective oversight. Mobile auditing apps, blockchain systems, and GIS platforms enhance real-time monitoring, reduce information asymmetries, and allow CSOs to provide more evidence-based assessments (OECD, 2020; OpenGov Africa, 2022; Bertot *et al*., 2010). In parallel, media partnerships and the strategic use of digital platforms enable CSOs to amplify findings, mobilize citizens, and sustain public pressure for accountability (McGee & Gaventa, 2010; Transparency International, 2020). Additionally, local

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legitimacy and adaptive learning are critical for long-term impact. Embedding oversight processes within cultural contexts—through the use of indigenous languages, local facilitators, and respect for community norms—helps build trust and inclusivity (UN-Habitat, 2018; Wong, 2020). Moreover, continuous peer learning and networking with global actors such as Transparency International and ANSA facilitate knowledge transfer, innovation, and policy influence (INTRAC, 2019; Tandon, 2008). From this perspective, these strategies underscore that improving CSO effectiveness in Nigeria requires a multifaceted approach—anchored in legal reform, organizational resilience, technological innovation, and community legitimacy. Strengthening CSO oversight is not only about increasing capacity but also about embedding oversight in systems that are transparent, participatory, and resistant to political capture.

III. Research Methodology

This study examined the determinants of CSOs` effectiveness in overseeing public sector construction projects in Nigeria and explored strategies to enhance their role. A survey research design was adopted, utilizing a structured questionnaire to gather empirical data from stakeholders engaged in CSO oversight of public construction. The adoption of a survey design is consistent with established practices for similar governance and accountability studies (Creswell, 2014; Bryman, 2016). The questionnaire was developed based on constructs identified in the literature and insights from a pilot study. A pre-test was conducted to highlight potential challenges respondents might face, thereby ensuring clarity and usability of the instrument (Fellows & Liu, 2015). This refinement process improved internal validity by addressing ambiguities and enhancing reliability (Saunders *et al*., 2009). Ten research scholars were invited to review the draft instrument, and eight provided detailed feedback. These individuals were experts in construction management, infrastructure delivery, and governance. Their contributions were instrumental in improving the precision of items and aligning the language with both academic and policy standards before the instrument's final deployment.

The empirical investigation was conducted in Lagos State and the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja). Lagos was chosen to represent state-level governance dynamics, while Abuja provided insights into federal-level oversight. Both locations host a high concentration of national and international CSOs, as well as accountability institutions, offering a robust context for comparative analysis. A non-probability sampling strategy was adopted, combining purposive and cluster sampling. Respondents included three main categories: CSO staff involved in project monitoring and advocacy; Government officials from agencies such as the Bureau of Public Procurement (BPP), Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC), and Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC); and Project beneficiaries, including members of Community-Based Organizations (CBOs). This combination ensured perspectives from grassroots organizations, national NGOs, oversight agencies, and professional associations (engineers, architects, and quantity surveyors), thereby capturing a comprehensive picture of CSO oversight. Purposive sampling was employed to identify 92 CSO staff, 134 government officials, and 79 project beneficiaries, all of whom were subsequently included in the study. This approach was necessary due to the absence of official registers of CSOs and beneficiaries in the study areas, which made it difficult to define the population precisely. By targeting respondents directly involved in oversight activities, the technique enhanced the relevance and credibility of the data collected. Moreover, purposive sampling is widely recognized in governance and oversight research as appropriate where populations are hard to enumerate or official sampling frames are lacking. Its application in this study ensured that the perspectives gathered were context-specific and directly aligned with the research questions.

The questionnaire was administered both in person and electronically. It comprised three sections: Section A: Demographic and professional characteristics of respondents; Section B: Seventeen challenges to CSO oversight effectiveness, rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Does not influence, 5 = Strongly influences); and Section C: Twenty-one strategies for addressing the challenges, rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Very Low, 5 = Very High). Internal consistency was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, yielding 0.873 for the challenge items and 0.798 for the strategy items, both of which indicate acceptable reliability (Famiyeh *et al*., 2017). A total of 305 questionnaires were distributed, with 189 returned and 173 retained after data cleaning, representing a 57% response rate, which is considered adequate for statistical analysis in governance and construction studies. Stratified random sampling technique was used to select the study sample. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics, particularly mean score ranking, were used to assess the relative importance of factors. The mean score (MS) was computed as:

$$MS = \Sigma(RPi \times Ri)/n \qquad (1)$$

where: MS = Mean Score, RPi= Rating point i (range from 1-5), Ri= response to rating point, i) and n = total responses = summation of Ri from1-5. Following Kazaz *et al*. (2008), factors with a baseline MS ≥ 3.40 were considered significant. To test agreement across stakeholder groups, the Kruskal–Wallis rank test—a non-parametric alternative to one-way ANOVA—was employed (Yap & Lock, 2017).

IV. Results and Discussion Results

The results from the analysis of the data collected and discussion of the findings for this study are presented in this section. They cover an overview of respondents' characteristics, an assessment of the factors influencing the effectiveness of CSO oversight, and an evaluation of respondents' level of agreement on these factors using the Kruskal–Wallis (H) test. The section also presents strategies for improving the effectiveness of CSO oversight in public sector construction projects. Detailed findings from these analyses are discussed in the subsections that follow.

a) Demographic and Professional Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic and professional characteristics of respondents are summarized in Table 2, covering classification, qualifications, years of experience in CSO oversight activities, and location. The data show that government officials were more represented than other groups, reflecting their control over systems, processes, and information flows in public sector construction, while CSOs and beneficiaries remain peripheral due to institutional and political constraints. Educational attainment was high, with 60% of respondents holding at least a first degree (HND/B.Sc./B.Tech.), and 40% holding postgraduate qualifications, including 29% with Master's degrees and 11% with PhDs. These levels of education suggest that respondents were sufficiently knowledgeable about the issues examined in the study. Experience levels were also significant: only 8% had less than five years of experience in CSO oversight activities, while 92% had more than five years, and 80% reported over 10 years of involvement. In terms of location, 61% of respondents were based in Lagos, compared to 39% in Abuja. This distribution reflects the broader civic presence and higher volume of project activity in Lagos, compared with the more centralized and limited oversight participation in Abuja. Collectively, these attributes provide a strong basis for considering the data a credible reflection of perspectives on the challenges and strategies for strengthening CSO oversight effectiveness in public sector construction.

Table 2: Respondents` Characteristics

Category	Classification	N	%
Classification	CSO staff	38	22
	Government officials	86	50
	Project beneficiaries	49	28
Qualification	HND/B.Sc./B.Tech.	103	60
	MSc	51	29
	PhD	19	11
Experience in CSO`s oversight activities	1–5 years	13	8
	5–10 years	21	12
	10–15 years	63	36
	16–20 years	44	25
	Above 20	32	19
Location	Lagos	105	61
	Abuja	68	39

b) Ranking of Factors Influencing the Effectiveness of CSO Oversight in Project Delivery

Table 3 presents the results of the analysis of seventeen (17) key factors that influence the effectiveness of CSO oversight in project delivery. The analysis was conducted using the formula in Equation (1). The results of the Mean Score (MS), rank, and remarks for each factor are shown in Table 3. Among CSO staff, the five most highly ranked factors with their respective MS are: Financial Instability and Unsustainable Funding Models (4.69), Limited Access to Timely and Reliable Information (4.52), Challenges in Maintaining Organizational Independence and Political Neutrality (4.45), Restrictive Legal and Regulatory Frameworks (4.38), and Weak Institutional and Organizational Capacity (4.31). For government officials, the top five are: Unfavorable Political and Socio-Institutional Environment (4.57), Restrictive Legal and Regulatory Frameworks (4.54), Fragmented Stakeholder Engagement and Weak Collaborative Mechanisms (4.42), Weak Internal Transparency and Accountability Mechanisms within CSOs (4.40), and Limited Use of

Media Advocacy and Public Awareness Campaigns (4.37). Among project beneficiaries, the leading factors are: Limited Access to Timely and Reliable Information (4.83), Low Levels of Civic Engagement and Public Participation (4.79), Lack of Cultural Sensitivity and Inadequate Community Integration (4.74), Limited Use of Media Advocacy and Public Awareness Campaigns (4.64), and Fragmented Stakeholder Engagement and Weak Collaborative Mechanisms (4.52).

A critical comparison (Table 3) reveals that the highest-ranked factors by each group are: Financial Instability and Unsustainable Funding Models for CSO staff (4.69), Unfavorable Political and Socio-Institutional Environment for government officials (4.57), and Limited Access to Timely and Reliable Information for project beneficiaries (4.83). Conversely, the lowest-ranked factor among government officials is Inadequate Adoption of Technological Tools and Innovative Solutions (2.73), while both CSO staff and project beneficiaries ranked Limited Access to International Networks and Strategic Partnerships lowest (MS = 2.97 and 2.77, respectively).

In the combined ranking across all three groups, the top five factors are: Limited Access to Timely and Reliable Information (4.36), Fragmented Stakeholder Engagement and Weak Collaborative Mechanisms (4.19), Unfavorable Political and Socio-Institutional Environment (4.17), Limited Use of Media Advocacy and Public Awareness Campaigns (4.13), and Low Levels of Civic Engagement and Public Participation (4.08). The five least ranked factors are: Lack of Cultural Sensitivity and Inadequate Community Integration (3.55), Poor Risk Management and Absence of Contingency Planning (3.54), Inconsistent Capacity Building and Limited Opportunities for Continuous Learning (3.33), Inadequate Adoption of Technological Tools and Innovative Solutions (3.32), and Limited Access to International Networks and Strategic Partnerships (2.85).

Limited access to timely and reliable information remains the most significant constraint, reflecting entrenched information asymmetry. Without contract documents, bills of quantities (BOQs), progress reports, or updated project records, CSOs are unable to detect irregularities, validate community claims, or advance evidence-based demands. This finding aligns with global scholarship that identifies information as a precondition for accountability (Kosack & Fung, 2014; Bauhr & Grimes, 2014). In Nigeria, however, the problem is not only technical but also political. Patronage networks in Lagos often restrict procurement data, while federal interference in Abuja hinders the disclosure of sensitive contracts. By contrast, Kenya's adoption of open contracting data standards has improved transparency (Mutuku & Mwangi, 2022), leaving Nigerian CSOs still struggling for basic access. Fragmentation further undermines oversight, as consultations remain ad hoc, coordination weak, and multi-stakeholder fora poorly institutionalized. This reflects broader evidence that weak collaboration erodes accountability (Cornwall & Coelho, 2007; Fox, 2015). In Nigeria, CSO efforts are fragmented and uncoordinated: urban-based organizations in Lagos are often elite-focused and disconnected from grassroots voices, while overlapping mandates in Abuja compound institutional incoherence. Comparatively, India's grassroots mobilization helps mitigate fragmentation (Narayan & Choudhury, 2020), while structured oversight platforms are common in developed contexts.

The wider political environment also constrains CSO effectiveness. Corruption, interference, and weak rule of law expose civic actors to co-optation, retaliation, and political capture. Unlike Kenya and India, where bureaucratic hurdles dominate, Nigerian CSOs often prioritize survival and autonomy. This reflects Brinkerhoff and Wetterberg's (2016) observation that state resistance and patronage politics undermine civic oversight in fragile democracies. Similarly, Omoleke and Adebayo (2020) note that entrenched interests routinely marginalize civic actors in Nigeria's procurement processes. Equally important is the underutilization of media advocacy and weak civic engagement. Low public trust in media, fear of backlash, and widespread apathy limit CSOs' ability to amplify accountability demands. This weakens legitimacy compared with India's grassroots campaigns or the digital advocacy strategies common in developed democracies. McGee and Edwards (2021) highlight the transformative role of media in building public demand for accountability, while Gaventa (2020) shows how civic awareness campaigns shift power toward grassroots actors.

Finally, limited access to international networks and partnerships ranked lowest among the identified barriers. While global coalitions can provide technical expertise and protective leverage, their impact in Nigeria is muted by severe domestic political and institutional obstacles. East African CSOs more effectively leverage donor coalitions (Keck & Sikkink, 1998), but Nigerian actors view such support as secondary. Chandler and Hyden (2019) caution, however, that external resources must be rooted in local legitimacy to avoid perceptions of interference. The findings highlighted suggest that CSO oversight in Nigeria is constrained less by technical capacity gaps than by structural and political barriers. While information access and coordination mechanisms are necessary, they are insufficient without broader reforms that address entrenched patronage, institutional fragmentation, and weak civic legitimacy. Strengthening oversight thus requires not only technical transparency tools but also deeper political and institutional transformation.

c) *Ranking of Strategies for improving the Effectiveness of CSOs' Oversight*

Considering that CSOs in Nigeria face significant environmental and institutional constraints that limit their oversight role, this section analyzes the strategic responses tailored to these challenges, supported by real-world initiatives and scholarly findings. This literature-informed approach provides a roadmap for strengthening CSO oversight in public construction projects in Nigeria. The strategies are presented under three distinct sub-sections: foundational strategies, enabling and operational strategies, and collaborative and adaptive strategies. The study underscores the interdependence among these three tiers of strategies, noting that foundational reforms create the conditions for effective deployment of operational tools, which in turn must be embedded within collaborative, community-driven structures. Thus, only by aligning foundational, operational, and ranking of adaptive strategies can CSOs meaningfully contribute to transparency, accountability, and inclusive infrastructure governance.

d) *Ranking of Foundational Strategies for Improving Effectiveness of CSO Oversight*

This study defines foundational strategies as structural and governance reforms that create an enabling environment for CSOs to function effectively. Five key variables were identified and ranked by respondents. The top priority was "strengthening institutional autonomy and safeguards against political interference" (MS = 4.85), followed by "advocacy for enforceable legal protections and CSO inclusion in procurement processes" (MS = 4.74). The third ranked factor was "diversification of funding sources and adoption of income-generating initiatives" (MS = 4.26), while "implementation of CSO codes of conduct and ethics charters" ranked fourth. The lowest-ranked factor was "promotion of trust-building measures between CSOs and government institutions" (MS = 4.06).

The findings suggest that sustainable and high-impact CSO oversight depends on institutional safeguards, legal frameworks, financial resilience, ethical legitimacy, and relational trust. Institutional autonomy and protections against political interference are particularly important, as they shield CSOs from capture, co-optation, or retaliation that could undermine their watchdog role. In parallel, legal protections and formal inclusion in procurement processes create rights and mechanisms through which CSOs can access project data, participate in hearings, and escalate concerns. These provisions translate civic voice into actionable oversight.

Financial resilience further reinforces independence. Funding diversification and income-generating activities reduce reliance on a narrow pool of donors or government subventions, thereby ensuring organizational continuity. Ethical conduct, guided by sector-wide codes of practice, also strengthens legitimacy and alignment with societal expectations (Macdonald *et al*., 2014). Without legal scaffolding and financial stability, however, CSOs risk losing both impartiality and operational capacity, particularly in volatile political contexts.

Relational trust adds another layer of effectiveness. Mechanisms such as regular dialogue, shared monitoring protocols, and joint problem-solving reduce adversarial dynamics and increase the likelihood that oversight findings lead to corrective action. These results align with established literature. Organizational independence is widely recognized as a precondition for effective oversight (Fox, 2015; Grindle, 2011), while legal personality and operational space are essential for credible monitoring (McGee & Edwards, 2016). Furthermore, rights to information, participation, and redress enhance citizen oversight capacity (Joshi & Houtzager, 2019). In procurement processes, transparency clauses and contract disclosure facilitate evidence-based monitoring and reduce corruption, while repeated dialogue increases opportunities for collaborative solutions (Ansell & Gash, 2008).

Findings from this study extend theory by demonstrating that in highly politicized contexts such as Nigeria, institutional autonomy and safeguards against political interference are viewed as more foundational to CSO oversight effectiveness than technical capacity or grassroots mobilization, which are emphasized in Kenya and India. This indicates the need to adapt existing oversight frameworks to account for political capture risks as a primary constraint on civic accountability. The prioritization of funding diversification and income-generating initiatives further shows that Nigerian CSOs perceive financial resilience not only as an operational necessity but also as a strategic governance mechanism to protect independence.

From a practical standpoint, this underscores the importance of self-financing models in volatile donor and political environments where impartial oversight must be sustained despite external pressures. Unlike comparative cases where trust-building with government actors is central to oversight success, Nigerian CSOs rank it as a lower priority. This challenges the universality of collaborative governance models (Ansell & Gash, 2008) and suggests that in contexts marked by entrenched political interference, structural protections and autonomy outweigh relational trust as enablers of effective oversight.

Table 3: Foundational Strategies of CSOs in Public Sector Construction Oversight

Strategic Response	Mean	Rank	Rmks
Strengthening of institutional autonomy and safeguards against political interference	4.85	1	VHS
Advocacy for enforceable legal protections and CSO inclusion in procurement processes	4.74	2	VHS
Diversification of funding sources and adoption of income-generating initiatives	4.26	3	VHS
Implementation of CSO codes of conduct and ethics charters	4.18	4	VHS
Promotion of trust-building measures between CSOs and government institutions	4.06	5	VHS

VHS= Very High Significance; HS= high Significance; MS= Moderate Significance; Rmks= Remarks.

e) *Ranking of Enabling and Operational Strategies for improving effectiveness of CSO oversight*

Results in Table 5 reveal that the mid-level strategies—enabling and operational approaches—comprise six key factors. These strategies emphasize capacity, technology, and process innovations that empower CSOs to carry out oversight functions effectively once foundational issues are secured. The highest-ranked factor is the adoption of Open Contracting Data Standards (OCDS) and digital procurement platforms (MS = 4.89). This was followed by enhancement of technical capacity through training, secondments, and expert collaboration (MS = 4.69) and strengthening of organizational development systems and performance-based management (MS = 4.69). The lowest-ranked factor, establishment of independent Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) units within CSOs (MS = 3.86), should not be viewed as unimportant but rather as an indication that stakeholders perceive M&E to be most effective when embedded within broader organizational and technical ecosystems rather than as an isolated unit.

The prominence of OCDS and digital procurement platforms underscores the growing recognition that real-time access to open, machine-readable procurement data is transformative for CSO oversight in Nigeria. By exposing contract pipelines, BOQs, award notices, and execution updates, these platforms reduce information asymmetries, enhance transparency, and lower monitoring costs. In turn, CSOs are better positioned to detect irregularities at earlier stages and to press for corrective action. This reflects a technology-driven accountability model well suited to Lagos and Abuja, where the scale and complexity of high-value construction projects demand digital oversight mechanisms.

However, the findings also suggest that data access alone is insufficient. Technical expertise is required to interpret procurement records, validate BOQs, and assess construction quality. In response, Nigerian CSOs are prioritizing targeted capacity-building initiatives, including specialized training, secondments into government technical units, and collaborations with engineers, procurement specialists, and forensic auditors. This trend distinguishes Nigeria from other contexts. Whereas audits in Kenya are more community-driven, and oversight in India is dominated by grassroots social audits, Nigerian CSOs are actively self-provisioning technical expertise to compensate for weak institutional oversight.

Building on this, the strengthening of organizational development (OD) systems has further enabled CSOs to expand monitoring activities, manage risks, and deliver consistent results. This marks a shift from ad hoc activism toward more professionalized oversight practices. Although independent M&E units were ranked lowest, their gradual emergence indicates a nascent professionalization trend. These units are designed to produce independently validated evidence, thereby enhancing CSOs' credibility with government agencies, the media, and international partners.

These findings align with broader global scholarship. Open contracting reforms are widely recognized for reducing corruption risks by lowering information asymmetries (Kosack & Fung, 2014; Open Contracting Partnership, 2021), but their effectiveness depends on whether actors can process and utilize the data (Bauhr & Grimes, 2014). Likewise, McGee and Gaventa (2019) argue that CSOs require institutional robustness to translate transparency into accountability, while Fox (2015) highlights the importance of the "accountability sandwich" model, in which civil society oversight is reinforced by strong organizational systems. The Nigerian case contributes to this literature by showing how urban CSOs in Lagos and Abuja combine digital transparency tools, technical capacity-building, and organizational resilience as compensatory mechanisms within weak and politically contested governance environments. This integrated approach appears less pronounced in both other developing contexts and in more established oversight systems.

Table 5: Enabling and Operational Strategies of CSOs in Public Sector Construction Oversight

Strategic Response	Mean	Rank	Rmks
Adoption of Open Contracting Data Standards (OCDS) and digital procurement platforms	4.89	1	VHS
Enhancement of technical capacity through training, secondments, and expert collaboration	4.75	2	VHS
Strengthening of organizational development systems and performance-based management	4.67	3	VHS
Deployment of performance audit frameworks and public disclosure mechanisms	4.32	4	VHS
Adoption of digital tools such as GIS, mobile apps, blockchain, and real-time dashboards	4.11	5	VHS
Development of structured communication strategies and multilingual public feedback mechanisms	3.80	6	VHS
Establishment of independent Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) units within CSOs	3.84	7	VHS

VHS= Very High Significance; HS= high Significance; MS= Moderate Significance; Rmks= Remarks.

f) *Ranking of Collaborative and Adaptive Strategies for Improving Effectiveness of CSO Oversight*

Collaborative and adaptive strategies are lower-level but foundational mechanisms that emphasize community integration, adaptability, and trust-building, primarily for sustaining CSO impact in public sector construction oversight. Within this category, the highest-ranked strategy was the institutionalization of multi-stakeholder forums and participatory project review mechanisms (MS = 4.78). The second-ranked strategy was the use of community scorecards, citizen report cards, and town hall forums (MS = 4.65), followed by engagement of local personnel and alignment with community cultural norms (MS = 4.52), and the development of localized oversight frameworks adapted to regional realities (MS = 4.39). By contrast, the least-ranked factor was engagement in global watchdog alliances and international advocacy coalitions (MS = 3.43).

Effective oversight in Nigeria requires strategies that are both collaborative and adaptive. Collaboration brings together CSOs, government, and communities, while adaptability allows for flexibility in volatile environments. This represents a shift from reactive oversight toward proactive governance practices that emphasize participation, transparency, and context-sensitive engagement. A notable insight in the Nigerian context is the central role of multi-stakeholder for a (MSFs). When institutionalized and connected to decision-making processes, MSFs facilitate earlier problem detection and structured evidence exchange, thereby reducing adversarial relationships. Equally important is the hiring and empowerment of local personnel—such as community liaisons, local engineers, and paralegals—and aligning oversight processes with cultural norms. These measures enhance trust, reduce resistance, and help CSOs in Lagos and Abuja navigate entrenched patronage systems and perceptions of external interference. Compared with Kenya and India, where national CSOs often dominate oversight without deep local embedding, Nigeria demonstrates a stronger reliance on localized strategies.

Building on this, the findings highlight the importance of context-sensitive oversight frameworks tailored to Nigeria's dual urban dynamic. Lagos requires oversight approaches that address urban heterogeneity and rapid infrastructure growth, while Abuja demands diplomatic strategies to accommodate its proximity to federal power. This combination of megacity and political capital dynamics makes the Nigerian case distinctive. Unlike Kenya, where CSOs often focus on rural roads and water projects, or India, where rural infrastructure remains central, Nigerian CSOs are innovating with urban-specific frameworks that balance technical oversight with culturally adaptive community engagement.

In comparative perspective, while research from Kenya emphasizes CSO-led monitoring of large-scale infrastructure projects (Mutuku & Mwangi, 2022), and studies from India highlight village-level accountability mechanisms such as scorecards and social audits, the Nigerian case underscores the novelty of integrating urban oversight with culturally grounded strategies in politically sensitive settings. This blend of urban orientation and localized engagement extends existing theory by showing how oversight effectiveness depends on embedding strategies within specific governance contexts.

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In this regard, the Nigerian experience also diverges from patterns observed in developed countries. In OECD contexts, CSOs generally operate within robust institutional frameworks where access to procurement data and organizational autonomy are more secure. By contrast, Nigerian CSOs must rely on localized, trust-based, and adaptive approaches to counter weak institutional protections, political interference, and limited procurement transparency (Akintola *et al*., 2020; World Bank, 2020). The novelty of this contribution lies in demonstrating that sustained oversight impact in Lagos and Abuja depends less on international advocacy models and more on community-driven, context-specific innovations.

Table 6: Collaborative and Adaptive Strategies of CSOs in Public Sector Construction Oversight

Strategic Response	Mean	Rank	Rmks
Institutionalization of multi-stakeholder forums and participatory project review mechanisms	4.78	1	VHS
Utilization of community scorecards, citizen report cards, and town hall forums	4.65	2	VHS
Engagement of local personnel and alignment with community cultural norms	4.52	3	VHS
Development of localized oversight frameworks adapted to regional realities	4.39	4	VHS
Establishment of risk registers and adaptive response mechanisms for volatile environments	4.21	5	VHS
Integration of Gender and Social Inclusion (GESI) principles in oversight activities	4.03	6	VHS
Facilitation of peer learning, modular training, and exchange programs	3.68	7	VHS
Collaboration with investigative media and strategic use of social media platforms	3.54	8	VHS
Engagement in global watchdog alliances and international advocacy coalitions	3.43	9	VHS

VHS= Very High Significance; HS= high Significance; MS= Moderate Significance; Rmks = Remarks.

g) Tests of Agreement among the Respondent Groups

The study examined whether CSO staff, government officials, and project beneficiaries share similar perceptions of the factors influencing the effectiveness of CSO oversight in construction project delivery. Testing this agreement was necessary to determine whether the identified factors could be generalized across stakeholder groups, thereby providing a sound basis for recommendations and further research. The Kruskal–Wallis test was employed for this purpose. The Kruskal–Wallis (H) test is a non-parametric statistical method used when the assumptions for parametric tests are not met (Pallant, 2007). Specifically, while parametric tests require interval or ratio-level data, the non-parametric alternative is more appropriate when this condition is not satisfied (Pallant, 2007). These criteria were met by the dataset, justifying the use of the Kruskal–Wallis test. The rule for decision-making states that if the p-value $>$ 0.05, the null hypothesis is retained, whereas if p-value $\leq$ 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected. As presented in Table 7, the calculated chi-square (K) value of 0.417 was below the critical value of 5.991. Similarly, the p-value of 0.139, being greater than 0.05, further confirmed the absence of significant differences in perception among the three respondent categories. These results indicate that CSO staff, government officials, and project beneficiaries broadly share similar views on the systemic barriers constraining CSO oversight. Such barriers include entrenched patronage networks, institutional fragmentation, and limited transparency. The consistency across stakeholder groups suggests that these challenges are widely experienced regardless of institutional affiliation.

V. Conclusions

The findings of this study demonstrate that the effectiveness of CSOs in public sector construction oversight in Nigeria is shaped by systemic constraints, structural weaknesses, and contextual realities. Limited access to information remains a central barrier, with political interference and weak disclosure mechanisms restricting evidence-based monitoring. This challenge is compounded by fragmented stakeholder engagement and poor coordination, which undermine collaboration among CSOs, government, and communities, thereby reducing accountability in project delivery. The broader political and socio-institutional environment further complicates oversight. Entrenched corruption, co-optation, and weak rule of law make CSO oversight more precarious in Nigeria than in comparative contexts such as Kenya and India, where grassroots mobilization has been more effective. Additionally, limited use of media advocacy and weak civic engagement diminish CSOs' legitimacy and restrict public demand for accountability. While international linkages offer potential support, they remain underutilized due to domestic political and institutional barriers. These realities highlight the need for a context-specific oversight framework tailored to Nigeria's governance environment.

VI. Recommendations

To strengthen CSO oversight, several strategies are recommended. First, stronger legal and regulatory safeguards are required to guarantee CSOs' rights to access procurement data, participate in oversight processes, and challenge irregularities through judicial mechanisms. Complementing this, reforms that expand access to digital procurement information—such as adopting OCDS—would promote real-time transparency and accountability. Second, addressing financial fragility is critical. Diversifying income streams and broadening donor support would reduce reliance on volatile funding sources and enhance independence. Building technical and organizational capacity through training, professional secondments, and partnerships with engineers and auditors would also improve the depth and quality of oversight. Third, relational strategies must be strengthened. Establishing multi-stakeholder forums can foster trust and facilitate collaboration between CSOs, government agencies, contractors, and communities. Localized and culturally adaptive approaches, aligned with community norms, would further strengthen legitimacy and reduce resistance. Scaling up media advocacy and civic mobilization is also essential for amplifying CSOs' findings, increasing citizen demand for accountability, and reinforcing vertical checks on government performance.

VII. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Like any study, this research is not without limitations. The use of a non-probability sampling technique, while suitable for capturing targeted perspectives, limits the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, data collection was restricted to Lagos and Abuja, which may not fully capture regional dynamics across Nigeria. Future studies could address these limitations by adopting probability-based sampling to improve representativeness, expanding coverage to other states for broader insights, and employing mixed-methods approaches to complement quantitative data with qualitative perspectives.

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The Impact of Globalization in Response to Climate Change on the Indigenous People of Africa

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Abstract- Globalization and climate change significantly impact African indigenous peoples by promoting cash crops over traditional food security, disrupting cultural practices tied to the environment, exacerbating poverty and resource conflicts, and marginalizing their knowledge systems in global climate responses. This combination of factors increases vulnerability to climate shocks, forcing migration and threatening the cultural and economic foundations of indigenous communities across the continent.

Keywords: threatening their traditional livelihoods, land rights, and cultural survival globalization, climate change, indigenous peoples, africa, adaptation, cultural heritage, land sensitive, vulnerability, knowledge system and resilience.

GJHSS-H Classification: LCC Code: GN380.A35, GE170

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I. Background Objectives

The intersection of globalization and climate change disproportionately burdens Africa's Indigenous peoples, who contribute the least to global emissions but face severe, compounded threats to their traditional livelihoods, cultures, and land rights.

a) *The Impact of Globalization and Climate Change*

The background objective is to understand how these two powerful forces interact to affect Indigenous communities, primarily in negative ways that exacerbate existing vulnerabilities.

b) *Intensified Environmental Vulnerability*

Climate-Induced Hazards: Indigenous peoples face an increased frequency of extreme weather events such as droughts, floods, and heatwaves that disrupt traditional practices like pastoralism and hunting.

Resource Depletion: Global demand for resources (timber, minerals, biofuels) often leads to land dispossession and environmental degradation in Indigenous territories, further straining their ability to rely on natural ecosystems.

Loss of Predictability: The rapid and unpredictable pace of climate change challenges the efficacy of age-old Indigenous knowledge systems (IKS) for weather forecasting and seasonal changes, making planning for survival difficult.

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c) *Socio-Economic and Cultural Marginalization*

Political and Economic Exclusion: Indigenous communities often suffer from historical, social, and political exclusion, which means their rights and needs are rarely a priority in national or international climate policy discussions.

Forced Migration and Displacement: Climate events and economic pressures often force Indigenous people to migrate, where they may face double discrimination or end up in urban slums, losing connection to their ancestral lands and cultural identity.

Erosion of Traditional Knowledge: The pervasive influence of global media and consumer culture, combined with the marginalization of IKS in formal education and policy, threatens the transmission of unique languages and sustainable practices across generations.

d) *Responses and Challenges*

Despite these challenges, Indigenous communities demonstrate remarkable resilience, often employing a mix of traditional and new strategies to adapt.

Traditional Adaptation: Communities such as the Borana use indigenous collective resource-governance and weather-forecasting systems, while the Endorois have adopted climate-smart agroecological production systems like cultivating drought-tolerant crops.

Policy Gaps: Current national and international frameworks often fail to effectively protect Indigenous interests or include their meaningful participation in decision-making processes.

Opportunity for Co-production: There is a growing recognition of the potential for integrating IKS with Western science to create more robust and effective climate response strategies, but this requires a shift away from neocolonial dynamics and a respect for Indigenous rights and self-determination.

Method:

Studying the impact of globalization and climate change on Indigenous African people typically employs mixed-methods approaches that combine qualitative data collection (e.g., ethnography, case studies, interviews) with quantitative data analysis (e.g., surveys, climate data analysis). The methods are often designed to be inclusive and acknowledge the value of Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS).

Results:

Globalization, in the context of climate change, has a dual but often detrimental impact on indigenous African people, primarily by exacerbating environmental vulnerabilities and marginalizing traditional knowledge and land rights. While it offers some opportunities, the challenges often outweigh the benefits, threatening their cultural survival and livelihoods.

e) Exacerbating Challenges

Disproportionate Burden: African indigenous communities contribute minimally to global carbon emissions but suffer disproportionately from climate impacts like droughts, floods, and extreme heat, a situation made worse by global economic activities they do not control.

Resource Exploitation and Land Loss: Global demand for natural resources (minerals, timber, biofuels) leads to large-scale development projects and monoculture plantations on indigenous lands, often without their free, prior, and informed consent. This results in land dispossession, environmental degradation, and the disruption of traditional livelihoods such as pastoralism, hunting, and gathering.

Marginalization of Knowledge Systems: Global climate policy often prioritizes Western scientific and technological approaches, sidelining Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) that have been used for centuries to adapt to environmental changes. This exclusion undermines local resilience and the development of effective, culturally appropriate adaptation strategies.

Forced Migration and Social Disruption: Climate-induced events like severe droughts in the Horn of Africa force indigenous people to migrate, often to urban slums, where they face double discrimination as both migrants and indigenous people. Globalization also weakens traditional socio-cultural structures, like kinship and community organizations, that once provided social safety nets.

Economic Vulnerability: The shift from subsistence to cash economies can make communities dependent on volatile global markets (e.g., for tourism or handicrafts). Furthermore, a lack of formal education or skills for non-traditional jobs leaves them at a disadvantage in the globalized labor market.

f) Opportunities (with Caveats)

Global Advocacy and Awareness: Globalization has facilitated the creation of global networks, allowing indigenous rights movements to raise international awareness and advocate for their rights on a larger stage.

New Livelihood Options: Some communities have leveraged globalization by engaging in nature-based ecotourism or selling handicrafts to global markets, generating income.

Integration of Knowledge: There is a growing international recognition of the value of IKS in climate science and policy, as seen in the Paris Agreement and the IPCC reports, though this is not consistently translated into action at the national level. Dialogue and co-production of knowledge between scientists and indigenous peoples offer a path toward more holistic solutions.

The critical challenge is ensuring that indigenous African people have full participation and recognized land rights in climate change decision-making processes, as outlined in frameworks like the *UN Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.*

g) Implication

Globalization interacts with climate change to create disproportionate and severe negative impacts on the indigenous people of Africa, primarily by exacerbating their vulnerability, undermining traditional livelihoods, and marginalizing their knowledge systems.

The Specific Implications are:

Exacerbation of Vulnerability: While developed nations contribute most to climate change, indigenous African communities who live low-carbon lifestyles suffer disproportionately from its effects, such as erratic rainfall, droughts, and floods. Globalization can worsen this by increasing demand for the natural resources found on their lands, leading to environmental degradation (e.g., deforestation for commercial farming or mining) and land dispossession.

Loss of Land and Resources: The global demand for resources has led to large-scale development projects, such as biofuel plantations and mining operations, that often result in forced displacement and denial of traditional land rights. This loss of access to ancestral lands and resources directly threatens their physical and cultural survival.

Disruption of Traditional Livelihoods: Traditional practices like pastoralism, hunting, and gathering, which are highly adapted to local conditions, are threatened by climate-induced changes and external economic pressures. For example, the Maasai and Turkana have faced significant livestock losses due to droughts and competition for water resources from large horticultural farms linked to global markets.

Marginalization of Indigenous Knowledge: Globalization often promotes Western scientific knowledge and technological solutions, marginalizing the value of indigenous and local knowledge (ILK) in climate adaptation strategies. This can lead to the implementation of top-down, one-size-fits-all policies that are inappropriate for local contexts and overlook time-tested traditional coping mechanisms.

Food and Water Insecurity: Climate impacts, such as reduced soil moisture and water scarcity, combined with the shift towards market-oriented agriculture, threaten food security and access to clean water. Women and girls are often disproportionately affected, having to travel longer distances to fetch water.

Human Rights Issues: The combination of climate pressure and globalization-driven development results in human rights violations, including discrimination, lack of political representation, and increased vulnerability to irregular migration and trafficking when displaced.

In summary, globalization intensifies the pressures of climate change on indigenous African communities by altering their environment, challenging their rights, and devaluing their traditional systems, which limits their capacity to adapt effectively.

h) Negative Impacts

Economic Disruption and Resource Competition: Globalization often forces indigenous communities to shift from traditional, resilient food crops to cash crops for international markets, increasing their dependence on volatile global markets and their vulnerability to climate change impacts like drought. This transition also leads to increased competition for land and resources, fueling conflicts.

Cultural Erosion: Indigenous knowledge systems, deeply intertwined with traditional practices and environmental sustainability, are often undermined by globalization. This disruption weakens cultural identity, which is essential for community resilience in the face of environmental challenges.

Increased Vulnerability: The intensified environmental impacts of climate change such as rising temperatures, droughts, and floods disproportionately affect the livelihoods of indigenous peoples, who often depend directly on the natural environment for subsistence. Globalization's emphasis on resource extraction and economic integration can lead to land degradation and biodiversity loss, further diminishing their capacity to adapt.

Displacement and Migration: As climate change degrades their environments and traditional ways of life become unsustainable, indigenous communities are often forced to migrate in search of new opportunities, contributing to increased migration from rural to urban areas and across boarded.

i) Challenges in Global Responses

Marginalization of Indigenous Knowledge: Global responses to climate change, often driven by Western science and technology, tend to overlook or devalue the rich traditional knowledge held by African indigenous communities. This limits the development of effective, localized adaptation and mitigation strategies.

Uneven Power Dynamics: The integration of African economies into global systems has often perpetuated and worsened existing inequalities. This uneven development framework means that the costs of both globalization and climate change are borne disproportionately by the continent's most vulnerable populations, including its indigenous peoples.

j) Path Forward

Integration of Indigenous Knowledge: Decolonizing climate response requires incorporating African indigenous knowledge systems into policy and decision-making processes.

Promoting Food Sovereignty: A focus on building climate resilience requires supporting indigenous farming systems and promoting sustainable food crops, rather than prioritizing global commodity production.

II. Introduction

Globalization, while offering potential benefits, often aggravated the challenges faced by African indigenous People in the context of climate change. Indigenous communities are already vulnerable due to historical marginalization, experience amplified impacts from climate-related displacement, loss of resources, and cultural erosion. Furthermore, globalization's response to climate change, such as the promotion of biofuels, can lead to further displacement and loss of biodiversity on their lands.

a) Paper Objectives

This paper will examine the following objectives:

Tackling Inequality: To dress the underlying social, economic and political inequalities that make indigenous people more vulnerable to climate change impact.

Strengthening Resilience: Develop and implement climate resilience strategies tailored to specific indigenous communities and their unique environment, focusing on sustainable Agriculture, water management, and disaster preparedness.

Protecting Natural Resources: Support indigenous communities in safeguarding their Ancestral lands, territories, and natural resources from exploitation and degradation caused by globalization and climate change according to the United Nation.

Respecting Indigenous Rights and Knowledge: Guarantee the right of the indigenous Peoples to self-determination, including their right to participate in decision-making Processes that affect their lives and livelihoods, especially in the context of climate change policies.

b) Methodology

The methodology to assess the impact of globalization and climate change on African indigenous people is integrating qualitative and quantitative research methods. This approach would combine in-depth interviews and focus group discussions with indigenous communities to understand their perspectives and experiences, alongside quantitative data analysis of environmental changes, economic indicators, and social impacts. The methodology will also incorporate a review of relevant literature and policy documents, and consider the role of indigenous knowledge in adaptation and mitigation strategies.

c) Key Finding

Globalization-driven development projects, discriminatory land policies, and the influx of settlers disrupt traditional livelihoods, leading to displacement resource conflicts and increase dependence on external support. Furthermore, globalization-related industrial activities contribute to climate change, disproportionately affecting indigenous communities who often live low carbon lifestyles.

III. Relevance to Today Global Issue

Climate change has negatively impacted the livelihoods of indigenous communities across the world including those located on the African continent. This research paper disuses on some Indigenous communities in African, how they have been impacted by climate change and the adopted adaptation mechanisms they have used. Local knowledge use for climate-change adaptation by African indigenous communities Globally, there are an estimated 370 million indigenous people whose livelihoods are being negatively affected by climate change by means of an increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events such as droughts, floods, storms, just to mentioned but a few, as well as heat waves. While climate change is an environmental challenge that developed countries have largely contributed toward from anthropogenic activities, the negative impacts are being felt among poorer countries, particularly vulnerable indigenous communities who ordinarily live low carbon lifestyles. Additionally, many indigenous communities have been confined to the least productive and most delicate lands because of historical, social, political, and economic exclusion. Furthermore, less consideration has been given to indigenous groups during formulation of climate-change mitigation strategies, making them vulnerable to its effects. Notwithstanding, many indigenous us communities have enduringly used various Indigenous and local knowledge (ILK) - derived coping mechanisms passed from generation to generation.

In this work I will provide examples of the various climate-change-related challenges faced by five African indigenous communities (Afar, Borana, Endorois, Fulani, and Hadiza) and the various adaptation mechanisms they use. After examining African indigenous communities in the context of international trends, we offer a broader outline of the role indigenous communities can play in combating climate change by conserving environ mental resources in their lands and territories, including a description of future trends and suggestions of measures via which the vulnerability of indigenous communities may be reduced.

Trends in adaptation to climate change among African indigenous communities have been constantly adapting to the effects of environmental stresses over a very long period with numerous climate-change adaptation mechanisms being adopted in recent decades. However, more recent impacts of climate change have placed significant strain on these communities as indigenous people are impacted in idiosyncratic ways by climate change (e.g., reduction in crop yields, water scarcity, and exposure to malnutrition) and also by the failed policies or actions that are designed at addressing it. Figure 1 provides an overview of the climate pressures these communities spread across Africa are currently exposed to, and the adaptation mechanisms they are deploying, so a s to be in a better position to cope with the challenges posed by a changing climate.

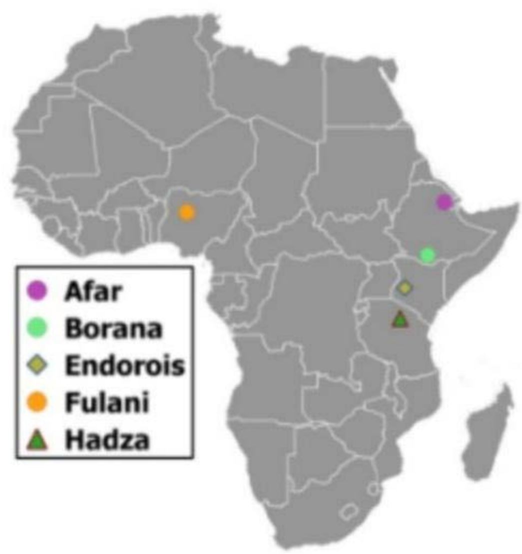

Fig. 1

Community (Population)	Climate Change Related Challenges	Climate Change Adaptation Mechanisms
Afar (1.4 million)	• Shortage of grazing land • Frequent droughts • Frequent flooding and loss of livestock	• Temporary migration • Relocation into range fields • Breeding of indigenous cattle • Reliance on wild edible fruits

Borana (2 mllion)	• Increased drought frequency and intensity • Declining range land area • Increased resource-based conflicts	• Livestock diversification and mobility Off-farm activities
Endorois (20,000)	• Frequent droughts. Crop failures • Livestock deaths Community displacements • Inter-ethnic conflicts over water and pasture land	• Shift in settlements patterns. Crop diversification • Use of indigenous crops Mixed cropping • Rainwater harvesting • Livestock destocking Beekeeping
Fulani (100,000)	• Frequent droughts. Flooding • Drying-up of water points leading to conflicts between farmers and • herders	• Livestock diversification • Shifting from pastoralism to farming • Improvement of private rangeland
Hadza (700-800)	• Frequent droughts Loss of land • Food shortages	• Camp shifting

Spatial distribution of different African communities, climate-change-related challenges faced, and adaptation mechanisms being applied.

Apart from the matters described in Fig. 1, there are further barriers to climate change adaptation that are often seen across Africa, namely the unequal global vulnerability of populations, differential responsibility, and unequal power in decision-making concerning policy making, thus undermining the resilience capability of indigenous communities. As seen in Fig. 1, the studied communities are making their best efforts to address these barriers. There are examples that show that indigenous people's knowledge is one important component to the success of policies that aim to increase adaptation. For instance, the Afar Indigenous communities in far Region of Ethopia, northern Djibouti and the Southern coast of Eritrea in the Hon of Africa have extensive experience in adapting to the impacts of climate change using their ILK via understanding the biophysical observations, and the community's perception was matched with the temperature trends using conventional weather-forecasting systems. (They are Cushhitic enthic group also known as Dankil, Adali or Odali) Similarly, The Borana Indigenous people. Indigenous pastoralist Oromo ethnic group primarily living in the Oromia region of southern Ethiopia with a significant presence also in Kenya They are known for their traditional way of life. These people have been using indigenous collective resource-governance systems, traditional social insurance and safety-net systems, and weather-forecasting systems based on changes in animal Behaviours, as well as the movement and alignment of stars and divining animal entrails, which have proven to be reliable for centuries despite the challenges posed by a Climate change.

The Fulani also known as the Fula or Fube, are an indigenous pastoralist people spread across the Sahel and West/Central Africa savannah regions, speaking and language Fulfulde. The Fulani people have also used such indigenous climate-adaptation techniques, such as livestock-feed diversification, cattle stress-management techniques, and division of labour on the other hand, the Endorois are an indigenous agro-pastoralist community in Kenya, traditionally inhabiting areas around Lake Bogoria in the Rift valley, a region considered sacred to their culture and ancestral livelihood. They people have turned to climate-smart agro ecological production systems such as the cultivation of drought-tolerant cereals, tubers, and vegetables. This shift in production systems has led to more sustainable land management, minimized water usage, reduced human-wildlife conflict, and enhanced food security a mong the Endorois. Owing to their close cultural connection to their environment, the Endorois have also embraced nature-based ecotourism enterprises, including medical, cultural, and geotourism in response to the climate-change-induced negative effects on the livelihoods. Other adaptations to climate-change effects among the Endorois people include livestock and crop diversification, herd adjustment by class, livestock destocking, and supplementary feeding of livestock. It is a matter of fact that Indigenous Local Knowledge (ILK) for climate-change adaptation is not limited to African communities. In Australia, the Mirriwong people, for example, have adopted the use of fauna and flora as an instrument of monitoring seasonal changes, for example, the flowering of Woolegalegeng *(Melaleuca argentea)* signals thunderstorms. On the other hand, in Malaysia, the communities of Sarawak (Lun Bawang, Saban, and Penan) have used indigenous forecasts such as sky-color changes, moon phases, and animal migration to identify changes in weather patterns. International examples highlight the potential for ILK systems to be integrated into modern climate-risk assessments as part of adaptation to climate-change-related hazards.

Challenges and opportunities for the future of indigenous people's climate adaptation in light of the adverse effects of climate change, indigenous people in Africa face some challenges, which need to be addressed. For instance, these groups are often hard-pressed to maintain their unique land-use and tenure systems, which are being degraded by unfavourable climatic conditions. Also, because the livelihoods of the indigenous communities and minority groups in Africa are closely associated with their environment, there are numerous climate-change-related impacts that pose a threat to their well-being, especially nutrition.

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The first part of the 6th Assessment Report issued by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change has indicated that increases in both the frequency and intensity of extreme events may be expected. This trend suggests that indigenous communities may be under additional pressure to handle unfavourable climate conditions and are trying to adapt to climate change through different mechanisms.

As this Comment has illustrated, African indigenous communities are trying to adapt to the changes through different mechanisms. In contrast, the governing framework at international, national, and regional levels in response to the negative impacts of climate change does not effectively protect indigenous people's interests, including their culturally valued lifestyles, livelihoods, and resources-which is particularly concerning, given that indigenous people have not contributed to climate change in any significant way. This paradox illustrates the need for a human-rights framework implementation at the local level, to help them to address the challenges they currently face. For climate action to be fruitful, indigenous people also need to be seen as prime agents of change. While contemporary climate-change adaptation efforts overwhelmingly privilege Western scientific knowledge and technocratic management approaches, there is a danger of side-lining and marginalizing ILK as negligible or insignificant, leading to a failure to take into account indigenous knowledge in implementing climate action.

At the same time, it is also important that the drivers (e.g., droughts), which increase the exposure of indigenous people to climate change, are addressed in a distinctive and targeted manner. Many tribes have robust local agro ecological knowledge and are naturally engaged in climate-change adaptation and mitigation strategies, but some tribes/com munities have limited knowledge on the development of climate-change adaptation strategies. Additionally, there is limited access to resources and technology that are required to implement specific types of adaptation.

Traditional and local ecological knowledge of indigenous people can help to bolster food security and allow for sustainable management of ecosystems that, in turn, may mitigate the effects of climate change. However, there are now clear signs that ILK is under threat of being side-lined, marginalized or even lost. There are strong synergies to be obtained between strategies that promote socio ecological resilience, climate-change mitigation and livelihood benefits to indigenous groups.

Indigenous and local knowledge has been, and shall continue to be, deployed by indigenous communities as part of coping strategies for protecting assets and livelihoods and adapting to climate change. The evidence presented in this Comment highlights the need for national governments, international organizations, and other stakeholders to give due attention and support to the use (and documentation) of traditional and local knowledge, so that indigenous communities may better withstand the negative impacts of climate change.

IV. Climate Change Impacts on Indigenous Peoples of the DRC

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has an exceptional abundance of natural resources, and yet it remains one of the poorest countries in the world, ranking 179 out of 189 in the 2019 Human Development Index, Climate change is one of the many challenges the country faces. The DRC already experiences impact such as persistent heat waves, land degradation, flooding and increasingly erratic rainfall patterns during the wet season, these impacts will only worsen over the coming decades as temperatures rise, as many communities are dependent on the agriculture sector which accounts for 65 percent of the formal workforce.

In 2018, the DRC's Ministry of the Environment and Sustainable Development launched a project for the Planning for medium-term investment for adaptation in climate-sensitive sectors in the Democratic Republic of Congo: advancing the National Adaptation Plan (NAP).

This Readiness programme-funded by the Green Climate Fund (GCF) and implemented with support from UNDP -provides resources for preparatory activities and technical assistance to build the DRC's capacity to adapt to climate change.

A portion of this project focuses on indigenous peoples and how they cope with climate change-induced alterations in their environment. While indigenous peoples embrace a rich array of cultures and are defined by the principal of self-identification, according to the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, indigenous peoples typically live-in remote areas, strongly depend on access to lands and resources, and are socially marginalized. The Readiness programme funded a set of studies to better understand how indigenous communities are impacted by climate change and to ensure the land and resources they live off can support them through a changing climate. Land degradation increases poverty.

Many indigenous peoples around the world and in the DRC are particularly vulnerable to the adverse effects of climate change due to their lifestyles. The estimated 660,000 indigenous peoples in the DRC are spread across almost all provinces where they traditionally live on hunting, gathering, fishing and pastoralism.

According to the studies conducted under the Readiness programme, drought and heat waves trigger poverty among these communities. The high temperatures turn forests and arable lands into savannah, causing households to become food insecure. Natural resource (spring water, fruits, roots, tubers, firewood or medicinal plants) become less abundant and agricultural production suffers from low returns due to the degradation of lands and subsequent poor quality of products.

As a result, nomadism is more frequent among indigenous groups. Although many clans have been semi-nomadic for a long time, adopting a more itinerant lifestyle complicates the process for land recognition and increases the potential for conflict with other local communities.

In addition to producing and disseminating data on this under-researched issue in the DRC, the Readiness programme will contribute to the revision of the National Investment Plan for Agriculture (PNIA) and the National Climate Change Policy, Strategy and Action Pl an (PSPA-CC) to include indigenous peoples' considerations.

Women are more impacted the study also revealed the effects of climate change on indigenous women. After conducting interviews with ten groups from two provinces (Tshopo and Haut-Katanga), a

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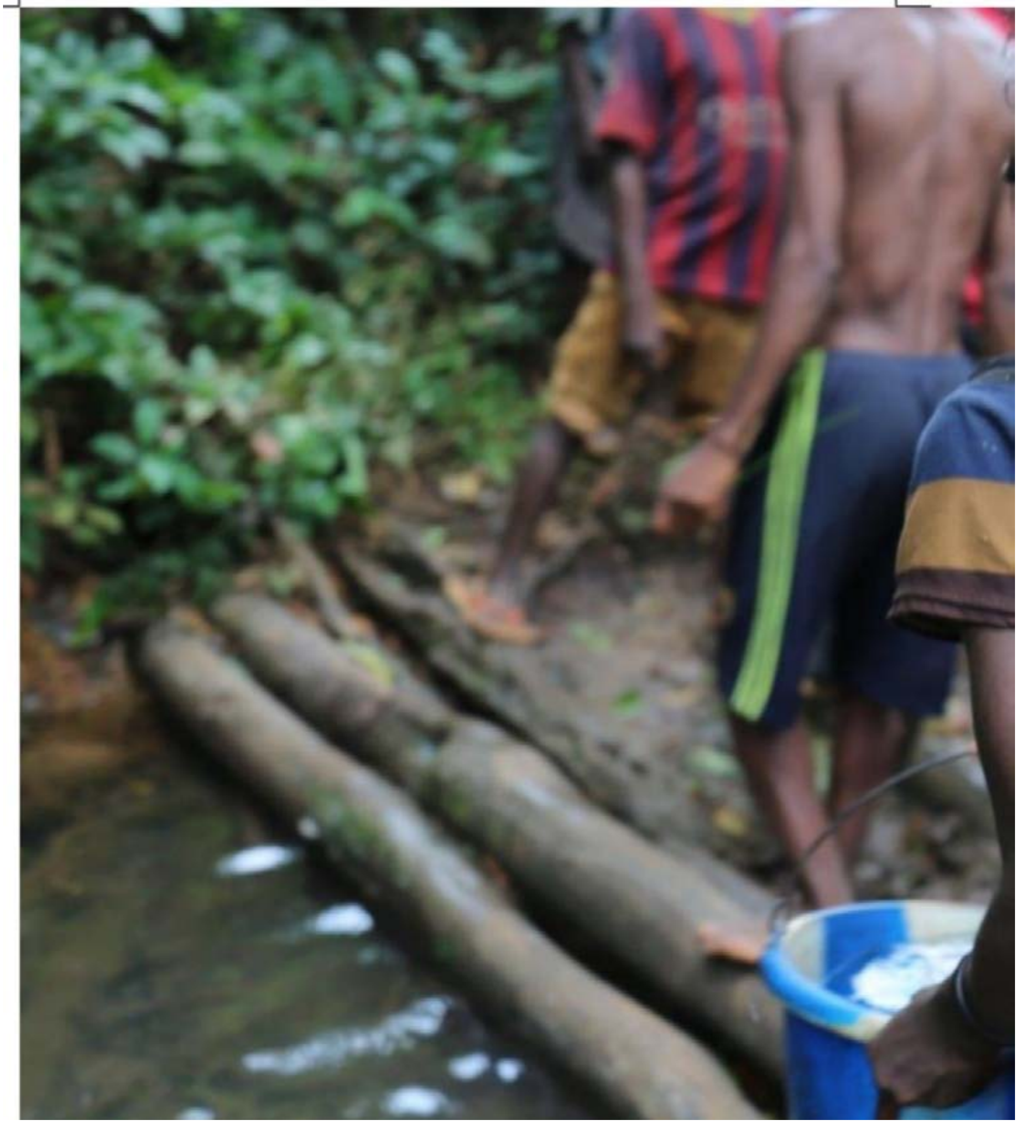
number of gender-segregated tasks were identified within the indigenous groups. Its hewed that men were responsible for hunting and fishing, while women usually transport water and collect most of the natural resources.



Due to the difficulty of accessing needed materials, women are forced to walk longer distances for retrieving drinking water, firewood and non-timber forest product Walking to three hours straight can be gruelling and time consuming for women who still have to perform domestic tasks at home. In addition, long ventures away from the village can create an unsafe environment for women.

These findings echo the testimonies collected by the NGO Solidarity for the Advancement of Indigenous Women (SPFA) in 2017*: "We have to walk for three hours crossing clearing swamps and streams through waist-deep water just to reach our fields. Days become exhausting for women*" explained an indigenous woman from Momboyo in Equateur Province. As depicted in the article *Guardians of the forest,* the SPFA has implemented community initiatives to regenerate the forest with UNDP support and funding from the Community-based UN REDD+ programme.

It should also be mentioned that women rarely attend village meetings because they do not have the right to speak. As a result, they miss important climate information and are more vulnerable to natural hazards. Furthermore, if women were included in decision ma king processes, their particular knowledge and perspectives could be leveraged for the good of the community. The gender dimension of the studies was discussed in a meeting organized by the Readiness programme with representatives from indigenous, women and environmental organizations as well as from various ministries. It was agreed that measures should be taken to address these issues in the long term. For

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that purpose, the Readiness programme funded the drafting of a methodological guide to promote gender in future adaptation programmes and an action plan to improve the resilience of indigenous women to climate change by 2025.

V. Community-Driven Solutions

Many practical solutions to adapt to climate change exist within indigenous communities. Some have the potential to be scaled up. If indigenous groups are able to transition towards sedentary lifestyles and develop crop diversity, then their agriculture can be more resilient to weather extremes, while ensuring nutritional security and dietary variety. Implementing reforestation projects together with indigenous peoples can also make a difference. Not only will replanting trees reduce the risk of soil erosion and preserve the ecosystems, but it will also provide job opportunities for indigenous peoples and sensitize reforestation companies about their rights.

Finally, it is important that indigenous peoples are informed about the severe impacts of climate change. With better knowledge and information about climate change, indigenous peoples would have the opportunity to endorse long-term adaptation solutions. Perhaps, they can even develop their own way of adjusting to climate change, combining scientific data with traditional understanding of their natural surroundings.

UNDP aims to put communities and people at the heart of its work to support resilience building in the DRC. This is achieved through supporting people, especially women and children, become more resilient to external shocks while also ensuring that no one is left behind as a result of interventions designed to strengthen resilience to climate impacts, such as coastal erosion.

Indigenous woman from Momboyo in Equateur Province in the west of the Democratic Republic of Congo.
©UNDP DRC/Marc Ngwanza

Indigenous man from Momboyo in Equateur Province in the west of the Democratic Rep ublic of Congo.
©UNDP DRC/Marc Ngwanza

The Pygmies derive their livelihood mainly from hunting and harvesting in the forest.
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The (Indigenous) Pygmy community of Momboyo in the west of the Democratic Republic of *the* Congo.
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In the villages, the Pygmies work for the Bantu populations but their livelihood is source d from the forests.
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VI. Conclusion

In conclusion, globalization and climate change present complex challenges for indigenous peoples in Africa. While these forces can undermine their cultures and knowledge systems, indigenous communities also possess invaluable knowledge and resilience that can contribute to effective climate action. A holistic approach that integrates indigenous knowledge, respects their rights, and decolonizes climate action is essential for ensuring a sustainable and equitable future.

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Brief Biography

Rev. Nsandah Premous Forzong.is a trained agronomist from the (Kenya Institute of Organic Farming - KIOF), where I studied soil and water conservation, intercropping, agroforestry, crop production, and pest/disease control. I have a post graduate certificate in Climate change from the Pacific Lutheran Theological Seminary (PLTS) in California, as well as a M.Div. from International Theological Seminary (ITS), I am a Blessed Tomorrow Climate Change Ambassador and a member of Eco-America Network, a group that advocates for environmental issues in America and around the world. In 2024, I completed a four-month "Learning-in-Action" series course with the United Religions Initiative called "Peace building through Earth Restoration." The course emphasized nature-centered decision-making, regenerative economies and spiritually-rooted community organizing Currently I am a PhD candidate at Global Interfaith University (GIU) studying Intercultural Studies (ICS). With Specialization in Globalization and Cultural Diversity (GCD).

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Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.

19. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

20. Adding unnecessary information: Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

21. Report concluded results: Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

22. Upon conclusion: Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium though which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

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Informal Guidelines of Research Paper Writing

Key points to remember:

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

Final points:

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

The introduction: This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

The discussion section:

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

General style:

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

Mistakes to avoid:

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

Title page:

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

Abstract: This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

Approach:

- o Single section and succinct.
- o An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- o Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- o Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

Introduction:

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.

The following approach can create a valuable beginning:

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

Approach:

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (methods and materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from:

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- o You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- o Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- o Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- o One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- o Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

The Administration Rules

Administration Rules to Be Strictly Followed before Submitting Your Research Paper to Global Journals Inc.

Please read the following rules and regulations carefully before submitting your research paper to Global Journals Inc. to avoid rejection.

Segment draft and final research paper: You have to strictly follow the template of a research paper, failing which your paper may get rejected. You are expected to write each part of the paper wholly on your own. The peer reviewers need to identify your own perspective of the concepts in your own terms. Please do not extract straight from any other source, and do not rephrase someone else's analysis. Do not allow anyone else to proofread your manuscript.

Written material: You may discuss this with your guides and key sources. Do not copy anyone else's paper, even if this is only imitation, otherwise it will be rejected on the grounds of plagiarism, which is illegal. Various methods to avoid plagiarism are strictly applied by us to every paper, and, if found guilty, you may be blacklisted, which could affect your career adversely. To guard yourself and others from possible illegal use, please do not permit anyone to use or even read your paper and file.

Criterion for Grading a Research Paper (Compilation) by Global Journals

Please note that following table is only a Grading of "Paper Compilation" and not on "Performed/Stated Research" whose grading solely depends on Individual Assigned Peer Reviewer and Editorial Board Member. These can be available only on request and after decision of Paper. This report will be the property of Global Journals

Topics	Grades		
	A-B	**C-D**	**E-F**
Abstract	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
Introduction	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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