

AYIKÁ: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA

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On behalf of the Editorial Board, thank you for the interest in Ayika.

**AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN
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EDITORIAL POLICY

AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA is

a journal that provides an avenue to scholars, researchers, policy analysts, think tank groups, as well as the civil society community to ventilate the various ramifications of the relations between environment and politics and development in Africa. The causal relationship between the environment and politics and vice versa has grown such that the scientific and political communities have fundamentally and unprecedentedly come to agreement as to the cause(s) of environmental problems. Hence, there is a growing recognition of government as the consumer of scientific findings on the environment such as that this journal portends. This point, in many respect, led to the inauguration of this journal. It is as a consequence of addressing environmental governance issues from the global level right to the local and municipal levels across the world and with special interest on Africa's landscape that AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA was established.

Coupled with an ever-growing number of environmental movements and the broadening scope of environmental protection and environmental security advocacy and activism, the journal garners relevance. That is, a meaningful venture therefore to critically periscope the environment-politics nexus that this journal represents is because it appreciates the environment's complex realities in our modern world. The necessity of this journal too stems from many cases of resource-rich nations in Africa that have largely failed to translate their endowments into mass wealth and development, and thereby give rise to what scholars have tagged "resource curse" and/or affliction, to entrench sustainable environment in the continent.

Hitherto in the African continent, there has been recognised absence of much intellectual, academic and advocacy platforms upon which to

discuss issues of environment-politics linkages in the continent in tandem with the rest of the world. While many existing academic mediums treat issues on the relationship between environment and politics as part of larger themes on geography, agricultural science and the sciences generally, regrettably those in the humanities and social sciences have not fared better on this. It is for the reason of providing a platform for intellectuals in the humanities and social sciences alongside those in all other spheres of academic research that the Editorial Team purposefully pursued to ground AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA.

Vision/Mission Statement

The vision and mission statements of *AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA* revolves around “Ayika”- a Yoruba word that refers to the environment. The linkage that the environment has to Africa’s socio-political development is no more under contestation. In fact, such a linkage is now established such that every discourse – be it an academic discussion and every other form of dialogue – notes the relationship between the environment and development in general. Thus, existing and emerging environmental problems are ever more political and now require political solutions more than ever. Whereas, the nature of the African continent is such that environmental problems are increasing and rising steadily and by the day, and in many cases, the negations are as a result of existing poor public infrastructure, disjointed socio-structural arrangements, lack of good policies and abysmal governmental investments in the continent’s environment sector. Therefore, *AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA* sets ultimately as its vision/mission statement the pursuit to bridge the gap of Africa’s underdevelopment emanating from her “Ayika”. This is given that new environmental problems such as climate change continues to impact on the daily lives of the African man and woman, yet mitigation and adaptation policies and strategies are chiefly nascent, ineffectual

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and in most cases poor. This journal, therefore, will aid to illuminate the views of scholars that argue that new environmental realities deemed developmental problems - as is the actual case in Africa- flow from political culture and politics that places very weak emphasis on thorough and concrete conceptualisation of the environment-politics nexus for the continent's development.

Scope of the Journal

“Ayika” means environment in Yoruba language of Nigeria. Hence, *AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA* is

established to treat issues of environment in ways that will provide sound policy and socio-economic and political perspectives from scholars within and outside the African continent. Papers to feature in this journal may speak to the global dimension of environmental issues, but must have profound bearing on the African connection in terms of abating tremendously the environmental inducing underdevelopment variables in the continent. By implication, the journal will provide, and be, an avenue to proffer practical policy and political insights to Africa's most pressing and strategic environmental issues.

Aim of the Journal

AYIKA: JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENT AND POLITICS IN AFRICA is an

environment politics journal in Africa that so much focuses on the African continent. It covers theoretical, policy, programmatic and other overarching dimensions and dynamics of environmental politics, governance and diplomacy in Africa. As a result of this, original review articles and every other kind of intellectual manuscript from academic fields cum disciplines such as philosophy, geography, international relations, economics, political science, sociology, psychology and related scholarly areas will be published in the journal.

House Style

Ayika: Journal of Environment and Politics in Africa

The journal is based on universal standards of presentation of papers for academic journal publication. That is, papers should be segmented and should begin with an Abstract. The Abstract should not exceed 300 words and should be in italics. The author(s) are at liberty to segment the body of their papers according to a preference. Paper length will differ with every other publication based on the Editorial Team's designation. The Harvard and APA referencing styles are preferable amongst other referencing techniques. Author(s) will be provided with an email address where their paper(s) should be sent to every quarterly and the sending frame for papers should be in Word Format.

Issues

This journal is published two times annually. Meaning that, each issue will be published once within six months of the year. The journal will be committed to global best practices in academic journal publication. There will be double blind review for every article submitted to this journal.

Editorial Note

Ayika: Journal of Environment and Politics in Africa continues to prove to be Africa's leading platform for the discourse of environmental and political dynamics in the continent. This is attested to by the high-quality articles published in successive issues of the journal since its inception. As a journal, it also continues to demonstrate the extricate linkage between the dynamics of the environment and politics. This is to the extent, that issues and challenges in one area affect the other. For example, environmental problems such as drought, water scarcity, and even climate change, among others continue to exert pressure on political systems across the continent. Hence, in a nuanced manner, environmental dynamics continue to be one of the leading drivers of political crisis in Africa.

This issue of Ayika: Journal of Environment and Politics in Africa contains a rich collection of articles. They touch on important themes of environmental and political themes affecting countries on the continent. Some of these themes include Gender-Based Violence, injustice and related themes.

We extend our heartfelt gratitude to everyone involved in the publication process of this issue of Ayika: Journal of Environment and Politics in Africa. Our committed reviewers deserve commendation for taking the time to critically engage the submissions and showing ways of improving them. In the same vein, the contributors are also commended for adhering to the publication codes and ethics. Your

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commitment ensures that *Ayika* continues to be a leading forum for policy-relevant and practical recommendations on environmental and political issues in Africa.

Bamidele Olajide, PhD

Editor

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A CROSS ANTHROPOLOGICO-LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS OF SELECTED AFRICAN PROVERBS AS EVIDENCE OF A CULTURE OF VIOLENCE

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ABSTRACT

Proverbs are short, pithy sayings that contain the treasures of traditional wisdom which are passed down from one generation to another. In some concrete way, they are the bedrock upon which societies build their civilization. Stone (2006: xiii) defines proverbs as ‘bits of ancient wisdom’ that represents words of critical wisdom based on the tested experience of ancestors. As an integral part of language, proverbs reflect the patterns and structures of culture and consequently influence human thinking, psyche, world view, social practices and power relations in society (Djite, 2008). Employing Lakoff and Turner’s (1989) theory of ethnography of proverbs and Lazar’s (2005) approach to Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis (FCDA), this paper examines selected proverbs from different African societies in order to determine if the African society has a history of patriarchy and violence that ultimately promotes a culture of gender-based violence (GBV). Research reveals that proverbs with violent overtones are found in several African societies. These proverbs have the power to subtly influence speakers’ attitudes and behaviours towards women, especially when it comes to upholding patriarchal hegemony.

Keywords: *Gender, Patriarchy, Culture, Gender-Based Violence, Proverbs*

INTRODUCTION

It has been argued that generally, society tends to underestimate the power of women which often leads to the false assumption that women have no power of their own or if they do, then it is inferior to men’s power (Wodak, 2008). Proverbs, a cultural tool employed by society to extract guided behaviour, is not exempt from the elaborate and pervasive social infrastructure society engages in giving credence to the above notion. They are considered to provide advice and life lessons on how men and women behave in a society and may

have an impact on individuals’ social and emotional health. Proverbs project cultural and societal expectations because they are age-old and are still valued in current times. Mieder (2007:18) believes that proverbs pass judgment and prescribe what people should do in the future. Mulaudzi (2013:154) also asserts that proverbs are cultural and as such dictate’s values and norms for both men and women.

According to Hussein (2005), language is a symbolic act of both representing and valuing things. Just

as a dance is inseparable from its performer, our attitudes towards things and the things we say about them are inextricably linked. Put another way, a society's perception of men and women is expressed through the proverbs that surround them. In many African societies, as in most societies around the world, gender power relations tend to be expressed in proverbs with the consequence of exacerbating the subordination of women and worsening their condition in their respective societies. Many African proverbs contain messages that sustain African male supremacy both in private and public domains. The influence of proverbs on African thought is gripping to the extent that even the construction of gender as a social concept admits the idea of male superiority and female subordination. And African proverbs are the bearers of this imbalance. For the purpose of clarity and guidance, three key concepts – Proverb, Patriarchy and Gender Based Violence (henceforth referred to as GBV)– as used in this paper, need to be briefly defined.

KEY TERMS

Proverbs

A proverb is a phrase, saying, sentence, statement or expression of the folk which contains wisdom, truth, morals, experience, lessons and advice concerning life in a metaphysical, fixed and memorable form and which has been handed down from generation to generation. It is a tool in the philosophical search for knowledge, reality and or wisdom. (Etta & Mogu, 2012). A proverb is a widely accepted phrase that has

educational, warning, or advisory purposes among a population. When wielded skilfully, they may be extremely potent tools that can either separate, destroy, and disperse, or they can bring people together, build, and strengthen. According to Esen (1982), proverbs are the verbal archives of a community's ideas and philosophy, serving as an oral museum. Similarly, Akporobaro and Emovon (1994:1) opine that “the proverbs of a community or nation is in a real sense an ethnography of the people which if systematized can give a penetrating picture of the people's way of life, their philosophy, their criticism of life, moral truths and social values. It is through the help of proverbs expressed in an indigenous language, that the knowledge claim of a people is defined, clarified, expressed and used. The world of the people can be accessed through the indigenous language. In other words, proverbs serve as a window into the mindset, worldview, way of thinking, and beliefs of a community. The elders are revered in traditional African society as the guardians of the way of thinking. Oftentimes, this elder is projected as a dominant male figure representative of the power elite in the community. Thus, the epistemic agency in proverbs tends to be situated in elitism, masculinity and even patriarchy. Elders usually make use of proverbs to drive home their points. This is why it is said that proverb is the oil with which words are eaten. It is believed that such elders are closest to the divine force or source of knowledge and possess detailed knowledge of their languages, hence

they are able, and are likely to speak the truth as a result of their in-depth knowledge of their culture. Proverbs then serve as a means of passing along what is regarded as traditional African knowledge, serving as a tool for people—especially men—to try and dominate and control their surroundings and social relationships. According to Uduigwomen (2002), proverbs serve as tools for socialisation and formal education in several African civilizations. They also serve as a means of transmitting cultural traditions.

Patriarchy

In the context of this study, patriarchy is identified as institutionalization of the dynamics of power and male supremacy (Lakoff 2004). Women's interests are marginalized and subjugated in this way. Whether it be through overt or covert examples of men's social, political, and economic domination over women, or by limitations on women's mobility, access to education, and opportunities for personal growth, patriarchal systems privilege males over women.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

When a person or group is targeted for violence because of their gender, it's referred to as gender-based violence (GBV). While it was once thought to be limited to acts of violence committed by men against women, it is now more widely understood to include hostilities based on sexual identity and orientation, including some types of violence against men who do not conform to the dominant forms of masculinity (Collins, 2014).

Broadly speaking, it includes “any interpersonal, organisational or politically orientated violation perpetrated against people due to their gender identity, sexual orientation, or location in the hierarchy of male-dominated social systems such as family, military, organisations, or the labour force” (O’Toole and Schiffman, 1997: xii). Collins (2014) contends that the rise of Western feminism in the 1970s, which brought attention to pervasive violence against women, was a major factor in the present interest in gender-based violence. High rates of sexual assault against women were not only made public, but this behaviour was also theorised to be a fundamental feature of patriarchy. For instance, it was argued that rape was the means by which men as a social group maintained their dominance over women. Even though present-day narratives are less conspiratorial, they nevertheless harbour the unmasked thought that gender-based violence is inextricably linked to social structures of gender inequality.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of studies have been conducted from different perspectives on gender-related proverbs by different scholars. Hussein (2005) examines how African proverbs contribute to the formation and maintenance of gendered culture. In order to investigate the effects of gender stereotypes, the author looks at a few African sexist proverbs within the framework of the post-modern theory of power dynamics between social groups and the function of

language in mediating these connections. According to the report, African proverbs reinforce gender stereotypes and ideologies by equating maleness with strength, firmness, or respect and femaleness with weakness, indignity, inconsistency, and meekness. Hussein also adds that the proverbs under analysis illustrate the idea that males are the role models for humanity and women are secondary, reflecting an expressive contrast between male and female. It is implied that men typically utilise these prejudices as justification for maintaining their dominance over women. Men and women have distinct yet overlapping relationships, as seen by the patriarchal society's denigration of femininity and its positive constructs. Therefore, it is not surprising that men's vested interests and conspiracy to restrict women to specific secondary social positions can be found at the core of proverbs that appear to communicate a society's adoration of women.

Phiri, Mulaudzi and Heyns (2015) explore and describe the impact of the indigenous proverb *lebitla la mosadi ke bogadi* on women's mental health. 57 participants married, divorced, widowed, and single women who frequented social clubs or networks in Tshwane and Johannesburg—were chosen through the use of the Snowball and purposive sampling techniques. Eight focus group sessions and five in-person interviews were held. The results show that women's mental health is impacted by the adverse impacts that may result in mortality as well as the oppression and

stigmatisation of women and their families. A few women disclosed that they faced multiple forms of oppression. They also worried about being stigmatised if they decided to have a divorce. They always lived in terror of their husbands killing them or doing them harm. The outcome also shows that the proverb highlights the immense value of marriage and the need for women to put in a lot of effort to make their marriages work. For these individuals, the proverb represented oppression because it implied that being married meant caring for one's spouse and his extended family.

Gyan, Abbey & Baffoe (2020) attempt the analysis of the representation of women in sampled Akan proverbs and the ways in which these proverbs institutionalize the position, identity, and roles of women in traditional Akan communities of Ghana. The agency of oral traditions in the systematic perpetuation of patriarchal culture, gender inequities and inequality are suggested in the paper and it recommends a radical overhaul of oral traditions in order to break down the constructed framework that promotes the prevailing patriarchal discourses and culture in traditional Akan communities of Ghana.

According to some research on Zulu proverbs, which aims to offer both interpretive and descriptive interpretations, the proverbs uphold patriarchal norms that prohibit women from exercising their human rights to the fullest extent possible (Nyembezi, 1990). Numerous Zulu proverbs

outline expectations for women that impede their personal growth, such as the institution of marriage and holding a position of leadership in the community (Baloyi, 2017). According to Chiliza and Masuku's (2020) analysis of gender inequality in a few Zulu proverbs, men in the Zulu cultural setting patriarchally dominate women. According to the paper, the lessons in the chosen proverbs offer enduring representations of women as people who are devalued and reduced to the status of objects of subordination.

The conclusions of Adegbola's (2021) study on the representations of women in Yoruba proverbs and Balogun's (2010) study on the proverbial oppression of women in Yoruba African culture are quite similar to those of Baloyi (2017) and Chiliza and Masuku (2020). They contend that numerous Yoruba proverbs infringe upon the rights and dignity of women, and that some of them contain derogatory metaphors that can inadvertently influence the attitudes and behaviours of those who utter them, especially upholding masculine hegemony. The papers contend that proverbs and other cultural instruments have served as vehicles for the widespread subjugation and oppression of women in Yoruba society, and they consequently advocate for the replacement of negative gender post-proverbs with positive ones.

Numerous studies on gender-related topics and proverbs have also been carried out in various parts of

Ethiopia. Assefa's (2016) research focuses on linguistic violence against women as manifested in sexist Amharic proverbs, Gebeyehu (2019) examines the negative representation of women in the language of Awngi proverbs, whereas Jobo (2015) analyses the prejudiced negative images of femininity in Wolaita proverbs.

According to Baataar et al.'s (2023) analysis of proverbs and sayings from Ghana regarding gender relations in the Frafra traditional area of Ghana, proverbs or wise sayings have a significant impact on gender relations. A few of the proverbs place a great deal of cultural duty on males, which may put them in danger, by depicting men as courageous, strong, resilient, protectors, and providers for women and families. However, stereotypes about women portray them as helpless and reliant on their husbands. Proverbs and wise sayings from the frafra community also depict women as harassed, kind, nurturing, and industrious.

The aforementioned makes it clear that several researches have critically investigated African proverbs that, as a result of a patriarchal societal structure, distort, oppress, mistreat, discredit, and belittle women. However, very little thought has been given to African proverbs that might incite or trigger violence against women, despite the fact that proverbs are thought to "constitute a powerful rhetorical device for the shaping of moral consciousness, opinions, and beliefs" (Akpolorbaro and Emovon,

1994). Additionally, a gender research that relies only on the proverbs of one community is unable to fully comprehend the ethnocultural foundations of the proverbial oppression of women in Africa. Thus, the purpose of the current study is to close the gap.

Theoretical Framework and Methodology

The African proverbs considered in this study were collected from various published and unpublished sources. Since a single proverb can have divergent meanings used under varied circumstances, proverbs about GBV were selected based on their most obvious superficial meanings. This study uses secondary sources as its source of data. Secondary source materials can be articles in newspapers or popular magazines, book or movie reviews, or articles found in scholarly journals that discuss or evaluate someone else's original research. According to Haralambos (2013), secondary sources describe, discuss, interpret, comment upon, analyse, evaluate, summarize, and process primary sources.

The best material on "African proverbs that encourage violence against women" were found through desk research using search engines like Google, MSN, Lycos, and Yahoo. The search terms were examined and then refined to look for synonyms and variations. Other search terms such as "African proverbs that encourage beating women," "Proverbs that support oppression of women" were also used. The bulk of the pieces that

made it past the screening process addressed how gender is constructed and how women are portrayed in various African proverbs. These resources are where the proverbs that discuss violence against women were taken from. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) was used to analyse the proverbs. The main principles of CDA, according to Phillips and Jørgensen (2006:61-65) are that "discursive practices contribute to the construction of social identities and relations, discourse constitutes the social world and is constituted by other social practices, and language should be analysed within its social context, also discursive practices create and reproduce unequal power relations" Sustaining hierarchically gendered social arrangements, which puts the woman at a disadvantage can easily be accomplished employing proverbs. The nuances might be subtle but the effects are deep and far reaching. CDA serves to explain how proverbs are accessories to the heinous continued subordination of women in Africa and suggests ideas to drive a desired positive outcome as discourse is a social action hence its employability as a tool for social change (Wetherell 2001; Richardson 2007).

Since this paper is concerned with African proverbs that encourage violence against women, it also adopts Lazar's (2005) approach to Feminist Critical Discourse Analysis (FCDA), an approach that focuses on critiquing discourses which sustain a patriarchal social order: that is, relations of power that systematically privilege men and

disempower women (Lazar, 2005). FCDA highlights the ‘complex, subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, ways in which frequently taken for-granted gendered assumptions and hegemonic power relations are discursively produced, sustained, negotiated, and challenged in different contexts and communities’ (Lazar, 2007:142). Hegemonic masculinity and femininity are two ideas that are helpful to take into account in patriarchal society when analysing gender inequality, as FCDA aims to accomplish. It is well known that patriarchal systems encourage male dominance and female subjugation, or the dominion of males over women. Men are perceived as having authority and power, which is either accepted as natural or mostly innate (Connell, 1987, 1995). Hegemonic ideas of masculinity and femininity are deeply ingrained in patriarchal society. Connell (1995) defined hegemonic masculinity as the arrangement of gender practices that represents the prevailing solution to the legitimacy of patriarchy issue, and that is seen to ensure (or be assumed to ensure) men's dominance and women's subjugation.

DATA PRESENTATION

It may be safe to assume that in Africa, proverbs are largely the linguistic tools of patriarchy going by the empirically demonstrated language tendency that makes nothing of the woman and glorifies the male. Africa's oral literature is replete with an abundance of nuanced sayings that uphold the imbalanced power structure between men and women,

chasing the woman several rungs down the ladder of relevance and awarding the male top of the ladder significance. Here are some of the proverbs from different parts of Africa that inherently promote violence towards the female gender

1. Pashan ta fi na yale, oun be laja fun 'yawo

The whip that was used to beat the first wife is kept for the second wife (Yoruba; Balogun, 2010)

The underlying assumption of this proverb is that a woman is regarded as a child, to be disciplined anytime she errs, and that a man has the right to beat his wife (wives).

The proverb also presupposes that a man has the right to marry more than one wife, a practice which tends to see the female as an item for acquisition. It also suggests that the second wife should not expect preferential treatment over the first wife. A similar proverb is found among the Frafra Traditional Area in the Upper East Region in Ghana:

2. Doseka n gme pogi keema la, n gme'ere pogsariga.

The stick that is used to beat the first wife will be the same stick that will be used on the second wife.

(Baataar et al., 2023)

3. Nwaanyi na-dighi anuru di ya okwu, itali ka e ji ezi ya ihe.

A woman that is disobedient to her husband must be taught obedience with the cane. (Igbo; Agbedo, Obiora & Ahamefula, 2016)

It is stated that Igbo society uses the Igbo proverb in (3) frequently. It is sexist because men frequently use it to diminish the worth and dignity of women. Males utilise it to demonstrate the chauvinistic value that men place above women. It implies that using violence is the best way to teach a lady to obey. Similarly, Hussein (2005:66) cites an Igbo narrative proverb:

4. An Ugwuta (Oguta) girl told her mother that as she was going on her way, a man came and threw her down and sexed (raped) her. Her mother told her to go and retaliate. She went, and was sexed (raped) again.

According to Hussein, these proverbs illustrate how women are sexually vulnerable to men in interpersonal interactions and emphasize how commonplace sexual violence is in sexist societies, where "the female prerogative (sex) is infringed upon by force." The proverb also illustrates how men's collective and individual assumption of authority over women and women's sexual humiliation are both expressions of and reinforcements for women's gender-based oppression (Disch, 1997:564-565). Moreover, it is thought that the adage in (4), which depicts men displaying their sexual prowess over women, is an example of how traditionally African men are socialized into a dominant role (Tlou, 2002). This reprehensible leaning of society has perpetuated an oppressive hold on womenfolk to the extent of loss of will, dignity and human pride.

5. What annoys the red mongoose most are insults, but you still insult it mentioning how red his lips are. (Lunda; Mutunda, 2016)

Here, a wife who has been physically assaulted by her husband is made fun of. This proverb's underlying presumptions are that a man has the right to beat his wife and that a woman is treated like a kid who needs to be corrected if she misbehaves. This proverb's key point is that physically abusing women is accepted as normal behaviour and is a tried-and-true method of coercing spouses into being subservient. But in my opinion, this adage permits the obvious brainwashing of women in order to make them believe that they are less valuable than men. Here is another proverb that inspires men to violence towards their wives:

chanunantunū("A roof remover"). This proverb speaks to a situation where a woman always gets under her husband's skin with the aim of inviting his blows on herself. Inherent in such a proverb is sufficient persuasion for the husband to unleash physical terror on his wife in order to subdue her. Another proverb that aligns with the notion of this irreverent subjugation and dehumanization of the woman is the West African proverb that urges:

5. Beat your wife regularly; if you don't know why, she will.

The Tarikas of Ethiopia claim:

6. If you really love your wife, you have to beat her. (Kiiru, 1999)

Here, it is accepted that mental and physical abuse is the standard for women; it is one tactic a man might take to establish his dominance and manly strength over his spouse. He feels that since he is a man, it is his duty to rule, dominate, and control women. The idea being conveyed here is that marriage can serve as a rehabilitation facility for assertive, outspoken, and provocative women, helping them find their proper position in society. Marriage is taken to be a place of submission, where women learn to become "good wives," obedient to male dominance and authority (Ncube & Moyo, 2014:132). It is curious that this woman-degrading, woman subjugating proverbs such as the one in (5) emanates from a society that is matrilineal and consequently should ordinarily be championing female protection. The reality however is that the patriarchal ideology that puts men above women holds sway.

7. Eyaapa Nabulobe, eliipa Nabukelema. That which was used to beat the rejected one (wife) will be used to beat the loved one. (Bukusu)

This proverb actually cautions against one feeling complacent and looking down on others because the misfortunes that befell them will also one day catch up with the proud. On the surface, this sounds harmless whereas it is actually making veiled

reference to women. It is in the same space as the proverb about the first wife's cane being reserved for the second or the new wife.

8. Okhayiya khubalebe nga namulekhwa tawe.

Do not wander about among the relatives like a widow (Bukusu)

This proverb tends to pick on the female figure and singles her out for contemptuous commentary. As if the calamity of widowhood was not grave enough, the proverb mindlessly isolates the female person and makes her the butt of a joke. In depersonalizing the female, a ground is created for subsequent abuse.

According to Barasa and Opande (2017), proverbs like the one mentioned in (8) above demonstrate the prevalence of polygamy and domestic violence among the Bukusu, where husbands beat their wives, force them to leave their married homes, and then marry other spouses who receive the same abuse. A "real" man would be expected to have multiple wives. Men thus exert control over women by beating them and engaging in polygamy; KDHS (2014) cited in Barasa and Opande (2017), has already noted that 45 percent of women report experiencing physical violence.

10. Beat your wife regularly; if you don't know why, she will know why (West Africa; Schipper, 2006)

11. If you really love your wife you

have to beat her (Tigrinya, Eritrea; Schipper, 2006)

12. Now the marriage is going to begin, as the neglected wife said, when she was flogged with thorns. (Hausa; Schipper, 2006)

As warped and as mentally vacuous as these linguistic weapons are, they have been the compass of several human communities in navigating the male-female relationship situation. This inhumane and dastardly approach to disciplining women and making them compliant by beating them is quite pervasive. It's not limited to Africa; proverbs from a wide range of non-African countries, many of which are geographically and culturally isolated from one another, demonstrate how men's views on hitting women are essentially universal. These proverbs regard hitting a woman as a normal everyday activity, much like eating, drinking, and sleeping. In addition, they support and even encourage this behaviour as a requirement for a woman to have a strong emotional bond with her husband. Furthermore, it is portrayed as a crucial symbol of masculinity.

These proverbs demonstrate how little consideration is given to the feelings of the women who are being beaten. Furthermore, the beating injures the relationship and does not force the victim to change in the way that is intended. Instead, it creates a host of negative feelings like resentment, hatred, fury, and retaliation. It is difficult for a woman who has been a victim of spousal abuse to move on

from the incident and thereafter feel a loving connection to him. Those who experienced abuse as children—whether from parents, instructors, or other individuals—know that the suffering it causes in our souls lasts a lifetime. While the physical scars could heal, the emotional and psychological ones might not go away. The anguish in the victim's spirit returns each time the violent person comes into contact with them (Tatar, 2022:44).

Additionally, Assefa (2016) offers a number of misogynistic Amharic proverbs that dehumanize or oppress women and condone the abuse of women in the home. Assefa claims that women are susceptible to domestic abuse in the target sociocultural context and presumably in many other cultures as well. In addition to performing arduous physical labor, they endure beatings from their spouses when arguments occur at home. In order to prevent people including women from viewing this behaviour as criminal or abusive, society has normalized it and made it accepted. The data below demonstrates the pervasiveness of domestic violence against women. (13)

- a. ሴትና አሀያ የማችሉት የለማ
setanna ahayya yamayt/əlut yällämm
'A woman and a donkey can tolerate everything'
- b. የድንጋይን ጦርነት፣ የሸሮን ቀለብነት፣ የሚስትን ባርነት
yädəngayən t'orənnät yäfəron
k'alläbännät yämistan barənnät
'Conflict using stone is analogous to supplies of mush and slavery of a wife'
- c. አሀያና ሴት ቢረግጥዎት አይከፋት

- ahəyyanna set birägət 'wat aykäfat*
 'A woman and a donkey do not
 refuse being trampled'
 d. እናት ትረገጣለች እንደመሬት
annat täräggät 'allätj/əndämäret
 'A mother is trampled like the earth'
 e. ሴትና አሀያ በዱላ
setənnā ahəyya bādulla
 'A woman and a donkey are
 controlled by a stick'
 f. ከሸጎጎ ቢረታ ከቤት ሚስቱን መታ
käfāngo birräta käbet mistun mätta
 'When a man was beaten in a forum,
 he went home and beat his wife'
 g. ማንን ታሸጎፋለህ ቢሉት ሚስቱን አለ
mannəntaffännəfalläh bilut misten
alä
 'When a man is asked over whom he
 enjoys victory, he said, "my wife"
 h. አማቱን ምታ ቢባል ሚስቱን በየት
 አልፎ አለ
amatun mēta bilut misten bāyät
alləfē alä
 'When a man is ordered to hit his
 mother-in-law, he said "how can I
 skip over my wife"
 i. የምታሸጎረውን ምታ ቢባል
 ወደሚስቱ ሮጦ
yāmmättāffännəfāwən mēta bilut
wädemistu rot'ä

When a man is ordered to hit the person over whom he has won, he runs to his wife'

Assefa (2016) argues that women are susceptible to domestic abuse in the target sociocultural context and presumably in many other cultures as well. In addition to performing arduous physical labour, they endure beatings from their spouses when arguments occur at home. Women and other individuals do not view this occurrence as abuse or criminal activity since society has normalised it and socialised it. Women are seen as servants in society, as the proverbs in (13a) and (13b) reveal. Despite the

enormous hardship they bear in providing for their family, women are perceived as whiners without merit. Even worse, women are viewed as resources of mush, the most widely used (and abused) food in society, and are treated as slaves. Proverb (13c) makes the assumption that women like to be beaten, especially by their husbands. Men who subscribe to this philosophy think that the only way to make women change their bad behaviour is by physically punishing them. To send the notion that women are deserving of being beaten, they are contrasted to the ground, which people constantly step on. Even worse, women are viewed as being no smarter than donkeys, who are regarded as the most foolish animal in society and who, like women, are expected to withstand abuse. Proverb (13f), according to Assefa, seems to imply that there are instances in which a husband puts his failure to succeed in a public matter onto his wife once he returns home. This suggests that women are physically punished in order to control the troubled emotions of men. In society, women especially wives are seen as inferior to men, or husbands. Husbands, in particular, think they can beat their spouses, to the point where, when they are seeking for someone to beat, they think of their wives first. The proverbs in (13f) – (13i) represent this socially constructed reality; they completely deviate from the marriage ethos, which encourages unity and togetherness. Furthermore, Assefa (2016) argues that the Amharic proverbs in (13a) – (13i) demonstrate how the target speech community has

long constructed a reality that requires women to be victims of domestic abuse. Wives in particular experience many forms of domestic abuse, with beatings being the most severe form. The society's proverbs, in particular, and its long-standing folk literature, in general, externalize this truth. The target proverbs are written in such a way as to encourage the necessity and continuation of violence against women in the home. Thus, this is interpreted as just another blatant instance of how sexist proverbs are used to devalue women.

Hussein (2005:) contends that proverbs that reinforce the masculine ego, like "The husband returned home and whipped his wife when he was allowed to whip whomever he can," can lead some rigidly stereotyped men to adopt a false sense of manhood by controlling women or hurting their partners physically and psychologically.

As earlier stated, linguistically induced violence against women is not exclusive to Africa. Several cultures and societies have proverbs that encourage violence against women. The following proverbs are featured in Fernández's (2022) paper on the persistence of sexism in Martínez Kleiser's *Refranero General Ideológico Español's* compilation of proverbs: (14)

- a. To a woman and a dog, a stick in a hand and bread in the other.
- b. To a woman and a candle, twist their neck if you want them to be good.

- c. The woman and the pavement, always want to be trod on.
- d. The ass and the woman, with sticks must be beaten.

Fernández (2022) asserts that, even in jest, these kinds of expressions which imply contemptuous vituperation continue to unwittingly support domestic terrorism. As a result, they still defend the exploitation of violence and force to oppress women. The given examples not only illustrate this shameless use of violence against women, but they also encourage it. Furthermore, the parallels drawn between women and objects and animals especially beasts of burden are consistent and not coincidental in the paremiology surrounding them. Some proverbs that encourage the use of violence against women attempt to rationalise this use of violence by drawing comparisons between women and various beasts.

Presenting some cross-cultural proverbs from Schipper (2006), Tartar (2022) notes that numerous proverbs from other cultures suggest beating a woman as a special means of obtaining her obedience:

15. The man who cannot slaughter his sheep or beat his wife [when she deserves it], it is better for him to die than to live (An Arabic proverb from the Maghreb).
16. To keep your wife on the rails, beat her – and if she goes off the rails, beat her (Spanish, Puerto Rico).
17. Women, like gongs, should be beaten regularly (English, USA).

18. A bad woman and a good woman both need the rod (Spanish, Argentina).
19. Good horses and bad horses need the spurs, good women and bad women need the whip (Many variants in both Europe and the Americas).
20. Do not spare a bullock or a wife (Burmese).
21. Caulk a new boat; beat a new wife (Khiongha).
22. Clubbing produces virtuous wives (Chinese).
23. A woman who is beaten is going to be a better wife (Korean).
24. The nails of a cart and the head of a woman, they only work when they are hit hard (Rajasthani).
25. For who beats up his wife, God improves the food (Russian).
26. A nut, a stockfish, and a young wife should be beaten, in order to be good (Polish).
27. A woman, a dog and a walnut tree, the harder you beat them, the better they be (English, UK/USA).
28. Women, like dogs: the more you beat them, the more they love you (Spanish, Argentina).
29. Women and steaks, the more you beat them, the better they'll be (German).
30. Wring a wife's and a hen's neck, if you want them good (Europe and both Americas).
31. If you don't thrash your wife, she might think she's already a widow (Armenian).

CONCLUSION

The advertised goal of proverbs is their utility for guidance and wise counsel in private and public matters

through the social norms and beliefs presented. Having examined some selected African proverbs, the discovery does not comprehensively accord with the above-mentioned goal. While there are proverbs that deliver on the goal of offering wisdom and guidance for life, there are others that are strung together by the beads of gender discrimination and stereotypes. These hang on the neck of the African society as both a moral burden and a human blight that calls to question the belief in true humanity. Along the corridors of our history are strewn women who have suffered victimization and violence engineered by reverentially canonized oral literature and proverbs that promote inordinate male domination and female subjugation and subservience. Within this framework lies the male sense of entitlement to superior treatment and opportunities while the female gender is schooled to embrace equality with beasts, as suggested by the consistent comparison made between her and animals. If she is regarded as sub-human, there lies the justification for her to be so treated, hence the violence directed in her direction to maintain the warped social balance created by patriarchy. Africa is not an exception to the global oppression of women. Gender parity has not yet been achieved, even in regions of the world where racial and gender disparities in educational and other social achievements are believed to have all but vanished (Hussein, 2005).

The examples given, drawn from a variety of ethnic groups, show how

proverbs are employed in African social and cultural organisation to express the deeply ingrained patriarchal structures. They depict how women are oppressed and subjugated in many African nations. African-style proverbs form the basis of African epistemology. This is because general epistemology, African epistemology and proverbs are concerned about creating knowledge for the betterment of human existence. Proverbs play an important role in supporting historical assertions because of their connection to pressing existential issues and the belief that their meanings do not easily alter over time (Etta & Mogu, 2012). It is safe to presume that a skewed and disparaging picture of African women is being projected across the continent if proverbs are indeed thought of as a set of unchanging social rules. Due to these deeply ingrained cultural ideas, significant life decisions are frequently made using the principles that are thought to be implicit in the proverbs. Proverbs are Africa's open gallery of knowledge. Ultimately, it is about control and the imposition of a given view of life as sacrosanct and accepted. As a result, proverbs often serve to uphold patriarchy in society from generation to generation by portraying its meaning as an unchanging, stable aspect of social order that includes male domination (Kamwendo and Kaya, 2016).

Goheen (1996) contends that proverbs can serve as a vehicle for the dissemination of powerful ideologies, upholding the supremacy of particular groups by giving preference to ideas

and customs that discriminate against people based on their gender, age, race, social class, ability, and other characteristics. Similar to this, Gyan (2018) contends that attitudes, judgements, and thoughts about women—both positive and negative—are internalised and learned through a combination of direct instruction, patterns of behaviour, songs, proverbs, wise sayings, and folktales. What are internalised results in similar behavioural habits.

In line with von Bülow's (1992) analysis, Hussein (2005) proposes that gender stereotypes should be constantly redefined and reinterpreted for the benefit of both men and women in order to free the gender psyche from its confines. Reconstructing proverbs to dissuade all types of violence against women is necessary if they are to maintain their standing as a concise and universal distillation of common knowledge. A healthy number of scholars (Raji-Oyelade, 1999; Balogun, 2010; Adegbola, 2021) have advocated for a reconstruction of oppressive proverbs while putting up a strong resistance to them through proper education and consistent pursuit of the feminist agenda. This entails reinterpreting some African proverbs that are thought to be outdated. In a similar vein, a South African women's shelter demanded in 2021 that African proverbs be reconstructed in order to change public perception of gender-based violence. The shelter partnered with other organisations to use a public relations, influencer, and billboard campaign to actively cancel,

edit, and promote a new perspective on traditional women's proverbs. This approach effectively disempowers outdated, toxic phrases and proverbs and shifts the conversation towards equality and respect. It is thought that by altering how society perceives a woman's worth, we can start to mend deeply ingrained beliefs that eventually support the cycle of gender-based violence. A deliberate reconstruction of discriminatory proverbs is thought to have a positive effect on men's attitudes towards women and GBV. If the wisest written works full of misogyny have negatively affected many men's perspectives towards women and have turned women's history into a history of pain, tears, and cruelty (Chollet, 2020; Holland, 2006), putting in place an elaborate collaborative effort of government, non-governmental organizations and the academic community to create awareness programmes that let the men see women as equals and complements would go a long way in curbing the menace of violence against women. This kind of arrangement should incorporate both men and women, particularly young people, as they explore the imperative demand for a healthy gender relation. To spur the advancement of society as a whole, male youngsters must begin cultivating good attitudes and dispositions towards their female counterparts.

In the final analysis, we have a personal responsibility to interrogate and question the body of popular knowledge that has amassed into

canonical expressions. According to Kerschen (2000:68), "We risk fostering animosity, miscommunication, and prejudice if we don't carefully analyse what we've been taught by proverbs to determine what we really believe and discard the rest in our personal use." Furthermore, according to Nisrane and Tizazu (2019:342), "Efforts should be made to educate society about the damaging expressions while maintaining and supplementing the positive practice." A crucial component of this is giving up on references to harmful ideas, even when made in jest (Martínez Garrido, 2001:95). Additionally, strategies of subverting negative gender ideologies through creative appropriation or production of new positive discourses should be adopted (Lomotey, 2019:336) and the prejudices embodied in sexist proverbs must acknowledged as "blatant lies" (Presbey, 1999:178). It is believed that a development that could help whittle down the negative effects of proverbs on the society is the emergence of female paremiographers.

United Nations puts the figures at an estimated 736 millions of women who have been subjected to physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence, non-partner sexual violence, or both, at least once in their life. This translates to about one in three women, globally. Violence against women and girls remains one of the most prevalent and pervasive human rights violations in the world. The reason for this and the solution to it are not far-fetched. Generations of humans in Africa and elsewhere have been fed the diet of

hegemonic patriarchy which is the festering ground for misogynistic views and sexist ideologies. The solution lies in the commitment of African nations and societies to take the hard edge of patriarchy off by embracing equality of the sexes and committing to a regime of mass indoctrination to systematically undo the damage that had been done through the propagation of harmful content found in some of our proverbs. For Africa and the other nations of the world to stop grappling with the issue of gender violence, the academic community, non-governmental organizations and governments must show commitment. Government must lead the way by imposing thriving consequences and have them enshrined in the constitutions. Although the solution lies in robust responses, including investment in prevention, alarmingly, data on how much nations are committing to counteract violence against women and girls remains glaringly sparse. The academic

community should engage in the rigorous act of reviewing existing cultural and linguistic properties to align them to contemporary use while the NGOs embark on an elaborate campaign to correct the wrong views that wrong culture has perpetuated over the years. Finally, it is important to use the good side of society to heal its bad side. By engaging wholesome proverbs, songs, playlets and such other cultural appurtenances to educate the people, the society will gain mileage in its quest to stop the violence. Igbolekwu, et al. (2021) suggest that it is important to support the creation of songs, playlets and proverbs in native tongues to help communities understand the effects of domestic abuse on women while indigenous language jingles concerning cultural customs harmful to women should be played on local radio and television channels to raise public awareness of these detrimental cultural norms and practices.

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INFLUENCE OF ACCESSIBILITY, SATISFACTION OF TRAIN SERVICES AND TIME MANAGEMENT ON COMMUTING STRESS AMONG TRAIN COMMUTERS BETWEEN LAGOS AND IBADAN.

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ABSTRACT

The recently completed train services between Lagos and Ibadan is already bedevilled with operational problems. Commuters are complaining of satisfaction and time management rendered by the Nigeria Railway Corporation. Therefore, this study set out to investigate the influence of accessibility, satisfaction of train services and time management on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. The theory of Reasoned Action and Planned Behaviour were reviewed for this study. A survey research design was employed on Two hundred and seventy-two (272) participants who commuted between Lagos and Ibadan using convenient sampling method. To obtain responses, three valid scales were utilized. The result of the study revealed that train commuters' accessibility to train stations and satisfaction of train services significantly predicted commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan, ($p < .001$). Also, the result revealed that there was a significant negative relationship such that the train schedule gave participants ample time to conduct their business of the day ($r = -.254$). Additionally, the outcome of this study revealed that train commuters who utilize the train for work and business experienced a high commuting stress ($p = .59$, & $.34$) respectively compared to commuters who utilize the train for leisure ($p < .001$). Lastly, there were no significant differences in the commuting stress among all age groups ($p > .001$). In conclusion, timely train schedule and quality train services are important for time management and satisfaction of train commuters. It is therefore recommended that management of Nigeria Railway Corporation should maintain timely schedule of train movement and should also ensure accessibility to train stations.

Keywords: *Train Services, Commuting Stress, Commuters*

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Transportation is the movement of people, goods and information from one location to another. It is believed to be as old as man. Transport which can also be referred to as transportation was derived from two Latin words 'trans' which mean 'across' and 'portare' which mean

'carry' (Adeniran and Yusuf, 2016). Merriam Webster Dictionary defines it as a means of conveyance or travel from one place to another or a public conveyance of passengers or goods especially as a commercial enterprise and Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2003) defines transportation as a process or business

of taking goods from one place to another or a system for carrying passengers or goods from one place to another. Transportation refers to the process of conveying or moving of goods and people from place to place (Anyanwu et al 1997). According to Good and Jebbin (2015), transportation is a system for carrying passengers, raw materials and goods from one place to another both internally and internationally, often through power driven machines.

Public transport is a system of transport for passengers by group travel systems available for use by the general public unlike private transport, typically managed on a schedule, operated on established routes, and that charge a posted fee for each trip (Wikipedia).

Rail transportation is a means of transportation on vehicles which run on tracks (rails or rail roads). It is one of the most important, commonly used and very cost-effective modes of passenger commuting and goods carriage over long, as well as short distances.

A virile rail transportation system plays a significant role in the sectoral development and overall growth of any economy. It opens up regions, hinterlands and rural areas by facilitating agricultural development. Also, it attracts residential, commercial, educational and recreational activities and development around its axis (Nwanze, 2002). Compared to other modes of transportation, rail transportation is

relatively safe, reliable and economical. Arguably though, it provides all season protection to the products moved on uninterrupted basis and able to transform a nation's economy because mass movement of people, goods and services is possible through it.

However, there are several major problems facing rail system development but the most important ones are: technical problems such as tight curves, steep gradient, rail buckling; associated speed limits; poor communications; government interference with management structure; lack of freedom to set tariffs; underfunding and volatile staff training (www.yourarticlelibrary.com, Igwe *et. al.*, 2011). Also, the railway requires a large investment of capital; the cost of construction, maintenance and overhead expenses are very high as compared to other modes of transport. Another disadvantage of railway transport is its inflexibility. Its routes and timings cannot be adjusted to individual requirements.

Historically, the railways in Nigeria were conceived and constructed from Lagos to the furthestmost parts of the north-eastern part of the country, to open up the hinterlands along its corridor. With the passing of the Nigerian Railway Corporation Act 1955, the company gained its legal right to construct and operate rail service in Nigeria. The development of railways in Nigeria started from Lagos Colony to Ibadan in march 1896, by the British Government (www.researchgate.com). The general

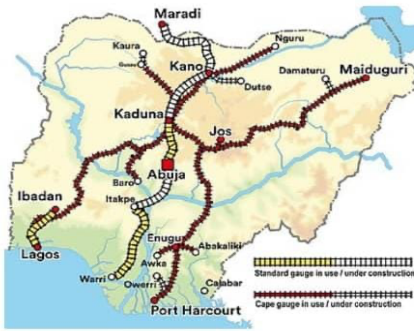
objective of railway construction in Nigeria between 1898 and 1927 was partly to maintain links between the central seat of colonial government in Lagos and other parts of the country. In the letters of the Act setting up the Nigerian railway corporation, it is to engage as "carriage of passengers and goods in a manner that will offer full value for money, meet cost of operations, improve market share and quality of service, ensure safety of operations and maximum efficiency, meet social responsibility in a manner that will meet the requirements of rail users, trade, commerce, industry, government and the general public (Nigerian transport profile, 1993). The development of transport in the overall activities of a nation is the ability to deliver an improved, efficient, effective, affordable, accessible, safe, reliable and an integrated transport system which will prosper the economic, social and political segments of the nation.

According to Osuji (2013), before the development of modern highways and airports in Nigeria, the railway was the only means to travel efficiently and move goods from one point to another. This created the leeway for the modest development witnessed from the colonial times and before the early 1970s. Furthermore, in constructing a well-used transport channel like railway service sometimes requires a good knowledge of how factors influence demand for the service and travel mode choice (Banister, 2011, Litman, 2013).

However, development and promoting

the use of railway has become an important part of government strategies to reduce carbon emissions from the transport sector worldwide and also a means to generate revenue while also easing transport stress of its citizens, hence this requires a very good understanding, while taking into cognizance the factors that can influence public transport mode choice which includes 'policy implementation process'. On the other hand, there is been a lot of new constructions in the aspect of road network coupled with renovation of old roads. However, there has no matching expansion in the domain of rail system. Furthermore, the safety of railway channel as a means of public transport is crucial for mobility and one of the perceived reasons why some people prefer the use of train to bus when commuting might be centred around conformity or the anxiety that comes with the use of public bus and the perceived safety and satisfaction that comes with the use of train.

Railway transport is already becoming part of the major public transport channel in the southwestern part of Nigeria and there is need to understand the reason why people prefer to use the railway channel instead of road channel and while doing this we will be taking into cognizance conformity and anxiety that the commuters might experience while trying to make decisions about their preferred channel of interstate travel within the southwestern states in Nigeria using (Lagos, Ogun and Oyo state).



Railway system of Nigeria 2021

Accessibility and satisfaction with train services.

Accessibility refers to the ease with which individuals can get to the train station and use train services. It encompasses factors such as the availability and proximity of train stations, the frequency and reliability of train schedules, the affordability of fares, and the physical accessibility of trains and stations for people with disabilities or other mobility challenges. Satisfaction with train service refers to how happy or content individuals are with the quality of the train service they have received. This can include factors such as the cleanliness and condition of trains and stations, the helpfulness and friendliness of staff, the speed and punctuality of trains, and the overall comfort and safety of the journey. Satisfaction can also be influenced by factors such as the availability and quality of onboard amenities, the ease of ticket purchasing and boarding, and the effectiveness of communication during disruptions or delays.

It is known that people using the train for their commute are generally less stressed compared to people using a private car (Wener and Evans, 2011).

Railway service quality has been assessed worldwide. However, a greater share of the studies has been performed in developed countries. The travel demand, legal restrictions, travel behaviour, and disharmony among planning authorities in developing countries are different from those in developed countries, while the developing countries face extensive challenges of ensuring mobility for huge population at an affordable price while balancing the environmental concerns. In fact, developing countries often have context-specific factors not found in more advanced nations. For example, Geetika and Nandan (2010) were the first to study about porter behaviour. Porters are people that help to carry luggage inside the station in exchange for money. Often, these porters may be people with low education levels who have grown up in tough neighbourhoods.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The recently completed train services between Lagos and Ibadan is already bedevilled with operational problems. Commuters are complaining of dissatisfaction and time management rendered by the Nigeria Railway Corporation. Therefore, this study set out to investigate the influence of accessibility, satisfaction of train services and time management on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and

Ibadan.

The study investigated the influence of accessibility and satisfaction of train services, as well as time management, on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. Specifically, the study seeks to address the problem of commuting stress experienced by many train commuters, which can negatively impact their well-being and productivity. The study examined whether factors such as the ease of accessing train services, the quality of the services, and effective time management strategies can help to mitigate the negative effects of commuting stress among train commuters. Additionally, the study explored the relationship between commuting stress and other factors such as demographic characteristics, reason for travel, and frequency of travel. Hence, there exist some major challenges faced with train accessibility in this region which one of them is train timing and frequency of train interstate movement. Usually, the problem with the train timing is that most people willing to go with the train won't have access to the train service due to their location. Hence, them trying to meet up with the train timing might put them under a whole lot of pressure both physically and psychologically due to the fact that once they've missed the timing its till the next day before they'll have that opportunity increasing the frequency of train movement will also increase the timing giving the commuters variety of time and options to pick from every day. However, several

studies have been carried out to investigate the Influence of satisfaction on the stress level of commuters around the world but not in the railway mode of transportation in the western part of the country. Further, the choice behaviour of commuters plays a crucial role in the implementation of decisions about transportation. Hence, the commuter may choose a mode out of many available modes for specific reasons. Consequently, many factors are responsible in making decisions concerning mode of transportation. Furthermore, taking into cognizance the mode of choice decision, a proper analysis of choice decision making must be implemented. Thus, "a proper analysis of the mode choice decisions can help in addressing issues such as forecasting demand for new modes transport, mitigating traffic congestion allocating resources examining the general efficiency of travel, and providing insight into the traveller's behaviour characteristics". On the other hand, one of the major obstacles influencing the improvement of railway channel of transportation in the Southwestern part of Nigeria is the absence of assessment guidelines that can be used as a reference basis for organizing multimode passenger transportation in the region. However, by improving the perceived safety, time management and satisfaction of commuters, this can lead to a reduction in the usage of private and other channel of transportation.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main objective of this study is to examine the influence of accessibility,

satisfaction of train services and time management on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. The specific objectives are to:

1. Identify if Train commuters' accessibility and satisfaction of train services significantly predict commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan.
2. investigate if there be a negative significant relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan
3. examine if Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for visiting
4. access if Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A few studies developed demographic models to determine the significant attributes of rail passenger perceptions in developing countries. Geetika et al. (2010) investigated the passenger satisfaction at Indian railway platforms on refreshment, information system, porter behaviour, basic facility, safety and security. Mijares et al. (2016) analysed the waiting time, in-vehicle travel time, fare, air quality, risk perception, and adaptation of a small number of rail passengers (225 respondents) to understand passenger

satisfaction and their adjustable behaviour in severe environments at a metro rail line in Philippines. Mijares et al. (2016) considered income as the only demographic characteristics of rail passengers, ignoring their demographic diversity. Kriswardhana et al. (2018) assessed the 400 rail passengers' responses on 13 ordinal variables of rail services in Indonesia and found that the scheduled arrival of trains positively affected the overall satisfaction level. A major drawback of the study is that none of the ordinal variables investigated were clearly explained beforehand. For example, the variable "officer service" seems to be ambiguous because it does not indicate whether passengers judged officers' performance on the basis of efficiency, promptness, politeness or ethics, or on a combination of all the mentioned bases. Hadiuzzaman et al. (2019) used the adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) to assess the effects of physical and service quality attributes on intercity train service for regular and festival scenarios at Kamalapur Railway Station, Dhaka. Although the study provides important insight into intercity trains in Dhaka city, it neither addressed income variety among respondents nor developed correlation among studied variables. Islam et al. (2018) assessed railway service quality in Joydebpur Railway Station (which also happens to be the study area of this article) using 21 service quality attributes by considering the situation both at the station and inside trains. The study found that people were slightly more dissatisfied with facilities inside train than those inside

the station. A major limitation of the study is its simplistic weighted average method to assess the service quality attributes. However, the study is interesting as it uses photographs to visualize the current service conditions inside trains and at the station. Such conditions are uncommon in advanced countries. For example, the study shows people jam-packed inside unhygienic trains. To save time from finding later trains, some people try to board trains at full capacity and sit on train roofs. Such people may have safety problems throughout the train journey. In fact, trains are jam-packed with people above the rooftop during the holiday season in Bangladesh.

Literature review has revealed that integrating traffic safety into demand models has not been explored yet. However, there exist only a very few studies that have delved into researching on the dimension of transportation safety influence on mode choice that were particularly in school children travel preferences. However, in a study conducted on travel mode choice of children aged between 6 and 12 years old was studied. For this age category, parent are the ones who predominantly determine children's choice of travel. Furthermore, their study revealed that traffic infrastructure significantly influences both the real and the perceived traffic safety of parents, varying based on age and gender of children. According to another study undertaken by the average household income level and car ownership were found to be important determinants of

mode choice. Furthermore, it was also concluded that traffic safety perception is partially dependent on socioeconomic status of household. Consequently, it was also concluded that safety consciousness positively influences the transit mode choice, meaning that parents consider car as a safe travel mode for their children's trips to and from school. The affective encounters of commuting refer to "feelings evoked by travelling, such as stress, excitement, pleasure, boredom and control" (Anable & Gatersleben, 2005). According to Russell's circumplex model of affect (Russell, 1980), an environment is automatically experienced in terms of two dimensions: valence (degree of pleasantness) and arousal (degree of intensity). For example, "*stress*" is a combination of intense arousal and unpleasantness. However, most research into affective experiences of commuting has focused on stress.

During the early 1970s, researchers documented personal stress associated with commuting to work. However, the factors influencing commute stress are only partly clear. Early studies focused on impedance, defined as the difficulty commuters experience in moving from home to work and back. Furthermore, researchers initially measured impedance as travel distance or time but soon focused on travel speed to capture the effect of congestion. Novaco, Stokols, and Milanesi (1990) differentiated between physical impedance (e.g., speed) and subjective impedance measured as drivers' perceptions about inability to avoid traffic, speed

reductions due to traffic jams, exposure to traffic control devices and other characteristics of the commute. It has been theorised that impedance contributes to stress through the mechanism of perceived control: higher impedance causes commuters to feel less control and thus more stress. Furthermore, one study found control to be “the most powerful predictor of commuting stress” (Sposato, Röderer, & Cervinka, 2012). Control can be operationalised in a variety of ways. Schaeffer et al. (1988), in comparing stress for commuters driving alone versus car-pooling, differentiated between control over the internal environment of the car (e.g., controlling the radio) and control over the route taken to work.

Theory of reasoned action (TRA)

Theory of reasoned action (TRA) was developed by Fishbein & Ajzen, (1975), the theory justifies behaviour through the identification of the primary determinant of that behaviour, the sources of these determinant variables, and by organizing the relationship between the determinant variables. Hence, the theory is manifest through the sequence of reformulations that build on one another in a developmental fashion. However, here are some of the accomplice theories that support the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), “*theory of planned behaviour* (Ajzen, 1985), and the *integrative model of behavioural prediction* (Fishbein, 2000)”. The theory states that the better one understands which beliefs cause

Behaviour by what process, the better able one is to design successful messages.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Will Train commuters' accessibility to train stations, satisfaction of train services significantly predicts commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan?
- 1 Will there be a negative significant relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan?
- 2 Will Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for visiting?
- 3 Will Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

1. Train commuters' accessibility to train stations, satisfaction of train services will significantly predict commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan.
1. There will be a significant negative relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan.
2. Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business will significantly report a low commuting stress compared to

commuters who utilize the train for visiting.

3. Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years will express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years.

METHOD

Research settings.

Research was carried out in three stations; Mobolaji Johnson train station located at Alagomeji, Lagos state, Obafemi Awolowo Train station located at Moniya, Oyo state and Wole Soyinka train station located at Abeokuta, Ogun state. The questionnaires were administered to passengers in transit. The train stations were selected due to the heavy commuters' presence.

Study Population.

The population of this study consisted of the entire train commuters in the three stations investigated; Mobolaji Johnson station located at Alagomeji, Lagos state, Obafemi Awolowo station located at Moniya, Oyo state and Wole Soyinka station located at Abeokuta, Ogun state. The number of train commuters in the southwestern part of Nigeria is estimated to be around 1500 monthly according to a rough statistic given by a source from their statistics division of the train station. Purposive convenient technique was the sampling method adopted for this research. Cross-sectional survey research design was used because data was obtained from different locations. Two valid scales were adopted for data gathering.

These are: Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) developed by Aaron T Beck, MD (Beck et al., 1990; Steer and Beck, 1997), time management questionnaire (TMQ) developed by Britton and Tesser (1991).

A description of each of the instruments is given below. These scales were infused into a questionnaire with the following sections;

SECTION A: this part of the questionnaire was used to gather data on the participant demography. It will include the participants' Faculty, Age, Sex, Marital Status, Religion and Ethnicity.

SECTION B: this part of the questionnaire measured the participant accessibility to train services using the Train Service Scale. Train Service Scale is a 16-item self-report instrument used for evaluating accessibility and satisfaction with train services. All items were answered using a 5-point Likert scale ranging 1 = Very Satisfied, 2 = Satisfied, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Dissatisfied, 5 = Very Dissatisfied.

SECTION C: this part of the questionnaire measured the participant psychological well-being using the Train Commuting Stress Scale (TCS). Train Commuting Stress Scale (TCS) is a 10-item self-report instrument used for evaluating an individual's experience and encounter using the train. All items were answered using a 5-point Likert scale ranging 1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 =

Neutral, 4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly Disagree.

SECTION D: This is a self-report questionnaire designed by Aaron T Beck, MD (Beck et al., 1990; Steer and Beck, 1997). It is a 21-items multiple-choice self-report inventory that is used for measuring how the subject has been feeling in the last week, focusing primarily on somatic symptoms (measures the severity of an individual's anxiety). Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as .94 for the whole scale, while an acceptably reliable over an average time lapse of 11 days is ($r = .67$). All items were responded using a 4-point Likert scale used to assess the intensity of physical and cognitive anxiety symptoms during the past week. Scores may range from 0 to 63: minimal anxiety levels (0–7), mild anxiety (8–15), moderate anxiety (16–25), and severe anxiety (26–63)

SECTION E: This is a self-report questionnaire designed developed by Macan, Shahani, Dipboye & Phillips (1990). The Time Management Behavior Scale is a 25 items scale which identified and described factors within time management, such as establishing objectives, prioritizing for tasks, setting goals, perceived time control. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as .77 for the whole scale. All items were responded using a 3-point Likert scale ranging from 2 – Always to 0 – Never. The research was scheduled to be carried out in three months. Approval for questionnaire administration was obtained at Nigeria Railway corporation after which

questionnaires were administered to commuters at the various stations. The completed questionnaires were scored and analysed

Responses on the questionnaires were coded into Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) v27 to generate both the descriptive statistics and to test the hypotheses. Linear regression analysis, Pearson correlation analysis, independent sample t-test and Anova-One way was computed to test the hypotheses.

RESULT

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics Table showing mean and standard deviation of Train commuting stress scale, Becks Anxiety, Time management and Train Accessibility and Satisfaction.

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|--------------------------------------|----|---------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Train Commuting Stress | 27 | 10 | 42 | 22.46 | 7.174 |
| Becks Anxiety | 27 | 0 | 43 | 8.56 | 9.038 |
| Time Management | 27 | 14 | 50 | 35.67 | 8.081 |
| Train Accessibility and Satisfaction | 27 | 16 | 63 | 35.87 | 9.569 |

Hypothesis Testing

This section presents the hypothesis that were tested and results analyzed, the hypothesis was grouped into four (4) categories. Hypothesis 1 was tested using Linear Regression Analysis, Hypothesis 2 was tested with Pearson Correlation Analysis, Hypothesis 3 was tested using Anova one-way while, Hypothesis 4 was tested with Anova one-way.

Hypothesis 1: Train commuters' accessibility to train stations and satisfaction of train services will significantly predict commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan.

Table 2: Linear regression results for Train commuters' accessibility and satisfaction on commuting stress,

| | b | SEb | β | P-VALUE |
|--------------------------------------|-------|-----------|--------------------|-----------|
| Constant | 9.639 | 1.493 | | |
| Train Accessibility and Satisfaction | .360 | .040 | .480 | .001 |
| R Square | .230 | F (1,267) | $\frac{=}{79.916}$ | P = 0.001 |

a. Dependent Variable: Train Commuting Stress
 b. Predictors: (Constant), Train Accessibility and Satisfaction

it was revealed that Train Accessibility and Satisfaction has a positive significant influence on Train Commuting Stress given the Beta and P value scores to be (B = .480, P = .001). Furthermore, Train Accessibility and Satisfaction is responsible for 23% variance in Train Commuting Stress (R square = .230). at such we accept the hypothesis which state that “Train commuters' accessibility and satisfaction of train services will significantly predict commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan”.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant negative relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan.

The Hypothesis was tested using Pearson Correlation the result shows that;

Table 3: Pearson Correlations

| Variables | Mean | S,D | 1 | 2 |
|--------------------------|-------|-------|--------|---|
| 1 Time Management | 35.67 | 8.081 | | |
| 2 Train Commuting Stress | 22.46 | 7.174 | -.254* | |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 reveal that there was a significant relationship between the Time Management of respondents (r = -.254, p<.05) and Train Commuting Stress. At such we accept the hypothesis which state that “There will be a significant negative relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan”.

Hypothesis 3: Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business will significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for visiting.

Table 4: One way ANOVA results on Train Usage on Train Commuting Stress.

| Train Commuting Stress | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F ratio | P |
|--------------------------------|----------------|----|-------------|---------|------|
| I use train to get to work | 8.681 | 27 | .322 | 1.512 | .055 |
| I use train for business trips | 5.771 | 27 | .214 | .912 | .595 |
| I use the train for visiting | 4.902 | 27 | .182 | 1.094 | .348 |

P>.05

Note: The result above shows train usage of participants on Train Commuting Stress. However, a significant difference was revealed as

people who use the train to “get to work” are the only one experiencing train commuting stress giving the p value to be ($P < .05$). however, people who use the train for “business trips” and “visiting” experience no commuting stress as revealed by the p value ($P > .05$) relatively. Thus hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Hypothesis 4: Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years will express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years.

Table 5: One way ANOVA results on level of age on Train Commuting Stress.

| Train Commuting Stress | N | Mean | SD | df | F ratio | P |
|------------------------|-----|-------|-------|-----|---------|------|
| 18-30yrs | 124 | 22.85 | 6.959 | 2 | 1.435 | .240 |
| 31-40yrs | 74 | 21.26 | 7.410 | 269 | | |
| 41-50yrs | 74 | 23.00 | 7.247 | | | |
| Total | 272 | 22.46 | 7.174 | 271 | | |

$P > .05$

Note: The result above shows age of participants on Train Commuting Stress. However, the difference was not significant $F(2,269) = 1.435$, $P > 0.05$. Thus hypothesis 4 was rejected.

DISCUSSION.

The objective of the study was to examine the influence of accessibility, satisfaction of train services and time management on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan, it also evaluated if there be a negative significant relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan, also, try to examine

if train commuters who utilize the train for work and business significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for visiting and lastly, evaluate if train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years. 272 participants were used for this study and were administered test instruments, using the Train Service Scale, train Commuting Stress Scale (TCS) and The Time Management Behaviour Scale (TMBS).

According to the first hypothesis result, it was revealed that Train commuters' accessibility to train stations and satisfaction of train services does significantly predict commuting stress of train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. Firstly, it is important to note that commuting stress can be influenced by a range of factors, including the physical environment, personal characteristics, and social factors. While accessibility to the train station and satisfaction with train service may play a role in influencing commuting stress, they may not be the only or even the most significant factors. Research suggests that factors such as overcrowding, delays, and disruptions can have a significant impact on commuters' stress levels. Additionally, personal factors such as job demands, family responsibilities, and financial pressures can also contribute to commuting stress. Furthermore, the relationship between accessibility and satisfaction with train service and

commuting stress may be more complex than a simple cause-and-effect relationship. For example, while improvements in train service may lead to increased satisfaction and reduced stress for some commuters, others may still experience stress due to factors such as overcrowding or personal circumstances. In summary, while accessibility and satisfaction with train service may play a role in influencing commuting stress, they may not be the only or most significant factors. The relationship between these factors and commuting stress may also be complex and influenced by a range of personal and environmental factors.

This is in line with research carried out to examine the relationship between the attributed quality of service and customer satisfaction based on commuters' perception and expectation. A survey research design was adopted to gather data from the participants in order to investigate the relationship among commuter satisfaction and attributed quality of service. Further, all hypotheses were tested using correlation and regression analysis. Hence, to explore the extent of gap between customer expectation and their perceived value, each value difference between all 22-item expectations and perceptions were compared in order to arrive at a conclusion for the attributed quality of service. Furthermore, it was revealed in the result that quality of service was an important precursor and a crucial factor that determine customer satisfaction. Hence, all the tested hypotheses were revealed to be

statistically significant and all service quality dimensions came out strongly or moderately correlated with commuter satisfaction. An indicator was also used to obtain the passengers' opinions about the impacts of delay on the level of the perceived quality of the transport. The results also indicated that the interactions between age, gender, and level of education, and also neck pain, and an increased heartbeat should be considered, instead of their sole main effects. Also, evaluating the heterogeneity in taste revealed that the change in a random parameter of feeling nervous is dependent on the parameter of commuters' gender. Overall, the results provide important insights regarding various feelings that the commuters experienced, which impact their perceived quality of rail transportation. Extensive discussion regarding the link between the study's findings and mind spouse theory was given in the "Discussion" and "Conclusion" sections of this study. This is dissimilar to research carried out by Zhai et al., (2021), who posits that Rail stations located in residential environments provide significant amenities to the travel-related satisfaction of residents. Using an individual survey conducted in Beijing in 2013, this paper applies multilevel models to explore the association between travel satisfaction and rail accessibility, controlling for residential self-selection, socio-demographics, and neighbourhood characteristics.

Contrary to this, numerous studies have highlighted the importance of

accessibility in public transportation use. For example, research conducted by Beira, Cabral, and Silva (2017) found that accessibility to subway stations significantly influenced the use of this mode of transportation. Similarly, a study by Currie (2010) found that better access to public transport services, such as easy walking distance to stations, was linked to higher usage rates. Furthermore, the quality of service is a crucial determinant of user satisfaction, which can impact stress levels. A study by St-Louis, Manaugh, van Lierop, and El-Geneidy (2014) found that satisfaction with public transportation (including train services) was strongly associated with factors like punctuality, frequency, comfort, and information availability. If these factors aren't satisfactory, it can increase commuter stress. Also, commuting stress has been studied in numerous contexts. For instance, a study by Wener and Evans (2011) found that longer commuting times and crowdedness could contribute to increased stress among commuters.

According to the second hypothesis result it was revealed that, there exist a significant negative relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. While there is limited empirical research specifically examining the relationship between time management and commuting stress, there is some research that suggests that there may be a negative relationship between the two. For example, a study published in the

Journal of Occupational Health Psychology found that employees who reported higher levels of time pressure and workload also reported higher levels of commuting stress. This suggests that individuals who struggle with time management may also experience higher levels of commuting stress due to feeling rushed or pressed for time during their commute. This is dissimilar to a study done by Wener, Richard & Evans, Gary. (2011), revealed that commuting times and distances continue to increase in the United States with potential impacts to the environment as well as possible health consequences for the travellers, because of stress from the commuting trip. There is very little empirical information, however, on the differences between various modes of commuting on commuter stress. This study provides a cross-sectional comparison of car and train commuters with multiple indicators of stress, including statistical controls for group characteristics. We compared commuters in the same geographic region, Metropolitan New York City, who had comparable starting and destination points, and were from homogeneous socioeconomic backgrounds. We also explored potential underlying psychological processes (i.e., control, effort, predictability) to help explain stress differences related to commuting mode. There were statistically significant differences for perceived commuting stress and mood. Car commuters showed significantly higher levels of reported stress and, more negative mood. Mediation

analyses indicated that effort and predictability largely account for the elevated stress associated with car commuting.

Contrary to this, there is a wealth of research indicating that commuting, particularly long commutes and those involving crowded public transportation like trains, can be a significant source of daily stress (Novaco, Stokols, & Milanese, 1990; Wener & Evans, 2011). Factors contributing to this stress can include overcrowding, unpredictability and delays, lack of control, and the physical discomfort of the commute.

According to the third hypothesis result it was revealed that Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business would not significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for visiting. This was in line with research done by Gary Evans (2011) who provided a cross-sectional comparison of car and train commuters with multiple indicators of stress, including statistical controls for group characteristics. We compared commuters in the same geographic region, Metropolitan New York City, who had comparable starting and destination points, and were from homogeneous socioeconomic backgrounds. We also explored potential underlying psychological processes (i.e., control, effort, predictability) to help explain stress differences related to commuting mode. There were statistically significant differences for perceived commuting stress and mood. Car

commuters showed significantly higher levels of reported stress and, more negative mood. Mediation analyses indicated that effort and predictability largely account for the elevated stress associated with car commuting.

There have been a few studies that have explored the differences in stress levels between train commuters who use the train for business versus those who use it for leisure or visiting purposes. Here are some of the key findings:

1. Purpose of travel: According to a study published in the *Journal of Transport Geography*, commuters who travel for work or business purposes reported lower levels of stress than those who travel for leisure or visiting purposes. The authors suggest that this may be because commuters who travel for work or business have a clear purpose for their journey and a set routine, which can help to reduce uncertainty and stress.

2. Time pressure: Another study published in the *Journal of Transport Economics and Policy* found that commuters who travel for business purposes tend to experience less time pressure than those who travel for leisure or visiting purposes. This may be because business travellers are more likely to have more control over their schedules and can plan their journeys in advance, whereas leisure travellers may be more constrained by their holiday dates or other commitments.

3. Crowding: A study published in the Journal of Transport and Health found that crowding on trains can be a significant source of stress for commuters. However, the study also found that commuters who travel for business purposes tend to have more flexibility in their travel times and are therefore less likely to experience crowding. This may help to explain why business travellers reported lower levels of stress than leisure travellers.

Overall, while there is no one definitive answer to why train commuters who use the train for business purposes might report lower levels of stress than those who use it for leisure or visiting purposes, these studies suggest that factors such as the purpose of travel, time pressure, and crowding may all play a role.

This is in line with research carried out in Dublin city centre. The first objective of this research was to examine the level of stress caused by commuting into Dublin city centre. The second objective was to determine the value placed on the comfort and reliability of public transport services. An on-line survey of workers who commute daily into Dublin city centre was conducted, which collected data on the respondents' typical commute, commute-related stress, and socio-economic background. Commute satisfaction levels among public transport users were found to decrease for those who travel on crowded or unreliable services and those who have long wait-times. Stated preference scenarios relating to crowding and reliability were analysed

using a multinomial logit model. The model showed that utility derived increases as crowding decreases and as reliability increases.

According to the fourth hypothesis result it was revealed that Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years does not express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years. This is dissimilar to research done by Bopp et al. (2013), which demonstrated health benefits of active commuting and low participation rates among older adults indicates a need to examine the social-ecological correlates of active commuting by age category. An online survey of employed US adults examined active commuting participation, individual, employment-related, community and environmental variables. Participants were dichotomized by age (younger: 18-49 years; n=638, 64% and older: 50+ years; n=359, 36%). Logistic regression analyses examined differences in active commuting correlates by age. older adults were less likely to be active commuters (13.4%) than younger adults (27.9%) ($p < 0.001$) For older adults, analyses yielded a Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.76$ with perceived behavioural control, behavioural beliefs, household cars and walking distance as predictors. Analyses for younger adults resulted in a Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.79$ with perceived behavioural control, co-worker normative beliefs, parking problems at work, greater employer and community support for active commuting and bad weather as

predictors. Findings suggest age should be considered when examining and targeting active commuting behaviours.

Some studies suggest that older individuals may experience less commuting stress compared to younger individuals, while others suggest that there may not be significant differences in commuting stress across age spans. For example, a study published in the *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* in 2017 found that older workers reported lower levels of commuting stress compared to younger workers. The study surveyed participants aged 18 to 65 and found that commuting stress was highest among individuals aged 25 to 34, and lowest among individuals aged 55 to 65. However, another study published in the *Journal of Transport Geography* in 2018 found that there were no significant age differences in commuting stress. The study surveyed participants aged 18 to 64 and found that age did not significantly predict commuting stress. Further research is needed to better understand the relationship between age and commuting stress. It is possible that other factors, such as commute length, mode of transportation, and job satisfaction, may play a more significant role in determining commuting stress levels.

In line with a study conducted to examine the relationship between commuting time and perceived stress by focusing on young Korean workers. For this, we employ a fixed-effects panel data analysis model and

collect longitudinal survey data of Korean youth. Our empirical analysis demonstrates that commuting time is negatively associated with young Korean workers' perceived stress. We argue that this may be because young workers are more likely to accept long commuting for higher wages. Findings also show that the relationship between commuting time and perceived stress differs according to commuting patterns (intra- and inter-city commuting) and commuting modes. Particularly, perceived stress is likely to be lower among public transportation users, even though their commuting time is longer, whereas commuters by car experience higher stress as commuting time increases. Our findings suggest that planners should understand workers' heterogeneous preference for commuting and the different spatial characteristics of urban spatial structure that causes long-duration commuting.

CONCLUSION.

This study examined the influence of accessibility, satisfaction of train services and time management on commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. It evaluated if there be a negative significant relationship between time management and commuting stress among train commuters between Lagos and Ibadan. Also, it examined if Train commuters who utilize the train for work and business significantly report a low commuting stress compared to commuters who utilize the train for leisure and lastly, the study evaluated

if Train commuters between the ages of 41 to 50 years express less commuting stress compared to train commuters who are aged 31 to 40 years and 18 to 30 years

The study revealed that commuter's accessibility to train station and satisfaction with the train services has a significant influence on both their satisfaction and experience using train as their mode of transportation either to work, interstate or for leisure activities. For examples as revealed by Parasuraman et al. (1985) who identified 10 key determinants of service quality as perceived by the service provider and the consumer, namely, "reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding the customer, and tangibility to formulate a service quality framework" these are said to significantly influence both the satisfaction and experience of train commuters. Furthermore, time management is significantly seen as a correlate of satisfaction of train commuters. However, with the accurate timing of the train movement commuters can plan their activities around the train timing in other to manage their time effectively, compared to when using other mode of transportation where time is not objectively calculated due to unforeseen circumstances like, accidents, traffic, water damage, bad road connection etc.

LIMITATION OF STUDY

No study is without limitation. This study utilized train commuters

between Lagos and Ibadan, thus affecting the confidence with which the findings from the study can be generalized to a larger population and other countries.

The evident limitation of the study also includes the following:

- 1) The possibility that some of the participants were not be honest with their responses. However, the number of the responses was good enough for meaningful generalization of the result.
- 2) The sample population covered may not have been large enough due to time constraints.
- 3) The method used in this research to select participants could also pose as a limitation to the research.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- I. train management should make their service more and readily available for commuters which will also decrease the stress of searching for the train stations and the likes.
- II. Expanding train services to other part of the country for easy access and usage of the train services.
- III. Increasing the frequency of time, the train travel in a day to give rooms for train commuters to choose from variety option of train timing suitable for their traveling purpose.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STAFF TRAINING, MOTIVATION AND EMPLOYEES' PERFORMANCE IN THE TELECOMMUNICATIONS SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance among selected staff of Netcom Africa Limited. The independent variables of the study were staff training and motivation, while the dependent variable is employees' performance. A total of one hundred and forty-five (145) male and female staff of NetCom Africa Limited took part in the study with ages ranging from 18 to 57 years participated in the study. The study adopted an ex post facto design while simple random sampling method was used in selecting participants. A structured questionnaire consisting of socio-demographic information, The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire and the Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale, were used to collect data from the staff, who are the participants in the study. The result revealed that staff training and employee performance are significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.224, p < .05$) while staff training and job motivation were found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .240, p < .05$). However, job motivation and employee performance were found to have no significant correlation ($r = -.141, p > .05$). It was revealed that staff training serves a significant predictor of employees' performance given the Beta and P value scores to be ($\beta = -.223, P < .05$). Results also were unable to show a statistically significant differences between employees' performance of Highly motivated ($M = 40.09, s = 5.04$) and Less Motivated ($M = 41.66, s = 5.85$) [$t(143) = -1.663, p = .099$]. Furthermore, it was revealed that there were statistically significant differences between employees' performance of Male ($M = 40.34, s = 5.43$) and Female ($M = 40.84, s = 5.29$), [$t(143) = -.558, p = .578$]. In conclusion, it was discovered that while increase in staff training does not necessarily lead to increase in employee performance, staff training increases the level of motivation for the job. Similarly, it showed that when employees are motivated, they do not necessarily perform better. The findings reveal that staff who are well-trained, perform better than those who are not trained. However, staff who are more motivated do not necessarily perform better than those who are less motivated.

Keywords: *employee performance, motivation, staff training, staff of NetCom Africa Limited.*

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Staff training, motivation and

performance are significant factors regarding organisational success and

achievement. In a dynamic environment, it is important for an organisation to improve productivity by assessing its strategies on staff training and motivation with a view to gaining an upper hand among its competitors. Staff training and motivation play an imperative part in any organisation since it augments the performance and productivity of employees and the objectives can be accomplished in a proficient way. In addition, the behaviour of employees can be altered through staff training and motivation in any organisation.

There are specific goals for any organisation to achieve. Resources like machines, man, material and money are used to meet the objectives. Manpower is one of the essential ones out of these resources for any organisation (Aung, 2008). To meet organisational objectives, manpower, employees or staff can play a vital role. The way to utilise these resources efficiently and effectively by manpower is the pertinent question that arises during the organisational activity. To achieve success, one needs to adjust with the external influences in the market. The natural component of culture, society, legality, politics, competition and technology often change quickly. If knowledge is inadequate, the plan fizzles out. It is the most difficult job to anticipate about anything in the current circumstances which makes it hard to predict the event that is going to happen tomorrow. To obtain the best result, the need for exceptionally talented and devoted manpower is needed. Due to completion, it is

extremely tough to begin, survive, settle down and exceed calculated expectation and improve productivity for any organisation these days. Consequently, the need for improvement in the quality of staff through well-organised and implemented strategies for the training and motivation of staff cannot be over-emphasised. The organisations having highly capable and skilled employees have a significant advantage over their rivals and can augment the productivity and richness better (Shanks, 2008). The committed manpower is the critical and vital elements for any organisation to excel. Close coordination between the employee performance and various jobs is required for overall success of the organisation (Lunenburg, 2011). The skills and abilities of staff need to be effectively harnessed and ignited for the completion as well as for an overall improvement of the productivity of the employees. The need for a strategic training and motivation plan may be established after an assessment of the performance of staff through performance review. The process of performance review normally takes place on an annual basis. However, it can be scheduled in further frequent manner.

Most organisations attempt to judge analytically the performance of employees for increasing productivity (Stewart & Roth, 2007). The performance of an employee is defined as what an employee can do through his ability and skills and what he can't do. The various factors are included in an employee performance

like quality and amount of yield, closeness to work, healthy and accommodative nature, opportunities of yield, etc. There are mainly three classes for measuring the productivity of employees within an organisation. These are:

- Personnel Data.
- Production Counts.
- Judgmental methods.

There are certain limitations on the performance of employee which are mentioned below:

- Lack of proper skills and equipment.
- Inadequate working environment.
- Non-attendance of the core human resources.
- Ambivalent performance standards or objectives.
- Inadequate statement in an organisation.

Organisational performance is an indication of the ability of an organisation to efficiently attain independent objectives (Venkatraman & Ramanujam, 1996). The level of efficiency through the performance of employees is one of the major components that is assessable. There is so much research work carried out to propose different techniques to measure organisational performance. All these works focus especially on integrating the quantity, quality, creativity and individual knowledge towards the accomplished task which confirms the role of responsibility during a precise period.

It has been noted that there are some factors that can improve employee productivity. Some of these factors include motivation and training of staff among others.

Motivation means so many things to different people. Their impact on the individual depends also on his perception of what he considers to be of value to him and invariably influences his action or non-action. Motivation can be described as a set of incentives monetary or otherwise, reward and punishment systems which determine or influence staff performance and altitude to work. It is a production of human resource management, and its impact goes on a long way in determining the quality and quantity of production and the level of industrial and labour harmony or disharmony in the organization. Motivation can also be defined as the forces acting on or within a person that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of goal-directed, voluntary effort.

Work Motivation has been defined as “conditions which influences the arousal, direction, and maintenance of our behaviours” relevant in work setting”. Gbadamosi & Adebakin (1997) have variously defined motivation as “the act of stimulating some or oneself to get a desired course of action, to push the right button, to get a desired reaction. According to Bulkus and Green (2009) as cited by Muogbo (2013), motivation is derived from the word “motivate”, means a move, push or influence to proceed for fulfilling a want. (Farland et al, 2011)

in Muogbo (2013) describe motivation as a power that strengthens behaviour, gives route to behaviour, and triggers the tendency to continue. This explanation identifies that in order to attain assured targets; individuals must be satisfactorily energetic and be clear about their determinations. According to Society for Human Resource Management (2010) cited in Faraji (2013), motivation is normally defined as the psychological forces that describe the direction of a person's level of effort, as well as a person's persistence in the face of hindrances which can either be extrinsic or intrinsic.

Motivation is considered as one of the most imperative matters in all the organisations, no matters whether it is private or public sector (Baldoni, 2005b). "Motive" means wants, desire, and needs of an individual. Therefore, the employee motivation refers to a procedure where organisations inspire their employees with the shape of bonus, rewards, increment, etc. to achieve organisational goals. This research study (Creswell, 2012) concerning the impact of motivation on the performance of employees helps to understand motivation that affects employee performance in the organisation and motivational tools used by the organisation so as to motivate employees for the best performance (Aung, 2008).

According to Rush (1988) as cited by (Faraji, 2013) motivation is the willingness of an individual to do something and conditioned by actions

to satisfy needs. Later Jibowo (2007) described motivation as something that energized individuals to take action and which is concerned with the choices the individual makes as part of his or her goal-oriented behaviour. Following the recent definition contributed by Saleem (2011), motivation is a person's intensity, direction and persistence of efforts to attain a specific objective. In this study, the definition of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) is adopted which characterized motivation as extrinsic and intrinsic.

Motivation could be intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivations that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in that task itself, and exist within the individual rather than relying on any external pressure. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual, common extrinsic motivation is reward like money and grades coercion and threat of punishment, competing is in general extrinsic because it encourages the performer to win and beat others, not to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. Intrinsic motivation also refers to behaviour that is driven by internal rewards. In other words, the motivation to engage in a behaviour arises from within the individual because it is internally rewarding. Intrinsic motivation is that which occurs while a person is performing an activity in which he gains satisfaction from engaging in that activity itself. This is called internal reward and it is directly part of the job content while

extrinsic motivation involves engaging in a behaviour in order to earn external rewards or avoid punishments.

The main purpose of motivation is to attain organization goals according to Koontz et al (1983) “management requires the creation and maintenance of environment in which individuals work together in group toward the accomplishment of the objective” management has been faced with broad predicament since poor approaches were employed toward the attachment of organizational objectives. These approaches are not without their strengths and weakness. In other worlds, firms are now faced with many complexes managerial predicament because of the phenomenon maintained above. Since the foremost aim of management of organization is the attainment of its objective. Little or no attention is paid to welfare of workers. As an outcome, the firm goals are defeated, since the workers are not motivated and cared for. The motivations range from inadequate to lack of motivation. Often management becomes dogmatic in their method of motivation as a result their expectation are defeated. It is pertinent for management to know what can motivate a single individual at a particular time and place would not motivate another person.

The expectation to drive from anything one is doing is a motivation force that forces the individual to work. According to Ajuogu (1996) “motivation is an internal psychological process”. It is the motive power that makes people

behaves the way they do. He added that motivated employees are willing to exert a particular level of effort (intensity), for a certain amount of time (persistence), toward a particular goal or direction (Mullins, 2006). When employees are motivated, less force is exerted in making them comply with company rules. Consequently, the level of counterproductive work behaviour is reduced. In the telecommunications sector, a motivated staff is more likely to work overtime without complaining, serve customers to their satisfaction and take the company to a higher level.

While talking about different factors enhancing employee motivation, money is considered as the strongest one as employees need to earn a respectable salary to live a quality and respectable life (Mumford, 1970). Financial rewards drive the individuals, who wish to fulfil their necessities to maintain a decent life and motivate themselves towards higher performance especially in the business related to the telecommunications sector. But in the long run, good salary cannot help to increase productivity and money alone cannot enhance efficiency (Aung, 2008). Focusing only on the satisfaction of monetary needs by organisational heads might wane the employee’s mentality in the long run as they seek only financial gain. So, it is important to think of another non-monetary component in the long run like rewards, performance feedbacks, praise, social acknowledgement and so on (Furnham & Argyle, 1998). Several

types of research have proved that rewards positively influence the employee performance leading to a job satisfaction. Among various tools used to motivate employees or group behaviour to improve organisational performance, motivation stands out the best. As a tool to motivate employees and their performance most organisations today use to pay promotion, bonus, reward and other types of rewards (Wahyuni et al., 2014). Salary is a great motivator, but if it is meant to be used as a motivator, the organisation or institution at first needs to develop a salary structure based on the significance, essentiality and productivity of the job, individual performance and special allowance. Leadership can be used as another significant tool to motivate an employee, as leadership enhances an employee's self-esteem and gives them a sense of belonging. Thus, making them have a feeling of being stakeholders. This in itself robs positively on the productivity and overall performance of such staff. It is important to gain the trust of employees and make them follow their manager or instructor to meet the objectives of the organisation. Moreover, if a leader wants to build his trust around the organisation and make the employees do their work appropriately, they need to be motivated becomes imperative (Baldoni, 2005). Assigning leadership position to staff ensures a reciprocal cooperation between staff and management, and this cooperation enhances performance.

As has been previously noted

motivation improves performance level. The ability to do work and willingness to do work both affect the efficiency of a person. The ability to do work is obtained with the help of education and training and willingness to do work is obtained with the help of motivation. Motivation also helps to change negative or indifferent attitudes of employees. Some employees have a negative attitude towards work making them to have a mindset that doing more work is not bringing any additional reward. The management of the bank must use various techniques to change this negative attitude. For example, if the financial situation of such an employee is weak, they might be motivated with a raise in their remuneration.

Moreover, motivation helps to reduce absenteeism in an organization. In some organisations, the rate of absenteeism is high. There are many causes for this poor work attitude, some of which include poor relations with colleagues and superiors, poor appreciation or recognition of the employee's effort in the organization, insufficient reward, etc. Bank managers should discourage all such deficiencies and motivates the employees. Motivated employees do not remain absent from work as the workplace becomes a source of joy for them. Motivation also helps to reduce resistance to change, thus ensuring that new innovations are constantly being implemented in the organization. Averagely, workers are not prepared to accept any changes in their normal routine. Employees can

be made to accept such changes easily with the help of motivation. Motivated people accept these changes enthusiastically and improve their work performance.

In addition, motivation saves cost. Motivated employees not only work faster, but they also use their creativity to ensure improvements that can lead to millions of money of savings for the organization. Motivated staff also ensure increased quality of products and reduce turn over: Turn-over not only costs money, but also slows down organization's progress while replacements are being trained.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

So many problems have been found to be a hindrance to Nigerian private sector, especially the telecommunications sector. Some of these challenges include poor employee performance, poor growth and inadequate staff development and its attendant low productivity. When an organization is not able to achieve optimum productivity, its vision and purposes can hardly be attained.

It has been noted that employees often complain about their wages and salary administration, poor working condition, welfare, supervision, provision of adequate machinery and materials at workplace, provision of proper appliance and their maintenances etc. The above complaints are indications that things are not going smoothly with the employees. On the other hand, management always wonder why the employees are no longer productive or

why there is low level of productivity in the organization despite paying them good salaries, providing good working condition and environment and giving excellent fringe benefits. Poor staff productivity often times goes beyond staff remuneration and point to the managers that employees are either not properly motivated or not satisfied with their job. Decreased production and performance will always remain low unless effort is made to unravel the factors that led to the poor performance. It was such alarming question that led some human relation experts into finding out what gives on individual's job performance. And that informed the basis for this study.

According to Aiyetan and Olotuah (2006) banks and industries in Nigeria have experienced low productivity due to inadequate motivation and staff training. In the Nigerian telecommunications industry, it is believed that productivity is low when compared to other developing countries and one of the factors contributing to such low productivity is that of workers motivation (Olabosipo, Adeyemi & Adesanya, 2004). However, most of the previous studies on the role of staff development and motivation on employees' job performance have been of little of practical application or offer it only for other sectors of the economy such as manufacturing companies and not to the telecommunications sector. Why this precarious situation? How effective staff development and motivational methods are used by employers to

influence workers performance? What is the relative importance of staff development and motivational factors (Extrinsic/Intrinsic) on workers' performance in the telecommunications sector and to what extent staff training and motivation relate with workers' performance in the study area? In view of the above discrepancy, the researcher seeks to provide information on the relationship between staff training, motivation and employees performance in the telecommunications sector with focus on selected staff of NetCom Africa Limited.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The main aim of the study is to explore the relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance in the telecommunications sector with focus on selected staff of NetCom Africa Limited

The specific objectives are to:

1. To examine if staff training, motivation and employees' performance are correlated.
2. Staff training will promote employees' performance.
3. Highly motivated staff will perform better on their jobs.
4. Gender will make a difference in employees' performance.

Human Capital Theory

Schultz (1961) as put forth by Dae-bong (2009) recognizes employees' formal education determines his or her earning power. Human capital theory holds that it is the key competences, skills, knowledge and abilities of the

workforce that contributes to employees' performance. According to Human Capital Theory, training is an investment because it is believed that it could potentially bestow private and social benefits. Human capital theorists believe that training and earning power are correlated, which means, theoretically, that the more education one has, the more one can earn, and that the skills, knowledge and abilities that education provides can be transferred into the work in terms of productivity and profitability (Dae-bong, 2009).

The first applications of human capital theory in economics are by Becker and Mincer of the Chicago school. In his original approach, Becker (1964) develops a model of individual investment in human capital. In this view, human capital is similar to "physical means of production". According to Becker (1962), investing in human capital means "all activities that influence future real income through the embedding of resources in people". Human capital investments are expenditures on education, training, health, information, and labour mobility (Weisbrod (1966)). The accumulation of human capital takes place in three ways:

1. Formal schooling (i.e., the individual devotes his whole time to learning), on-the-job training (i.e. post-school training provided by the current employer), and off-the-job training (i.e. post school training provided by "for-profit" proprietary institutions) (Lynch (1991)).

2. These investments involve initial costs (direct tuition expenditures, foregone earnings during schooling, and reduced wages during training).
3. In order to gain a return on this investment in the future (Becker (1992)). The return to education is based on two interrelated channels: increased earnings for the worker and higher productivity for the firm as well as increased employment probabilities (Bloch and Smith (1977))
4. In a nutshell, there are two key determinants of the return to education: the costs of education and the employment opportunities after education (Rephann (2002)). The key element in the model by Becker (1964) is that education is an investment of time and foregone earnings for higher rates of return in later periods. As with investments in physical capital, a human capital investment is only undertaken by wealth-maximizing individuals or firms if the expected return from the investment (which is equal to the net internal rate of return) is greater than the market rate of interest. Regarding the costs of human capital investments, Perri (2003) remarks that - if the best alternative of an investment in specialized human capital is investing in another specialization of human capital - then the measure of foregone earnings has to cover the complete opportunity costs of specialized education. These opportunity costs describe

what could have been earned with the best alternative specialized education.

5. According to Haley (1973), there are two streams of human capital literature. The first analyses individual investments in human capital in order to estimate the internal rate of return (based on Becker (1964)). The second stream of literature deals with the life-cycle of earnings. The individual faces a trade-off between producing additional human capital and renting his existing stock of human capital in the labour market (based on Ben-Porath (1967)).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Will there be a significant relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance?
2. Will staff training significantly predict employees' performance?
3. Will there be a significant difference between employees' performance of highly motivated employee and employee who are not highly motivated?
4. Will there be gender differences in employee performance?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

1. There will be a significant positive relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance.
2. Staff training will significantly predict employees' performance.
3. Highly motivated employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare

to their counterpart who are not highly motivated.

4. Male employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their female counterpart.

METHOD

RESEARCH SETTING

This study was conducted in Lagos. Specifically, the study focused on the employees of NetCom Africa Limited in Lagos. The reason for the choice of the company is because of its strategic importance as a service provider to other companies and its high digitalized system of operation as well as its ability to attract highly knowledgeable and highly skilled staff from different parts of the country. Moreover, the company attracts employees from the diverse religion, ethnicity and backgrounds. Hence this research was a reflection of adults from different demographic groups.

POPULATION

The population includes staff of NetCom Africa Limited from different units of the company including accounts, customer care, IT and data units.

PARTICIPANTS

A total of one hundred and forty-five (145) staff of NetCom Africa Limited took part in the study. They were drawn from different units of the company and included male and female staff from different age grades, religion, and ethnic groups. The demographic characteristics of respondents are as follows: On gender, males were 70 (48.3%) and females 75

(51.7%). On age, 18 - 25 years were 19 (13.1%), 26 - 33 years were 48 (33.1%), 34 - 41 years were 52 (35.9%), 42 - 49 years were 18 (12.4%) while 50 - 57 years were 8 (5.5%). On ethnicity, Yoruba were 80 (55.2), Hausa were 2 (1.4%), Igbo were 29 (20.0%) while others were 34 (23.4%). On marital status, Single were 76 (52.4%), Married were 67 (46.2%), Separated were 1 (0.7%) while divorced were 1 (0.7%). On religion, Christians were 123 (84.8%), Muslims were 21 (14.5%) while Traditional were 1 (0.7%). On the duration of years at company, 0-5 Years were 103 (71.0%) while 6 years and above were 42 (29.0%). Only those who are *bonafide* and current staff of the telecommunications firms will participate in the study.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The design for the present study was ex post facto research design. The justification for the choice of research design was because the variables are believed to have had their influence and the job of the researcher was merely to observe the changes in the dependent variables. The independent variables in the study were staff training and motivation, while the dependent variable is job performance.

INSTRUMENTS

The instrument for data collection was a well-structured questionnaire consisting of four sections A-D.

Section A of the questionnaire

measured participants' demographic information such as age, sex, marital status and educational qualification.

Section B: Job performance will be measured with The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (Koopmans, 2015), which is an 18-item scale developed in The Netherlands to measure the three main dimensions of job performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. All items have a recall period of three months and a 5-point rating scale (0 = seldom to 4 = always for task and contextual performance; and 0 = never to 4 = often for counterproductive work behaviours). A mean score for each IWPQ scale can be calculated by adding the item scores, and dividing their sum by the number of items in the scale. Reliability of the scores was adequate ($\alpha = .83$, $\alpha = .87$, and $\alpha = .77$ for task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behaviours dimensions, respectively). Cronbach alpha is $\alpha .87$. Some of the items include, "I managed to plan my work so that I finished it on time, and I took on challenging tasks when they were available".

Section C: Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS): this is an 18-item measure of work motivation theoretically grounded in self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The WEIMS's validation results showed the adequacy of both its construct validity and internal consistency. Its factorial

structure was also invariant across samples, and its quasi-simplex pattern and relationships with psychological correlates further supported the self-determination continuum. The internal consistency for the scale was .90. Cronbach's alphas assessing the internal consistency of the WEIMS's six subscales. Alpha values ranged from .64 to .83, suggesting adequate reliability (IM .80; INTEG .83; IDEN .67; INTRO .70; EXT .77; AMO .64). the scale has good reliability (alphas ranging from .60 to .84).

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Questionnaire was used to collect data from participants in the study. Permission was obtained from the management of NetCom Africa Limited before the participants were asked to complete the questionnaires. The respondents were informed of the purpose and objectives of the study, and its seriousness. Direction on how to complete the questionnaires were given and, they were encouraged to be as truthful as possible in their responses. The administration of the questionnaires involved only the researcher since the online method of questionnaire distribution was utilized. Direction on how to complete the questionnaire was given and participants were guided in proper completion of the questionnaire.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data collected was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 22). Hypotheses were accepted at .05 level of significance. Hypothesis one was tested using Pearson Correlation while hypothesis

two was tested using Simple Linear regression analysis, while. Hypothesis three and four were tested using independent t-test.

RESULTS
DEMOGRAPHICS

This chapter presents the demographic characteristics and the analysis of the study conducted, followed by interpretation of the same. In this study, a total of One hundred and Forty-Five (145) questionnaires were analysed for the purpose of this study.

Table 1: Data Presentation on Demographic Characteristics of Respondents.

| Socio Demographic variables | F (%) |
|-------------------------------------|------------|
| Gender | |
| Male | 70 (48.3) |
| Female | 75 (51.7) |
| Age | |
| 18 - 25 years | 19 (13.1) |
| 26 - 33 years | 48 (33.1) |
| 34 - 41 years | 52 (35.9) |
| 42 - 49 years | 18 (12.4) |
| 50 - 57 years | 8 (5.5) |
| Ethnicity | |
| Yoruba | 80 (55.2) |
| Hausa | 2 (1.4) |
| Igbo | 29 (20.0) |
| Others | 34 (23.4) |
| Marital Status | |
| Single | 76 (52.4) |
| Married | 67 (46.2) |
| Separated | 1 (0.7) |
| Divorced | 1 (0.7) |
| Religion | |
| Christianity | 123 (84.8) |
| Islam | 21 (14.5) |
| Traditional | 1 (0.7) |
| Duration of Years at company | |
| 0-5 Years | 103 (71.0) |
| 6 Years and above | 42 (29.0) |

Source: fieldwork 2023

From the above table showing the socio demographic characteristics of participants that were used for the study. Gender of participants we had

participants who are Male 70 (48.3%) and Female 75 (51.7%). Age of participants we had participants who are 18 - 25 years 19 (13.1%), 26 - 33 years 48 (33.1%), 34 - 41 years 52 (35.9%), 42 - 49 years 18 (12.4%) and 50 - 57 years 8 (5.5%). Ethnicity of participants we had participants who are Yoruba 80 (55.2%), Hausa 2 (1.4%), Igbo 29 (20.0%) and Others 34 (23.4%). Marital Status of participants we had participants who are Single 76 (52.4%), Married 67 (46.2%), Separated 1 (0.7%) and Divorced 1 (0.7%). Religion of participants we had participants who are Christians 123 (84.8%), Islam 21 (14.5%) and Traditional 1 (0.7%). Duration of years at work of participants we had participants who have spent between 0-5 years 103 (71.0%) and 6 years and above 42 (29.0%).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics Table showing mean and standard deviation of Employee Performance, Job Motivation and Staff Training.

| | N | Minimu m | Maximu m | Mea n | Std. Deviation |
|----------------------|----|-------------|-------------|----------|-------------------|
| Employee Performance | 14 | 18.00 | 56.00 | 40.6 | 5.35 |
| Job Motivation | 14 | 18.00 | 84.00 | 62.7 | 10.08 |
| Staff Training | 14 | 35.00 | 60.00 | 50.1 | 5.38 |

Source: fieldwork 2023

Hypothesis Testing

This section presents the hypotheses that were tested, and results analysed. Seven hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 1 was tested using Pearson correlation analysis, Hypothesis 2 was tested with Linear Regression analysis, Hypothesis 3 was tested with

t-test for independent measures, while Hypothesis 4 was also tested with t-test for independent measures.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant positive relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance.

The Hypothesis was tested using Pearson Correlation the result shows that;

Table 3: Pearson Correlations

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | |
|------------------------|-------|-------|---------|--------|---|
| 1 Employee Performance | 40.60 | 5.35 | 1 | | |
| 2 Job Motivation | 62.72 | 10.08 | -.141 | 1 | |
| 3 Staff Training | 50.12 | 5.38 | -.224** | .240** | 1 |

Table 3 reveal that Staff Training and employee performance are significantly and negatively correlated ($r = -.224, p < .05$), while Staff Training and job motivation were found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .240, p < .05$). However, job motivation and employee performance were found to have no significant correlated ($r = -.141, p > .05$). At such we reject the hypothesis which state that “There will be a significant positive relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance”.

Hypothesis 2: Staff training will significantly predict employees' performance

Table 4: Simple Linear regression results for staff training on employees' performance,

| Variable | β | Beta | T | Si | R | R ² | F | Pv |
|----------------|---------|------|--------|------|-------|----------------|-------|------|
| (Constant) | 51.773 | | 12.606 | .000 | .224* | .050 | 7.517 | <.05 |
| Staff Training | -.223 | | -2.744 | .007 | | | | |

a. Dependent Variable: Employees' Performance.

It was revealed that Staff training serves as a significant predictor of employees' performance given the Beta and P value scores to be ($\beta = -.223, P < .05$). Furthermore, Staff training is responsible for 5.0% variance in employees' performance ($R^2 = .050$). which implies that Staff training explained 5.0% employees' performance of the participants, at such we accept the hypothesis which state that “Staff training will significantly predict employees' performance”.

Hypothesis 3: Highly motivated employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their counterpart who are not highly motivated.

Table 5: t-test independent

| Employee Motivation | N | Mean | SD | Tcal | Df | Si | pv |
|---------------------|---|------|-----|--------|----|------|------|
| Highly motivated | 9 | 40.0 | 5.0 | -1.663 | 14 | .099 | >.05 |
| Less Motivated | 8 | 41.6 | 5.8 | | | | |

Result is not significant at $p > .05$

The above table shows that, the t-test was unable to show a statistically significant differences between employees' performance of Highly motivated ($M = 40.09, s = 5.04$) and Less Motivated ($M = 41.66, s = 5.85$) [$t(143) = -1.663, p = .099$]. Which implies that we reject the alternate hypothesis which states that “Highly

motivated employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their counterpart who are not highly motivated.”

Hypothesis 4: Male employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their female counterpart.

Table 6: *t-test independent*

| Gender | N | Mean | SD | Tcal | Df | Sig | pv |
|--------|----|-------|------|-------|-----|------|------|
| Male | 70 | 40.34 | 5.43 | -.558 | 143 | .578 | >.05 |
| Female | 75 | 40.84 | 5.29 | | | | |

Result is not significant at $p > .05$

The above table shows that, the t-test was able to show a statistically significant differences between employees' performance of Male ($M = 40.34, s = 5.43$) and Female ($M = 40.84, s = 5.29$), [$t(143) = -.558, p = .578$]. Which implies that we reject the alternate hypothesis which states that “Male employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their female counterpart.”

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The first hypothesis stated that there would be a significant positive relationship between staff training, motivation and employees' performance.

It was revealed that staff training and employee performance were significantly and negatively related, while staff training and job motivation were found to be significantly and positively correlated. However, job motivation and employee performance were found to have no significant

correlation. As such, the hypothesis was rejected.

Many studies have been carried out on this subject matter. Some of those studies disagreed with findings of this study. For example, Owusu (2012) conducted research on the effects of motivation on employee performance of commercial bank in Ghana and the researcher used salary, fringed benefits, promotion, and loans as motivational factors. The findings of the research indicate that employees are interested in enhanced salaries, fringed benefits, promotion, and car loans as motivating elements sufficient to push employees of the telecommunications to give out their best. Persistent interest in and importance of motivation is related to numerous positive organizational outcomes, such as: increased productivity decreased absenteeism and reduced employee turnover.

According to Aschalew, (2015) lack of motivation among employees is the major factor of poor job performance in Anbassa City Bus Service Enterprise and poor services delivery is linked by lack of motivation among employees. According to Addis Ababa Bureau of city administration there are attitudinal problems among the enterprise’s drivers and fare collectors. There is also a high turnover of drivers and fare collectors to other private companies because of a low salary scale which is less than other similar transport organizations. The working environment, compensation package and future prospects offered by the organization to the frontline staff

would make a significant difference in their motivation levels and consequently the quality of service rendered to the passengers.

The second hypothesis stated that staff training will significantly predict employees' performance. It was revealed that staff training serves as a significant predictor of employees' performance. Furthermore, Staff training is responsible for 5.0% variance in employees' performance which implies that Staff training explained 5.0% employees' performance of the participants. Consequently, the hypothesis was accepted.

The study is in line with human capital development theory which states that training and education are the key competences, skills, knowledge and abilities of the workforce that contributes to performance. According to Human Capital Theory, training is an investment because it is believed that it could potentially bestow private and social benefits. Human capital theorists believe that training and earning power are correlated, which means, theoretically, that the more education one has, the more one can earn, and that the skills, knowledge and abilities that education provides can be transferred into the work in terms of productivity and profitability (Dae-bong, 2009).

Other studies concur with the findings. For example, Cross (2018) attempted to find out the impact which training has employee performance bearing in mind that the aggregate of individual

performance will culminate to organizational performance. Data was collected from 304 respondents who were drawn using Taro Yamane sample size determination technique through structured questionnaire. The data collected was subjected to both descriptive and inferential techniques were used to test formulated hypotheses. The study showed that employee skill, knowledge and ability gained from training has significant effect on productivity. Further findings reveal that training has effect on employee commitment to the organization.

Also, Ahsan, Shahadat and David (2016) evaluated the effect of training on employees' performance in Nigeria hotel industry (Sheraton Hotel and Resorts, Lagos) as a case study. The research assessed the performance of employees at Sheraton hotel and resorts, Lagos, based on its objective and to enhance organizational effectiveness by virtue of training in Nigeria hotel industry. It is established that a significant relationship exists between the level of training and incentives to motivate employees' in enhancing their performance in Sheraton hotel and resort, Lagos.

A study in France (d'Arcimoles, 1997) found that the more training given, the better the economic performance. Training was permanently and clearly associated with an increase in profitability and productivity. Raising the proportion of workers trained in an industry by 5% points (say, from the average of 10% to 15%) was associated with a 4% increase in value

added per worker and a 1.6% increase in wages. They note that this level of increase has also been found by other researchers like Blundell et al. (1996) and Booth (1991). Collier et al. (2002) have found that increasing investment in training reduces the chance of firm closure. For small firms it was the training of craft and manual workers that made the difference, for larger firms it was training of professional, clerical and secretarial employees. Others have found evidence on benefits from training in terms of motivation and attitude; Booth and Zoega (2000) suggested that training fosters a common firm culture and helps attract good quality workers; Green and Felstead et al. (2000) found that training had a downward impact on employee turnover.

The third hypothesis stated that highly motivated employees would have a significant high score on employees' performance compared to their counterpart who are not highly motivated. The result failed to show a statistically significant difference between employees' performance of highly motivated compared with those who are not. This implies that the hypothesis was rejected. The study contradicts the motivation theories. For example, the Content theories which place emphasis on what motivates and are concerned with identifying people's needs and their relative strengths, and the goals they pursue in order to satisfy these needs. Main content theories include: Maslow's hierarchy needs model; Alderfer's modified need hierarchy model; Herzberg's two factor theory

and McClelland's achievement motivation theory (Koontz and Wehrich, 1990; Child, 1984).

Similarly, Akinyi-Omollo (2015) sought to assess the effect that motivation had on the job of workers of the Kenya Commercial Bank in Migori County. The study also focused on the demotivating factors like delay of promotion, no clear career progression, unreasonable load, long working hours and lack of appreciation from the managers. Based on these the study indicates that monetary rewards significantly affect the performance of the employee in the organization.

Oluseyi and Ayo (2009) argued that job performance is related to the willingness and openness to try and achieve new aspects of the job which in turn will bring about an increase in the individual's productivity. Job performance can be defined as "all the behaviours employees engage in while at work". A good employee performance is necessary for the organization, since an organization's success is dependent upon the employee's creativity, innovation and commitment (Kreisman, 2002). Chaudhary and Sharma (2012) think that motivated employees are more productive than non-motivated employees. If employee is satisfied and happy, then he/she will do his/her work in the best amazing manner. The result will be positive and will motivate other employees in office. In order to increase work effectiveness and performance, it is important to address a number of issues, including

increasing motivation among employees, making them feel satisfied with their job and increase their-job related wellbeing in general (Bogdanova & Naunivska, 2008).

Christain, Ghaza and Slaughter (2011), Kahn (1990) and May, Gilson and Harter (2004) linked motivation and employee performance. Many studies found indirect relationship between motivation and employee performance. They found that motivation and employee performance increase a firm productivity; most scholars have linked motivation and performance to increase profit and employee performance. There was presumed the relationship between work motivation (intrinsic & extrinsic) and employee performance.

The fourth hypothesis stated that male employee will have a significant high score on employees' performance compare to their female counterpart. The result was able to show a statistically significant differences between employees' performance of Male and Female. Which implies that we accept the alternate hypothesis.

Several studies (Beisiegel, 2003; Bellenger et al., 1984; Busch & Bush, 1978; De Vaus & McAllister, 1991; Guppy & Rick, 1996; Huddleston et al., 2002; Sempane et al., 2002; Senior, 2003), did not show any significant gender difference in job performance. All of these studies employed correlation analysis in their assessment of the said possible relationship, and their samples covered several hundred respondents

in a number of different industries, notably pharmaceutical and retail, in both the public and private sectors.

CONCLUSION

General conclusion from the findings, the findings reveal that while increase in staff training does not necessarily lead to increase in employee performance, staff training increases the level of motivation for the job. However, no relationship was found between job motivation and employees' performance. The findings reveal that staff who are well-trained, perform better than those who are not trained. Similarly, it showed that when employees are motivated, they do not necessarily perform better. It also revealed that when companies train their staff, it surely leads to better performance in their jobs. However, staff who are more motivated do not necessarily perform better than those who are less motivated.

Also, the findings showed that male staff reported higher performance level than their female counterparts. The study concludes that if the right employees are motivated and sent on training through the systematic training procedure of identifying and selecting employees for training, there would be a significant improvement on the organizational performance. Therefore, for NetCom Africa Limited to become more productive and remain in business, especially in this era of increased global competitiveness and growing complexity of the work environment,

adequate training need assessment should be conducted before embarking on motivation or sending employees on training. In addition, NetCom Africa Limited should have a mechanism for evaluating employee post training performance. Emphasis should be on skill gap and not on sentiment when selecting employees for motivation or training.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings and conclusion of the study the following recommendation are made:

1. Seminars and workshops should be organized for the Human Resource department on the importance of systematic approach of training and proper procedure to follow in identifying skill gaps in the various departments.
2. Heads of Departments should be sensitized on the importance of identifying the right people to be motivated or sent on training.
3. Recommending employees for motivation or training based on favoritism should be discouraged by the management.
4. A mechanism should be created for proper assessment and evaluation of employee performance after motivation or training.
5. The organisations should ensure also that adequate training design, rich in content is used for employee training. The content should be able to include all the identified skill gaps, while making sure that a trainer who is knowledgeable and experienced

in that area is contracted for the training delivery.

6. Employees should be encouraged to embrace other developmental courses that could impact on their general performance and increase organizational performance.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO KNOWLEDGE

Employee motivation and training enhances the skills, capabilities and knowledge of employees for doing a particular job, thereby improving performance. Employee motivation and training molds the thinking of employees and leads to quality performance of employees. It is continuous and never ending in nature. The objective of both employee motivation and training programmes, whether on-the-job or off-the-job is to bring about a positive transformation process in the employees' skills, knowledge of the job and improve their performance which in turn will improve organizational performance.

This study will contribute to knowledge through the adoption of the recommendations contained here. It will also provide information to different companies about the usefulness and effectiveness of motivation and training programmes in relation to individual and organizational performance.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH OR STUDIES

It is recommended that further study can be extended to different private and public institutions to assess the relationship between employee training, motivation and employee

performance. The sample size can be enlarged in those institutions and different statistical tool can be used in the research. Other researchers should consider investigating the relationship between employees' training, motivation and performance in the Higher Learning Institutions as they are responsible for providing quality of education. Furthermore, due to the results from the respondents who's not sure on the factors like Employees Equal Treatment, Employee Social

Gathering, and Employee Health Insurance are among of the motivator factors, the researcher may further study on these factors especially on learning institutions. Future research should seek additional performance outcomes at the job level from larger samples with increased statistical power. Measures with few items are more prone to unreliability than summated measures with greater numbers of items.

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**INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED INJUSTICE ON ORGANIZATION
COMMITMENT AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT AMONG STAFFS IN
SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

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ABSTRACT.

This study examined the influence of Perceived injustice on organizational commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools, it also explores the influence of Perceived injustice on Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools, lastly, the research assessed the relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools. A survey research design was employed for this study using questionnaire as mode of data collection. A total number of 250 participants were used for this study. Participants selected are staffs in selected secondary schools. The result of the study revealed that Perceived Injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Organization Commitment among staffs in selected secondary school given the Beta and P value ($\beta = .796$, $p < .05$), while Perceived Injustice is responsible for 15.3% variance in Organization Commitment (R square = .153). Secondly, result of the study revealed that Perceived injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Employee Engagement given the Beta and P value scores to be ($B = .609$, $p < .05$), while Perceived injustice is responsible for 34.5% variance in Employee Engagement (R square = .345). Lastly, result also reveal that Perceived injustice and Organizational Commitment were significantly and positively correlated ($r = .392$, $p < .05$), while Employee Engagement and Perceived injustice were also found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .587$, $p < .05$), also Engagement and Organizational Commitment were also found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .588$, $p < .05$). The study therefore concludes that Perceived injustice may lead to feelings of anger, resentment, and disillusionment among staffs, which can erode their sense of commitment to the school and their willingness to engage fully in their work. Staffs who feel that they are being treated unfairly may become disengaged and less motivated, which can have a negative impact on their job performance and overall satisfaction with their work.

Keywords: *Perceived injustice, organizational commitment and Employee Engagement*

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The complex aspects inherent to human relations have long been the subject matter of scholars and

researchers in the social, human, and cultural domains. Significant implications for the agenda of human resource management have changed in

work environments (Evans, Pucik, & Tanure, 2007). The issue of deverticalization (unbundling) of organizational structures and the emergence of a new way for individuals to move forward in their professional lives is added to this phenomenon (Balassiano & Costa, 2006). Questions concerning the centralization/decentralization of power, equity and justice in relation to employees, attachment of individuals to organizations, among others, need to be considered in light of their impact on human resources, particularly those related to understanding how organizational commitment and work engagement is generated and sustained. Organizational justice is a key factor associated with the success of every organization. In order to keep employees satisfied, committed, and loyal to the organization, the organization needs to be fair in its system regarding distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. When employees feel that they are treated fairly by the organization in every aspect, they are inclined to show more positive attitude and behaviours like job satisfaction. Issues like allocating monetary resources, hiring employees in organizations, policy making and policy implications that affect decision maker and the people who are affected from such decisions require special attention in respect of justice (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; as cited in Akanbi, & Ofoegbu, 2013). Organizational justice is considered a fundamental requirement for the effective functioning of organizations.

Fairness perceptions holds an important position in the decisions and processes as per human resource aspect (Thurston & McNall, 2010; Jawahar, 2007 as cited in Akanbi, & Ofoegbu, 2013) such as pay, benefits and other compensation facets. In actual fact, fairness in compensation received, decisions regarding the compensation-related process and the way this information is communicated to all the employees hold an integral role in formulating the responses about the compensatory system (Milkovich & Newman, 2008).

Organizational justice is an essential component and predictor of successful organizations. Organization that is fair and just in its procedures, policies, interactions and distribution systems, employees of that organization give better response to the organization (in terms of their positive behaviours and productivity). Enhancing organizational justice resulted in improved outcomes from employees. Managers should take actions to improve employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work engagement in order to decrease employees' turnover intention with the help of distributive and procedural justice (Abu-Elanain, 2010).

Distributive justice concern people's perceptions of the fairness of the distribution of resources between people (Greenberg & Baron, 2003). It also refers to the perceived fairness of the amounts of compensation employee receive (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Therefore, distributive justice perspective focuses

on the fairness of the evaluations received relative to the work performed (Greenberg 1986). Cropanzano, Bowen, and Gilliland (2007) distinguish three allocation rules that can lead to distributive justice if they are applied appropriately: equality (to each the same), equity (to each in accordance with contributions), and need (to each in accordance with the most urgency). Distributive justice is concerned with the reality that not all workers are treated alike; the allocation of outcome is differentiated in workplace (Cropanzano et.al. 2007). Dailey & Kirk (1992) found that employee may rationalize their desire to quit by finding 'evidence' which illustrates how unfairly rewards are distributed. Furthermore, distributive justice seems to play a salient role for employee in evaluating their employing organization (Loi, Ngo, & Foley 2006). Employee would be more attached to their organization if they cannot obtain the same benefits in another firm (Lee et.al. 2007).

Warner (2005) stated that procedural justice often is more predictive of a variety of work attitudes, including organizational commitment. In particular, any attempt to improve organizational effectiveness requires a higher degree of commitment among members of an organization (Elankumaran, 2004). That is, organizational commitment is important motivational variables for any organization. Organizational commitment has emerged an important variable in organisational research. It has drawn the attention of

management scientist and organisational psychologists. These variables are being studied with different prospective in the organisation. It has great importance and significance in organisational development. Large numbers of studies have been conducted to see the organizational commitment among organisational employees.

Researchers have discovered organizational commitment as a vital attitudinal predictor of employee behavior and goal (Mowday, Porter, & Steers 1982). Organizational commitment has a significant position in the study of organizational behavior. This is in part due to the range of studies that have exposed relationship between workplace attitude and behaviour, and organizational commitment (Koch & Steers, 1978). In addition, Batemen & Strasser (1984) affirm that the purpose of examining organizational commitment is linked to; (a) worker behaviours and performance efficiency, (b) attitudinal, affective, and cognitive constructs like job satisfaction, (c) features of the worker's job and role, like task and (d) individual uniqueness of the worker like age, job tenure.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Past researches, such as that of Eshun & Duah, 2011, have indicated that financial incentives or rewards may not be enough to motivate employees to greater productivity, commitment and engagement. Most managers in Nigeria believe that the only means of driving employees to work is just by

increasing salaries and wages in addition to using the autocratic management styles of leadership (Ushie, Agba, Agba, & Chime, 2010). As a result of this notion, it is observed that commitment and engagement of employees to their organisations has been on a steady decline (Nwanpa, 2014). Workers, especially those without permanent work contract with organizations are now disinterested in their work because of the perception that the psychological support needed to achieve is missing (Johnson, 2012). In other words, the lack of perception of equity and justice in treatment by managers could become source of discomfort and can leads to employee not engaging their work properly.

Prior research has contributed to our understanding of organizational commitment and employee engagement; however, there are several reasons to conduct additional research. Among which is the fact that, though several important variables appear to have been researched on but few appears to have investigated perception of justice, and their influence on organizational commitment in this part of the world. For example, few efforts have been made to understand how an employee's perceived equity and justice influences their organizational commitment especially among FMCG employees. It is in an effort to bridge this gap that this investigation is being carried out, to examine how Perceived injustice can Influence organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in guarantee

trust bank.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study is to investigate the Influence of Perceived injustice on organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools. The specific objectives however include:

- I. To examine the influence of Perceived injustice on organizational commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools.
- II. To explore the influence of Perceived injustice on Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools.
- III. To assess the relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Justice is one of the concepts that the collective wisdom of all people supports it. Selznick was the first person to study the concept of social justice as the foundation of modern industrial societies which he was referring to the concept of having equal treatment of all individuals and also creation of opportunities for the development of individual capabilities (Safarzadeh, 2010). A notion of justice and fairness also arise in organizational environments and among employees and generally is referred to as organizational justice. According to Greenberg (1987) organizational justice is organizational

justice (Bahari-fard et al, 2011). Justice is a complex and multi-dimensional concept and it has very complex and distinct terms (Eberin & Tatum, 2008). In the literature, organizational justice is identifiable in the four following dimensions which include: Distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, and informational justice.

a. Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is grounded in equity theory of Adams (1995) (Ince et al, 2011). (Colquitt et al, 2000) argue that before 1975 study of justice was generally centered on distributive justice (Safarzadeh, 2010). The results were also confirmed by other researchers, for instance Konovsky (2000) stated that much of the research on organizational justice focuses on the distribution of payments or rewards associated with it. (Konovsky, 2000). Individuals, evaluate the fairness of the exchange between people and organizations by the comparison between inputs and outputs. (Yi & Gong, 2008).

According to Greenberg (1987) Distributive Justice refers to the employees' justice perceived from reward or actual output. (Baker, 2006) and in fact, distributive justice is defined as a fair distribution of resources such as wages and benefits (Blader & Tyler, 2003). In other words, distributive justice is not just limited to the fairness of the payments but also include a wide array of organizational outcomes such as promotion, rewards, punishments, business programs, benefits and

performance evaluations (Taylor, 1984).

b. Procedural Justice

Over the past years, the emphasis which was solely on the allocation of rewards (Distributive justice) centered on the processes governing this assignment, was changed. Since the beginning of 1980 research attention has been focused on the procedural justice (McDowall & Fletcher, 2004). Study of procedural justice is the result of Thibaut and Walker's researches in mid 70s (Afjeh, 2006). The word "procedure" as it is used in research in the field of justice consists of a series of sequential steps to guide actions and judgments in the allocation of resources. When people are dealing with these procedures they start to judge on the fairness of these procedures (Rezayian, 2011). In fact, procedural justice is perceived fairness of the processes that organizations use to make decisions about the distribution of resources (Abu-Alanine, 2010; Nadiri & Tavana, 2010).

c. Interactional Justice

The third type of justice is interactional justice and is introduced as a justice independent of the other two (distributive justice and procedural justice). Today, most researchers believe that Interactional justice is a field or part of the procedural justice but some researchers have questioned this perspective (Afjeh, 2006). Interactional justice was proposed by Meg and Bass (1986) and is related to personal interactions between

individuals (Abu-Alanine, 2010, Nadiri & Tavana, 2010). In fact, people perceive justice through the perception of their interactions with others (McDowall & Fletcher, 2004). In other words, Interactional justice focuses on the aspects of interpersonal and group communication (Abvalanyn, 2010). In this regard certain behaviors are recognized as fair where as other behaviors are considered as inappropriate and unfair (Afjeh, 2006).

Organizational Commitment

Numerous definitions of organizational commitment are established in the literature. Bateman & Strasser state that organizational commitment has been operationally defined as “multidimensional in nature, involving worker’s loyalty to the organization, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, degree of goal and value congruency with the organization, and desire to maintain membership”. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) recognized commitment-related attitudes and commitment-related behaviors. Porter et al. (1974) converse three main components of organizational commitment as being “a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership”. Sheldon (1971) described commitments as being an encouraging assessment of the organization and the organizations objectives. According to Buchanan (1974) most scholars define

commitment as being a bond between an individual (the employee) and the organization (the employer), though his own definition of commitment.

1.7.1.4 Types of Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) and Dunham et al (1994) identified three types of commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment: is described as the identification, involvement, and emotional attachment that a worker has to its organization and objectives (O’Reily & Chatman; Meyer & Allen, 1993; Mowday et al, 1997). Porter et al (1974) additionally exemplify affective commitment by three features (1) “belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values, (2) a willingness to focus effort on helping the organization achieve its goals, and (3) a desire to maintain organizational membership”. Mowday et al (1979) in advance state that affective communication is “when the employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals in order to maintain membership to facilitate the goal”. Meyer & Allen (1997) in persistence say that workers willingly keep attachment and this is their commitment to the organization.

Continuance commitment: is the enthusiasm to stay with an organization due to the investment that the worker has with “nontransferable” investments. Nontransferable investments comprise effects like relationships with coworker, retirement, or effects that are unique to

the organization (Reichers, 1985). Continuance commitment also comprises characteristics like years of employment or remuneration that the worker may collect that are exclusive to the organization (Reichers, 1985). Meyer & Allen (1997) additionally clarify that workers who share continuance commitment with their organization frequently make it very complicated for a worker to exit the company.

Normative commitment: is the commitment that an individual feel that they have to the institute or their sense of debt to their workplace. In 1982, Weiner argued normative commitment as being a “generalized value of loyalty and duty”. Meyer and Allen (1991) supported this type of commitment before the definition by Bolon, with their definition of normative commitment being “a feeling of obligation”. It is proposed that normative commitment is normal because of the individual upbringing in the society. Normative commitment can be elucidated by other commitments like religion, family, marriage etc. so when commitment to one organization is being mentioned, employee mostly believe they have a moral obligation to the organization (Wiener, 1982).

Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993) believed the three types of commitment are a psychological state “that either characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization or has the implications to affect whether the employee will continue with the organization”.

Meyer et al (1993) consistently opined that research generally shows that workers with a strong affective commitment will stay with an organization for they chose to, while those with a strong continuance commitment stay because they have no choice, and workers with a normative commitment stay with their organization for the reason that they felt that they have to. Meyer & Allen (1997) describe a committed worker as being one “remains with an organization, present at work regularly, work diligently and more, protect corporate assets, and believes in the organizational goals”. This type of workers positively adds value to the organization due to their commitment to the organization.

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

The literature revealed that there are two important variables that are investigated in terms of commitment linked attitudes and commitment-related behaviors, the factors being antecedents and outcomes. There are several researches on both the antecedents and the outcomes of organizational commitment and both of these factors present highly preferred information to managers, and others investigating organizational behavior. Frequently study investigates one or two types of commitment. Affective and communicative commitment has been investigated more than normative commitment. The three types of commitment have been investigated in both the private, public, and nonprofit sector, although there are much more

study concluded on workers in the public and private sector. Literature has revealed that antecedents of affective commitment are investigated in the structure of personal characteristics or what the worker add to the organization. There have been diverse results concerning what factors influence superior commitment. DeCotis & Summers (1987) opined that a commitment profile does not subsist so there can be no relationship between one's personal features and their commitment to an organization.

Mowday et al (1992), Steers (1977), all studied personal characteristics role and found that the characteristics and experiences that an individual brings to a workplace has a tendency to predict their commitment to the organization. Also, Allen & Meyer, 1993; Buchanan, 1974; and Hall et al. (1977) found that organizational commitment is positively associated with age and time in organization of employees. Investigations have also shown that workers traits like leadership and communication styles have effect on organizational commitment (Decottis & Summers, 1987).

Continuance commitment investigates two antecedents: investments and alternatives. These researches frequently examine investments like money, time, or effort. Florkowski & Schuster, 1992, states that profit sharing and job satisfaction is positively related to commitment. Meyer & Allen (1997) stated that workers must be able identify alternatives for there to be relationship

between employee and organization and continuance commitment. Researches investigating the different types of work sectors have shown that public sector workers have higher levels of continuance commitment than their private sectors counterpart (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Perry, 1997). This is because of the antecedents of government work motivation. Because government workers have high levels of commitment to the organization in the past, its goals due to its argued that they are a diverse type of workers, with strong principles as well as job security (Perry, 1997). Lio (1995) states "facing today's difficult times, many public employees appreciate the relatively secure job situation associated with public employment and consider it a major reason for their organizational commitment".

Researches on Normative commitment are very limited in literature because it is more recently identified compare to others. Meyer & Allen (1997) started investigating normative commitment in their very new studies. They look to recognize the advancement of the psychological contract between the workers and the organization. Psychological contracts are the idea that an individual has about what will be swapped between them, the worker and the organization, thus control their responsibility to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Among the most arresting characteristics in organizational behavior are the awareness of how organizations distinguish worker's

ideals and the way they demonstrate their admiration (Morris & Steers, 1980; Brooke, Russel, & Price, 1988). Investigations conducted from both Business and Organizational Psychology perspectives, have revealed that organizational affective commitment can be clarified to a great length by perceptions of justice (Naumann, Bennett, Bies, & Martin, 1998; Mcfarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Kim & Mauborgue, 1991, 1996, 1997). Unfortunately, there are incompatibilities in such researches, and at times full of loopholes in results and do not enable evaluation or generalizations, given the area bias and/or different ways of operationalization of concept by the researchers (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Literature has also indicated the predictive role of organizational justice in organizational trust (Connell et al., 2003; Kulekci Akyavuz, 2017; Ruder, 2003; Ullah & Rabsana, 2013) as well as the predictive role of organizational trust in employee engagement (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). The most recent, bibliometric analysis (Sheeraz et al., 2021) showed that researchers explored procedural justice more as compared to other dimensions of organizational justice. To bridge this gap, the present study aimed to get an insight into all three types of justice. Moreover, the mediating role of organizational trust has been established for a few employee and organizational level variables (e.g., Aruoren et al., 2021; Aryee et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2015; Iqbal & Ahmad, 2016). Although,

existing empirical evidence revealed well-established associations between organizational justice, trust, and work engagement, the mediating role of trust in paths between organizational justice and work engagement is yet to be explored. A thorough search of the relevant literature yielded only one study that explored the role of one type of organizational justice (i.e., procedural justice) in the job engagement of employees considering felt trust as mediating mechanism (Melhem & Al Qudah, 2019). In their study, the variable “felt trust” was defined as the feeling of employees being trusted by their supervisors. In light of existing literature, the greater interest was to focus on the mediational role of organizational trust between all three types of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and employee engagement (job engagement and organizational engagement).

Equity Theory

According to Gregory and Albritton (2010), equity theory had its origin in the discipline of psychology. This theory states that employees assess their inputs and outcomes and judge fairness by comparing them to the inputs and outcomes of others (Almar 2005; Park, Williams & Turner, 2010). Inputs are individual characteristics brought by employees to the job, such as effort, job performance, seniority, amount of responsibility, knowledge, skills and abilities required by the job, and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) (Ang, Van Dyne & Begley

2003). Outcomes are those individual aspects that result from the employee–employer exchange, for instance pay, recognition, supervisory treatment, benefits, promotions, status, and intrinsic rewards (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). However, employees whose perception is that they are under-compensated will experience inequity tension. This tension will motivate employees to do one or more of the following to relieve the tension: alter their personal inputs and/or outcomes, change the nature of their comparison with others’ inputs and/or outcomes, use cognitive distortion to change the inputs and/or outcomes, or leave the field (Kanopaske & Werner 2002). Kanopaske and Werner (2002) identified three types of equity, namely external, internal and employee equity. External equity occurs when employees use comparisons with others who do the same job but work in different organisations. Factors that affect external equity include organisational size, type of industry, firm’s ability to pay, and geographic location. In terms of organisational size, employee remuneration tends to increase as company size increases, possibly because of the extra effort required by employees in larger organisations. Internal equity occurs when employees compare themselves with others who have different jobs and work in the same company. Factors affecting internal equity perceptions are therefore job-based facts which are presumed to affect perceived inputs. Organisations use job evaluation plans to achieve internal equity. If we look at the other side of the coin, employee

equity can be said to exist when the employees compare themselves with others who do the same job and work for the same company. Inputs of this type include gender and seniority. For example, gender may be perceived as an input in equity perceptions because of traditional patterns of underpayment for women and lower expectations of pay. By relating equity theory to this study, it is hypothesized that the employees in Nigeria FMCG industry may feel distress if, for example, they perceive the ratio between the effort expended and the rewards received at work to be inequitable when compared to the average contribution of others. As a result of this perception of inequity and injustice, the workers are likely to behave in a way that enables them to avoid this distress, among others by reducing their commitment to the employer.

Research Questions

- I. Will perceived injustice have significant relationship with organization commitment?
- II. Will perceived injustice have significant relationship with employee engagement?
- III. Will there be a significant relationship between perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement?

Research Hypotheses

- I. Perceived injustice will have a significant relationship with organization commitment.

- II. Perceived injustice will have a significant relationship with employee engagement.
- III. There will be a significant relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement.

METHOD

Research settings

This research was carried out in Lagos State, using Lagos Mainland Local Government as the sampling ground. Hence, the sampling was generated from selected secondary schools located within its environment.

Study Population

The study population for this research involved 6 secondary schools located on Lagos Mainland Local Government Area due to its large number of employees working within its constituency. According to Wikipedia the estimated number of secondary schools is said to have an estimated number of Two Hundred and Thirty-One (231) branches across is said to be around 52 schools. Applying the Cochran-Q sample size formular using 95% as the confidence level and 5% as the margin of error at the significant level of 0.05. Hence, One Hundred and Fifty (250) participant were used for this study.

Sampling Techniques

The sampling technique engaged for this study is purposive sampling method. Purposive sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling method which is most applicable when a researcher is purposively researching

on a certain type of people because of the attribute, culture or the skills they possess. Furthermore, a simple random sampling method will be employed in picking the participants during the study. A simple random Sampling is a probability sampling method employed in selecting a group of participants for study from a larger or an identified population. This technique was chosen due to the limitation of time and resources to access the database of all workers in setting of study. Also, a convenience sampling technique will be used in picking the branches to participate in the research locations which will be selected because of the ease of accessibility and proximity to the researcher.

Research Design

Cross-sectional survey research design was used as it allows the researcher to gather a larger data consisting of multiple variables at a specific point in time. Cross-sectional survey design also helps describe the variables of interest as they existed in the population and also allows check the relationship that exist between variables

Research Instrument

The following instruments were used to collect data:

1. **Bio-data:** the scale was developed by the researcher to get details of the participants demographic variables such as Age, marital status, type of organization, Religion and Ethnicity.

2. **Colquitt's Organizational Justice Scale (COJS):** This is a self-report questionnaire designed by Colquitt (2001). It is a 20-items scale was designed to assess employees' perceptions of fairness. This scale has four dimensions: distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice. In addition, Colquitt (2001) tested a structure suggested by Greenberg (1993) wherein interactional justice was separated into its interpersonal (respect and propriety) and informational (truthfulness and justification) facets. Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was calculated as .96 for the whole scale. All items were responded using a 5-point Likert scale varying from 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Always, 5 = Often.
3. **Organizational Commitment (OC):** This is a self-report questionnaire designed to measure organizational commitment and was developed by B. Buchanan (1974). The 23-item inventory is designed to assess the component of commitment which are: (i) Identification: Adopting organizational goals as one's personal goals; (ii) Job Involvement: Being psychologically immersed in work-role activities. OC emphasizes on the worker selfless roles in the process of the achieving the organizational goals. All items were responded

using a 7-point Likert scale varying from 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Moderately Disagree, 3 = Slightly Disagree, 4 = Not Sure, 5 = Slightly Agree, 6 = Moderately Agree, 7 = Strongly Agree.

4. **The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES):** This is a self-report questionnaire developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) assesses levels of energy and mental resilience while working, along with sense of significance, inspiration, pride, challenge and concentration in work. These are aligned with three dimensions of work engagement: vigour, dedication and absorption. The scale uses a five-point Likert scale with 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree. The scale has a high degree of reliability with $\alpha=.92$ and $\alpha=.89$.

For the purpose of this study the questionnaire used for this study generated a high degree of reliability with Justice Scale having $\alpha=.62$, Organizational Commitment Scale having $\alpha=.70$, and Work Engagement Scale having $\alpha=.71$,

Procedure

This research was carried out in Lagos State over a period of one month, Participants were approached in the various secondary schools where they lecture and were asked to fill out the questionnaire. Participation for the

study is voluntary as participants can revoke from the study anytime. Participants were then handed the questionnaire and was informed that there’s no right or wrong answers and as such, should try to be as honest as possible in their responses while the researcher was also available to elucidate or answer any questions participants had regarding the questionnaire they were handed to answer. Participants answered items on the questionnaire within 15 – 20 minutes, after questionnaires were collated for scoring and data analysis. Data analyses was done using the preferred inferential statistics (Mean, Standard deviation, One-way ANOVA, T-test independent and Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient). Scoring for the measures was done based on the scoring manuals contained in the instruments that was used. Responses on the questionnaires were coded into Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) v27 to generate both the descriptive statistics and to test the hypotheses. Simple regression analysis and independent sample t-test were computed to test the hypotheses.

RESULT

Descriptive Statistics.

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation table for all variables in the study.

| Variables | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|----------------------------|-----|-------|----------------|
| 1. Age | 250 | 1.29 | .47 |
| 2. Sex | 250 | 1.62 | .49 |
| 3. Marital Status | 250 | 1.26 | .45 |
| 4. Perceived Injustice | 250 | 49.82 | 7.18 |
| 5. Organization Commitment | 250 | 71.34 | 14.10 |
| 6. Employee Engagement | 250 | 42.05 | 7.45 |

Source: fieldwork 2024

Table 1 above, shows the mean and standard deviation of Perceived Injustice, Organization Commitment,

and Employee Engagement. The total respondents of the instruments were 250.

Table 2: Zero-order correlation showing the relationship between, Age, Sex, Marital Status, Perceived Injustice, Organization Commitment, and Employee Engagement.

| Variables | Mean | | S.D | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|-----|---|---|---|---|---|--|--|
| | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| 1 Age | 1.29 | .47 | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 2 Sex | 1.62 | .49 | | 1 | | | | | | |
| 3 Marital Status | 1.26 | .45 | | | 1 | | | | | |
| 4 Organizational Justice | 49.82 | 7.18 | | | | 1 | | | | |
| 5 Organizational Commitment | 71.34 | 14.10 | | | | | 1 | | | |
| 6 Work Engagement | 42.05 | 7.45 | | | | | | 1 | | |

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 2 reveal that there was significant negative relationship between Sex (r = -.305, p<.05) and Age. The result also indicates that there exists a significant positive relationship between Marital status (r = .610, p<.01) and Age, while a negative significant relationship exists between Marital status (r = -.287, p<.01) and Sex. The result also indicates that there exists a significant positive relationship between Organizational Commitment (r = .174, p<.01) and Sex and Organizational Commitment (r = .392, p<.01) and Organizational Justice.

The result also indicates that there exists a significant positive relationship between Work Engagement (r = .129, p<.05) and Sex, Work Engagement (r = .587, p<.01) and Organizational Justice, Work Engagement (r = .588, p<.01) and Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis Testing

This section presents the hypothesis that were tested and results analyzed, the hypothesis was grouped into Three (3) categories. Hypothesis 1 was tested using Linear Regression Analysis, Hypothesis 2 was tested using Linear Regression Analysis while Hypothesis 3 was tested using Pearson Correlation Analysis.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived Injustice will be related to predict of Organization Commitment. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Linear regression statistics. The result is presented in table 3a and 3b.

Table 3a: Pearson Correlations

| Variables | Mean | S.D | 1 | 2 |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|------|--------|
| 1 Perceived Injustice | 49.82 | 7.18 | 1 | .392** |
| 2 Organization Commitment | 71.34 | 14.10 | .000 | 1 |

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

Table 3b: Result of linear regression results for Perceived Injustice on Organization Commitment.

| Variable | β | Beta | T | Sig | R | R2 | F | P |
|---------------------|---------|------|-------|------|------|------|--------|------|
| Perceived injustice | .769 | .392 | 6.701 | .000 | .392 | .153 | 44.897 | <.05 |

a. Dependent Variable: Organization Commitment.

revealed that Perceived Injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Organization Commitment given the Beta and P value scores to be (B =.796, P =.001). Furthermore, Perceived Injustice is responsible for 15.3% variance in Organization

Commitment (R square =.153). which implies that Perceived Injustice explained 15.3% Organization Commitment of the participants at such we accept the hypothesis which state that “Perceived Injustice will predict of Organization Commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools”.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived injustice will be related to Employee Engagement. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Linear regression statistics. The result is presented in table 4a and 4b.

Table 4a: Pearson Correlations

| Variables | Mean | S.D | 1 | 2 |
|-----------------------|-------|------|------|--------|
| 1 Perceived Injustice | 49.82 | 7.18 | 1 | .587** |
| 2 Employee Engagement | 42.05 | 7.45 | .000 | 1 |

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

Table 4b: Linear regression results for Perceived injustice on Employee Engagement.

| Variable | β | Beta | T | Sig | R | R2 | F | P |
|---------------------|---------|------|--------|------|------|------|---------|------|
| Perceived injustice | .609 | .587 | 11.403 | .000 | .587 | .345 | 130.559 | <.05 |

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement.

revealed that Perceived injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Employee Engagement given the Beta and P value scores to be (B =.609, P =.001). Furthermore, Perceived injustice is responsible for 34.5% variance in Employee Engagement (R square =.345). which implies that Perceived injustice explained 34.5% Employee Engagement of the participants at such we accept the hypothesis which state that “Perceived

injustice will predict Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools”.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significant relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools.

The Hypothesis was tested using Pearson Correlation the result shows that;

Table 5: Pearson Correlations

| Variables | Mean | S,D | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|--------|--------|---|
| 1 Perceived Injustice | 49.82 | 7.18 | 1 | | |
| 2 Organizational Commitment | 71.34 | 14.10 | .392** | 1 | |
| 3 Employee Engagement | 42.05 | 7.45 | .587** | .588** | 1 |

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

Table 5 reveal that Perceived injustice and Organizational Commitment were significantly and positively correlated ($r = .392, p < .05$), while Employee Engagement and Perceived injustice were also found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .587, p < .05$), also Engagement and Organizational Commitment were also found to be significantly and positively correlated ($r = .588, p < .05$) “There will be a significant relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools”

DISCUSSION.

This study examined the influence of Perceived injustice on organizational commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools, it also explores the influence of Perceived injustice on

Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools, lastly, the research assessed the relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools. 250 participants were used for this study and were administered test instruments, using the Colquitt’s Organizational Justice Scale (COJS) developed by Colquitt (2001) and Organizational Commitment (OC) developed by B. Buchanan (1974).

The first finding of this study is that Perceived Injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Organization Commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools. Perceived injustice has been found to have a negative impact on organizational commitment. Research has shown that when employees perceive that they have been treated unfairly or unjustly, their commitment to the organization may decrease as a result. One study by Cropanzano et al. (2007) found that perceptions of injustice were negatively related to affective commitment, which is the emotional attachment an employee has to the organization. In other words, employees who perceived that they were treated unfairly were less likely to feel emotionally connected to the organization. Similarly, another study by Colquitt et al. (2001) found that perceptions of distributive justice (i.e., fairness of outcomes) and procedural justice (i.e., fairness of the process used to determine outcomes) were positively related to affective commitment. Research has also shown

that perceptions of injustice can impact other forms of organizational commitment, such as continuance commitment (i.e., the perceived costs of leaving the organization) and normative commitment (i.e., the sense of obligation to remain with the organization). Overall, the empirical evidence suggests that perceptions of injustice can serve as a predictor of organizational commitment, with negative perceptions leading to reduced commitment. Organizations that are perceived as fair and just are more likely to have employees who are committed to them.

The second finding of this study is that, Perceived injustice strongly serves as a predictor of Employee Engagement among among staffs in selected secondary schools. Perceived injustice is a concept that refers to an individual's subjective perception that they have been treated unfairly. There is some empirical evidence to suggest that perceived injustice can have a negative impact on employee engagement. One study that examined this relationship was conducted by Bakker and Schaufeli (2008). They surveyed employees from various Dutch organizations and found that perceived injustice was negatively related to engagement. Specifically, employees who perceived injustice in their workplace reported lower levels of engagement, including less vigor, dedication, and absorption in their work. Another study by Colquitt et al. (2013) found that perceived injustice was negatively related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which are two important

components of employee engagement. The researchers also found that perceived injustice had a stronger negative impact on these outcomes than actual injustice did. Overall, the literature suggests that perceived injustice can have a detrimental effect on employee engagement. When employees feel that they have been treated unfairly, they may become disengaged and less committed to their work. As a result, it is important for organizations to address and prevent perceived injustice in the workplace to promote employee engagement and positive outcomes.

The third finding of this study is that there exists a significant positive relationship between Organizational Commitment, Perceived Injustice and Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools. Organizational commitment, perceived injustice, and employee engagement are important constructs in the field of organizational behavior and have been the subject of numerous empirical studies. Several empirical studies have found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and employee engagement. For example, a study by Meyer and Allen (1991) found that employees who were highly committed to their organization were more likely to be engaged in their work. Similarly, a study by Saks (2006) found that employees who had a strong sense of organizational commitment were more likely to be engaged in their work and to have positive attitudes towards their job and organization. Perceived injustice, on

the other hand, has been found to be negatively related to employee engagement. A study by Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001) found that employees who perceived their organization as unfair were less likely to be engaged in their work. Similarly, a study by Greenberg (1990) found that when employees perceived injustice in their organization, they were less likely to be committed to their jobs and their organization. Moreover, several studies have investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and perceived injustice. A study by Cropanzano, Rupp, and Byrne (2003) found that when employees perceived their organization as unfair, their level of organizational commitment decreased. Similarly, a study by Kim, Leung, and Lee (2011) found that employees who perceived their organization as unfair had lower levels of organizational commitment. In conclusion, empirical evidence suggests that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment, perceived injustice, and employee engagement. Specifically, organizational commitment is positively related to employee engagement, while perceived injustice is negatively related to employee engagement. Additionally, perceived injustice is negatively related to organizational commitment. Therefore, organizations should strive to create a fair and just work environment to increase employee engagement and organizational commitment.

CONCLUSION.

The main objective of this study is to examine the influence of Perceived injustice on organizational commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools, it also explores the influence of Perceived injustice on Employee Engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools, lastly, the research assessed the relationship between Perceived injustice, organization commitment and employee engagement among staffs in selected secondary schools.

In conclusion, influence of Perceived injustice on organizational commitment among staffs in selected secondary schools is significant. Based on the available literature and research, the influence of perceived injustice on organizational commitment and employee engagement among selected secondary schools can have significant consequences on job satisfaction, performance, and retention.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study on perceived injustice on organization commitment and employee engagement among staff in secondary schools can have several implications for both the education system and the work environment within schools. Here are some recommendations based on the findings of such a study:

1. Identification of key factors: The study may identify specific factors that contribute to perceived injustice among staff members in secondary schools. These factors may include unequal distribution of resources,

unfair performance evaluations, biased decision-making, and lack of transparency in procedures.

2. **Impact on employee engagement:** The study may find that perceived injustice negatively affects employee engagement. This could have implications for staff productivity, job satisfaction, and overall performance. Schools with high levels of perceived injustice may experience higher rates of absenteeism and turnover, resulting in a less stable and effective workforce.
3. **Impact on organizational commitment:** The study may show that perceived injustice leads to reduced organizational commitment among staff members. This can create a negative work environment, as employees may become less loyal to the institution and less willing to go the extra mile to support its goals and objectives.
4. **Role of management:** The study may highlight the importance of good management practices in reducing perceived injustice and fostering a positive work environment. This could include establishing clear and fair policies, promoting open communication, and ensuring that employees feel valued and heard.
5. **Strategies for improvement:** Based on the findings, the study may recommend specific strategies for schools to address perceived injustice and improve employee engagement and

organizational commitment. These could include training programs for managers, employee feedback systems, and the development of fair and transparent processes for decision-making and resource allocation.

6. **Policy implications:** The study could have implications for education policy, as policymakers may need to address systemic issues that contribute to perceived injustice in schools. This might involve revisiting funding models, addressing systemic biases, and promoting diversity and inclusion within the education system.
7. **Importance of a supportive work environment:** The study may underscore the importance of fostering a supportive and inclusive work environment in schools, as staff members who feel valued and treated fairly are more likely to be engaged and committed to their jobs.

In conclusion, a study on perceived injustice on organization commitment and employee engagement among staff in secondary schools may have significant implications for improving the work environment and overall effectiveness of schools. By identifying key factors contributing to injustice and recommending strategies for improvement, such research can help schools create a more positive work environment that benefits both staff and students.

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VISUAL AESTHETICS VERSUS BRAND POPULARITY IN DETERMINING PREFERENCE FOR HANDBAGS AMONG FEMALE FRESHERS AND SOPHOMORES IN UNILAG

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this experimental study is to analyse and evaluate the influence of visual aesthetics and brand popularity on consumer behaviours, with a particular focus on female students and their preferences for handbags. This experimental research examines the impact of aesthetics and branding on customer decisions using a theoretical model based on psychoanalytic theory. Furthermore, the study takes into account the influence of societal institutions, such as sexism, on consumer behaviour. The objectives of the study include investigating female buying behaviours using Unilag female fresher's and sophomores using about 105 participants for the main study and also examining the factors influencing consumer preference for specific brands, exploring the impact of branding on consumer behaviour, and determining if consumers' perceptions of aesthetic qualities differ. The study employs various statistical analyses to assess these objectives, including paired sample tests, independent t-tests, and one-way ANOVA. The findings reveal that visual aesthetics and brand popularity significantly influence consumer choice for handbags. However, age was found to be significant only in relation to visual aesthetics and not brand names. The study highlights the importance of understanding consumer perceptions and preferences for manufacturers and marketers. It emphasizes the significance of visual aesthetics and brand names in consumer decision-making processes and provides insights for enhancing marketing strategies in the competitive fashion market.

Keywords: *Visual aesthetics, brand popularity, handbags, psychoanalytic theory*

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The future of the female handbag comes side by side with the origin of the feminine gender, which plays a major part in the preference for women in handbags. Narrow (2017), gave an in-depth explanation of how handbags come into place. Women carried necessities in their pockets before the invention. Although these pockets were entirely different from what we know, they were sewn

differently, worn differently, and tied around the waist under the skirt. This birthed the first kind of handbag with handles, which was usually called *an undergarment* because it was usually worn in undergarments or skirts. It is a common belief among females that handbags complete the feminine look, as they are part and parcel of those accessories that are as important as the shoes or the hair they wear. Moreover, stores that sell female handbags give

the notion that the handbags are complete and define some part of the female personality. In addition, handbags define the female personality, and style and distinguish her from others; thus, there are varieties, colours, brands, and different types of designs of female handbags being made. However, from these varieties, there are choices and options to choose from to fit the style and complete the outfit. For example, a woman who loves to carry her needs by hand will want to look more stylish and elegant by choosing from a pool of items that fit her style. In modern times, the choice of handbags may, however, be influenced by various factors, including visual aesthetics and brand name.

Visual aesthetics is defined as how pleasing and beautiful something appears to be. Although, in this research study, visual aesthetics is seen to be more than beauty, as it tends to be more specific about the colour and design as to which the female consumer sees it fitting their preference. Furthermore, visual aesthetics, through perceptual use, satisfaction, and pleasure it brings from its subjective creative designs, is down to the consumer's preference towards the design that defines what visual aesthetics means. i.e., it plays a key role in influencing consumers' choices of difference (uniqueness) and likeness. Moreover, Workman and Caldwell (2007) suggested in their article that visual aesthetics can influence consumer judgment relating to how one senses the products and also how one makes inferences about

the quality of the products. According to studies, visual aesthetics may have a substantial influence on consumer choices for products such as handbags (Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2008; Lin & Chen, 2018). Consumers, for example, may be more inclined to buy a handbag with an appealing colour, pattern, or design, even if the brand is less well-known.

On the other hand, a brand is a name given to a manufacturer's product. It is believed that luxury can be bought with a brand name, and it is assumed that it plays a key role in choosing or having a particular likeness to a particular bag. In this research study, an empirical explanation to show how brand popularity may play a major role in the buying behaviour of consumers will be highlighted. The brand name is the name or aesthetic that a firm uses to do business. The brand name is a crucial consideration since it may occasionally accurately and vividly reflect the primary idea or connection of the product. The brand name is what offers the potential consumer or buyer a lot of information about a product, provides a series of details about the product, and defines what the product signifies. (Alamgir, Nasir, Shamsuddoha, & Nedelea, 2010). The brand name is the first important aspect of a company (Rubini, 2010). The brand name serves as the foundation for attempts to increase brand recognition and communication (Hasan, 2008). Popular and well-known brands are generally perceived as more prestigious and attractive, and customers may be more willing to buy

items from these brands to communicate their status and identity (Liao & Wang, 2009; Pham & Johar, 2001). In the context of handbags, brand popularity may be a crucial element in shaping customer choices, especially among brand-conscious consumers.

Handbags for the feminine gender can represent an aspect of their point of preference towards aesthetics and brand popularity consumption as well as addressing individual value (Dangziger 2005). The aesthetic value and brands of bags may therefore do more than carry personal belongings; they also work as accessories that express female identity and feelings. Putoni (2001) supported this view by explaining that types and brand popularity matches one's self-concept and feelings. According to Vigneron & Johnson, (2004), consumers can use beauty and brand popularity as a luxury to communicate their identity and status to the general public. Furthermore, on September 11, 2022, Tunji Olaopa wrote an article in The Guardian Newspaper titled "*a woman's handbag and her identity.*" He emphasized the importance of the handbag to the woman by quoting Kathryn Eisman's witty book titled *How to Tell a Woman by Her Bag* (Eisman, K. 2008), This book describes and explains how the woman sees her reflection, tastes, perspectives, and preferences, which gives the woman room to know her choice of bags.

While the choice of handbags women carry may not be a problem that they

are bothered about, producers and marketers of handbags are concerned about these choices. This is driven by the continuous effort to maintain competitive advantage over competitors in the handbag production industry. An understanding of the contextual factors that influence consumer choice provides empirical based insights and direction for the production and supply of handbags with appealing elements to attract consumers. This research study looks closely at the buying behaviour of young females, who are believed to have high enthusiasm for material things like handbags. Although there's a great deal of change in preference in female buying behaviours. This will help to know if they are for the colour, comfort, and design, if they are for the brand name, or if they are for both reasons that influence their preference.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Visual Aesthetics and Buying behaviour

Visual aesthetics is a valuable tool for the manufacturer to push for a profitable value that can be accompanied by the perception of quality value, functional value, social status value, and individual value. Although, the consumer will be the one to determine based on how they interact with the product's design and colour. The concept of visual aesthetics plays a vital role in how the consumer perceives the product (Workman & Caldwell, 2007). However, visual aesthetics is one of the most important factors that affect consumers' choices of buying and consumption. According to Crilly et

al., (2004), visual designs can influence people's quality of life positively. Mumcu and Kimzan (2015) investigate the impact of visual product aesthetics on customer price sensitivity. According to the study, if a product has a high degree of visual appeal, buyers are less likely to care about the price (Mumcu & Kimzan, 2015, p. 533). This thus becomes a significant consideration in the consumer's purchase choice. Hence, visual aesthetics have a unique role that can influence the way a product is valued by consumers.

The role of visual aesthetics can be central to the total level of importance between consumers and the products provided by the manufacturer. Aesthetics is the visual form of items and perceptual experiences connected to texture, harmony, order, and beauty (Venkatesh et al., 2010). Aesthetics is one of the roles of a product's appearance (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005). As in many other subjects, aesthetics can be mentioned as a feature of a product. For some products, sound, smell, and taste are important, while visual aesthetics are an important feature for almost all products (Bloch et al., 2003). Chen and Xie (2008) investigate the influence of online consumer evaluations on product sales in this study. They emphasize the significance of product features, such as aesthetic appeal and brand appeal, in shaping consumer perceptions and purchasing decisions. According to the report, firms may improve their competitiveness and satisfy changing customer expectations by constantly

updating their product designs and introducing characteristics that resonate with their target consumers.

Marketing the visual aesthetics of fashion businesses, on the other hand, is in high demand and is expected to expand significantly. Phillips and McQuarrie (2010) conducted research on fashion advertisements and aesthetics, as well as the responses they obtained when narrative transportation was employed. Certain aesthetic elements of the fashion ads, such as shapes, colour, silhouettes, and so on, elicited responses from the consumer (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2010, pp. 387), implying a link between visual aesthetics and the consumer.

Brand Popularity and Buying Behaviour

Brand popularity is defined as the extent to which a brand is widely purchased by general consumers (Kim & Chung, 1997). According to Hauck et al. (2007), he found out that branded goods are more affordable to consumers, especially middle-class consumers. Handbags can serve as a luxury and not just an accessory for females, which can be best explained by their functional value, which provides a sense of durability, usability, comfortability, quality, and uniqueness. It must be understood that its functional value is based on a tested or guaranteed appraisal of the brand's reliability. According to Rio et al., (2001), they stated that it is fitting to associate this function value with the perception that the brand is attached to products with a suitable

level of performance and is focused on satisfying convenience consumer needs. Gentry et al. (2006) found that one reason consumers will buy luxury brands is because of the superior quality shown in the brand name. Hence, brand popularity can provide room for valuable meanings that communicate luxury to the consumer.

Wilcox et al. (2009) stated that consumers buy branded goods primarily to reflect their personalities and social status. Atwal (2009) added that consumers see branded goods above wants and needs but also have an attachment to flaunting luxury, even if it is very expensive. Consumer perception of brands is an important aspect of the marketing mix (Gabor & Contiu, 2012). Jin and Weber (2013) suggest that trademarks primarily serve to identify and recognize goods and their manufacturers. The focus of brand value creation was on individual products, and companies used brands to indicate ownership and take responsibility for their products. This allowed customers to identify and recognize the company's goods at a glance. Since the 1930s, brands have been viewed as images companies create to help customers distinguish the brand from its competitors and identify the needs the brand promises (Jin & Weber, 2013).

Another aspect of branding is that scholars and practitioners firmly believe that brand reputation is becoming increasingly important. A positive reputation is necessary for a brand to be successful and therefore profitable (Veloutsou & Moutinho,

2009). Schmitt (2012), on the other hand, describes a comprehensive model of five brand-related processes: identity, experience, integration, communication, and connection with brands. Hoeffler and Keller (2002) investigate the effect of brand equity on societal marketing by corporations. While the study's focus is not explicitly on visual appeal, it underlines the significance of brand familiarity and distinction in attracting and maintaining customers. The authors emphasize that organizations may boost their brand equity by building distinct value propositions, which might include visual appeal, beautiful designs, and strong brand recognition. Companies may enhance their market share and profitability by properly separating themselves from the competition.

A personal experience of using a brand can take on a different form than a personal experience of using a product that is indistinguishable from the brand (Sheena & Naresh, 2012). Brands can build relationships with other brands. Brands can be humanized, and many are valued as cultural symbols. Finally, consumers can organize communities around brands. Consumers know, experience, and respond to these attributes of brands. The model presented here takes into account these essential characteristics of brands (Schmitt, 2012).

THEORETICAL REVIEW

It is interesting to investigate women's buying and consumption behaviours in this study. However, opinions are

divided as to whether women can be focused on as a homogenous group. This is because there are different opinions about the importance of gender in marketing and attitudes toward a product or brand. Generally, there are different things to consider from gender and marketing perspectives. On one hand, there is the postmodern view, which believes that gender is a dichotomy that stems from cultural understandings of being male or female. Therefore, using the word "female" to designate a unified category is tantamount to giving a false sense of legitimacy to culture-specific versions of gender identity. Advocates believe that gender is irrelevant in consumer research. A neutral view calls itself "*liberal feminism*" and believes that gender differences are not the result of biological differences but of social inequalities. At the other end of the spectrum is a view called the "female experienced voice." From this perspective, there are some lasting differences between men's and women's experiences. Women's experiences thus form the basis of social organization. These proponents believe that sexism is based on a gender structure in all aspects of our lives and is therefore more closely related to consumer behaviour (Moss, 2009).

The focus of this study is on female consumption choices towards their fashion sense in handbags, and as the researchers, we assume that there are women who primarily buy women's handbags to complete their feminine look and to serve other multi-purposes

as part of their gender personality. Based on the assumption that women buy these handbags, it is imperative to study women's consumption and buying behaviour from a consumer behaviour perspective in order to provide a basis for marketing implications. This does not mean that only women engage in buying of handbags; for instance, men may also buy feminine handbags as gifts. However, this study attempts to examine whether there are some common features or elements in handbags that may influence the consumer choice. From a theoretical standpoint several theories may be applicable in understanding the dynamics consumer choice and other variables.

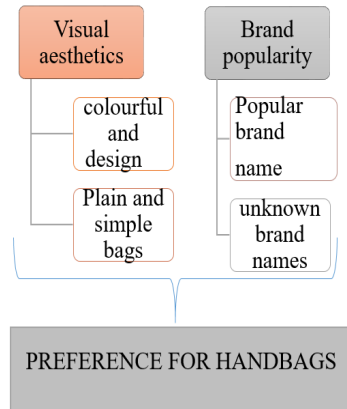
- **Psychoanalytic theory:** This theory states that consumers make purchasing decisions based on their emotions, hopes, aspirations, and fears. For example, if someone wants to be a singer, they probably buy singing lessons and music recording software.
- **Veblenian social-psychological theory:** This model argues that humans are social creatures and make purchases based on social and cultural norms. For example, as gluten-free vegetarian and vegan options become more prominent in society, consumers are more likely to purchase these options at restaurants.
- **Reasoned action theory:** The theory is that consumers buy when they expect certain results. For this reason, marketers should associate positive outcomes with

product purchases. For example, the personal trainer marketer attaches general health and weight loss to an exercise program.

- Maslow’s Motivation-Need Theory:** In the 1950s, psychologist Abraham Maslow created a needs-based hierarchy that explains why people buy. The hierarchy claims that people buy things to meet their needs. Psychological (survival), safety, love, gratitude, and self-actualization For example, people buy alarm systems for their homes because they value security and need it.
- Hawkin’s stern impulse buying theory:** There are many reasons why people buy things, some of which are almost unthinkable. Impulse buying occurs when a person purchases a product based on an external stimulus. For example, if people see a candy bar at the cash register, they might buy it just because it’s there.

Additionally, knowledge of consumer behaviour can be applied to social marketing. Social marketing is not about selling something; it is about giving the consumer an idea. This boils down to the social factor of the purchase. Consumers consider cultural norms and think about how others view them. Understanding consumer behaviour is not an easy task. This study will show diversity in these types of consumers and why they choose to consume a particular product, either by branding, aesthetics, or just simplicity. According to Van van Meijden and colleagues (2015),

women make better decisions in social contexts that require emotional intelligence. Other research has also found that women are more cautious and risk-averse (Babcock & Laschever, 2009). In line with the study objectives, the framework in Figure 1 is developed.



In line with the framework in Figure 1, the following hypotheses are formulated

H_i: There will be a significant difference in consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags.

H_{ii}: There will be gender differences in consumer preferences for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags.

Materials and Methods

This study adopted a Quasi-experimental design. This research was carried out online using Google Forms. It specifically covers female freshmen and sophomores across the University of Lagos. A total of 105

participants, spanning across different age groups, were involved in the study. A combination of purposive and accidental sampling techniques was applied in this study. The eligibility criterion of being a female freshman or sophomore formed the basis for the put as this research focuses on only female students in year one and two. This technique helps to gain a detailed knowledge of female preferences in bags rather than just giving statistical numbers. It also helps to pick out a large number of these participants from a small population. The reason for this choice of technique is effectiveness, which is a clear rationale for inclusion.

Instruments used included;

- **An online questionnaire (Google Form):** an online survey questionnaire was created using Google Forms and structured for the targeted audience to complete over the Internet.
- **Cardboard:** a plain, thick piece of paper was needed to paste the pictures of bags that were selected from the internet for the experimental study.
- **Scissors:** This helped to cut out the perfect picture of bags printed from the internet to paste on the cardboard.
- **Paper Gum:** Paper gum was used to stick the cut-out bag pictures on the cardboard.
- **Printed bag pictures:** A selected number of bags were classified as colorful handbags and plain bags.
- **Recording sheet:** this was used during the pilot study as it was done offline. It was used to record

the responses of participants during the pilot study phase.

- **Pen:** A pen was used to record responses during the pilot study phase.

Sampling Technique

A purposive sampling technique was applied in this study, as this research focuses on only female students in year one and two. This technique helps to gain a detailed knowledge of female preferences in bags rather than just giving statistical numbers. It also helps to pick out a large number of these participants from a small population. The reason for this choice of technique is effectiveness, which is a clear rationale for inclusion.

Procedure

While conducting this research, the focus was to reach out to female students in their first and second years, as that is what the research study was all about. However, before the main study was carried out, a pilot study was carried out offline with the inclusion of the bags that were later displayed online for the main study.

Firstly, a picture of female handbags was lifted from the internet, and there were about 20 of them. It was later shortlisted into 10 handbags, which were still shortlisted into 4 handbags. The four handbags were printed, cut out in fine shapes, and pasted with gum on the cardboard. Each of the handbags was listed as **A**, **B**, **C**, and **D**. Further information about the pilot study is given in this chapter in the next subheading.

The main study followed a different pattern, as pictures of the handbags were taken and used to complete the experimental study online. However, names were added to each of the handbags for the main study. Two popular and two regular names were given to each of the handbags. Gucci and Chanel were given plain bags, while Gary and Kinney were given bags that are colorful and beautiful. Then participants were urged to select two handbags that they would most love to accept as gifts. The questionnaire was very short and precise, and it will only take about 2 minutes for each participant to answer.

Pilot Study

The experiment used for the main study was first conducted in the pilot study, which included incumbents who are final-year female Unilag students (400-level and 500-level). This pilot study was done in order to give hindsight to the hypotheses proposed in this study. The participants were 20 female undergraduate volunteers from four (4) different departments, which are: *psychology, economics, human kinetics, Health Education (HKHE), and pharmacology*, with an average age of 20 years. A total of 20 female handbags were collected from the Internet. The background of each picture was plain, and one bag was displayed at a time. The brand was made sure not to appear in any of the pictures, as the target was the subjective selection of the visual aesthetics of handbags based on colour and design. Afterward, four (4) pictures made the final cut out of the

20 pictures collected online. Each picture of the four was boldly printed out and cut out on cardboard and tagged as **A, B, C, and D**. The pictures were shown to each participant, who was asked to select any two of the pictures of the handbag that were pasted on the cardboard. The question asked was: *which of these handbags will you accept as a gift, and why?* Results from this pilot study helped to give hindsight to the subjective proposition in the selection of consumers' preferences for handbags. However, it is not yet confirmed that the result from the pilot study will be the same or close to the result of the one conducted in the main study. Thus, it will be further explained in the final results of the main study and discussion of this research project.

DATA ANALYSIS

The SPSS software program was used to analyse the data collected from the experiment.

The Paired sample t-test was used to test for consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags. Independent t-test was used to test for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags amongst 100- and 200-level students, while One way ANOVA was used to test the participants' preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags based on age.

Descriptive statistics: These statistics helped in identifying the differences between consumer preferences for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags. This was achieved with the

help of the **independent t-test** and the **Paired sample t-test**.

Inferential statistics: These statistics helped in making inferences to see whether there's a meaningful difference in consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags. This was achieved with the help of **One-way ANOVA**.

RESULTS

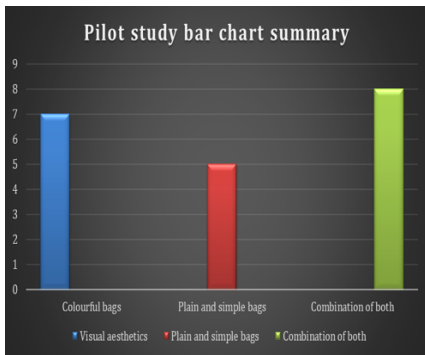


Fig 3: A bar chart showing the pilot study summary conducted amongst female final year students.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant difference between consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags.

Table 1: Paired sample t-test analysis showing the statistical score of participants in preference for aesthetic quality handbags and brand popularity of handbags

| | Mean | N | SD | t | df | Sig(2-tailed) |
|-------------------|--------|-----|---------|--------|-----|---------------|
| Aesthetic quality | 2.0857 | 105 | 0.89994 | -2.417 | 104 | 0.017 |
| Brand Popularity | 2.2571 | 105 | 0.75992 | | | |

A paired sample t-test was conducted to compare consumer preference for aesthetic quality handbags and brand popularity for handbags. The test results show that there is a significant difference, as determined by the paired sample t-test analysis. (M = 2.0857, 2.2571; SD = 0.89994, 0.75992; P.value = 0.017: P.value = 0.017 < 0.05. Therefore, there is significant and strong evidence to show from the result that there would be a preference for aesthetic quality handbags and brand popularity of handbags. Hence, the results indicate a significant difference in aesthetic quality and branded bags among consumers' choices.

Hypothesis 2: Consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags will significantly differ between 100- and 200-level students.

Table 3: An independent sample t-test analysis showing consumer preference for aesthetic quality handbags and brand popularity of handbags

| | Level of study | Mean | N | SD | t | df | Sig(2-tailed) |
|-------------------|----------------|--------|-----|---------|-------|-----|---------------|
| Aesthetic quality | 100L | 2.1795 | 102 | 0.88472 | 0.974 | 100 | 0.332 |
| | 200L | 2.0000 | | 0.91581 | | | |
| Brand popularity | 100L | 2.2821 | 102 | 0.79302 | 0.285 | 100 | 0.776 |
| | 200L | 2.2381 | | 0.73428 | | | |

An independent t-test was conducted for our test and the results showed that participants had statistically insignificant difference in aesthetic quality between 100-200 level, where

M=2.1795, $t = 0.974$, $P > 0.05$ (0.332), while brand popularity also had statistically insignificant difference between 100-200 level, where M=2.0000, $t = 0.285$, $P > 0.05$ (0.776). Hence, consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity between 100- and 200-level students is statistically insignificant.

Table 4: One-way ANOVA test table showing the age of female participants' preferences for bags in aesthetic quality and brand popularity

Hypothesis 3: Age will have a significant influence on consumer preferences for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags.

| Sig | Sum of Squares | df | Mean of Square | F | |
|----------------------------|----------------|--------|----------------|-------|-------|
| Aesthetic Quality 0.021 | Between Groups | 6.135 | 2 | 3.068 | 4.007 |
| | Within Groups | 78.093 | 102 | 0.766 | |
| | Total | 84.229 | 104 | | |
| Brand Popularity 0.093 | Between Groups | 2.734 | 2 | 1.367 | 2.432 |
| | Within Groups | 57.324 | 102 | 0.562 | |
| | Total | 60.057 | 104 | | |

One-way ANOVA was used to test the age of participants on their preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of female handbags. The table above highlights that age was significant in consumer preference for aesthetic quality ($F = 4.22$, $P=0.021 < 0.05$). However, age was insignificant in consumer preference for brand popularity ($F = 2.432$, $P = 0.093 > 0.05$). Hence, the results show that age is significant in the aesthetic quality of handbags, while age is insignificant in consumer preference for the brand

popularity of handbags.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The first objective of this research study, in which the paired sample test was used to compare the aesthetic quality and brand popularity of female handbags. Mappiare (1994) emphasized consumer preference as a mental state that is a joint feeling, expectation, conviction, and prejudice that can influence consumers' choices. This hypothesis was accepted, and the analysis proved to an extent that it was significant in preference for both variables. In a nutshell, the result of the study means that it is fully dependent on the aesthetic and brand popularity of handbags. This result tends to possess similar properties to past studies. In a study done by Augustina et al. (2017), the research results show that the better the product quality, the higher the consumer preference. According to Kotler et al. 2009. study, the consumer's impression of a brand or product impacts its quality, which discovered that product quality is a crucial element in customers' choices. Edge (2005), based on his research, argues that the value of a strong brand lies in the impression it makes on everyone who comes into contact with the organization. Hence, consumers will consider the visual aesthetic and brand name of handbags before appreciating them as a gift or considering buying them.

However, it is important for manufacturers to explore and understand the visual aesthetic of a

product. (Ho, 2014), conducted a study in 2014 to investigate how online shoppers view images of women's handbags. The study involved 33 women who looked at 74 handbag images while their eye movements were tracked. The results showed that people's attention is first drawn to the main body of the handbag, followed by the handle, the featured area, and then the strap. The highlighted area of the handbag was found to hold people's attention the longest, while the handle and strap were the most visually appealing. Aesthetics is the visual form of objects and perceptual experiences related to texture, harmony, order, and beauty (Venkatesh et al., 2010). Also, increasing the brand name of a product is as important as its visual appearance. Mouillot (2013) conducted a study on luxury goods and analysed the curious purchasing behaviours of female golfers. The research polled 707 women over the course of five months and focused on women leaving stores with branded bags in Bahrain's major shopping malls. According to the study, Gulf women seek stakeholder ties by purchasing luxury goods, many of which are Western. Therefore, the report concludes that women golfers changed from traditional dress to premium-brand accessories.

The main aim of this research study, which apparently is the main focus of this study, is to compare the visual aesthetics and brand popularity of female handbags in terms of consumer preference among female students. Several literature and studies have

been done on consumer preference, but different models have been used to test for visual aesthetics and popular luxurious bags. This experimental study examined the influence of visual aesthetics versus brand popularity on female handbags. Emphasis was placed on how female consumers view the product and why they will purchase or appreciate handbags. Centering on models of consumer behaviour, this study gives explanations of where and how manufacturers can best their product in a competitive market by understanding the minds of their consumers. Daye, VanAuken, and Asacker (2008) identified colour as an important factor in developing a branding strategy. Liao & Wang (2009) explain that popular brands are mostly perceived as more prestigious and attractive, and therefore customers will be willing to buy the product. Hence, brand name and colour (aesthetics) are important for a product.

An independent t-test was used to analyse our second hypothesis and achieve our objective in this study. The level of study was important for us in measuring the level of maturity and exposure of female students in fresh year and sophomore year. The result showed that consumer preference for aesthetic quality and brand popularity of bags was insignificant between 100- and 200-level students. Female consumers will be more impressed with visually appealing handbags because of how much they are in vogue. In addition, the difference in level might be too

close for us to determine that there would be a change in preference in buying behaviour. According to studies by Hagtvedt & Patrick (2008) and Lin & Chen (2018), visual aesthetics can have a big impact on whether people choose to buy a product or not, especially when it comes to things like handbags. Celi and Cakici (2020) conducted research on consumers' views of visual aesthetics in fashion innovation, and the study's findings revealed that customers' opinions of product aesthetics varied depending on how they perceived the product. Hence, consumers would be willing to go with what catches their fancy at first glance.

One-way ANOVA analysis was able to achieve two more objectives as regards the aim of this study. Age was another factor that was considered in investigating the impact of branding on consumer behaviour and ascertaining the differences in consumer behaviour. The results show that age was significant in consumer preference for aesthetic quality but not for brand popularity of handbags. According to Assael (1992), consumer preferences are decisions made based on their perceptions of a product. In claims of this result, a study done by Joy Kozar and Mary Lynn Damhorst (2008) discusses research carried out on older women. The results show that older women believe that older models are more appealing than younger models and are more willing to buy goods worn by older models, with participants who thought they looked like the model having more positive

beliefs. Therefore, this is in contrast to what our hypothesis says, and this could be due to the fact that the participants for the experiment have very little or no difference in terms of age to establish this fact. Although this explanation was already prepared while carrying out our pilot study with older females using final-year students with an average age of 20 years who are believed to be more exposed and experienced in choices and fashion, the results analysed from observations show that age was an important factor, as some of our participants during the pilot study provided reasons why they would accept a particular type or brand of handbag for a gift. Some of the reasons that were very common during the pilot study were:

1. "This plain bag is very simple for me, and it'll help me carry everything I need without stress."
2. "The durability of the plain bag and the comfort it brings with the design of the strap are just perfect."
3. "The colourful bag is visually appealing to me with the designs, and I can carry it to a party."
4. "The bag fits my personality because it has a beautiful design."

In support of the observations and opinions from our pilot study. A study by Komaladevi and Sakthivel (2014) explains the relationship between brand awareness, brand selection ability, and socio-demographic variables. Their results suggested that older women are more concerned with quality, package design, and longevity.

In 2019, a survey was done using Google Trends to find out which brands of handbags were popular among women. The survey showed that Indonesian women ranked Coach as the top brand of handbags among them after being shown popular brands of handbags.

This experimental study, "Visual aesthetics vs brand popularity in determining the preference for handbags amongst female freshers and sophomores in Unilag," gives vital insights into consumer behaviour, especially female university students' handbag purchase decisions. According to the experiments carried out in this research study, visual aesthetics and brand popularity are important variables influencing female university students' handbag selections.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are relevant because they may be extended to the broader context of marketing, particularly in the fashion sector. To remain competitive in the fashion market, businesses must produce items that resonate with their target customers. As a result, knowing the elements that impact consumer preferences is crucial to establishing effective marketing strategies for attracting and retaining customers. In relation to this discussion, the Veblenian social-psychological theory explains in our theoretical review how people's purchasing behaviour is affected because we are social beings and will consume based on social and cultural norms. Also, it is important

that marketers and manufacturers consider positivity in their products. Just like the reasoned action theory states that attaching positive things to a product can give a good impression of that product, A study done by Okpara (2008) discovered the "consumption complex syndrome" (CCS), which suggests that customers prefer foreign shoe brands over indigenous ones due to impressions and understanding. Hence, local manufacturers should make use of the reasoned action theory to establish a good impression of their product.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the study's findings, it is proposed that fashion industry producers and marketers consider the value of visual aesthetics and brand popularity in their product production and marketing tactics. Knowing consumers' aesthetic tastes and perceptions may help manufacturers produce aesthetically appealing items that correspond with current trends and attract their target customers. Additionally, increasing brand names and connections can improve consumers' views of quality and prestige, which may influence their purchase decisions. Manufacturers should also work on knowing their customers' brains, particularly female customers, in order to match their tastes and expectations. Further study on customer behaviour, taking cultural norms and social structures into account, can give significant insights for product positioning and marketing strategies. Marketers should also consider the aesthetic components of their products. According to research,

the main body, handle, and prominent parts of handbags grab the most attention. Businesses may attract and keep potential clients by enhancing the aesthetic appeal of these items. Also, local firms should employ the reasoned action theory to create a favorable perception of their products. Local companies may effectively compete with global products and appeal to consumers' preferences by

emphasizing their offers' distinctive qualities, quality, and cultural significance. This study adds to our understanding of consumer behaviour in the context of female student handbag purchasing. The findings can help marketers and producers devise successful methods for meeting customer wants, improving brand perception, and driving sales in the competitive fashion sector.

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