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Editorial

This issue of KIU *Journal of Social Sciences* focuses on Political Economy, Political Education, Educational Administration, Educational Psychology, Educational Technology as well as Teaching and Learning Skills.

The first section of this edition addresses various issues in Political Economy such as health care management, capital market development, city administration, funding tertiary education and barriers to internet shopping among others. The Political Economy deals with the empirical reality, theory, and current governance problems of development, poverty, and inequality. It is through Political Economy that investigations are made into how certain factors influence economic development in a society. Some of these factors may include colonialism, state capacity, regime type, war and conflict, accountability and social structures. Papers in this section x-ray both economic theory regarding development and political science research that highlight the challenges to implementing the policies that would lead to economic development. It was revealed in one of the papers in this section that most tertiary institutions in Nigeria are faced with infrastructural decay as a result of poor funding. The researchers therefore recommended among others the encouragement of private participation, the raising of the education tax collected/or TETFund from 2% to 5% and the revisiting of the practice of Treasury Single Account (TSA) for our tertiary institutions.

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Section two explores explores Political Education as an instrument of national consciousness. As social beings, men cannot avoid living in groups in order to survive and achieve comfortable living. But the survival and comfort of the individuals depend on how well the socio-political and economic environments of the society are managed. Effective and massive political participation of the citizens in the management of their own affairs are necessary for the political and economic stability of the society. The role of political education in enhancing this stability becomes priceless. Papers, in this second part of the Journal, addresses issues in Political Education such as Nationhood and National Consciousness, Contemporary Vigilantism, Media and Security Education, the Rationality of Mititar Rule, Citizenship Knowledge and so on. One of the papers argues that there is a common chord among the different components of socio-economic and political strides that links national security and eternal vigilance by citizens and agencies of state statutorily empowered to so do and therefore recommends promotion of security must receive the greatest official and individual attention to ensure safety for all citizens through the instrumentality of education and effective media- driven enlightenment.

Sections Three, Four and Five which centre on Teaching and Learning Skills as well as Educational Management and Educational Psychology features paper meant to explain how

people learn and retain knowledge as well as how to improve the learning process and promote educational success for all students.

On the whole, all the papers in this edition of KIU Journal of Social Sciences are interesting and well researched. I congratulate the contributors and all members of the editorial board for a job well done.

Professor Oyetola O. Oniwide
College of Humanities and Social Sciences,
Kampala International University,
P.O. Box 20000,
Kampala, Uganda.

editor.socialsciences@kiu.ac.ug

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Part One
Political Economy

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Catastrophic Health Expenditure Estimates: A Methodological Evaluation and Policy Implication

UDUAKOBONG EDY-EWOH
Babcock University, Ilisan-Remo, Nigeria

A.B. ADESOYE, S.A. TELLA
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

Abstract. Evidence-based studies that produce the incidence of catastrophic health expenditure (CHE) and household impoverishment are often used to assess a health system performance and its impact on the well-being of the people. These evidenced-based studies offer rich sources of materials for policy makers to aid the development of policies that will ensure the optimal performance of the health systems. Literature however alludes that the incidence of CHE and household impoverishment are sensitive to the methodology used in their assessment. This poses a challenge as the level of incidence computed may be understated thus undermining urgent policy intervention. Using the same set of data, this study examined the extent to which the incidence of CHE and household impoverishment are responsive to different methodologies - with particular emphasis on how the definitions and operationalisation of variables affect their values. The study arrived at a difference of 53.42% and 21.80% in the incidence of CHE and Household impoverishment respectively due to differences in the definition and operationalisation of variables. The percentage of poor households increased by 20.57% as the definition of household necessity increased beyond food. Since the results showed wide differences in values computed, the study recommended the need to standardize the system of assessing the incidence of CHE and household impoverishment in Nigeria as a result of consuming health care to ensure comparable results that will ease policy making relating to healthcare financing in Nigeria.

Keywords: Catastrophic Health Expenditure, Impoverishment, Methodology, Policy intervention, Nigeria

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Evidence-based studies that produce the incidence of catastrophic health expenditure (CHE) and household impoverishment are often used to assess a health system performance and its impact on the well-being of the people in addition to the formulation of appropriate policies that will ensure optimal performance of a health system. Using evidence to inform policy making is not a new phenomenon. Evidence based policy (EBP) involves a combination of scientific knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and value-led knowledge (Sutcliffe and Court, 2005). According to the UK Cabinet office (1999), EBP produces policies that really deal with problems; that are forward looking and

shaped by the evidence rather than a response to short-term pressures; that tackle causes not symptoms.

Health care problems are policy issues which require intentional attention. Attention is necessary particularly because of concern for equity and financial protection in accessing health services and achieving the third Sustainable Development Goal which is to ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages by the year 2030. Measuring the incidence and magnitude of out-of-pocket payments (OOPPs) for health care, using data from household surveys, forms the basis for assessing and comparing the extent of the problems associated with a system of health care financing. It also reveals the presence or absence of financial protection within the system. The measurement and assessment thus provides the basis for improving the systems' performance with the objective of promoting equity and providing financial protection to the people. It provides information for health system reforms and development of policies with particular emphasis on achieving the primary objective of health systems – improving population health.

The World Health Organization (2017) pointed out clearly that there is a very strong correlation between the level of OOPPs and how well a health system performs. The Organization also noted that there is a very strong correlation between the level of OOPPs and the two indicators that are currently used to monitor how well a health system is performing in terms of financial protection: the incidence of catastrophic and impoverishing health expenditures. Sadly, though, OOPPs often constitute a part of the health financing landscape in many countries, and when it is left unregulated, this system of health financing constitutes a major access barrier to needed health care and leads to Catastrophic Health Expenditure (CHE) which contributes substantially to household impoverishment.

Lu, Chin, Li and Murray (2009) however noted that the capacity to monitor and track the effects of OOPPs on health and care and its catastrophic effects is very limited. Measures of CHE are often hampered by differing survey methods, population, survey design, differences in the operationalization of variables, data recall periods, etc. In addition, Hsu, Flores, Evans, Mills and Hanson (2018), also pointed measuring the incidence of CHE is also affected by the definition of household available resources (denominator) and to the threshold (percentage) used to determine when the OOPP share on health is catastrophic.

This paper therefore seeks to investigate the effect of methodology on measuring the incidence of CHE in Nigeria. Specifically, the paper seeks to determine how definitions and operationalization of variables used to measure the incidence of CHE affects the final results. This is achieved by applying the WHO methodology on the same set of data but with modifications and redefinition of some of the concepts in the methodology as proposed by Pal (2012). The paper is motivated by the fact while the proportion of households that incur CHE in a country is widely used as an indicator of the extent to which the health system protects households needing health care from financial hardship, the capacity to monitor and track meaningfully the extent of CHE among households is influenced by the methodology adopted. If the severity of CHE is underestimated for instance because of how variables are defined, measured and operationalised, policy makers may downplay the need for practicable reforms in the health sector and it could have a debilitating effect on the health of the entire population. However, where the incidence of CHE reflects prevailing realities, relative to the prevalence of OOPPs as a major source of financing health care, discernible steps can be taken towards improving financial protection for Nigerians and the achievement of Universal Health Coverage (UHC) would be fast tracked in the country.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Overview of the Concept of CHE

The concept of CHE was first introduced by Berki (1986) who defined CHE as when the expenditure for medical care endangers a family's ability to maintain its customary

standard of living. Berki (1986) further posited that expenditures per family rather than per capita expenditure on health care should constitute the appropriate units of analysis and of policy relating to health care since the basic spending unit is the family and not the individual and also because the welfare of each individual within the family is interdependent. In other words, expenditure for healthcare which threatens the households' financial capacity to maintain daily living, such that it leads the household to sacrifice consumption of other items that are necessary for their well-being, sell assets, and borrow, so as to pay for healthcare is deemed catastrophic (Rashad and Sharaf (2015) Onoka, Onwujekwe, Hanson and Uzochukwu (2010); O'Donnell, van Doorslaer, Wagstaff and Lindelow (2008).

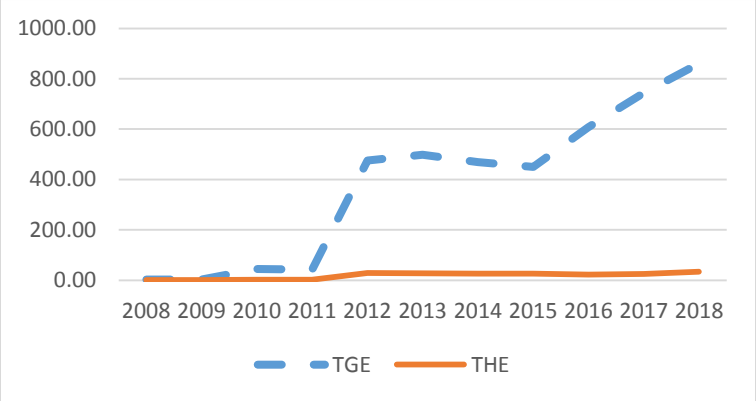
Naga and Lamiraud (2008) however notes that a household incurs CHE if its health OOPPs for healthcare exceeds a pre-determined critical threshold. This threshold according to Berki (1986) is defined relative to family income or expenditure. While there is no consensus in the existing literature on the most appropriate threshold, many studies have used 5%, 10%, 15% (Berki, 1986; Wagstaff, and van Doorslaer, 2003; O'Donnell et al, 2008). For instance, the WHO, identifies a household with CHE when its OOPPs equal or exceeds 40% of its capacity to pay. Capacity to pay is defined as household non-subsistence expenditure (household expenditure less household food consumption expenditure).

CHE does not necessarily equate to high health care costs since very small expenditures on health can be financially disastrous for poor households (Ngcamphalala and Ataguba, (2018). Xu et al, (2005) identified three factors that have to be present for catastrophic payments to arise: the availability of health services requiring OOPPs; low household capacity to pay; and lack of prepayment mechanisms for risk pooling. The WHO recommended that countries must intentionally move away from reliance on OOPPs for funding health care to protect households from CHE (World Health Report, 2010).

2.2 Trend in Health Care Financing in Nigeria

The health financing system in Nigeria from a cursory look appears to induce CHE as OOPPs remains the major source of financing health care in the country. For instance, health budget has remained low relative to total government budget as evident in the diagram below.

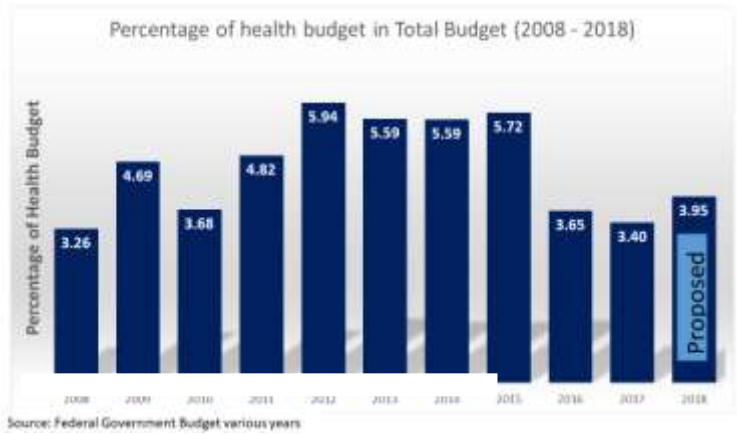
Figure 1. Relationship between Total Government Budget and Health Budget 2008 - 2018



Source: Federal Government Budget 2008 – 2018)

The total health budget has also consistently remained below the 15% of total budget recommended at the Abuja declaration in 2001 as evident in the diagram below.

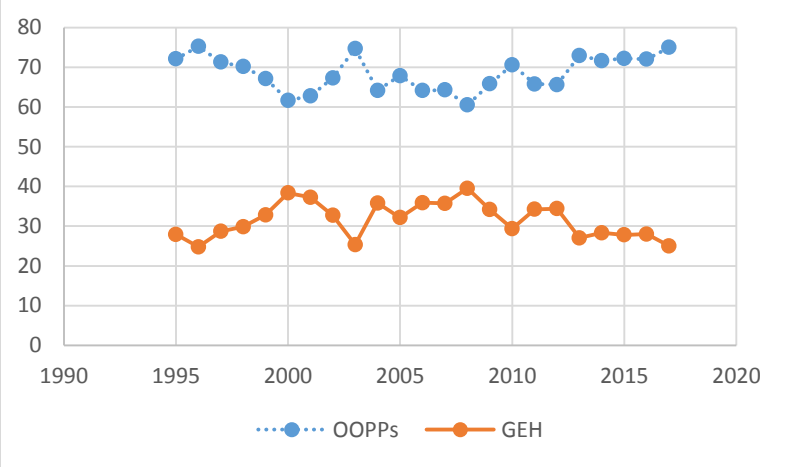
Figure 2: Percentage of Health Budget in Total Budget (2008-2018)



Source: Federal Government Budget 2008 – 2018)

The near absence of government contribution to health care financing has led to over dependence on OOPPs for health care over the years in Nigeria with the gap between OOPPs and government health expenditure quite alarming.

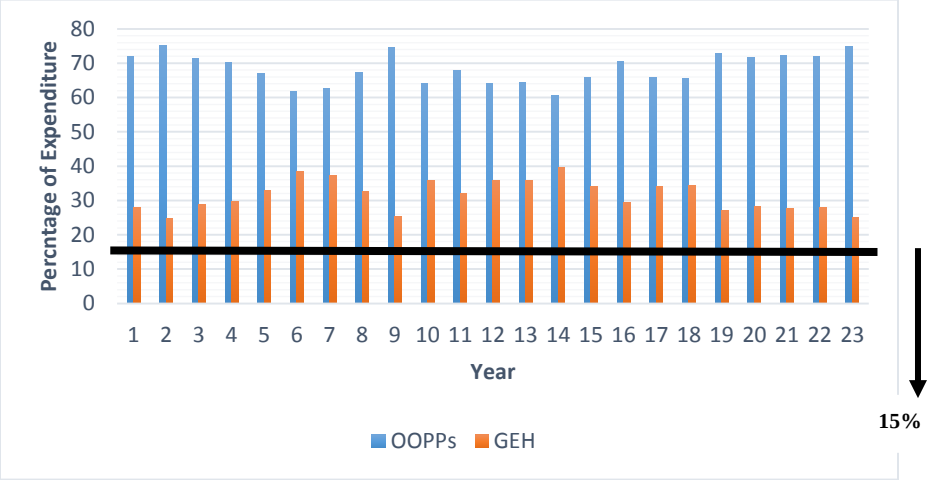
Figure 3 Relationship between OOPPs and Government health expenditure as a share of Total health expenditure 1995 – 2017



Source: World Health Organization Global Health Expenditure Database.

The world Health Organization recommends that OOP payments for health should not exceed 15 percent of total health expenditure if households are to be protected from CHE. But the reality in Nigeria portrays that households have at times borne almost 80% of total health expenditure as evident in figure 4.

Figure 4: Government and Private Spending on Health in Nigeria (1995 – 2017)



Source: World Health Organization Global Health Expenditure Database

The high level of OOPPs as a major source of health care financing limits the ability of poor and vulnerable households, and sometimes rich households without health insurance to access and utilize necessary healthcare services. This inability maybe behind the persistent deplorable health statistics often associated with Nigeria and thus necessitates the need for health issues to be brought to the forefront of policy makers in the country.

2.3 Theoretical Literature: An Evidence-Based Model

Evidence based policy is a set of methods which determines the policy process It advocates a more rational and systematic approach to policy making on the premise that policy decisions should be better informed by available evidence. This is because policy which is based on systematic evidence is seen to produce better outcomes (Sutcliffe and Court, 1999). EBP' approach helps policy makers make well informed decisions about policies, programmes and projects by putting the best available evidence from research at the heart of policy development and implementation according to Davies (2004)

Health policies are developed basically to improve the physical, social, economic or environmental conditions, and to reduce health inequities in a country (Glossary, 2001). For health policies to be effective, they must be evidence-based, from empirical research, to reveal the prevailing realities in a country.

In conducting analysis which may be geared towards improving the health policy in a selected area, Walt, Shiffman, Schneider, Murray, Brugha and Gilson (2008) recommends that it is important to contextualize the study environment in order to understand the challenges a methodology might pose in the study. This is particularly important since some of the ideas and concepts in a methodology may have been derived from studies in countries that are not comparable to the present one where the study is being conducted. In their study, 'Doing' health policy analysis: methodological and conceptual reflections and challenges' Walt et al, (2008) further noted that in a bid to perform its health care purchasing, regulatory and reform functions, the state is usually heavily reliant on essential information about the health sector which may only be assessed from private research efforts which must be properly contextualized in both place and time to capture the prevailing realities in the country.Tannahill (1980) developed a model with three overlapping activities to describe health promotion. as shown in the diagram below:

Source: Tannahill (2008)

The Tannahill model recognised health protection as a policy issue and also drew attention to the need for EBP – using available evidence to inform the nature and application of policies in the health sector. EBP according to Davis (2004) is the integration of experience, judgement and expertise with the best available external evidence from systematic research, it involves a shift away from opinion-based decision making towards decisions based on the opinions and judgements of experts (that) constitute high quality valid and reliable evidence from empirical research work. In other words, studies that reveal the true state of the health sector in Nigeria will serve as a veritable tool in the hands of the policy makers for coming up with the best policies for the sector and also giving the sector the priority it deserves.

2.4 Variations in Measures of CHE in Nigeria

Catastrophic health spending is not a new problem in Nigeria but the possibility that it is a worsening problem due to collapsed and ineffective mechanisms for risk pooling demands its constant analysis. Ibukun and Komolafe (2018) reported varying incidence of CHE based on the threshold level with the highest being 72.5 percent at 10 percent. Her study however covered only 4,581 households mostly in the farming region. Aregbesola (2017) recorded an incidence of 29.3 with a threshold of 10 percent. Adisa (2015) reported that 9.6% households experienced CHE in Nigeria. His study covered households with at least one elderly member (one with a member older than or 50 years old). Okoronkwo, Ekpemiro, Okwor, Okpala, and Adeyemo (2015), in the same year recorded an incidence of CHE of 45% though their study covered only people living with type II diabetes mellitus in Nigeria. Amakom and Ezenekwe (2012) reported that 24% of Nigerian households incurred CHE using the Nigerian Living Standard Survey (NLSS) 2003/2004 with 19,158 households. Onoka, Onwujekwe, Hanson and Uzochukwu (2011) calculated CHE intensity as 14.8%. Their study was however focused on Enugu and Anambra states with only 1,128 households. Using data from the Harmonized Nigerian Living Standard Survey (HNLSS) 2009/2010 Omotosho and Ichoku (2016) reported that 19.5% of Nigerians suffered financial catastrophe. 48% incidence of CHE was reported by Ichoku and Fonta (2009) and the data for the study were derived from the 1999 General Household Surveys with 7,667 households. Comparability is impossible because of the differences in the study population. This setback is however minimised as different methodologies are used on the same data set. Comparability is facilitated and policy requirements enhanced.

3. Materials and Methods

The study is focused on Nigeria using the Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey (HNLSS) 2009/2010 the most comprehensive household survey in Nigeria. The household survey covers the thirty-six states of the federation including the federal capital territory – Abuja. The project was funded by the World Bank and the UK Department for International Development (DFID). The Federal Government of Nigeria represented by the National Bureau of Statistics implemented the survey by providing professional leadership.

The household survey covered 34,769 households with a total of 153,831 individuals. It covered 9,327 urban households and 25,442 rural households. The survey included national and state findings carried out throughout all the 774 local government areas in the country. For the results of the survey to be more useful, states were zoned according to the six geo-political zone structure of the country as enshrined in the

1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Since studies on the incidence of CHE and its impoverish effects is influenced by the type of data (survey) and the methodology adopted (Buigut, Ettarh, and Amendah (2015); Raban, Dandona and Dandona (2013); Pal (2012); Lu, Chin, Li, and Murray 2009; Xu, Evans, Kawabata, Zeramdini, Klavus, Murray (2003)), the two methodologies that are compared in this study, using the same data set are the WHO Methodology proposed by Xu (2005) and a modification by Pal (2012).

In the discussion paper on the Distribution of Health Payments and Catastrophic Expenditures Methodology, Xu (2005) presents a formal methodology for assessing the catastrophic effects of health payments. Two important features of this methodology are (1) the adoption of a threshold of 40% to determine households that are exposed to CHE and impoverished as a result of OOPPs for health care. (2) The methodology defines food as the only basic necessity for households. Thus the capacity-to-pay for healthcare is defined as income left over after providing for food consumption

Pal (2012) methodology is an adaptation of the WHO methodology with two basic deviations. Firstly, Pal (2012) proposes a relationship that computes a threshold that is unique to each household given its level of expenditure, secondly, she extends the definition of basic necessities beyond food expenditure and argues that that capacity-to-pay should exclude expenditure on all items of necessity and not just food.

Pal (2012) identified nine categories of consumption items as potential necessities namely, cereal, sugar, salt, egg/fish, vegetables, pulses, clothing, rent and cooking fuel. In this study, we merged the first six items as food items and also included household expenditure on education as a necessity because it is one of the most important components of human capital (Groot and Brink, 2006). Thus, we define household necessary expenditures (HH_{NE}) to include:

(i) ood_h – Total household expenditure on food less expenditure on alcoholic beverages and expenditure on food eaten in the restaurant.

(ii) Cook fuel (CKF_h) – Household expenditure on cooking gas, firewood and kerosene

(iii) $Clothing_h$ – Household total expenditure on clothing as reported

(iv) $Rent_h$ – Household expenditure on furnishing and routine household maintenance, actual and imputed rent and repairs of dwelling place

(v) Education (Edu_h) – Household total expenditure on education less education insurance.

Mathematically we have that

$$HH_{NE} = Food_h + CKF_h + Clothing_h + Rent_h + Edu_h$$

4. Results

The data were analysed using STATA version 13.0. Since the HNLSS is an instrument for regular monitoring of welfare and social trends for different population groups in Nigeria particularly the poor, 73.17% of the population were from the rural area. While healthcare needs may be greater in these regions, studies have shown that many people in the developing world particularly in the rural areas go without health care from which they could benefit greatly (O'Donnell, 2007); not necessarily because they do not want to consume enough but affordability as noted by Banerjee et al., (2012), still remains a major barrier to accessing adequate health care for the poor in the rural areas. Thus, utilization of health care is often lowest among the rural poor who may need it the most.

The values of some key variables computed from the WHO methodology and the modified version are presented in the table 1

Table 1: Comparative Results of Variables from the two Approaches for Examining CHE

	WHO Methodology	Percentage of the study Population	Modified methodology	Percentage of the study Population
Poverty Line	₦54,345.04	-	₦79,105.64.	-
Poor Households	9,235	26.35	16,315	46.92
Households with CTP	15,238	43.82	18,454	53.08
Households with CHE	22, 858	65.74	24,641	70.87
Household who paid for health care and experienced CHE	5,874	46.56	12,614	99.98
Households with CHE by Sector				
Rural	4,717	18.54	19,240	75.62
Urban	1,157	12.40	5,401	57.91
Household Impoverishment	9,235	26.56	16,315	46.92
Household Impoverishment as a result of OOPPs for health	11, 258	32.38	18,838	54.18
Households impoverished by Sector				
Rural	9,625	37.83	15,534	61.06
Urban	1,633	17.51	3,304	35.42

5. Discussion of Results

The results revels significant differences in computed values, indicating that the methodology adopted greatly influences the final results for CHE studies. Using the 40 percent threshold recommended by the WHO methodology, with food defined to be the only necessary expenditure for households, the poverty line was estimated as ₦54,345.04, with the modified definition of necessity, the poverty line increases to ₦79,105.64 which is 68.70 percent greater. The wide difference in the poverty line is basically due to the fact that the variable is sensitive to the items that are included in its measurement. It is obtained by specifying a consumption bundle considered adequate for basic consumption needs and then by estimating the cost of these basic needs. The poverty line represents the threshold level of consumption needed for a household to live above poverty. Thus the poor are those whose expenditure as in our study falls below the computed poverty line.
Using food as the only basic necessity, 26.56 percent of households are poor.

However, as households' basic needs increases the number of poor households increases to 16, 315, representing 46.92 percent level of poverty. Literally, this will suggest that about 84.5 million Nigerians which is almost half of the population of the country are consuming below the estimated poverty line.

Since CHE is only incurred when households pay for health care, the incidence of CHE is greatest when more items are included as household necessity. Consuming health care alongside other necessities exposes almost all households to CHE with an incidence of 99.98 percent. This reveals that of the 12,616 households who paid for health care, only two households did not experience CHE while 12,614 households suffered CHE. However, using the 40 percent threshold, 46.56 percent experienced CHE. The incidence of CHE is high particularly because financial protection is completely lacking in Nigeria and households are expected to pay for their health needs. Data used for the study reveals that only 8 households or 0.02 percent have a form of insurance policy.

After accounting for more necessary household expenditure besides food, more households (54.18 percent) are impoverished, that is pushed into poverty or further into poverty as a result of health payments. In both cases, rural households are more affected with the incidence of CHE and impoverishment. This is to be expected as poverty is highest in the rural sector and even small health payments might prove disastrous to these households.

6. Conclusion

The major objective of this paper was to assess the sensitivity of the incidence of CHE and impoverishment to methodological choices. This was achieved by applying the WHO methodology and a modified version as proposed by Pal (2012) to the same set of data. The differences in the results suggest clearly that CHE studies are sensitive to methodologies with particular reference to how variables are defined and measured.

The measure of CHE has serious policy implications as a method may understate the intensity of CHE and thus dampen the need for policy intervention in the health sector. The differences in methodology also poses a problem in terms of monitoring the extent of financial risk protection in the country particularly in relation to the achievement of the third goal of the SDGs

Based on the results, methods used to assess the intensity and incidence of CHE in Nigeria needs to be standardised to produce valid and reliable results that are representative of the prevailing situation in the country. Since household data is often used to assess CHE, appropriate definitions of the variables must be clearly stated. This will produce identical estimates that will assist in the implementation of the right kinds of policies that will provide financial risk protection for the consumers of health care and also intensify the pursuit of Universal Health Care (UHC) in Nigeria.

Though none of the estimates generated in the study can be described as perfect, it is however logical to assume that a high OOPPs for health care will likely correspond to a similarly high incidence of CHE. Thus the modified version of the WHO methodology as proposed by Pal (2012) appears to provide more reliable results considering the high level and dependence on OOPPs in Nigeria. Thus it is only logical to insist on a policy prescription which advocates a move away from reliance on OOPPS for healthcare towards a system that encourages a form of pre-payment to enhance financial risk protection for consumers of health care in Nigeria and also to protect households from CHE if they experience health shocks.

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The Challenges of Developing Buguma Town as a Secondary City in Rivers State Nigeria

VICTOR OWITUBO CHARLES, NALUBA GOODY NWIEKPIGI
Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt

Abstract. This study investigated the challenges of developing Buguma as a secondary city in Rivers State. This study made use of public opinion survey research design with a sample size of 200 respondents. Data was sourced from the research instrument known as developing Buguma Secondary City Questionnaire (DBSCQ) designed along the Likert-type 4-point scale rating. Data was analyzed with both descriptive and inferential statistics. Simple percentage was used to analyze the descriptive and inferential statistics. Simple percentage was used to analyze the socio-demographic background of the respondents while mean and standard deviation were used to analyze the research questions. One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the hypotheses. The results of the study revealed that majority of the respondents were male 108 (54%); were graduates 68(34%), were between 40-49 years of age 61(30.5) were civil servants 114(57%), and were mainly from the Abbey-Karibo 80(40%) administrative block. The hypothesis revealed that there is significant variation in the opinions of respondents on the challenges of developing Buguma as a secondary city. The study concludes by recommending that both the local government council and the Rivers State government should embark on massive infrastructure development to attract more people to the town to enhance its development as a secondary city to change the narrative of Rivers State as a state with one city syndrome, Port Harcourt.

Keywords: Challenges, Secondary, City, Developing.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Overview

The philosophy underlying regional planning programmes is that the problems of urban and rural areas are intricately connected and should be so solved within a regional framework (Slatter 2012, World Bank, 2011). Similarly, global economic activities and population dynamics are increasingly concentrated in big cities and as a result, urban research has tended to focus on large metropolitan areas at the expense of secondary cities which have been a rediscovery of the city in academic discourse (Marais, Rooyen, Lenka and Cloete. 2014).

Secondary cities are those places that range in form and size from 150,000 to 5million people and perform a wide range of critical functions in national and international systems of cities (Robert and Hohmann, 2014). In a nutshell, secondary cities imply medium sized towns that are well-integrated within a rural region to offer rural populations better living conditions, jobs, a less-polluted environment and act not only as local markets for rural products but also as catalysts for rural economic diversification (Bolay and Rabinovich, 2010). Under this circumstance, secondary cities primarily functioned as rural service centres serving in the

capacity of growth points to the surrounding hinterland.

This is unlike the type of conventional "Growth Poles" which turn out to be parasitic rather than generative centres. The generative settlements are those intermediate towns which pass on some benefits to the surrounding hinterland whereas the parasitic centres grow fat on the accumulated proceeds without passing any on (Adeyemo, 2008).
Nigeria, like most other developing economies of the world is characterized by inequalities in terms of access to public facilities and development (Kanu, 2015).

This observation is very obvious because the urban centres often chosen as state capitals in the country are growing rapidly to the detriment of their peripheral towns which are mostly local government headquarters (Naluba, 2016). Consequently, rural Nigeria is today not only been economically, socially and politically marginalized but backward and neglected such that the gap between urban and rural areas is alarming in strength and complexity. According to George (2010), Nigerian cities such as Lagos, Kano, Ibadan, Enugu, Port Harcourt, Kaduna and Calabar grow mainly through rural-urban migration and this urbanization process has outpaced the existing urban management systems. This submission is in consonance with Ebong and Animashaun in Nwala (2018:2) who reported thus;
Most of the problems experienced in the cities such as unemployment, poor and inadequate housing and transportation facilities and environmental decay are traceable to massive immigration of people from the rural backlands. Such migrations are generally stimulated by the absence of facilities for personal survival and maintenance, and lopsided location decisions which favour over-concentration of jobs and amenities in the urban at the expense of the rural areas.

Furthermore, many developmental and urban management opportunities presented by secondary cities in most developing countries hardly utilize them because the political and economic elites are concentrated in the metropolitan centres and hence, they are directly or indirectly pre-occupied by the problems of their host cities (Otiso, 2005). Corroborating the above view is Adeyemo (2003) who opines that:
The poverty of the rural region of the less-developed countries of the world is associated with asymmetrical structure of political power (i.e. relative powerlessness of rural population, inappropriate conception of the role of agriculture in development process). Hence, the major cause of rural poverty in developing countries is the power of urban elite; and so long as the interests, background and sympathies remain predominantly urban, the country side may get the "priority" but the city will get the "resources".

1.2 Statement of Problem

Regrettably enough, it is observed that the appropriate development of secondary cities in Rivers State has been undermined by the unwillingness of subsequent administrations to share political and fiscal powers with municipal authorities and regional governments (Deekor 2016). Worthy of note is the fact that the existing one-city state structure of Rivers State since its creation (except Bayelsa State with Yenagoa, being the capital in 1996) reveals the excessive growth of Port Harcourt City at the detriment of other peripheral towns that are overdue for development as secondary cities. They are Bori, Omoku, Ahoada, Buguma, Bodo, Abonnema, Bonny, Degema, Emohua, Opobo, Isiokpo, Ngo and Okrika based on population size, the control of natural environment, development of social organizations and technological development (Wizor, 2013). Therefore, this study is of the view that the overwhelming increase in Port Harcourt metropolis and its environs through the policy of Greater Port Harcourt City Programme without the impression of developing secondary cities across the state particularly Buguma town implies the periphery's untapped reservoir of human and material resources, restricted domestic markets, marked interregional imbalance and persistent insecurity of life and property which proved to be serious obstacle to sustainable development of Rivers State and Nigeria in general. It is against this background

that this paper investigates the challenges of developing Buguma town as a Secondary City in Rivers State.

1.3 Aim and Objective of the Study

The aim of this study is to assess the challenges of developing Buguma in Rivers State as a Secondary City. To achieve this aim the objective is to investigate the challenges facing Buguma town to develop as a Secondary City.

1.4 Research Questions

What are the challenges facing Buguma town to develop as a Secondary City?

1.5 Hypothesis:

There is significant variation in the opinions of respondents in the challenges facing Buguma town to develop as a Secondary City among the administrative blocks.

1.6 Study Area: Buguma Town

1.6.1 Location and Extent

Geographically, Buguma in Asari-Toru Local Government Area of Rivers State is located between longitude 6^0 $00^{'}$ and 6^0 $35^{'}$ East of the Greenwich Meridian and Latitude 3^0 $20^{'}$ and 3^0 $30^{'}$ North of the Equator (Bell-Gam, 1990) (figure 1.1). The latitudinal locations imply that the study area lies within the tropical region with all its climatic characteristics. The total landmass is approximately 603km2, occupied by 251, 806 people with a population density of 2,295. The area is bounded in the North by Emohua Local Government Area, in the South by Degema Local Government Area, in the East by Port Harcourt City Council, Obio/Akpor and Degema Local Government Areas respectively and in the West by Akuku-Toru and Abua/Odual Local Government Areas. Administratively, Buguma City is divided into three blocks namely Abbey-Karibo, Omobo-Birinomini and Omekwe-Liliama, each headed by a paramount ruler who works cooperatively with the local government council.

1.6.2 Climate and Vegetation

The area is characterized by semi-hot humid equatorial climate and relative humidity (Tamuno, 2008). It is typified by uniformly high temperature throughout the year, intense rainfall which occurs almost every month of the year, seasonally variable and energetic in down pour with increasing distance from the ocean (Mmom and Fred-Nwangwu, 2013). This often graduates to thunderstorm at its onset and cessation with variation in duration and amount between 4,700mm and 4,500mm in July – September, especially in popular rainfall stations like Opobo, Okrika and Bonny that are in the same geographical location with Buguma City (Fashiola et al, 2013, Bell-Gam 2002).

The riverine area encompassing Buguma in Asari-Toru Local Government Area of Rivers State is divided into three main hydro-vegetation zones. The beach ridge is extensively vegetated by fresh water swamp trees, palm and shrubs on the sandy ridges and mangroves in the intervening valleys, creeks or tidal flats. The salt-water (mangrove) swamp zone is the tidal flat vegetated by the red salt-rooted mangrove (Rhizophoraracemosa) and two other species including the nypa palm that grows extensively under the influence of brackish water system and marine regimes. The fringe areas of raised alluvial coastal plain terrace within the swamps are vegetated by tall luxuriant forest tree species and oil palm.

1.6.3 Economic and Social Activities

Buguma town is an administrative town as it is the headquarters of Asari-Toru Local Government Area. It is also a traditional headquarters of the Kalabari ethnic nationality. Buguma can be accessed by road and water from Port Harcourt and all other towns and villages surrounding. The town has a general hospital and as well as three primary school and secondary schools and also a magistrate court. The main economic activities in the area are transportation, fishing, trading and other local craft activities. Tourists are attracted to the place because of it natural beaches and also the traditional festivals that go on every quarter of the year.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1 Concept of Secondary City

The concept of Secondary City is a topical concept within the context of regional development planning. Thus the philosophy underlying regional planning programmes is that the problems of urban and rural areas are critically connected and should be so solved within a regional framework (Slatter, 2012 & World Bank, 2011). Similarly, global economic activities and population dynamics are increasingly concentrated in big cities and as a result, urban research has tended to focus on large metropolitan areas at the expense of secondary cities which have been a rediscovery of the city in academic discourse (Marias Van Rooyen, Lenka and cloete, 2014 and World Bank, 2010).

Secondary cities are located around the world. They are on every continent (except Antarctica). Each city faces unique environmental and social challenges that impact future planning, growth and sustainable development. Place-based needs determine how geospatial technologies will be used for data generation analysis and visualization. According to the United States Department of State, Secondary Cities are the fastest growing Urban area in developing countries experiencing unplanned growth and development. This department further observed that these cities are unique environments that have generally been poorly mapped with united data and information on infrastructure, land tenure, and planning.

A Secondary City often follows after a primate city and can be seen in the urban hierarchy. According to Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, secondary cities have between "500,000 to 3 million inhabitants, but are often unknown outside of their national or regional context. Brillembourg and Klumpner (2014) opine that many secondary cities in the Global South are expected to undergo massive expansions in the next few decades, comparable to city growth in Europe and North America over the past two centuries. A secondary city may emerge from a cluster of smaller areas in a metropolitan region or may be the capital city of a province, state, or second-tier administrative unit within a country.

According to regional development planners, a secondary city is largely determined by population size, function and economic status. Generally, secondary cities are geographically defined urban jurisdictions or centres performing vital governance, logistical and production functions at a sub-national or sub-metropolitan region level within a system of cities in a country. In some cases, their role and functions may expand to a geographic region of the global realm. The United States Department of State posits that a Secondary city is not only defined by population, size, function and economic status, but by the neighbouring and/or distant cities and their socio-economic status. The State Department further states that the population of a secondary city may range between 10-50% of the country's largest city.

Secondary cities as urban centres provide critical support functions of governance, transportation and production services. Regional development planners have observed that secondary cities "usually form more recent poles of growth often also with a more diffuse genealogy, than longer metropolis. The ambivalent situation of these towns (in the periphery of the centre and in the centre of the periphery, in so far is these notions still retain their meaning) generates a particular, and by definition highly hybrid, socio-cultural urban dynamic which in turn influences the outlook of social, political and economic life in the more visible natural metropolis (Cassiman, De Bocck&Wolputte, 2009).

Secondary cities have their own socio-economic and political culture that may differ from other cities such as primate cities. Moreover, secondary city (and more generally in the margin of the state) there often is more room for improvisation. Local commerce, trading routes and smuggling networks determine the economic sphere in important ways; local forms of associational life (the middle ground of civil society) has a far greater influence on local politics than the case in larger urban centres and the functioning of local, decentralized political authorities is often shaped and cross cut to a far greater extent by constantly shifting alliances

between local stakeholders (Rondinelli, 1983). It should be noted that in recent years, the importance of secondary cities for national economic development and urban planning has been rediscovered and re-energized. According to World Bank (2009) secondary cities form an important part of emerging global system of cities. Thus while the large cities play a significant role in shaping the new economic geography of cities in fostering global trade, travel and investment, it is secondary cities which will have a much stronger influence in the future upon the economic development of countries (Roberts and Hohmann, 2014).

2.2 Concept of Development

Concerning what is implied by development, several definitions abound. Development as a concept implies change and improvement. To Nwaenyi (2012), development implies growth plus change Mabugunje (1980) conceived development as distributive justice, socio-economic transformation and for essentially in human progress. Okowa (2009) clearly pointed out, that, what is fundamental to the conceptualization of development is the ability of man to productively manipulate his environment, physically, humanly and perhaps spiritually in such a manner as to maximize the wellbeing and welfare of his entire society. This implies that, the achievement of development must be seen to transcend economic and physical realm, but also must be in terms of individual and collective well-being: a safe environment, freedom from want, opportunity for personal growth and enrichment and access to goods and services. Beyond the absolute substance is concerned with the provision of basic needs such as housing, clothing, food and minimal education (Naluba, 2016 and Adeyemo, 2003).

Thirlwall (1989) states that 'no country can be regarded as fully developed if it is exploited by others and does not have the power and influence to conduct relations on equal terms. These conditions according to Ikeagee (2010) breed dissatisfaction amongst Nigerians providing an entry point for ethnic militancy, social vices and religious extremism in various parts of the country. Cox (1972) described developed nations thus: "economically developed countries tend to have higher gross national products per capital, lower infant motility rate, higher levels of social provision in terms of such things as the availability of medical services, education, potable water, electricity, a greater proportion of the population living in cities, greater proportion of the labour force employed in manufacturing; and higher transportation network densities". The Brutdland Report of 1987 brought a paradigm shift from maximum to sustainable economic development.

According to Nwabachi (2011), sustainability is all about self-sustenance which is a comfortable condition and a near independence in all life style of a given pole in political, economic, defence, agriculture, etc. This is a process of transforming the economic, social, political, cultural, intellectual structures of the society. According to Adeyemo (2003), the idea of sustainable development reaches far beyond environmental protection, as it means, a process of change in which exploitation of resources, direction of investment, orientation of technological development, and institutional changes are made consistent with future as well as present needs. Consequently, sustainable development is not a fixed state of harmony but rather a balanced and adaptive process of change. This would then be characterized by a dynamic Parteto-optional trajectory in which progress in one system – that is, either the economic or the ecological would not be to the detriment of the other system.

Sustainable human development is development that, not only generates destroying environment rather than destroying it, that empowers people rather than marginalizing them. It gives priority to the poor, enlarging their chances and opportunities, and provides for participation in decision affecting them. It is development that is pro-poor, pro-children "(UNDP, 1990; Adeyemo, 2003). In a similar view, the Human Development Report (2007/2008) stated that: human development is about people, it is about expanding people's real choices and the substantive freedom – the capabilities that enables them to live the lives they value.

2.3 Central Place Theory

The nature of centre remains an issue in regional development planning because it has often times been fulfilling a prominent role in the dynamic patterns of societies in a geographical unit. Walter Christaller formulated the central place theory after his empirical study of central places in Southern Germany in 1933 to explain the service element in spatial structure of a region. It was noted in his study that there are seven levels of central places comprising of hamlets, villages, sub towns, towns, major towns major cities and metropolitan cities in Southern Germany. The central place theory which has been modified by a German Economist (August Losch) in 1954 explained the location of manufacturing activities and sought to locate central places to their hinterlands. According to Adedipe (2002), Losch defined a central place as a settlement providing services for the population of its hinterland. In this case, the hierarchy of services may vary from the low order services to high order services depending on the physical sizes and of settlements in a region.

If the population of an area increases beyond the threshold levels the services activity will flourish and reap profit but if otherwise the service activity will lose economically and closes down in the long run. The market range of a service activity is the physical or economic which people are willing to reach the service and beyond the market area, the consumers will patronize other rearing services. Christaller's objective was to minimize the consumer's travel cost to the service activity (Bosorun, 2010).

The fundamental weakness of this theory is that it assumes that natural resources and population are evenly distributed in space. But in reality, natural resources and population vary spatially from one place to another in a region and therefore, distorts the picture of regular hierarchy settlement patterns and functions (Afoloyan, 2010).

Again, the theory also assumes that consumers will behave rationally by patronizing the closet service activity which is uncertain in all cases. Hence a knowledge market conditions or rulings, cost and quality differentiates are factors to be considered under this circumstance. In the cases secondary boarding schools students may have to move relatively long distance at their own family expense (Funnell, 1978). Besides, the combined use of population size and service activity to measures the centrality of an area may use conflicting result and thereby distorting the rigid hierarchy of settlement in a region. For example, densely populated agricultural communities may have lower order service activities whereas some smaller or sparsely populated communities may be mining, manufacturing, commercial or educational service centers in a region.

Thus, Knowles in Deekor (2016) demonstrated that different ranking methods may result in different rankings of central places within a given area or region. Furthermore, the central place theory fails to recognize that the relationships between centers and their hinter lands constantly change over time and space. Hence, an increase in the service activity of one center perhaps with development of a new multiple share will have an impact on the service activity of other competing centers (Ola, 2010). The hexagonal spatial structures of a settlement in a region never existed in reality.

Even if the hierarchical structures exist, this may be more as a result of the organization of administration and the regulations concerning trading activities, then the incipient emergence of a central place type of settlement systems. Although, there are challenges in the application of this theoretical structure, the inherent ideas found in the theory appear superficially attractive for designing settlement patterns. Therefore, it is important to determine how far the existing pattern of centers do conform to the assumptions of central place theory given above (James, 2011).

2.4 The Relevance of Central Place Theory in Regional Development Planning

This theory is perhaps the most widely recognized and used of all the spatial but normative theories and requires that the settlement are examined not in isolation but as integral part of a total as well as functional system of such places. This means that major urban centers and their neighborhoods, the mother settlements and their offspring. Villages,

large rural centers and their surrounding hamlets cannot be planned in isolation.

Experiences reveal that disproportionate concentration of investments in the major cities of developing countries have aggravated the level of poverty condition and distress in their rural hinter lands leading to rural-urban migration such an understanding will guide the delineation of a functional region which will serve as a planning unit (Agbala, 2012).

Consequently, Funnel (1978) suggested that national planning is an inappropriate allocation mechanism and it has not served to raise general living standards anywhere but central place theory emphasizes provision of services at each level of settlements. Large urban settlements have higher order service activities but the same services are being performed at the village level although on small scale basis. The provision of these services will improve the standards of living of the rural dwellers and reduce rural urban migration. The central place theory therefore provides an insight into how the development of transport routes, infrastructure and local administration can be sued for settlement growth spacing in a region that makes up that most powerful base for the factors of location sizes, numbers and geometrical arrangement of cities within national space (Ayeni, 1980).

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The research design employed in this study is public opinion survey research design. According to Nworgu (2006), public opinion survey, is usually designed to find out the opinion of people in a given area towards an issue or event that is of interest to the generality of the populace in the area. For the purposes of this study, the opinions of the people of Buguma Town were sought in respect of the evaluation of Buguma as a secondary city to be a centre for regional development. Buguma is a Local Government Area headquarters which is a semi-urban centre.

3.2 Population for the Study

The target population of the study constitutes all the residents of Buguma town which primarily consists of three blocks namely Abbey Karibo, Omekwe-Liliama and OmboBirinomini. The population of Buguma town based on the 2006 national population census when projected to 2017, gives a population size of 202, 992 people.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Technique:

A sample size of 200 respondents was used for this study and this was achieved through purposive sampling techniques across the three administrative blocks that make Buguma.The simple random sampling technique was adopted for the study.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection/Instrumentation

A research instrument to be known as: Developing Buguma Secondary City Questionnaire (DBSCQ). This instrument was designed by the researcher along the Likert-type 4-point scale rating of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) and weighted 4 points, 3 points, 2 points and 1point respectively.The research instrument (DBSCQ) was divided into four parts according to the four objectives of the study. Each section contains five questions and there was a total of twenty questions in all.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data sample. Simple percentage was used to analyze the socio-demographic distribution of respondents. Thus mean and standard deviation was used to analyze the research question. The hypothesis was analyzed with the use of one way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The hypothesis was tested at 0.05 level of significance.

4. Data Presentation

Socio-Demographic Distribution of Respondent

The data in table 4.1 below shows the socio-demographic distribution of the respondents

Table 4.1: Percentage socio-demographic Distribution of Respondents

Variable	Category	N	%
Sex	Male	108	54.0
	Female	92	46.0
		200	
Marital Status	Single	76	38.0
	Married	55	27.5
	Divorced	20	10.0
	Separated	28	14.0
	Widow/Widower	21	10.5
		200	
Educational level	No formal Education	38	19.0
	Primary Education	33	16.5
	Secondary Education	42	21.0
	Graduate	68	34.0
	Post graduate	19	9.5
		200	
Age (Years)	20-29	10	5.0
	30-39	39	19.5
	40-49	70	35.0
	50-59	61	30.5
	60-69	20	10.0
		200	
Occupation	Farmer	8	4.0
	Trader	11	5.5
	Private Business Man/Woman	35	17.5
	Civil Servant	114	57.0
	Corporate Employee	32	16.0
		200	
Block	Abbey-Karibo	80	40.0
	Omekwe-Liliama	70	35.0
	Omobo-Birinomini	50	25.0
		200	

Source: *Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)*

Table 4.1 showed mean and standard deviation on the demographic distribution of respondents. The table shows that about 92(46.0% were female while 108(54.0%) were male. It also showed that majority 76(38.0%) were single, this was followed by 55(27.5%) who were married. Majority of the respondents 68(34.0%) were graduates while about 42(21.0%) were secondary school leavers. Majority 70(35.%) were between 40-49 years of age while 61(30.5%) were between 50-59 years of age. About 114(57.0%)

were civil servants while 35(17.5%) were private business personnel. Again the table shows that 80 (40.0%) were from Abbey-Karibo administrative block, 70(35.0%) were from Omekwe-Lilliama administrative block while 50(25.0%) were from Ombo-Birinomini administrative block.

Section 1: Analysis of Research Questions

Research Question 1 What are the challenges facing Buguma town to be developedas a secondary city?

The result of the analysis is presented in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Mean and standard deviation on the challenges facing Buguma town to be developed as a secondary city

S/N	Challenges facing Buguma town	N	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	SD	Remark
1	Social challenges of crime and criminality such as armed robbery, kidnapping, etc could hinder Buguma from developing as a secondary city	200	104	57	26	13	3.26	0.92	Accepted
2	Environmental challenges such as poor sanitation and improper waste disposal are the problems Buguma will face as a secondary city	200	100	71	17	12	3.30	0.86	Accepted
3	Poor and inadequate infrastructural development could hamper Buguma from developing as a secondary city	200	105	85	6	4	**3.46**	0.66	Accepted
4	Government policies and actions at the state and local government level may make or mar the development of Buguma as a secondary city	200	84	100	13	3	**3.33**	0.66	Accepted
5	Buguma is entrenched in internal crises and political wrangling that will hamper its development as a secondary city	200	64	89	37	10	**3.04**	0.84	Accepted
	Grand mean						**3.28**	**0.79**	**Accepted**

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)

Table 4.2: shows that the grand mean and standard deviation of the challenges facing Buguma town in order for it to be developed as a secondary city was 3.28, SD=0.79. The key challenges facing Buguma town to develop as a secondary city was poor and inadequate infrastructural development could hamper Buguma from developing as a secondary city (M=3.46, SD=0.66) and was followed by Government policies and actions at the state and local government level may make or mar the development of Buguma as a secondary city (M=3.33, SD=0.66), while the least was that Buguma is entrenched in internal crises and political wrangling that will hamper its development as a secondary city (M=3.04, SD=0.84). Based on the grand mean value, we conclude that the political, social and economic challenges facing Buguma Town could hamper it from being developed as a seconding city.

Hypothesis Testing

Null Hypothesis (Ho): There is no significant variation in the opinion of respondents on the challenges facing Buguma town so as to qualify it to be developed as a secondary city among the three administrative blocks.

Alternate Hypothesis (Ha): There is significant variation in the opinion of respondents on the challenges facing Buguma town so as to qualify it to be developed as a secondary city among the three administrative blocks.

Table 4.3: A summary of ANOVA computation on the variation in the opinion of respondents on the challenges facing Buguma town to be developed as a secondary city among the three administrative blocks.

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F. Statistic	P. Value	Alpha Level	Result
Between Group	4.874	2	2.437	14.25	.000	0.05	Significant
Within Groups	33.631	197	.171				
Total	**38.505**	**199**					

Source: *Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)*

Table 4.9 shows the ANOVA result which established that the P. Value obtained (i.e 0.000) was lower than the chosen alpha level of 0.05. Therefore, according to the decision rule, the alternate hypothesis was accepted while the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that the opinion of the respondents varies with respect to the challenges Buguma town faces to qualify it to be developed among the three administrative blocks of Abbey-Karibo, Omekwe – aliliama and Ombo. Birinomoni which make up the town. The observed variability in this opinion as statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

5. Summary of Findings

The key challenges facing Buguma town in order for it to be developed as a secondary city include inadequate infrastructures. This could hamper Buguma town from developing as a secondary city. Most importantly, government policies and actions at the state and local government level may either, enhance or may the development of Buguma a town as a secondary city.

There a significant variation in the opinion of respondents on the challenges facing Buguma town so as to qualify it to be developed as a secondary city among the three administrative blocks ($F=14.25$, $P<.05$). The null hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 alpha level while the alternate hypothesis was accepted.

6. Discussion of Findings

This study concurs with the arguments of Otiso (2005) that secondary cities are faced with immense challenges that undermine their ability to live up to expectations. One of the findings of this study deals with some challenges facing Buguma town to be developed as a secondary city especially that of government policies and actions at both the local and state level which may hamper or hinder the development of Buguma town as a secondary city. According to Otiso (2005), government policies in Kenya through their regional development programmes and processes may hinder and mar development of secondary cities.

The findings of the study are in agreement with the works of Andreasen*et al* (2017) in Arusha Tanzania, which showed that people are migrating into that area. In research question one, two variables reveal that in the near future, the population of Buguma town is expected to grow as more non-indigenes migrate to the town and this will consequently lead to high population density in Buguma town.

Based on the findings of this study, there is every possibility and tendency that Buguma town will grow and become a secondary city based on the inherent potentialities the town possesses despite the challenges it faces. This will enhance regional development planning and programmes in Rivers state in particular and Nigeria in general.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The relevance of local government headquarters serving as secondary cities in Rivers State cannot be over emphasized a Rivers State is known to be a state with one city syndrome in respect of Port Harcourt, the state capital. The findings of this study give credence that Bugumahas all it takes economically, socially and politically qualified to be developed as a secondary city. Therefore, all necessary measures to make this become a reality must be harnessed by all and sundry.

Rivers state is dire need of secondary cities so as to decongest the metropolitan city of Port

Harcourt. This is because secondary cities are the nexus centres between rural areas and urban areas; and they imply medium sized towns that are well-integrated within a rural region to offer rural populations better living conditions. This need for secondary cities could be the reason for the Rivers State government under Governor RotimiAmaechi administration took the initiative to establish the Greater Port Harcourt City Programme.

The implication of developing Buguma as a secondary city based on the findings of this study is that the untapped reservoir of human and material resources and restricted domestic market will now be opened and these resources will be exploited to the benefits of the citizenry. This will also help to reduce inter-regional balance in the state and will promote the sustainable development of the state. Therefore, it may conclusively be stated that given the political will and deployment of basic infrastructural facilities, Buguma town will be developed as a secondary city in the nearest future.

Based on the result of this study, Buguma has the potentialities to be developed as a secondary city despite the current challenges facing it. There is need therefore for both the local government authority and a well as the state government to come up with a strategy and regional development plan that will transform Buguma town to Buguma city. This can be achieve through provision of basic infrastructural projects that will impact positively on the lives of the people such as power supply, tarred internal roads, general hospitals, civic centre, primary and secondary schools, etc that will attract people and investors to the area which will enhance the rapid development of the area.

Furthermore, the local government council and the state governor should also engage in economic empowerment programme both for the youths and the adults. This will bring prosperity, growth and development in the area as this group of people will be meaningfully engaged in productive ventures.

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Recent Developments in 21st Century Global Legal Practice: Emerging Markets, Prospects, Challenges and Solutions for African Lawyers

OLUWAFEMI EMMANUEL OLOWONONI, OGECHUKWU JENNIFER IKWUANUSI
Nigerian Law School Headquarters, Abuja, Nigeria.

Abstract. In recent developments, there have been threatening ground breaking achievements to the practice of law. There is the influx of different types of technologies, cyborgs and other types of artificial intelligence playing in the legal arena alongside lawyers. There is the growth of non-traditional means of dispute resolution by means of Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) and Online Disputes Resolution (ODR) of recent taking the lead in resolution of disputes. Networking and borderless legal practice has been at its peak with the introduction of diverse social media platforms that enables interconnectivity beyond the national boundaries and enabling cross-border relationships between clients and their lawyers and law firms amongst themselves. Also, international dealings such as commercial transactions are constantly on the increase with the deployment of various electronic media that enables same and legal process outsourcing. Aside all these, is institutional challenge arising from corporate institutions whose activities and mandates directly or indirectly affect the legal profession. Needless to say that the demands of the 21st century have indeed presented challenges to legal practice owing to tougher economic conditions that have affected clients and their businesses with boomeranging effects on legal practice.

Against this background, this paper examines these recent developments, emerging markets, opportunities, the demands of the emerging markets and the institutional challenges that have become a clog in the wheel of progress of legal practice in Africa. The paper makes recommendations on the innovations and adjustments institutions can make towards hitch-free legal practice in Nigeria. The paper contributes to literature by examining the recent developments threatening the prospect of legal practice. It underpins the argument for the need to shift focus from the traditional legal practices to emerging fields. In doing this, the paper contends certain restrictions in the Nigeria legal profession and suggests reforms.

1. Introduction

Globally, the practice of law is a dynamic one as it grows and evolves alongside the society. Legal practice in Africa is no different. The 21st century legal practice areas have also broadened greatly. The legal profession is sacrosanct for the peaceful administration and co-existence of members of societies. Resultantly, the law must grow along with the society; otherwise we have a system that is at abeyance with the law. Indeed, the law is the bedrock of the society and where the legal system is sick, the society will certainly suffer for it.

In recent times, there have been tremendous developments in Nigeria and the world at large. There are emerging fields and global issues that raise concerns and encouragement such as the utilization of renewable energy as against non-renewable, the growing impact of climate change on the environment, impacts of global markets, international laws on the regulation of development and use of nuclear weapons, the emergence of crypto currency, intellectual

property issues occasioned by the duplicity of electronic print platforms by way of blogs, websites, frauds, the multi billion dollars sports industry, ever increasing entertainment and media law, cyber law, medi-tech, research and publications are only a few of the emerging areas of legal practice.

Lawyers are however expected to rise beyond all these and meet the society's needs. If lawyers must meet up with these new demands; then the hitches, difficulties and challenges especially those arising from institutions that stand on the way to achieving this purpose must be dealt with decisively

The 21st century has brought with it new areas of legal practice alongside dynamic ways of practicing law. Today, there is a tremendous departure from traditional legal practice. Hence, we have filing and service of court processes, scheduling with the judges, and even having court sittings all through the internet. There are numerous precedents available online at the click of a button, many robots that can answer your questions on legal issues 80% correctly as against the 60% correct answers given by humans. Clients come to you almost only for what the law will not allow them do by themselves. Similarly, certain legal processes have been simplified in order to encourage more client participation. Furthermore, the courts and litigants now look more favourably on Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) as against the lawyer dominated litigation system.

These developments have birthed new areas in legal practice, hence a veritable market for practitioners in the 21st Century. Unfortunately, some of the institutional framework in existence have not woken up to the reality of these developments and are as a result rendering great disservice to legal practice. Some other regulatory institutions have taken some steps in a bid to meet up with some of the recent developments, and while some of these steps are applauded, they could be improved upon to ensure a win-win situation.

This research is divided into four parts: The first part considers some of the recent developments and how these have affected legal practice; the second part considers the alternative options and new areas of legal practice that has emerged; the third part examines the challenges in practicing in these emerging areas with special emphasis on institutional challenges; while the fourth part considers solutions to these challenges.

2. Recent Developments in Legal Practice in the 21st Century

The 21st century has brought with it a lot of formidable trends. We live in an era where traditional litigation is no more the order of the day. In more advanced countries, the Alternative Dispute Resolution is preferred to litigation owing to the party-autonomy it gives, however, ample room is still given to litigation which remains the front burner means of resolving disputes. The reason for this is obvious, the litigation system obtainable in such jurisdictions are not clogged by the truck load of challenges that ours is saddled with. There are no recording of cases in long hand, a large number of appeals do not reach the apex court of the land, frivolous applications by counsel calculated only to delay proceedings are disallowed outrightly, and there are sufficient man-power, willingness and where withal to expeditiously decide cases. As a result, people resort to ADR in such climes not to avoid the excessive delay in litigation but because of its suitability for their unique purpose. The Nigerian situation is not the same. Litigation to the average business man is a last alternative. The ample time, resources and uncertainty it generates has increasingly made it a less attractive option and ADR, a more viable option. Of course, ADR mechanisms are not within the exclusive preserve of lawyers, this simply means less lawyers go home smiling to the bank as practitioners from other areas can always be approached by clients to facilitate the resolution of their dispute.

Clients are willing to offer the least amount possible for much more services. Lawyers are required to be knowledgeable in vast areas which are ordinarily unconnected with law. Stiff competition is growing amongst colleagues as clients' demands continue to grow and will often prefer a practitioner whose services will be used in "killing two birds". It is notorious that the

need for typists in law firms is fast dwindling as a lawyer who is not computer savy can safely be said to be a misfit for the 21st century legal practice. The mischief this also takes care of is that costs are kept at the barest minimum after all, the smart practitioner must keep his client satisfied. While paperwork is still a reality, law practice has changed drastically in the past 20 years, mainly because of computer technology.

With all of these, practitioners in the field still have to grapple with the increasing number of legal practitioners churned out by the Law School annually as the Universities keep turning out more graduates yearly. As if that were not enough, professionals from other disciplines have also joined the race. For instance, the Corporate Affairs Commission in executing the Presidential Mandate issued by the Vice President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to promote the ease of doing business in Nigeria has thrown the door to incorporation of companies to interested investors and the first directors of the proposed company may approach the Commission directly to register the company without engaging lawyer. Hitherto, only accountants, chartered secretaries and administrators and lawyers could register companies under Part A of CAMA.

3. Institutional Challenges

It is worthy of note that whereas the evidence law and indeed the entire legal system in England has undergone radical amendments and reforms to bring them in line with the challenging circumstances and modern trends, it is only a few months ago that we thought fit to amend our Evidence Act in order to bring ourselves in line with global trends. Unfortunately, our effort is superficial and does not go far enough. We do not have elaborate cyber laws. Cyber law, of which the law relating to electronic evidence is an offshoot, has emerged as a new discipline and we have few if any groundbreaking litigation on the issue. It is to foreign law and foreign case law studies that we must look for guidance as our law develops in this field.

The issue of delay in the adjudication of matters in court is usually under-estimated. At this pace, a time will come, (and we hope it does not come) when only criminal matters will be the matters in court rooms. Needless to say that such a day will be truly woeful as many judges, court staff will lose their jobs as a consequence of the reduced income courts will consequently generate. It is needless to say what will happen to legal practice if this day arrives. The National Judicial Commission, Nigerian Bar Association, Legal Practitioners Disciplinary Committee must realize the impending consequence of failing to nip this menace at the bud. Thus far, judges blame practitioners for the delay as practitioners bring up countless frivolous applications geared towards delaying the matter in court; practitioners on the other hand lay the blame on the judges for late sittings, non-sitting and unfounded delays in delivering rulings. If we must continue the blame game, we must also blame the draftsman of the Constitution who has allowed virtually all decisions of courts appealable up to the Supreme Court. This is far from ideal. The law reports are replete with cases that judgments have just been given for despite being initiated many years ago. The uphill task of resolving disputes is admittedly a tedious one. Dubious practices by lawyers to stall proceedings in court should be met by stiff sanctions. We must at this point applaud the growing practice of some courts in awarding punitive costs against counsel who file frivolous actions in court in a bid to impress their clients. Respectfully, we submit also that Judges who are in the habit of sitting very late, rising rather too early, delaying ruling unnecessarily should have these habits mentioned to the Chairman of the National Judicial Commission or State Judicial Commission (as the case maybe). Hence the executive arm do all it can to all stakeholders should make concerted efforts to make this dispute resolution

4. Emerging Markets in Business of Law Services

In the words of D.D Dodo SAN, the Legal Service market has not been spared the influence of globalization. Economies have become more global, the demand for cross-border legal services has grown significantly and efforts are

being made by stakeholders to remove the barriers to cross-border legal practice.

Never has there been a time that the demand for lawyers is as high as it is today. With the growth in commercial transactions, government policies, foreign participation in business, growth in population, inter connectivity occasioned by ICT resources that have united the world as one global village, legal issues arise every second. Sadly, there are thousands of unemployed lawyers in Nigeria. With the Nigerian population estimated to be over 160,000,000 with trained lawyers both dead and alive not exceeding 120,000, making approximately 1,400 Nigerians to a lawyer, one would think that the legal profession must be a very lucrative one in Nigeria. This is very far from true. To make matters worse, only a very minute proportion of the lawyers in Nigeria have assessed the global legal market. Just like in our commercial sector, we have been in the habit of importing rather than exporting; this explains the very disturbing statistical data issued by Law Pavilion that 80% of legal services required in Africa comes from outside Africa.

At the 2015 Nigerian Bar Association Conference held in Abuja, young lawyers were advised to embrace new areas of law such as Telecommunications law, ADR, Intellectual Property law, Cyber law against the more traditional tracks. This paper canvasses that to forge a better front in the global legal market and in order to make headway in the numerous trends that have developed in recent times, first things must be done first; we must put our house in order. While we are not oblivious of the very green pasture on the other side, however, it is our firm view that if the institutions that ought to carry these systems are not functional, then embracing these global trends will be an exercise in futility since we would always fall back to our own. Our institutions must work as they should. With dysfunctional institutions, we will certainly have a dysfunctional legal system and which would obviously result in a dysfunctional practice of law. A lot has been said about how Nigerian lawyers should go global and how they should be abreast of global legal issues, but as they say, "charity must begin at home". These global trends cannot be practiced in vacuum. They must, as of necessity arise from somewhere. In a situation where matters in court drag for years, parties are substituted as a result of the death of the individuals that initiated the matter, vital witness die or lose factual details of occurrences that should have formed part of their testimony in court, owing to countless adjournments is a dire situation.

The era of practicing law in one jurisdiction is fast becoming a thing of the past. With the tremendous growth of international trade, inter-state deals, bilateral and multilateral treaties, legal practice is increasingly becoming global and smart practitioners are upping their game with international best practices as with the advent of internet, telecommunication systems, clients are no longer limited to lawyers in their climes nor are they limited to the need for legal services within their jurisdiction.

First, Legal practitioner has exclusive right to representation of litigants in proceedings and signing of processes relating to proceedings in Courts. Practice of law in large firm specialization as in –house counsel has some advantages including the high salaries, travelling with accolade, career progression and mentoring. However, it is observed also some limitations such as long hours of input leaving no room for personal development, competitive nature and the uncertainty underlining the employment as a result of absence of contract of service and any meaningful schemes. The arrangement in medium law firms is as same in large firm. In Small firm, there is early contact with clients, room for independent practice, the correct approach to pupilage, massive gain of confidence among others but there is also the challenges of little or no salary and incentives generally, likelihood of complacency, leading to a drop in morale. It is submitted that the practice of law should be organised as a business with managerial skills carefully deployed. There is the argument as to whether advocacy prowess is a gift, inborn or a skill or an art that may be learnt over a period of time. This suggests that advocacy skill may be improved by paying attention to voice, maintaining eye contact, self-

confidence, comportment, imagination, illumination

Second, there is also the option of general commercial, corporate practices and general Corporate Affairs fillings. Corporate law practices range from company formation, securing of permits, license and approval from corporate bodies, facilitating foreign investment and capital inflow movement, merger, takeover, acquisitions, capital market solicitors, shares and secured credits transactions, asset schemes and investment management. Corporate Registration, Packaging and obtaining permits and approvals, Corporate Affairs fillings, Post Incorporation Matters as Alteration, Increase in Shares and Conversion, Merger, Takeover, Winding up, Legal Searches and CTCs etc,Debentures and Charge Documentation

Third, a lawyer may choose to specialise in Real estate, Conveyancing and property practices: a budding lawyer in this regard can also take advantage of intellectual property law, oil and gas, minerals law and copyrights. By the combined effects of Sections 22(d) Legal Practitioners Act (LPA) and Land Instruments Registration Law 1959 as Section 2 and 4 provides that no person other than a Legal Practitioner shall either directly or indirectly for or in expectation of any fee, gain or reward, draw or prepare any instrument except will. The law further provides for Penalty of fine of n100. This work observes and submits that the fine provided under the law as penalty is too small to serve as deterrence to fraudsters. Property law practice extends to Mortgage –Backed Securities, Asset-Backed Securities, Estate Development & Secularization Intellectual Property, Registration of patent, trade mark, copyright etc

Furthermore, there is the option of Probate practices. The Legal Practitioners Act provides that only a legal practitioner can prepare documents for probate or letters of Administration. Section 22(d) Legal Practitioners Act provides that only a legal practitioner can prepare documents for probate or letters of Administration. Probate practices also include Family Law Practices, Adoption and Child Rights, NGO on Child Rights and Domestic Violence, Guardianship, Executorship and Trusteeship

Furthermore, there is the prospect of enjoying judicial appointments and political appointment such as AG federation and the 36 states, Registrar General of Corporate Affairs Commission, Director General of Nigerian Law School, Director General of Securities and Exchange Commission, Nigerian Copyright Commission, Nigerian Communication Commission, Institute of Advanced Legal Studies. It is submitted that a lawyer in politics should embrace the culture of professionals in politics and not professional politician.

There is also the option of employment as in-house solicitor and company secretary, Employment as in-house solicitor and Company Secretary in small and medium and multinational companies such as MTN,GLOBACOM,TEXACO,MOBIL, NICON etc Legal department and Compliance, Human Resource Management, Corporate Governance, Negotiation ,Drafting, Vetting and Legal Representatives.

There is also academics and legal research in the Faculties of law, Nigerian Law School and Institute of Advanced Legal Studies and others institutions such as Polytechnics, Colleges of Education and other professional examination bodies such as ICAN,ICSN etc Law Reform Commission, Police College etc

There is also the option of joining the Ministry of Justice, and become a state counsel in any of drafting, DPP, commercial law, international law, negotiation, law reform departments. African lawyer may also specialize in the practice of arbitration and other ADRs such as Arbitration, Mediation, Negotiation, Private judging, Early Neutral Evaluation, Conciliation and others. The era of sole litigation in resolution of disputes is gone. However, it is not enough to become an arbitrators, lawyers can participate either as an arbitrator, arbitral institutions, registrar, secretary, Institutional body providing ancillary services to arbitral sittings and panelists. Law firm may also be a

trainer and a training Institutes, providing outsourcing, linkage and Interconnectivity.

There is the legal research and publication aspect of legal practice such as Legal publishing, law reporting, court and media reporting, law reporting editor, author, publishing of texts and legal journals. Legal researching births legal advice on various new areas of law such as medi-law, forensic medicine, infotech, sport law, renewable energy, aviation, corporate governance, merger and acquisition, etc

Lawyers may also specialize in promoting Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). The rigour of legal training and the sense of activism, equity, justice, fairness, good corporate governance imbibed in the training give an edge to lawyers in running those organizations. This paper in particular recommends NGO as a field of law for those coming into the profession at old age and for those who truly desire to render selfless services to humanities. Finally it is option for those with the spirit of social crusader. NGO works on defence of Human Right, Gender and Child Right, Constitutional and Good Governance Advocate, Family /Religious Right, Health Awareness to mention a few. It is equally recommended that legal practitioners in this field endeavour to register under the extant laws and put in place a model of good corporate governance.

There is also the option of building a legal career in General civil and public service career in legal related institutions and corporate bodies such as Nigerian Deposit Insurance Corporation, Corporate Affairs Commission CAC, Federal Inland Revenue Service, Securities and Exchange Commission, Economic and Financial Crimes Commission, Independent Corrupts Practices Commission, Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation, Nigerian Drug and Law Enforcement Agency, Nigeria Police Force, Nigerian Navy, Nigerian Army, Nigerian Navy, Nigeria Pension Management Commission, National Insurance Corporation of Nigeria, NIPC, FIRS, INEC, NNPC, Federal Road Safety Commission, NPF, NA, NAF, NAVY, Asset Management Corporation of Nigeria, Nigerian Copyrights Commission, Forensic Law, Terrorism, cyber-crime law, sabotage law.

There is another emerging field of legal practice gradually becoming solidified. It is a combination of accounting, forensic, taxation and fraud examinations. It is an amalgamation of Taxation, Revenue Law and Criminal law. This field expands to issues of Forensic and Fraud Examinations, Revenue Law, Privatilisation, Commercialization, Private – public partnership, Unbundling of government enterprises, auditing and accounting. It is our suggestion that a specialty in this field may require knowledge of accounting, taxation, revenue and law. Becoming a member of Institute of Chartered Taxation, Accountant and Fraud Examiner will certainly give an edge and credence to such practice.

Then on the other hand, Sport and Entertainment is an industry and a big business accounting for more than five percent of world trade. In the European Union, some over five million jobs directly and indirectly related to football alone have been created. In Africa, there seems to be no accurate data but it is however not doubtful that a good proportion of the youth are gainfully employed in trade relating to football both in the continent of Africa and outside the continent. In the European Union, it accounts for more than 2% of their combined Gross National Product. It has even been said that a country that wins the World Football Cup will have her GNP increased by four percent. Sport is recognized further as a big business even by World Trade Organization (WTO)

The modern practice of sports law either as a sports agent or sports lawyer dated back to early 6os by the notable pioneer lawyer Boston attorney in person of Bob Woolf. He was said to have first appeared for Red Sox Pitcher Earl Wilson after the latter was involved in an auto accident in 1962. Six years later, Woolf left his criminal practice and devoted his time entirely to representing professional athletes. Before his death in November, 1993, his office had negotiated over 2000 professional athletic contracts estimated at over one billion dollars.

Sports lawyer in summary performs the functions of legal representative, counseling, advising and assisting in contract negotiation, drafting, execution and enforcement, dispute

resolution, immigration and procurement of permits, merchandising and licensing, financial scheduling and tax analysis etc.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This seeming reluctance of those in charge of education curriculum to embrace new developments has spilled over to legal education. Continuing Legal Education has blossomed greatly in the United States. It is indispensable machinery for upgrading the standard of legal practice.
It is strongly recommended that a new and vigorous effort should be made by the Council of Legal Education to resuscitate and develop a viable programme of continuing Legal Education. The dynamism of the Legal profession, ever growing modern economics and versatility of the law as earlier noted demands continuous legal education for robust and comprehensive knowledge of new areas of law.

The option available for our universities is to introduce some new and recent areas of law such as entertainment, sports law, e-governance etc. as part of undergraduate course work and train budding lawyers on these frontiers in the legal profession. Secondly we may also fashion out a law certificate programme or a Post Graduate Master of new areas of law for lawyers that may intend to specialize in those fields.

With the recent trend of globalization of legal practice, business of legal practice and the emerging global market order, the ultimate call of this paper is specialization. Specialization is a term often used to denote a substantial concentration of activity within a particular filed of practice. With globalization, modernization and the emerging global market order,in order to be relevant in the emerging international development, we humbly submit that there are urgent needs for lawyers to urgently discover areas of their strongest interest and trail blaze and or expand the frontier.

This paper recommends also global best practice of obtaining clients in the industry which include personal contact, electronic medium as the world has become a global village.

Membership of certain associations and or professional groups could bring an edge to the quest for clients in the sports industry. Take for instance, membership of American Bar Association Forum on Entertainment and Sports Industries, National Sports Law Institute, registration and certification by the relevant players' unions.

A young lawyer may also consider the option of joining law firms that specialize in commercial or entertainment law practice.

Success and good publicity also broaden avenues for lawyers. God's favour, Integrity and strict adherence to professional ethic, diligence, availability and expertise fostered by satisfied clients will in no distance time distinguished legal practitioner apart for excellence and unlimited breakthrough.

Networking and partnership; attend conferences/Trainings/seminars and workshops etc NBA Annual Conference; Sectional Bar Conference and International Bar Conference (IBA)

This paper recommends pupilage. This is because puppilage affords the lawyer an opportunity to acquire the necessary practice skills. The legal profession is a technical field and every new entrant is expected to learn the intricate rudiments of the profession. Pupilage and mentoring in the legal profession provides shoulder to see further in life.

We also recommend that every lawyer must pursue professional accomplishments such as Appointment as Member of Regulatory Bodies in the Legal Profession such as Council of Legal Education, Body of Benchers, General Council of Bar, Legal Practitioners Privileges Committee, Corporate Affairs Commission, Human Right Commission, Council of Institute of Advanced Legal Studies etc Appointment such as Notary Public of the Federal Republic of Nigeria; Appointment/Election in the National or Local Bar Council and various Committees; Appointment as Justice of Peace; Appointment as Senior Advocate of Nigeria; Appointment as Bencher and Life Bencher.

We also recommend that budding to take professional trainings and examinations such Institutes of Chartered Arbitrators, Institutes of Secretaries, Professional Managers, Chartered Institutes of Taxation, Fraud Examiners, Bankers, Sport agents and financial experts. We recommend lawyers to undertake master, post graduate diploma, certificate, and doctorate degree programme and acquire knowledge of law in specialized field.

The Bar is not just a trade or business. It is a vocation. It is not merely another avenue for making money. The Bar is first an honourable profession and that barristers belong to a professional community of a very rare type. Anyone taking part in the administration of justice is engaged on a task of considerable importance to the welfare of the community. The legal profession has thus a much higher purpose and a far nobler objective.

It is important to trail blaze in the Information Technology world for successful career in the legal profession. Presently, the field of human capacity development, communication and integration; accounting systems and information storage; researching and e-commerce are all digitally controlled. The impact of information technology is far reaching in the 21st century. To be a key player in the globalised legal practice, a lawyer must have and be able to deploy the relevance of computer, laptop, I-pad, tablet, phone, scanning machine, fax machine for career enhancement. Social Media such FACEBOOK, WHATUPS, BLACKBERRY, LINKENDIM, EMAIL (organisation email), WEBSITE and MESSENGER is a fertile ground for borderless legal practice.

Develop entrepreneurship spirit in the practice of law. Business of Practice entails good accounting records, robust relationship with clients and human resources management. There must be a law office strategically located to give optimum service to the clients. Proper accounts to be opened and maintained.

Every professional must understand the importance of dressing. You are addressed as you are dressed. Your dressing makes the first impression and first impression they say last long. There is no second chance in some cases. Don't let people mistake you for a tout, beggar, prostitute, fraudster and masquerade all because of your dressing. Dressing modesty, smartness, royalty, with proper colour combination and colour sense. A lawyer must dress to match the occasion. For instance, there are different wears for different occasions such as cock tail party, dinner, lunch with clients, professional regulation dresses.

It is also our suggestion that the compositions of some of the professional bodies are too large. In this regards, we suggest that the membership, roles, relevance, composition of Council of Legal Education and Body of Benchers be reviewed to stop the overlapping in roles.

In view of the decline in the quality of lawyers, we suggest 50% as pass mark and not more than (4) attempts subsequently. In the alternative, the current threshold may be maintained but with the introduction of qualifying examination as a weeding test for admission into the Nigerian Law School. In the alternative, a first degree in Art, Humanities, Social Sciences, Management and even Natural Sciences be made a condition for a candidate seeking for admission to study law in Nigeria.

We recommend pupilage of three years after call for those that intend to open a law firm only. Law office licensing is a welcome development in order to maintain standard, ethics and monitoring. A law firm to be licensed must have a partner with three years' post call experience, evidence of membership of NBA Branch, payment of Bar Practicing Fees, sponsorship by two reputable law firms within the branch and evidence of completion of pupilage.

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Capital Market Development and Nigerian Economy

BABATUNDE O. BINUYO, DUROJAIYE OLUWATIMILEHIN,
UDUAKOBONG EDY-EWOH, ADEKUNLE O. BINUYO,
Babcock University, Ilisan Remo, Nigeria

Abstract. This research work examined the effects of capital market development on the Nigerian economy from 1987 to 2018. Most recent literatures on the Nigeria capital market have recognized the tremendous performance the market has recorded in recent period. However, the vibrant role of the capital market in economic development has not been empirically investigated thereby creating a research gap in this area. This study was motivated by the fact that some studies have reported negative effects of capital markets on economic growth in some developing nations instead of positive effect on growth and development. Ex-post-facto research design was adopted for the study. The study used time series data, and, the ordinary least squares technique was adopted for analysis. The result showed that market capitalization has a positive influence on the gross domestic product (GDP) while value of transactions has a negative and insignificant influence on GDP. Based on the findings, the study recommends that Government should encourage participation of foreign investors in the capital market, and a lasting solution should be found to control the current state of insurgency in the North-Eastern part of the country. Major instruments such as derivatives, convertibles, future and Swaps-options among others could be introduced to enhance the development of the capital market.

Keywords: Capital market, , Economy, , Foreign investors, Gross domestic product, Market capitalization

1. Introduction

In the last two decades, studies on the capital market have received numerous attention from contemporary finance and economics literature resulting from its major role in the provision of long-term, non-debt financial capital which facilitate companies to avoid over-dependence on debt financing, thus improving corporate debt-to-equity ratio and also in the mobilization of resources for national growth. According to Ndako (2010), the capital market is viewed as a complex institution imbued with natural mechanism through which long-term funds of the major sectors of the economy comprising households, firms, and government are mobilized, harnessed and made available to various sectors of the economy.

For sustainable economic growth, funds must be effectively mobilized and allocated to enable businesses and the economies harness their human, material, and management resources for optimal output. Hence, the capital market is an economic institution, which promotes efficiency in capital formation and allocation.

Prominent among the functions of the capital market are mobilization of savings, creation of liquidity, risk diversification, improved dissemination and acquisition of information, and enhanced incentive for corporate control. Improving the efficiency and effectiveness of these functions, through rapid delivery of their services can supplement the rate of economic growth (Okereke-Onyiuke, 2000; Levine and Servos, 1996; Obadan,1995; McKinnon, 1973)

According to Adewuyi and Olowookere (2011), a capital market is a segment of a nation's financial system where the main article of trade is medium and long-term financial instruments. Such instruments are generally referred to as securities because of the level of confidence and assurance or guarantee it gives to the investor on the repayment of their principal. The rate of economic growth of any nation is intimately linked to the sophistication of its financial market and specifically its capital market efficiency. Financial markets assist the nations of the world to muster needed financial resources and skills for growth and development of their various economies.

According to Adebiyi and Olasupo (2005), equity markets in developing countries until the mid-1980s generally suffered from the classical defects of bank-dominated economies that are shortage of equity capital, lack of liquidity, absence of foreign institutional investors, and lack of investor's confidence in the stock market. The importance of capital market lies in its financial intermediation capacity to link the deficit sector with the surplus sector of the economy. The absence of such capacity robs the economy of investment and production of goods and services for societal advancement.

Olawoye (2011) noted that the capital market is an essential agent of economic growth because of its ability to facilitate and mobilise savings and investment. The ability to mobilise and invest lies in the nation's strength in effective resource mobilization, which enables internal wealth generation and domestic savings as well as inflows of foreign capital. Thus, the consideration of the capital market as the institution for financial management from surplus sectors of the economy to the sectors that are seeking to be financed.

Odetayo and Sajuyigbe (2012) opined that capital market is an engine of economic growth and development in the whole world. Capital market is made up of markets and institutions which facilitate the issuance and secondary trading of long-term financial instruments .The history of Nigeria's capital market could be traced to 1946 when the British colonial administration floated a N600,000 local loan stock bearing interest at 3 % for the financing of developmental projects under the Ten-Year Plan Local Ordinance. The loan stock, which had a maturity of 10-15 years, was oversubscribed by more than ₦1 million, yet local participation of the issued was terribly poor. Recently, capital market has experienced unprecedented growth which was attributed to the banking sector reform of 2004-2005. The Nigerian capital market which started operations in mid-1961 with eight stocks and equities; with about seven United Kingdom (UK) firms quoted on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) which had, at the same time, dual quotations on the London Stock Exchange. At the commencement of operations, the market started with 0.3 million shares worth N1.5 m in 334 deals and the value continued to grow steadily to N16.6m in 634 deals by 1970 (CBN 2004).

According to Nigerian Stock Exchange report (NSE, 2009), in 1995 the Federal Government liberalized the capital market with the abrogation of Laws that prevent foreign investors from participating in the domestic capital market. This includes: The Foreign Exchange; Monitoring and Miscellaneous Provision Decree No: 17, 1995; Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission Decree No:16, 1995; Companies and Allied Matters Decree of 1990 and Securities and Investment Act (SIA) 45 of 1999.

The capital market plays a vital role in the economy considering that capital is a very important factor of production without which economic transactions cannot effectively take place,. Therefore the ability of a nation to mobilise savings and transform such savings into investment depends on the type of capital market that exists at a particular period of time. Since the introduction of the Nigerian capital market, several problems have been discovered, some of which includes poor economic development that hampers a conducive investment environment to sustain vibrant capital market to the economy. Also, the problem of buy-and-hold strategy, i.e., stocks are being bought without being sold or traded on the stock market.

2. Literature Review

According to Al-Faki (2006), the capital market is a network of specialized financial institutions, series of mechanism, processes and infrastructure that, in various ways facilitate the bringing together of suppliers and users of medium to long term capital for investment in economic developmental project. Mbat (2001) described it as a medium through which long-term funds are made available by the surplus to the deficit economic units. It must, however, be noted that although all the surplus economic units have access to the capital market, not all the deficit economic units have the same easy access to it. The restriction on the part of the borrowers is meant to enforce the security of the funds provided by the lenders. In order to ensure that creditors are not subjected to undue risks, borrowers in the capital market need to satisfy certain basic requirement, it has very profound implication for socio economic development of any nation. Companies can finance their operations by raising funds through issuing equity (ownership) or debenture/bond borrowed as securities. Equities have perpetual life while bond/debenture issues are structured to mature in periods of years varying from the medium to the long-term of usually between five and twenty-five years.

Henry (2000) finds a strong relationship between the growth rate of investment and changes in stock market valuation measured by returns on the stock market, the turnover ratio, and the traded value as a share of GDP. On the other hand, McCauley and Remolona (2000) and Shah and Thomas (2001) find that the size of the economy is an important factor in the development of liquid and well-functioning securities markets. Mishkin (2001) argues that financial liberalization promotes transparency and accountability, which reduces adverse selection and moral hazard. It thus tends to reduce the cost of borrowing in stock markets, which eventually increases their liquidity and size. Obamiro (2005) investigated the role of the Nigeria stock market in the light of economic growth. He suggested that government should create more enabling environment so as to increase the efficiency of the stock market to attain higher economic growth. Ezeoha, Ebele and Ndidi (2009) investigated the nature of the relationship that exists between stock market development and the level of investment (domestic private investment and foreign private investment) flows in Nigeria. The authors discovered that stock market development promotes domestic private investment flows thus suggesting the enhancement of the economy's production capacity as well as promotion of the growth of national output. However, the results show that stock market development has not been able to encourage the flow of foreign private investment in Nigeria.

Yartey and Adjasi (2007) observed that political risk and institutional quality are strongly associated with growth in stock market capitalization. The results suggest that the establishment of quality institutions can be an important factor in the development of stock markets. Other institutional factors as well, such as law and order, democratic accountability and bureaucratic quality are important determinants of stock market development. Chami, Fullenkamp and Sharma (2009) argue that financial markets will develop if borrowers and lenders are willing and able to enter into contracts, and liquidity providers find conditions conducive to trading created financial instruments. They also emphasize the importance of regulatory structure in supporting this process by removing obstacles that render potential borrowers, lenders and liquidity providers unwilling or unable to play their roles and by creating an appropriate incentive for each agent to fulfill their end of the bargain.

North and Weingast (1989) show that improved checks and balances, credible commitments and upgraded property rights in England during the seventeenth century led to the development of stable capital markets. Pagano (1993) shows that regulatory and institutional factors could influence the efficient functioning of stock markets. That is, compulsory disclosure of reliable information and financial data on listed companies may increase investor participation, while regulations that enhance investor confidence in brokers could enhance investment

and trading in stock markets. Erb, Harvey and Viskanta (1996) show that expected returns and the magnitude of political risk are positively related. They find that both in developing and developed countries, the lower the level of political risk, the lower and the required returns on investment. The results suggest that political risk plays an important role in investment decisions and decreases the cost of equity, and consequently may have important implications for stock market development. La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes,Shleifer and vishny (1998) argue that the origin of a country's legal system affects the level of financial development. A common law basis is more conducive to the development of capital markets than a civil law basis, as the flexibility of the common law legal system allows for protection of small investors. Moreover, they find that countries with a lower quality legal regime and poorer law enforcement exhibit smaller and narrower capital markets and that the listed companies on their stock markets are characterized by more concentrated ownership

Also, Olawoye (2011), in his work made use of the multiple regression analysis to test whether the capital market indices have impact on the economic growth of Nigeria proxy by Gross Domestic Product (GDP). He found out that there is a positive relationship between capital market and economic growth and he suggested that there should be improvement in the declining market capitalization by encouraging more foreign investors to participate in the market, maintaining state of the art technology like automated trading and settlement practice, electronic fund clearance and eliminate physical transfer of shares. There is also need to restore confidence to the market by regulatory authorities through ensuring transparency and fair trading transaction and dealing in the stock exchange.

3. Methodology

This section provides information about the research design, source of data, research variables, and model specification.

- Research Design: The study used ex post facto research design. The study used a time series data for the period 1987 to 2018.
- Sources of Data: The data used in this study were sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin, Nigerian Stock Exchange Fact Book, Securities and Exchange Commission data base
- Model Specification: For the purpose of the study, a multivariate econometric model will be specified and estimated. The model examines the relationship between the capital market and economic growth using selected capital market variables such as Market capitalization and Value of Transactions.

The model in its functional relationship is given as:

GDP = f (MACP, VOT)…… (1)

Where Y is economic growth or GDP = dependent Variable, X_1- X_2 are independent variables. F represents the functional notation. This can be specifically stated as:

MACP = Market Capitalization, VOT = Value of Transactions,

$GDP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 MACP + \beta_2 VOT + e$……..(2)

where β_0= intercept of the relationship in the model β_1- β_2 = coefficient of each of the independent variables, e = stochastic / error term.

The a priori expectations of the coefficient of the model are:$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2 > 0$.

4. Results and Discussions

This section provides in detail the analysis of data used in the study and interpretation of the empirical results.

Table 4.1: Results of the Regression Analysis

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	Prob.	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F-statistic	DW-statistic
C	352.4329	17.15234	20.54722	0.0000				
MACAP	0.040994	0.007083	5.787575	0.0000	0.857548	0.846996	81.26905	0.874407
VOT	-5.85E-05	6.70E-05	-0.873612	0.3900				

Source: Authors' computation (2018)

4.1 Estimated Model and Interpretation

GDP = 352.4329+0.040994MACP-0.0000585VO + ε

From the estimated regression model above, it was observed that the variables were rightly signed except for value of transaction. They satisfied the a priori expectations to an extent except for the value of transactions. The coefficients of the explanatory variable, Market Capitalisation is positive; indicating that a unit increase in market capitalisation will result, on the average, about 41% increase in the value of gross domestic product (GDP) .On the other hand, an increase in the value of transactions at the capital market by one unit will bring about a decrease in GDP by 0.0000585 units.

The adjusted (R^2) shows that about 84.7 percent of the variations in GDP was explained by the changes in the explanatory variables of the estimated model and about 14.3% of the variation not captured by the adjusted R^2 is explained by the error term.

The F-test, which follows an F-distribution, measures the overall significance of the model. From the F-table, we have 3.35 which is less than F calculated of 81.26905, we reject Ho and conclude that the model is statistically significant .The Durbin Watson statistic result shows that d = 0.87440, dU 1.567 and dL 1.284. From this results, d <Dl. Therefore, we reject H_0 and accept H_1. There is positive autocorrelation which simply means that there is presence of serial correlation.

5. Discussion of Findings

The work examines the effects of capital market development on the Nigerian economy between 1984 and 2018. It was observed that an increase in market capitalization will insignificantly increase GDP. This is supported by Ewah, Esang and Jude (2009). It was observe that capital market has a positive impact on the economy but made it clear that even though they exert a positive influence, it has contributed insignificantly to the Nigeria economy. On the contrary, Kolapo and Adaramola (2012) argued that the positive effect of capital market on the Nigerian Economy is significant, and the positive coefficient (0.04099) shows that market capitalization if increased have the capacity to trigger a significant effect on the Nigerian economy. This research also shows that value of transaction exert an insignificant negative effect, this implies that key investors prefer to invest in other sector of the economy other than the capital market. Lastly, the result shows that value of transaction exert an insignificant negative effect, this implies that key investors prefer to invest in other sector of the economy rather than the capital market.

The regression result shows that market capitalization, and value of transactions have an insignificant impact on the gross domestic product (GDP). Therefore since all of the indices of capital market is insignificant, we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that capital market has no significant effect on the Nigerian economy.

The implication of the study on the effects of capital market development on the Nigerian economy from 1987 to 2018 is that at macroeconomic level, based on market capitalization, an increase in market capitalization will insignificantly increase GDP. The value of market capitalization is positive. This implies that market capitalization if increased have the capacity to trigger a significant effect on the Nigerian economy. Another implication of our result is that value of transaction exert an insignificant negative effect, this implies that key investors prefer to invest in other sector of the economy other than the capital market.

6. Summary, Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

The study examined the effects of capital market development on the Nigerian economy between 1987 and 2018. The findings of the study revealed that there is a positive relationship between gross domestic product and market capitalisation. Market capitalisation exerts significant positive influence on GDP. On the other hand, the study also revealed that there is a negative relationship between GDP and the value of transaction. The value of transactions exerts negative insignificant effects on GDP. Furthermore, the coefficient of adjusted R^2 of 84.7% shows that 84.7% variation in GDP is explained by the explanatory variables while about 15% is explained by the error term (ε) therefore the model is a good fit for the relationship. The result of the hypothesis shows that the effect of capital market on economic growth, whether negative or positives, is not significant hence we accept the null hypothesis and therefore conclude that capital market has no significant impact on economic growth in Nigeria.

As it was observed market capitalisation, and value of transaction are important capital market variables that are capable of influencing the Nigerian economy. Hence the capital market remains one of the mainstream in every economy that has the power to influence or impact the economy. Therefore, the organised private sector should invest in it. Based on the analysis, findings and conclusion, the study therefore recommends that Government should encourage participation of foreign investors in the capital market by creating enabling environment and lasting solution should be found to the current state of insurgency in the northeastern part of the country. Also, incentives that can attract foreign investors should be introduced. Regulatory authority should formulate policies that would encourage more companies to access the market and also be more proactive in their surveillance role in order to curb sharp practices which undermine market integrity and erode investors' confidence.

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Health Care, Health Status and Labour Productivity in Nigeria

JOSEPH I. ONYEMA
Rivers State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

CHRISTIAN UGONDAH NYENKE
Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract. The debate on the role of health in productivity of labour is an age-long one. The health conditions of the workforce affect its level of productivity. This study examined health care, health status and productivity of labour in Nigeria in order to determine the direction of causality between them. Data were collected from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) Statistical bulletin and World Bank Development Indicators. The ordinary least squares (OLS) method was used to estimate the model. The analysis indicates that government expenditure on health (GXH) and life expectancy (LXP) do not conform to theoretical expectations. This can be attributed to institutional corruption and poor government attention to the provision of health needs of the people that meet global best practices. On the other hand, prevalence of HIV and AIDS (HAD) and risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES) are consistent with theoretic expectations. The analysis also reveals that prevalence of HIV/AIDS is statistically significant. However, GXH, RCES and LXP are not statistically significant. Pairwise granger causality test indicates that government expenditure on health (GXH) and life expectancy (LXP) does not granger cause labour productivity (LPD). But prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) and poor expenditure on surgical care (RCES) granger cause labour productivity (LPD) implying that poor health care delivery and status of health of the people adversely affect labour productivity in Nigeria. The study recommends that: the government should increase its expenditure on health care facilities and personnel development. This has the capacity of reducing the risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care, improve the health status of the active population, boost productivity level and encourage economic development in Nigeria.

Keywords: Health care, health status, catastrophic health expenditure, labour productivity.

1. Introduction

The productivity of labour as an active agent in the production process is not only determined by education, but also health care and health status. Health is an important component of human capital that plays a crucial role in economic growth (Strauss and Thomas, 1998; Weil, 2014). Poor health conditions could adversely affect labor productivity and, consequently, long run economic growth. Health is essential in labour supply decision, not only because health is a form of human capital, valued by both employers and employees (Grossman, 1972), but also because individuals' preferences between work and leisure may change following a health shock. For example, a deterioration of health may lead a person to value leisure more than work. In addition, changes in health may change

the time horizon over which labour supply decisions are made because life expectancy is determined by health (Chiricos, 1993). As a result, the impact of health on labour supply has been under extensive study particularly in industrialized countries (Currie and Madrian, 1999). Health is endogenous to labour supply. This is because employment or long working hours may have adverse impacts on an individual's health, or individuals may use health conditions to justify their labour force status.

According to Jack and Lewis (2009), healthier people are more likely to be richer than their sick counterparts because they have greater capacity to work harder, longer and more consistently. Poor health therefore generally affects productivity and output adversely, thereby debarring the sick from participating in productive activities due to decreased opportunity cost of leisure. Apart from reduced productivity, ill health may increase the utility derived from time spent away from market related activities given that seeking health care is time-consuming.

A nation's wealth and/or poverty have often been analyzed in terms of the state of health of its citizens. Health is fundamental to labour productivity, economic growth and development and is one of the key determinants of economic performance both at micro and macro levels. This is because health as a form of human capital increases an individual's capability (Bloom and Canning, 2003). The effect of health on worker's productivity suggests a strong relationship between health and aggregate output. Unhealthy workers lose much time from work due to ill- health and are less productive when working. Health gains had the economic consequences of widespread economic growth and an escape of ill-health traps in poverty (World Health Organization, 2010).

Developing nations including Nigeria are faced with the scourge of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria, tuberculosis, high blood pressure, among others which hamper the productivity of labour and economic growth. Therefore, countries devote huge public funds to provision of health care, believing this would improve the health of the citizenry so that they can contribute meaningfully to economic growth and development. In Nigeria, for example, despite the huge government budgetary allocation to health provision, the health status of Nigerians is consistently ranked low. Nigeria ranked 74th out of 115 countries, based on the performance of some selected health indicators (World Bank, 1999).

Studies on the relationship between health and labour productivity did not use the appropriate measure for labour productivity such as gross domestic product (GDP) per labour hour. In view of the forgoing, this paper examines health care, health status and labour productivity in Nigeria using GDP per labour hour as measure of labour productivity. The paper is organized as follows: Section two discusses review of related literature, section three deals with model specification and estimation procedures. Sections four and five discuss the results and end the paper with conclusion and recommendations.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1 Conceptual Literature

2.1.1 Health Care and Health Status

Healthcare is the diagnosis, treatment and prevention of disease, illness, injury and other physical and mental ailment in human beings. Healthcare is delivered by practitioners in allied health, dentistry, midwifery, medicine, nursing, and other health professions. It refers to the work done in providing primary, secondary and tertiary care as well as in public health. This is measured by government expenditure on health and the risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (out of pockets expenditure on surgical care that exceeds a certain proportion of a household's income with the consequence that households suffer the burden of disease). In the view of World Health Organization (2005), health status is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being. It is a state or ability of individual to live a socially and economically productive life. Health is a

somewhat nebulous condition, difficult to define and never in a state of perfection since one can be rarely sick, but never perfectly healthy. Health is a multi-dimensional concept that is usually measured in terms of absence of physical disability or a condition that is likely to cause death, emotional well-being and stationary social functioning. Health could be seen as physical and mental well-being of people which is measured using indicators such as life expectancy, adult mortality, child mortality rate, adult survival rate and so on (Aguayo-Rico, Guerra-turrubiates & Deoca-hernadez, 2005). Health in recent times has been considered to be very crucial in terms of how it affects productivity as well as other means of human capital formation. According to Bloom and Canning (2008), "health is a direct source of human welfare and also an instrument for raising income levels". The level of productivity and growth in an economy will be greatly hampered by ill-health or prevalence of diseases. This is because the likelihood exists that healthy individuals have the tendency to think rightly, be more efficient and obtain higher productivity (Bloom and Caning, 2000; Aguayo-Rico et al, 2005). This explanation shows that health and labour productivity are positively correlated.

2.1.2 Labour Productivity

Labour productivity measures the hourly output of a country's economy. Specifically, it charts the amount of real gross domestic product (GDP) produced by an hour of labor. Growth in labor productivity depends on three main factors: investment and saving in physical capital, new technology and human capital. Labour productivity, also known as workforce productivity, is defined as real economic output per labour hour. Growth in labour productivity is measured by the change in economic output per labour hour over a defined period. Labour productivity should not be confused with employee productivity, which is a measure of an individual worker's output. It is calculated by dividing a country's total output by the total number of labour hours. Growth in labor productivity is directly attributable to increase in physical capital, adoption of new technology and investment in human capital. If labor productivity is growing, it can be traced back to growth in one of these three areas. Physical capital is the amount of money that people have in savings and investments. New technologies are technological advancements, such as robots or assembly lines. Human capital represents the increase in health, education and specialization of the workforce (Will, 2019). Labour productivity is also an important measure of the short-term and cyclical changes in an economy. High-level labor productivity is a combination of total output and labor hours. Measuring labor productivity each quarter allows an economy to measure the change in its output in relation to the change in its labor hours. If the output is increasing while labour hours remain static, it could be a sign that the economy is advancing technologically and should continue to do so. Conversely, if labour hours increase in relation to flat output, it may be a sign that the economy needs to invest in education and health to increase the competence and productivity of its human capital.

2.2 Theoretical Literature

The paper is hinged on health production function. The modelling of the demand for "good health" was first introduced by Grossman (1972), in an explicit attempt to draw a distinction between health capital and human capital. Grossman opined that while the stock of human capital influences the wage rate of individuals, the stock of health determines the time that agents can devote to the production of money earnings as well as commodities and that, as such it is not accurate to consider health capital as an integrant part of human capital. Additionally, Grossman intended to highlight the fact that the demand for health care is a derived demand, since what consumers actually demand is the commodity "good health", which is jointly produced by medical services and by consumers themselves, who allocate some of their time to the production of good health. Besides the aforementioned inputs – medical services and consumers' time – the efficiency inherent to the production of "good health" is assumed to be influenced by the education level and age of individuals. Another building block of the Grossman model is the assumption that

individuals hand down an initial stock of health, which depreciates over time, but can be (partially) restored through investments in health capital. As the depreciation rate increases, namely due to the health deteriorating effect of ageing, it becomes increasingly costly to produce good health. Therefore, death occurs when the stock of health falls below a minimum threshold.

Notwithstanding the breakthrough brought about by Grossman, his model has not been immune to criticism. Usher (1975) maintains that the Grossman model fails to account for the impact that uncertainty, one's initial stock of health as well as history – namely of investments in health, wages and medical care prices - have on the decision to invest in health capital. In a similar tone, Case et al. (2005) recognize that the model is unable to take into consideration the socio-economic gradient in health, thereby precluding a faster decline in health for individuals in a lower socio-economic position. Also, Wagstaff (1986) criticizes Grossman model's prediction of a positive relation between investment in health and the stock of health. Eventually, the most concerning oversight of Grossman's model is its assumption of a health production function with constant returns to scale which, as stressed by Ehrlich (1990), gives rise to an indeterminacy problem concerning the optimal level of investment in health and, as a result, those of health, consumption and wealth. Inspite of the criticisms, Galama (2015) suggests slight extensions and modifications to the original Grossman model which reveal to be capable of handling the previously referred criticisms and, therefore, to reinforce Grossman's model position as the cornerstone to study health-demand related behaviours.

2.3 Empirical Literature

There are dearth of empirical studies on health and labour productivity. However, Combary (2016) examined the impacts of health services on agricultural labour productivity of rural households in Burkina Faso. The study used instrumental variable of health and social promotion centre (HSPC). The result revealed that that HSPC significantly improves farming labour productivity. The study recommended that quality HSPC services should be made available in the rural areas.

There is a few empirical evidence on health and labour productivity in Nigeria. For example, Oluwalana and Ogunsusi (2016) examined the impact of malaria on productivity and coping strategies among small -scale gari processors in Odeda Local Government Area of Ogun State, Nigeria. Regression analysis was used to identify variables affecting income. The Result of the analysis indicated that processing experience (α 0.01), prevalence of malaria (α 0.10), cost of tubers (α 0.01), cost of firewood used (α 0.10), and ownership of a cassava farm (α 0.01) were the significant factors affecting the income of the gari processors. The study also revealed that malaria attack has a significant effect on productivity, workers' output, income and work hours of gari processors. It recommended among others that provision of adequate health services with due accessibility, improve their health status, thereby reducing the poverty level among gari processors in line with United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for health by 2015.

Boman (2014) investigated the relationship between government health care financing and workforce productivity in Nigeria. Using vector autoregressive (VAR) model, it was revealed that while government capital expenditure on health showed negative effect on workforce productivity, government recurrent expenditure on health showed positive effect on workforce productivity in Nigeria. It was recommended that government should provide qualitative health infrastructure to ensure greater workforce productivity in Nigeria.

Umoru and Yaqub (2013) investigated labour productivity and health capital in Nigeria. Adopting the GMM methods, the study found that health capital investment is a significant determinant of labour productivity. The study recommended that there is need to have healthier workforce in order to maximize productivity in Nigeria.

Agulanna, Ikpi, Okoruwa and Akinyosoye (2013) studied the effects of health and nutrition on agricultural productivity of farmers in South Western Nigeria. The study adopted survey method and descriptive statistics. It established a linkage between health, nutrition and labour productivity. The study recommended that there is need for more investment in human capital of health in order to enhance the productivity of labour.

Ajani and ugwu (2008) carried out a study on the impact of adverse health on agricultural productivity of farmers in Kainji Basin, North Central Nigeria. The study adopted stochastic frontier production model. It revealed that health has a greater share in the inefficiency of the farmers in the area.

A cursory look at these studies shows that none used the appropriate measure for labour productivity such as gross domestic product (GDP) per labour hour. Hence, this paper is motivated to fill the gap as it examines health care, health status and labour productivity in Nigeria: a granger causality approach using GDP per labour hour as measure of labour productivity.

3. Methodology

3.1 Model Specification

In line with health production function of Grossman (1972) and the empirical model of Oluwalana and Ogunsusi (2016), the present study's model is specified with some modifications as follows:

LPD $= f$(GXH, HAD, RCES, LXP) ……...……..…..……..……. ……..…...3.1

The OLS form of the equation is written as:

$LPD = a_0 + a_1GXH + a_2HAD + a_3RCES + a_4LXP + \mu$ ……..……3.2

$a_1>0; a_2<0; a_3<0; a_4>0$

Where: LPD = Labour productivity
GXH = Government expenditure on health, a proxy for health care
HAD = HIV/AIDS prevalence
RCES = Risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care
LXP = Life expectancy
a_o = Constant
a_1- a_4 = Coefficients of the explanatory variables
μ = Error term or stochastic variable

3.2 Estimation Procedure

This study employed quasi-experimental research design. This design is used to establish the causal relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables in social sciences. The main sources of data include World Bank Development Indicators and the Central Bank of Nigeria. The estimation methods of ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation techniques of Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root, Johansen cointegration, and the error correction mechanism (ECM) tests were used.

4. Results and Discussions

This section presents data and discussions on the results of the analysis. The time series data showing the trends of the variables of study are in table 4.5 in the appendix.

4.1 Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test

The results of the ADF unit root test are presented and discussed in table 4.1 as follows:

Table 4.1. A: Unit Root Stationary Test at Levels

Variables	ADF Stat. at levels	1% Critical value	5% Critical value	Order of Integration	Remarks
LPD	-2.334416	-3.752946	-2.998064	I(0)	NS
GXH	-1.023115	-3.752946	-2.998064	I(0)	NS
HAD	-1.170814	-3.752946	-2.998064	I(0)	NS
RCES	-1.268564	-3.699871	-2.976263	I(0)	NS
LXP	2.633921	-3.752946	-2.998064	I(0)	NS

Source: *Computed from E-view 8.0, Note: NS= Not Stationary*

Table 4.1B: Unit Root Stationary Test at 1st Difference

Variables	ADF Stat. at 1st Diff	1% Critical value	5% Critical value	Order of Integration	Remarks
LPD	-3.246645	-3.711457	-2.981038	I(1)	S
GXH	-6.131695	-3.711457	-2.981038	I(1)	S
HAD	-4.923460	-3.711457	-2.981038	I(1)	S
RCES	-4.939556	-3.711457	-2.981038	I(1)	S
LXP	-5.462622	-3.711457	-2.981038	I(1)	S

Source: *Computed from E-view 8.0, Note: S= Stationary*

The unit root test in the Table 4.1A above shows that at levels, the variables are not stationary at 1% and 5% significant levels. From the results in Table 4.1B, all the variables are stationary at first difference. Therefore, the time series data used in this study are stationary.

4.2 Johansen Test for Co-integration

The essence of co-integration test is to determine whether a long run equilibrium relationship exists between the dependent and independent variable. Given the condition of the unit root analysis, the Johansen cointegration test was carried out and presented in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Johansen Co-integration Test

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Trace Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.807472	92.25795	69.81889	0.0003
At most 1 *	0.648216	49.42253	47.85613	0.0354
At most 2	0.374706	22.25934	29.79707	0.2843
At most 3	0.289040	10.05148	15.49471	0.2768
At most 4	0.044438	1.181845	3.841466	0.2770

Trace test indicates 2 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)

Hypothesized No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Max-Eigen Statistic	0.05 Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0.807472	42.83541	33.87687	0.0033
At most 1	0.648216	27.16319	27.58434	0.0565
At most 2	0.374706	12.20786	21.13162	0.5273
At most 3	0.289040	8.869635	14.26460	0.2972
At most 4	0.044438	1.181845	3.841466	0.2770

Max-eigenvalue test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

Source: *Computed from E-view 8.0*

From Table 4.2, the Johansen co-integration test indicates that Trace Statistic show two (2) co-integrating equations at 5% level of significance. While Maximum Eigenvalue indicated one (1) co-integrating

equations at 5% level of significance. This shows that a long run relationship exists between the dependent and independent variables. This suggests for test of Error Correction Model (ECM).

4.3 Error Correction Mechanism (ECM)

The confirmation of the existence of a co-integration among variables gave rise to the conduct of test for short run adjustments. Therefore, the result of the error correction mechanism (ECM) is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Parsimonious Error Correction Mechanism

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-34704.38	17044.46	-2.036109	0.0586
LPD(-1)	0.147278	0.103441	1.423785	0.1737
GXH	-163.0095	390.5369	-0.417398	0.6819
GXH(-1))	129.3473	407.9138	0.317095	0.7553
HAD	-6785.293	2978.197	-2.278322	0.0368
HAD(-1)	6358.507	2689.752	2.363975	0.0311
RCES	-5.273881	16.51508	-0.319337	0.7536
RCES(-1)	-1.129057	17.10678	-0.066001	0.9482
LXP	6.217118	434.5806	0.014306	0.9888
LXP(-1)	993.5653	546.9046	1.816707	0.0880
ECM(-1)	-0.493710	0.216896	-2.276252	0.0368

R-squared	0.973403	Mean dependent var	13471.38
Adjusted R-squared	0.956780	S.D. dependent var	3980.038
S.E. of regression	827.4226	Akaike info criterion	16.56607
Sum squared resid	10954050	Schwarz criterion	17.09401
Log likelihood	-212.6420	Hannan-Quinn criter.	16.72306
F-statistic	58.55795	Durbin-Watson stat	1.765904
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

Source: *Computed from E-view 8.0*

From the results in Table 4.3, Adjusted R^2 is 0.956780. This means that about 95% of the variation in the dependent variable labour productivity (LPD) is as a result of the variations in the explanatory variables. The remaining 5% may be attributed to the variables that are not included in the model. The F-statistic of 58.55795 indicates that the overall model is statistically significant at 5 percent. The result of DW-statistic of 1.765904 shows absence of autocorrelation of the error term. This means that the estimates based on OLS is not spurious. The ECM coefficient of -0.493710 indicates a 49% speed of adjustment to the short run. Government expenditure on health (GXH) is negatively signed and contrary to theoretical expectations. Its contribution to productivity of labour is not statistically significant. That Government expenditure is negatively signed is due to institutional corruption and poor government attention to the provision of health care facilities that meet global best practices. On the other hand, prevalence of HIV and AIDS (HAD), risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES) and life expectancy (LXP) are properly signed as postulated by economic theory. The analysis also revealed that prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) is statistically significant. But all the other variables are not statistically significant. The policy implication of these findings is that the Nigerian government must deal with the issue of corruption and step up its expenditure on the provision health care facilities to meet global best practices.

This will improve health status of the people and reduce related travels in Nigeria.

4.4 Granger Causality Test

In order confirm the direction of relationship between health care, health status and labour productivity, pair wise granger causality test was carried out. The result is presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Pairwise Granger Causality Test

Null Hypothesis:	Obs	F-Statistic	Prob.
GXH does not Granger Cause LPD	26	0.73794	0.4901
LPD does not Granger Cause GXH		7.91543	0.0027
HAD does not Granger Cause LPD	26	4.35195	0.0262
LPD does not Granger Cause HAD		6.53020	0.0062
RCES does not Granger Cause LPD	26	6.75814	0.0054
LPD does not Granger Cause RCES		0.24285	0.7866
LXP does not Granger Cause LPD	26	0.93621	0.4079
LPD does not Granger Cause LXP		0.01967	0.9805

Source: *Computed from E-view 8.0*

From Table 4.4, the pairwise granger causality test indicates that government expenditure on health (GXH) and life expectancy (LXP) does not granger cause labour productivity (LPD). But prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) and risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES) granger cause labour productivity (LPD).

Table 4.5: Trends of labour productivity (LPD), government expenditure on health (GXH), risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES), prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) and life expectancy (LXP) in Nigeria, 1990-2017.

YEARS	LPD (Million Dollar)	GXH (Billion Naira)	RCES (%)	HAD (%)	LXP (Number of Years)
1990	0	822.7	0	1.2	46
1991	9934.06	771.3	0	1.4	46
1992	9723.35	397.2	0	1.7	46
1993	9698.8	2567.6	0	1.9	46
1994	9548.06	2843.1	0	2.2	46
1995	9254.78	2066	0	2.5	46
1996	9483.63	4834.9	0	2.8	46
1997	9506.28	7326.1	0	3	46
1998	9515.04	13640.8	0	3.3	46
1999	9307.77	16180	0	3.4	46
2000	9543.86	20445.2	61.7	3.6	47
2001	9733.16	44651.5	65.8	3.6	47
2002	9860.19	63171.2	64.9	3.7	47
2003	10616.24	39700	66.8	3.7	48
2004	13902.35	52400	55.7	3.6	48
2005	13994.32	77500	55.2	3.6	49
2006	14748.47	94500	51	3.5	49
2007	15324.7	131400	61.8	3.4	50
2008	15862.29	77546.9	70.9	3.4	50
2009	16572.96	80184.5	61.3	3.3	51
2010	17398.06	65907	67.7	3.2	51
2011	17765.53	382253	70.8	3.1	52
2012	18039.65	386345	71.4	3	52
2013	18507.98	179990	63.3	3	52
2014	19300.45	195980	64.6	2.9	52
2015	19438.73	257720	64.3	2.9	53

2016	18781.84	429083	67.7	2.8	54
2017	18364.66	418776	69.2	2.8	55

Source: *World Bank: World Development Indicators, 2018.*

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study examined health care, health status and labour productivity in Nigeria. Government expenditure on health and the risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (out of pocket expenditure) measured health care, while prevalence of HIV/AIDS and life expectancy measured health status which were regressed on labour productivity in Nigeria. The analysis shows that government expenditure on health (GXH) is not in conformity with theoretical expectations. This is due to institutional corruption and poor government attention to the provision of health care facilities that meet global best practices. On the other hand, prevalence of HIV and AIDS (HAD), risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES) and life expectancy (LXP) are in agreement with economic theory. The analysis also reveals that prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) is statistically significant. But all the other variables are not statistically significant.

The pairwise Granger Causality test indicates that government expenditure on health (GXH) and life expectancy (LXP) do not granger cause labour productivity (LPD). But prevalence of HIV/AIDS (HAD) and risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care (RCES) granger causes labour productivity (LPD). It is clear that poor health delivery and status of health of the people have adversely affected labour productivity and economic development in Nigeria. The Nigerian government must intensify its effort in the fight against corruption and step up its expenditure on the provision health care facilities to meet global best practices. This will improve the health status of the people and reduce health care related travels out of Nigeria.

In line with this, the following policy recommendations are made:

The government should increase its expenditure on health care facilities and personnel and also ensure that appropriated budgetary provision is effectively deployed to serve the planned objective. This has the capacity of reducing the risk of catastrophic expenditure on surgical care, improve the health status of the active population, boost labour productivity level and economic development in Nigeria.

The Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and Independent Corrupt Practices and other related offences Commission (ICPC) intensify its fight against corruption in a way that is clear and convincing to all. People must be made to face corruption charges preferred against them irrespective of party affiliation.

Health insurance policies and schemes should be reviewed to allow swift response to the health needs of the labour force and make accessibility to health care easy to the people through proper implementation of free medical services for middle and low income labour force. This will stabilize health care and health status, and improve labour productivity and rapid economic development in Nigeria.

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Funding Tertiary Education for National Development in Nigeria: A Historical Perspective

TOLUTOPE IDOWU OKE
University of Jos. Nigeria

PHILOMINA LUKA DANG
College of Education, Gindiri , Plateau State, Nigeria

Abstract. Higher Education is a veritable tool for socio-economic development of any country. This paper looks at the funding of Higher Education from the historical perspective. Some briefs are made about the history of Higher Education right from the pre-colonial to the post-independence era. Though there seems to be more emphasis on university education, other tertiary institutions like Polytechnics or Monotechnics and Colleges of Education are also surveyed. The role of funding cannot be over emphasized in any meaningful endeavour talk more of tertiary education. The history of the funding follows the pattern of their ownership. It covers the sources of funding whether government (Federal or State) or private. From the public point of view Tertiary Education Trust Fund TETFund is considered a major source of capital expenditure. The paper found that from the beginning funding of tertiary education was sufficient in Nigeria however, the story changed after the oil boom. Today we are faced with infrastructural decay as a result of poor funding. To remedy the situation the paper recommends among others the encouragement of private participation; the raising of the education tax collected/or TETFund from 2% to 5% and the revisiting of the practice of Treasury Single Account (TSA) for our tertiary institutions.

Keywords: Funding, Tertiary Education, Sustainable, National Development, Historical Perspective

1. Introduction

Education is a very important human activity. It helps any society fashion and model individuals to function well in their environment. As a result of its importance to economic and national development, governments all over the world through history have accorded high importance to higher education. Higher education or tertiary education is education given at the post-secondary level. It composes of universities, polytechnic, colleges of technology, monotechnics and colleges of education and professional schools.

Higher education has the overall goal of producing a community of Nigerians that are highly skilled and who will be prepared for the world of work and help in sustainable national development. This can only be achieved if there is proper funding of education and especially the tertiary level. Most tertiary institution and especially universities tend to have derived their funding from the government right from inception. All public universities are funded by government whether federal or state in Nigeria. They are funded through incremental budgetary allocations to the universities (Olayinola 2012,

Wangenge-oma 2011). This paper would try to look at the trend in funding tertiary education right through history.

1.1 Historical Background to Tertiary Education in Nigeria

The desire for the development of higher education in Nigeria began during the colonial era. Before then Africans have had desire for higher education over a century ago. They had made effort to acquire and bring higher education on the African soil. The case of Samule Ajayi Crowther, a Nigerian ex-slave who had had higher educational exposure outside the African soil and his likes struggled for nationalism and better educational standards on our soil.

Western Education was brought to Nigeria by the missionaries who were more pre-occupied with primary and secondary education and saw no need of dabbling into higher education as their priority was evangelism. The colonial government was in no way better as they saw no need and even feared providing higher education for the Africans.

There were forms of secondary schools as put by Asokoya (1987), created as further professional educational centres. These were slightly above secondary education. These were created by govern departments like those of Agriculture and the Railway. Examples are the Central Agriculture Research Station (CARS), established at Moor Plantation Ibadan, that of Samaru Zaria and the Centre for Veterinary Vom. The Railway had a Railway Engineering Centre in Lagos. All these were created before 1930.

Increasing awareness by some educated Nigerians (Nationalists) came as they showed dissatisfaction with just the establishment of the above centres. This led to agitations which informed the then first Nigerian Director of Education to make proposals for an institution of higher level education to be established in 1932 as the Yaba College, Yaba. It was officially opened in 1934 with students who had been admitted in 1932 and kept in Kings' College Lagos.

The Yaba College did not satisfy the yearnings of Nigerian. This, with an agitations in West Africa since 1886 and the Chanon Report of 1943, led to the need to set up a higher institution with good research facilities to enable them drop the London University external degree for their own (Watson,1978). This idea appealed to the then Colonial Secretary of State Rt. Hon. Oliver Stanby that he immediately set up two Commissions in1943. The first was the Asquith Commission whose task was to consider the principles which should guide the promotion of higher education and the development of universities in the colonies. The second and which has a direct effect on us, is the Elliot Commission. This was set in response to the agitations from West Africa particularly. It was to assess and report the organization of facilities in the existing centres of higher education in British West Africa and to recommend of the future development of universities in the area. It unanimously saw the need for a university in West Africa. There was a majority and a minority report. The minority report which supported the establishment of only one University College in West Africa was accepted by the colonial masters. This, however, did not go without agitations the Gold Coast and some sections in Nigeria.

The above led to the setting of the Sir, William Hamilton Fyte delegation to West Africa in 1946. The report came out in a dispatch by the Secretary of State in August 1947. The then Secretary of State Mr. Creech Jones accepted the proposal that a university College be established each in Lagos, Nigeria and Legon, Ghana in 1948. The Nigerian University College took off in Ibadan in 1948 with 104 students transferred from Yaba College which essentially a Polytechnic, to form the foundation students. For its five years of its existence the college continued to be characterized by agitations and criticisms, one of which was the need for a full-fledge university and not a university college.

1.2 The First Generation Universities

At the eve of independence in 1959 the Ashby Commission was set. Its report came out in September 1960. It was a nine-man commission charged with the responsibility of looking into the post-secondary school certificate and higher education for Nigeria in the next twenty years. Its report came out some few weeks before the opening of the University of Nigeria Nsukka on the 7th of October 1960 as the first autonomous full-fledge university in Nigeria. This was in addition to up-grading of the University College Ibadan to a full-fledge university. After these two, three more universities were opened as the University of Ife in Ile Ife, Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria and the University of Lagos, Lagos all in 1962. The sixth university (University of Benin) was opened in1971 and handed over to the Federal Government in 1975. These six were the first generation universities.

1.3 The Second Generation Universities

The Third National Development plan was developed in 1972 to capture the period 1975 to 1980. The plan gave birth to seven new universities (the second generation universities). They are as follows; Bayero University Kano, Usman Danfodiyo University Sokoto, University of Port-Harcourt, University of Ilorin, University of Calabar, University of Jos, and University of Maiduguri.
Thereafter, the Federal Government saw the need to set up technical universities and those of Agriculture. These were set up in Makurdi, Yola, Bauchi, Akure etc. when the government of Goodluck Jonathan in 2011-2015 decided to set up fifteen additional universities to cater for those states that had no federal university

1.4 State Universities

The coming of the 1999 constitution and indeed civilian administration transferred university education and indeed all higher education from the exclusive legislative list to the concurrent legislative list. This made it possible for states that were willing and capable to start their own universities and other higher educational institutions. Between 1979 to 1983 starts came out in earnest to take the advantage. Rivers state started in 1980 and was followed by others like Imo, Ondo, Ogun Old Cross Rivers, Old Anambra, and Lagos states. As at now virtually all the states of the federation have their universities, colleges of education, polytechnics monotechnics etc.

1.5 Private Universities

Private universities and indeed all other tertiary institutions were permitted especially with Decree No. 19 of 1984. However, in 1985 this Decree was amended allowing the establishment of universities and other tertiary institutions by government (federal and States), companies incorporated in Nigeria, individuals or organization of individuals who are citizens of Nigeria.

In 1991 the "Longe Commission" on review of higher education in Nigeria gave credence to the establishment of universities and other tertiary institutions by organizations and individuals. The Federal Government accepted the report which led to the promulgation of the (National Minimum Standards and Establishment of Institutions) Decree No. 9 of 1993. This led to the abrogation of government monopoly on tertiary education.

In 1999 private ownership of tertiary institutions was liberalized further such that individuals and religious organizations became interested and set up their own universities and tertiary institutions. Some of the first are Babcock University, Madonna University, Igbinidion University all licensed in1999. Others include Bowen University in 2001, Covenant University and Pan-African University in 2002 (Abdulrahman Yusuf, 2012).

2. Historical Development of Polytechnics and Colleges of Education in Nigeria

Polytechnics and Monotechnics educational centre started since during the colonial era as mentioned earlier. The centres like CARS Ibadan, Samaru Zaria, Centre for Veterinary Medicine Vom and the Railway Engineering

Centre were more of monotechnics. Even the Yaba College which started in 1934 and was later converted to a technical College in 1945 and eventually became a polytechnic in 1947 and was renamed Yaba College of Technology in 1963. Apart from the Yaba College other such institutions established by the Federal Government, one each in the three regions then , came up. These include the Kaduna Polytechnic and the Institute of Management and Technology (IMT) Enugu.

With time in 1979 the Military Government saw the need for more polytechnics so it promulgated a Decree establishing seven more Polytechnics across the country. In 1979 again, the civilian administration came in and took education to the concurrent legislative list thus allowing states to establish their own polytechnics.

The amendment of Decree No. 19 of 1984 in 1985 and also as a result of Longe Report of 1991,private participation was allowed thus leading to the growth of private polytechnics/monotechnics. These institutions offer Certificate course and National Diplomas (NDs) and Higher National Diplomas (HNDs) accredited by the National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) as for Colleges of Education, and indeed Teacher Education in general, each of the missionary bodies that brought Western Education from the 1940s to the 1960s fashioned out their own Teacher Training Education programme. They started by training pupil-teachers who eventually grew to Teacher Grade III and Grade II programmes. One of the first of such programmes was that by the CMS mission which starts its own in Abeokuta in 1859 and was relocated to Oyo as St. Andrews College. It is today the Emmanuel Ayandele College of Education, Oyo. The Baptist mission started its own in Ogbomosho in 1896 as the Wisleyan started its own in Ibadan in 1905.

When the Ashby Report came out in 1960 one of its dissatisfaction was the use of Grade III and II teachers as teachers of our secondary education. Even before then the Western Region after the introduction of its UPE in1955 had started work with the University of Ibadan to provide a one year progarmme leading to the award of a Diploma Certificate in Education. The Ashby Report again, had suggested the provision of a teacher education which will provide teachers with an educational qualification that would be slightly above the teacher Grade I Certificate and a little lower than the bachelors' degree in education. This programme was carried out with the technical support of UNESCO. The programme was called the Advance Teachers' College (ATC). These colleges were started in Lagos in 1960, Zaria and Ibadan (now Adeyemi College of Education in 1962, Owerri (now Alvan Ikoku College of education) in 1963, Kano in1964 and Abraka in 1971. All these were /are Federal Colleges of Education.

As mentioned earlier, the coming of civilian administration in 1979 marked the beginning of state governments' intervention in tertiary education so most if not all states of the federation established their own Colleges of Education. With the amendment of Decree 19 of 1984 in 1985 and the Longe Report of 1991private organizations and individuals are now participating in the provision of this level of education. The Colleges of Education offer the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) accredited by the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE).

3. Higher Education Funding in Nigeria

It should be noted right away that missionaries who brought western education in Nigeria only concentrated on primary and secondary education. Higher education was more of the prerogative of government. These started as some post-secondary education created as further professional education centers. They were slightly above secondary education. These were created and thus funded by some government department like agricultural and railway. Those of agriculture include Central Agricultural Research Stations (CARS) established in Moor Plantation Ibadan and Samaru Zaria, and a centre for Veterinary Medicine in Yom. The Nigeria railway had an Engineering Centre in Lagos.

When the crave for higher education intensified, the Yaba Higher College came and was funded by the colonial government even when it

metamorphous into the University College Ibadan in 1948 which was still funded by the colonial government. After independence came in the first generation universities which were six in number and were funded by the federal. The federal government prohibited fees and made a steady funding of the then six universities. The universities were sufficiently funded. (Okebukola, 2010).

1n the 1970s during the period of oil boom, the Federal Government went into a further project of universities (second generation universities) which were seven in number. These were established during the Third National Development Plan 1975-80. Again these were funding exclusively by the Federal Government. As the importance of universities education continued to increase the Federal Government since 2011 to date has added another set of universities. Today there about 43 federal universities scattered all over the country, all established in between 1948 and 2018

All these universities are funded by the federal government through the National Universities Commission (NUC). The NUC collects all budgetary requests from the federal universities and scrutinize them to ensure complete compliance with the funding parameter approved by government. A budget defense session is created by the National Assembly (NASS) for all the universities to defend their budget after which allocation will be made by NASS and forwarded to the NUC through the Federal Ministry of Education. It is from the allocation that each university will make an operational budget for NUC's approval and disbursement.

After the periods of the oil boom in the 1980 all these exclusives federal government funding on higher education crashed. Grant to the federal universities reduced in size and attempts was made to raise funds through school fees which were vehemently opposed by student union government to increase fees payable by student (Okebakola 2010). Notwithstanding, the number of federal universities continued to increase, from 24 in 1992 to 43 in 2018. Below is a trend of federal government allocation to higher (university) education through the NUC in naira.

1	1992	3,055,864,40.00	1993	2	3,905,915,278.00
3	1994	4,489,261,980.00	1995	4	6,238,950,796.00
5	1996	7,696,732,469.00	1997	6	5,570,555,312.00
7	1998	9,194,839,283.00	1999	8	20,902,812,580.00
9	2000	33,843,940,312.00	2001	10	34,680,287,696.00
11	2002	33,778,450,500.00	2003	12	34,411,319,280.00
13	2004	53,024,557,483.00	2005	14	55,921,243,975.00
15	2006	78,060,798,858.00	2007	16	84,464,710,606.00
17	2008	103,855,443,524.00	2009	18	109,209,812,316.00
19	2010	127,465,208,169.00	2011	20	184,695,660,617.00
21	2012	209,498,125,598.00	2013	22	223,482,973,079.00

Source: *Compiled from Okebukola 2003 and NUC 2013.*

It should be noted that from 1999 there was TETFund contribution beside these sources from the NUC funding of universities. TETFund funded other levels of education through their controlling bodies like NCCE for College of Education and NBTE for Polytechnics and Monotechnics. Other sources also have to be explored. NUC for instance has mandated all universities to generate at least 10% of the total annual recurrent expenditure from internally generated revenue (lGR)

Other sources that could be tapped by universities and other tertiary institutions according to Akenyemi (2013) include grants allocated to universities for special projects. These could include research grants received from research funding agencies. There are also grants from international organizations like, World Bank, UNICEF, UNESCO, UNDP, WHO etc. Research grants from Business organization could be in form of charity or endowments from corporate bodies like John D and Catherine I Mac Author foundation, Julius Berger PLC, CHEVRON, Petroleum Trust Development Fund (PTDF) (Ogbogu, 2011).

Other sources of funding higher education according to Ogundade (1989) support from government whether state or Federal which

constitutes 98% recurrent cost and 100% capital cost on government universities:

- Students contribution towards living expenses on campus.
- Private contributions by commercial organization in form of grants calmly e.t.c
- Interest earnings from short term Bank deposit and rent from school property.

4. TETfund Contributions in Funding Tertiary Education

Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) was established first as Education Tax Fund through ETF Education Tax Act No.7 of 1993 amended in 1998. It was eventually transformed to Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) in 2011 by the TETFund Act No. 16 of 2011. The Agency was established to raise funds for tertiary institution in Nigeria thereby reducing over reliance on government (Federal or state). It derives in income or funds from a 2% education tax on the profit of all corporate organization registered in Nigeria. The TETfund is as at today the major source of funding capital projects in our higher institutions. From 2004 - 2014 the TETfund allocated a total sum of over 6.8 billion Naira for the development of tertiary education in Nigeria.

Below is a rundown:

2008	₦202,240,000
2009	₦ 260,000,000
2010	₦ 640, 870,000
2011	₦ 896, 900, 000
2012	₦ l,251,000,000
2013	₦ l,479,000,000
2014	₦ 2,000,000,000
Total	N 6,844,010,000

Source: *Khalid S Soliman (ed), (2016).*

It is important to note that TETFund intervention is normally made to government (federal and state) owned tertiary institutions

4.1 State Universities

State universities came to being as a result of the provisions of the 1979 constitution which transferred tertiary Education which was hitherto in the exclusive legislative to the concurrent legislative list. This allowed states to establish their own universities. From 1970 to 1983 there were six of such universities belonging to Rivers state, Ondo state, Imo state, old Cross River state, old Anambra state and Lagos State. As at now we have no fewer the 47 state universities.

These universities were licensed as a result of the states' meeting up the condition of establishing universities -one of which is funding. The universities are controlled and funded by the states especially in terms of recurrent expenditure as a lot of the capital expenditure is done by TETfund.

4.2 Private Universities

They came into being after the abrogation of decree No 19 (private universities (abolition and prohibition) Act. 1984. In 1985 this decree was amended allowing the establishment of universities by government (Federal and State), companies incorporated in Nigeria, individuals or association of individuals who are citizens of Nigeria. The 1991 "Longe Commission" on review of higher education in Nigeria further gave private individual and organizations right to establish universities. Today we have over 50 of such universities.

These universities were licensed and eventually established only after the proprietors had met the conditions for establishing such universities. One of the strongest of such conditions is evidence of funding and continuous funding. Therefore the control and funding of these institutions is entirely in the hands of the proprietors that is why the charge high fees in addition to other sources for funding.

5. Conclusion

This work found that Higher Education started in Nigeria right from pre-colonial era and went through the colonial and post-independent era. At certain point in time it was exclusively the reserve of the colonial and federal governments. It was after the 1979 constitution that states were allowed to go into it. The private sector went

into it only after the amendment of Decree No. 19 of 1984 in 1985. The funding of higher education followed the pattern of participation. At certain points in time it was exclusively a Federal government affair then later, state governments joined and eventually the private sector after 1985. Much government funding comes through budgetary provisions and the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund). TETFund derives is funds through a 2% Education Tax Fund charged on the Annual Profit of all Companies registered in Nigeria. TETFund is today the main financier of capital projects in our tertiary institutions.

6. Recommendations

The success or otherwise of our tertiary institutions depends on how funds are sourced and managed. Below are some recommendations:

- There should be more/higher budgetary provisions in our governments' budgets to education. We should go at least with the UNESCO budgetary formula which suggests a minimum of 26% annual allocation to education for developing countries.
- More private sources of funding public institution like affordable school fees should be explored.
- The Tertiary institutions should devise more viable means of improving their internally generated revenue (lGR). This could be done through setting up viable consultancy units, development of entrepreneurial education/centers and engaging in direct-labour projects than contracts. With these we can correct our infrastructural decay and shortage through renovations and constructions.
- The supervisory/monitoring agencies of our tertiary institutions (NUC, NCCE, NBTE, etc) should step up supervision and inspection of facilities in our institutions through regular accreditation to ensure judicious use of our scarce resources.
- The 2% tax deductable from profit of companies registered in Nigeria, managed by TETFUND should be increased to 5% to enable TETFUND make higher allocations to our government owned institutions and even make allocations to private institutions under the conditions that they will reduce their fee charges on students.
- The Treasury Single Account (TSA), good as it may be, should be handled with moderation when it comes to the issue of the chief executives of the tertiary institutions carrying out expenditure from fees collected from students.

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Perceived Risk Barriers to Internet Shopping

SURAJU ABIODUN AMINU, OLUSEGUN PAUL OLAWORE,
ADESINA EMMANUEL ODESANYA
Lagos State Polytechnic, Ikorodu, Nigeria

Abstract. In an e-commerce age, a large number of shoppers, browsing the Internet in Nigeria, still prefer to visit the traditional stores for shopping purposes despite the many benefits of Internet shopping. This paper examined the perceived risks that constitute barriers to Internet shopping for a large number of shoppers in Lagos State, Nigeria. We collected data from an online sample of 262 respondents through a questionnaire. The results of the multiple regression analysis supported all the three hypotheses of the paper, suggesting that perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk negatively affected Internet shopping for our sample. We highlighted the implications of the findings for e-vendors operating in Lagos State and other states of the federation and made suggestions for future research direction.

Keywords: Barriers, e-commerce, Internet shopping, online shoppers and perceived risk.

1. Introduction

The global population of the people on the Internet has increased considerably from 361 million in 2000 to 4.25 billion in 2018 (Internet World Statistics, 2019a). In Nigeria, the Internet user growth rate is consistent with the global trend. It reached over 110 million users in March, 2019 from a paltry figure of 200,000 in December 2000 (Internet World Statistics, 2019b).

Nigeria's e-commerce is estimated to be $13 billion (N4.7 trillion) in 2018 (Jumia, 2018) and provides an opportunity for all categories of e-commerce operators in the country (Aminu, Olawore, & Odesanya, 2018). In marketing, this vast e-commerce opportunity provides a more viable alternative for consumers to do shopping and represents a huge market potential for both the traditional and online vendors.

Generally, the Internet has multiple uses, including information, communication, entertainment and commercial transactions (buying and selling). This paper focuses on the use of the Internet for shopping purposes. A recent study regards Internet shopping as the act of purchasing goods and services over the Internet rather than in-store (Aminu et al., 2018). Internet shopping requires the shoppers to actively interact with the retailers' websites (Naiyi, 2004) or retailers' mobile shopping applications as a growing number of e-tailers are developing shopping apps.

Many global Internet users are showing more preferences for Internet shopping due to its numerous benefits, which include convenience, time, savings, 24-hour availability, greater choices, lower prices, interactivity and free delivery (Dai, Forsythe, & Kwan, 2014; Doolin, Dillon, Thompson, & Corner, 2005; Zheng, Favier, Huang, & Coat, 2012). However, there are few exceptions. For example, in spite of these benefits, many Chinese shoppers

expressed concerns about certain forms of risks in Internet shopping and avoided this new shopping method (Hong & Yi, 2012). Similarly, while only few shoppers purchase online in Nigeria, many shoppers still complete their purchases in-store (Aminu et al., 2018).

The literature has cited perceived risk as one of the barriers impeding Internet shopping (Fortes & Rita, 2016; Hsu & Bayarsaikhan, 2012; Sims & Xu, 2012; Vos, Marinagic, Trivellasc, Eberhagen, Skourlasd, & Giannakopoulos, 2014; Zheng et al., 2012). Perceived risk is a feeling of uncertainty a buyer attributes to a purchase decision and/or outcomes and a feeling that the desired benefits may not be achieved (Aminu et al., 2018). Though perceived risk is multi-dimensional (Forsythe & Shi, 2003), this paper investigates three perceived risks - perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk in this paper as they affect Internet shopping in Nigeria. Our previous research examined perceived financial risk and perceived privacy risk (Aminu et al., 2018).

Despite the capability of businesses to use technology to reach a large number of customers with a diverse range of products (Dillon, Buchanan, & Al-Otaibi, 2014), perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk may explain the reasons the volume of Internet shopping taking place in Nigeria is insignificant. For example, Nigerian shoppers may be concerned that purchasing online will result in the purchased product not performing as they expected70(Zheng et al., 2012); or may result in losing time due to slow navigation or delays in submitting orders, finding appropriate websites and receiving products (Forsythe & Shi, 2003); or that the delivery of goods purchased online may not take place within the expected time, the goods may be damaged in transit, poorly packaged and handled (Claudia, 2012).

This paper examines the contribution of the aforementioned perceived risks to the reasons many Nigerians have not adopted Internet shopping, thus reducing the gap in online shopping behaviour literature as related to perceived risks in Nigeria. The paper provides additional insights into the understanding of online shopping behaviour of consumers in Nigeria from a risk perspective. "Understanding these barriers would help e-tailers and e-marketers to develop and implement appropriate risk reduction strategies and improve their e-marketing strategies and attract more shoppers online" (Aminu et al., 2018, pp. 161-162). The rest of the paper is organised as follows: literature review is undertaken in section two; methodology is outlined in section three; results and discussion are presented in section four; and finally, concluding remarks are made.

2. Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses

2.1 Internet shopping

Online shopping is synonymous with Internet shopping, electronic shopping and web shopping (Aminu, 2013) and we use these concepts interchangeably in this paper. Online shopping is a process of electronic commerce (e-commerce) whereby customers have a direct contact with e-vendors and purchase goods or services from an online store (Chaffey, 2009). Online shopping is the use of online stores by consumers up until the transactional stage of purchasing and logistics (Monsuwe, Dellaett, & Ruyter, 2004). Internet shopping is the act of purchasing goods and services over the Internet rather than in-store (Aminu et al., 2018).

Unlike the traditional transactions, Internet shopping is unusually associated with the extensive use of technology to complete transactions and the remote and impersonal nature of the online transactions (Naiyi, 2004). This has led to Internet shopping increasing the shoppers' experiences than in-store shopping (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). "The Internet is becoming an increasingly popular medium to facilitate information search, choice, and purchase" (Forsythe, Liu, Shannon, & Gardner, 2006, p. 56). A growing number of businesses are targeting e-commerce market and this has transformed the way shoppers are getting a product (Durmus, Ulusu, & Akgun, 2017).

In Nigeria, the positive global development in Internet transformation has manifested in the way customers are purchasing online and attracting more retailers online (Aminu, 2013). The increased access of many Nigerians to the Internet has considerably helped this transformation (Aminu, Okunowo, Salau, & Adesina, 2015; Jumia, 2017; Phillips Consulting, 2014). As much as Internet shopping has transformed the business and marketing activities in Nigeria, it may have also created perceived risks of different kinds for consumers of products of different types. Therefore, the central trust of this paper is perceived risk.

2.2 Perceived risks and Internet shopping

Generally, the concept of perceived risk has become very popular in consumer behaviour since it debuted, in almost six decades ago, by Bauer (1960) cited in Mitchell (1999). Perceived risk is universal and has a wide application in a number of product categories (Mitchell, 1999). We apply perceived risk to Internet shopping in Nigeria's context. Perceived risk referred to a feeling of uncertainty a buyer attributes to a purchase decision and/or outcomes and a feeling that the desired benefits may not be achieved (Aminu et al., 2018). According to Naiyi (2004), perceived risk, in the Internet environment, is a feeling about shoppers' pre-purchase uncertainty about the type and degree of expected loss associated with the purchase and use of a product. The author explained further that whether they are purchasing via the Internet or in-store, shoppers face some degree of risk as they prefer one brand to another and the way they purchase the brand (Naiyi, 2004). However, a study found that shoppers perceived more purchasing risk when they purchase over the Internet than from in-store (Samadi & Yaghoob-Nemadi, 2009). When viewed broadly, perceived risk can be associated with pre-purchase, during purchase and post-purchase situations.

The concept of perceived risk in the Internet shopping research came to the fore in early 1990's when residential Internet was introduced (Mitchell, 1999). Since then, research interest in perceived risk of Internet shopping has grown significantly, especially in the western world. A recent study asserted that perceived risk has become a major concern of the shoppers as they decide to purchase online (Durmus et al., 2017). In spite of the unique advantages of Internet shopping, the small number of Internet shoppers suggests that there are significant barriers to Internet adoption (Rudolph, Rosenbloom, & Wagner, 2004). Due to the risk concerns, some shoppers gather information online and use the information to make purchases in-store (Forsythe & Shi, 2003; Sims & Xu, 2012). Perceived risks are among the most critical barriers to Internet shopping in the literature (Dai, 2014; Sims & Xu, 2012). The shoppers who are contemplating purchasing over the Internet are primarily preoccupied with the risk associated with such purchases (Samadi & Yaghoob-Nejadi, 2009) and must evaluate these risks (Featherman, Miyazaki, & Sprott, 2010).

The empirical evidence of a research work in Saudi Arabia suggested that perceived risk felt by shoppers has a strong negative effect on their attitude and intention to purchase online (Almousa, 2011) and represents a barrier to Internet shopping (Vos et al., 2014).
This research is a concluding part of a paper presented at a conference at Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria in November 2018 and covers perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived71delivery risk.

2.2.1 Perceived product risk and Internet shopping

Perceived product risk is also known as perceived performance risk and referred to the extent that consumers feel a product will not perform as they expected71(Keating, Krizb, & Quazi, 2008; Kim, Ferrin, & Rao, 2008; Zheng et al., 2012). It is the concern about product malfunctioning or not functioning or not performing as expected (Almousa, 2011). It is extended to include fear of non-performance of websites (Swiegers, 2018). Performance risk may occur when shoppers choose wrong products due to wrong judgement, resulting from their failure to assess online product/service

quality due to their inability to touch, feel or try the product or service (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). Shoppers are unwilling to purchase over the Internet because of a high risk they feel about the quality of the product72(Samadi & Yaghoob-Nejadi, 2009). Therefore, the inability of shoppers to directly feel a product increases the product performance risk (Yu, Lee, & Damhorst, 2012) and may constitute an important barrier to the online shopping intention of a large number of shoppers purchasing in the traditional physical stores.

A preponderance of past studies have found that product performance risk deterred shoppers from purchasing online. For example, it is posited that empirical literature on perceived performance risk showed that the challenge of assessing the quality of online products was the most cited reason the Internet users were not purchasing over the Internet (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). A study in Romania found that online shoppers in the country perceived a higher performance risk for aparrel, shoes, cosmetics, perfumes and other goods because of their failure to touch, smell, and taste these products respectively (Claudia, 2012). In China, perceived performance risk ranked top of the seven dimensions of perceived risks in e-shopping for clothing in the country (Zheng et al., 2012). Similarly, Yu and colleagues found that online consumers perceived visual, tactile, and trial risks of product performance based on the evaluation of product attributes through virtual product experience in a Midwestern University in China (Yu et al., 2012).

In addition, a study in the US found that while perceived financial risk is a strong predictor of online searching and purchasing frequencies, perceived product risk impacted only the online purchasing frequency in the country (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). The results of another study in the US demonstrated that the intention of both online shoppers and non-online shoppers to purchase through the Internet was positively influenced by general attitude toward the system and negatively influenced by the risk associated with the Web. The results showed that economic and performance risks have a greater influence on e-commerce adoption in the country (Crespo, del Bosque, & Sánchez, 2009). In another research in the US, perceived product risk was found to negatively influence respondents' online purchase intentions for a non-digital product category and marginally influenced them for a digital product category in a Southeastern university in the the country (Dia et al., 2014).
Conversely, the results of Masoud (2013) found that product risk did not constitute a barrier to Internet shopping in Jordan.

Based on the foregoing, we hypothesise that:

H1: Perceived product risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping.

2.2.2 Perceived Time Risk and Internet Shopping

In all human endeavours, time is a valuable resource that most people need to manage judiciously. In particular, in a shopping situation, shoppers are concerned about time they spend when shopping, whether online or in-store. Scholars have asserted that shoppers perceive time/convenience risk when they lose time or are inconvenienced due to the challenge of faster navigation or delays in submitting orders, finding appropriate websites and receiving products (Forsythe & Shi, 2003) or when they feel that the time, convenience or effort they expend purchasing, searching for information, returning, repairing, replacing or exchanging a product via online may take long and be wasted (Dillon et al., 2014; Hanjun et al., 2004; Hong & Yi, 2012).72In addition, shoppers perceive time risk if online transactions extend over a long period of time in starting and completing (Hong & Yi, 2012).

Research indicated that a large number of Internet shoppers, exceeding 80 per cent have, at different point, abandoned e-commerce websites without getting what they want72(Silverman, Bachann, & Akharas, 2001). For this category of shoppers, the time they spent on the e-commerce websites would be considered a waste and this may deter them from going back to the Internet for shopping purposes. By extension, the negative testimony about their failed online

shopping experience may be a significant barrier that prevents other non-online shoppers from contemplating purchasing online. Shoppers' concerns about the time they spend online increase significantly in developing countries like Nigeria where Internet infrastructure is not well developed. For example, a recent study explained that online transactions fail when there are delivery errors, slow Internet connections and website navigation and extended periods of information search (Swiegers, 2018).

Empirical research showed the effect of perceived time risk on Internet shopping. One of the early studies on perceived risks in Internet shopping found that time risk, along with other risks, financial risk and privacy risk (these risks were classified as a performance-related risk in the study), was a big concern for the adoption of e-service among the students of a large university (Featherman & Pavlou, 2002). In Romania, majority of respondents reported the fear that the procedure for returning malfunctioned products to the e-tailers consumed time. They also perceived the time spent waiting for the product to be delivered to them at the designated address as a time loss (Claudia, 2012).73In Saudi Arabia, a recent survey supported the hypothesis that overall perceived risk in Internet shopping was determined by the time risk associated with it73(Almousa, 2011). Further, the perception of the Internet as a shopping medium, frequency of online visiting, frequency of purchasing, money spent, and amount of time73spent shopping online were negatively correlated with perceived risks, including time risk (Forsythe et al., 2006).73

While the empirical results of a study in Jordan proved that perceived time risk and perceived social risk did not have effect on Internet shopping (Masoud, 2013), the results of another study found that perception of time risk by the shoppers varied with the age and experience of the shoppers. The results indicated that perception of time risk was lower for older shoppers, above the age of 50 years and for the shoppers, with less online experience (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). A study in South Africa also revealed that perceived time risk did not significantly affect the purchase and repurchase intent of online shoppers for clothes and books in the country (Swiegers, 2018).

Based on the empirical evidence presented above, we state that:

H2: Perceived time risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping.

2.3 Perceived Delivery risk and Internet Shopping

While purchasing in the physical stores are not associated with a perceived delivery risk because the shoppers take immediate delivery of the purchased items right in the store and after payment, Internet shopping may be characterised by a perceived delivery risk. Research has indicated that shoppers perceive delivery risk when they fear that delivery of goods purchased online will not take place within the timeline agreed with the online vendors, the goods may be damaged in transit, poorly packaged and handled (Claudia, 2012).73Consequently, many consumers may avoid shopping online because of delivery problem and return of incorrect products (Swiegers, 2018).

The literature has also documented the evidence of the relationship between perceived delivery risk and Internet shopping in a number of countries. A study in Saudi Arabia found that delivery risk, just like other five risks investigated, negatively impacted Internet shopping among the two samples of online shoppers and non-online shoppers (Almousa, 2011). Also in China, studies found that perceived delivery risk significantly affected online consumer shopping behaviour (Zhang, Tan, & Xu, 2012) and perceived delivery risk represented one of the major risks Chinese felt when purchasing clothing items over the Internet (Zheng, 2013). Another study in Jordan showed that perceived delivery risk deterred shoppers in the country from purchasing over the Internet (Masoud, 2013). The results of a recent study in Malaysia also indicated that non-delivery risk negatively affected the online shopping attitude

and behaviour of consumers (Md Ariff, Sylvester, Zakuan, Ismail, & Ali, 2014).
The results of Javadi and his colleagues (2012) showed that delivery risk did74not negatively affect the intention of shoppers to purchase online (Javadi, Dolatabadi, Nourbakhsh, Poursaeedi & Asadollahi,742012).74Similarly, another study found that perceived delivery risk did not have a negative effect on shoppers' intention to purchase over the Internet in Malaysia (Folarin & Ogundare, 2016).

From the foregoing, we assert that:

H3: Perceived delivery risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping.

2.4 Perceived risk theory (PRT)

Studies have credited Bauer (1960) as a scholar, who first used perceived risk theory in Marketing to explain consumer behaviour (Dai et al., 2014; Forsythe & Shi, 2003; Mitchell, 1999). Several years after the pioneer work on perceived risk was published, the perceived risk concept has evolved and remained the foremost research topic in consumer behaviour (Mitchell, 1999).

Generally, the PRT explained comsumers behaviours with regards to their purchasing decision making (Pi & Sangruang, 2011), which often produces uncertain consequences (Chen, Yan, & Fan, 2015; Hong & Yi, 2012) and postulated that the possibility of risks in the buying process determines whether or not consumers will decide to buy a product (Yu, Lee, & Damhorst, 2012). The PRT asserted that a higher level of uncertainty regarding purchase consequences results in hesitation to make purchases (Forsyth & Shi, 2003). Therefore, the central trust of the PRT is existence of risk, characterised by uncertain outcomes, in every buying decision. Perceived risk theory has been widely applied in the risk literature to explain the phenomenon of perceived risk in different areas, which include information technology (Doolin et al., 2005) and Internet shopping (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). Therefore, PRT is an apt theory for this study.

Perceived risk is a consumer's belief about the potential uncertain negative outcomes from the online transaction (Kim, Ferrin, & Rao, 2008). Though Studies noted that shoppers perceived more risk when they shop online than in-store (Hsu & Bayarsaikhan, 2012; Samadi & Yaghoob-Nemadi, 2009; Zheng et al., 2012), risk permeates all purchasing situations - Internet and in-store (Naiyi, 2004).
Shopping has, for long, been risky, with consumers not sure of a purchase decision taken and the attendant outcomes of poor decisions (Bauer, 1960 cited in Dai, 2014) and increased risk associated with a purchase will lead to decreased intention to engage in purchase activities (Dai et al., 2014). In particular, Internet shopping has recently emerged as a new method of shopping and its emergence might create some problems74to consumers (Li & Huang, 2009). These problems are barriers that deter shoppers from purchasing over the Internet. In line with the two elements of risk, consequences and uncertainty (Chen et al., 2015; Hong & Yi, 2012), a recent study stated that shoppers have no confidence in Internet shopping due to the fear that the products they purchase can have some poor and uncertain consequences (Tanadi, Samadi, & Gharleghi, 2015).

In PRT, perceived risk is conceptualised as multi-dimensional and includes financial risk, product risk, psychological risk, social risk, time risk, and74privacy risk (Forsythe & Shi, 2003). Studies have found that these risks, as a complete set or a combination of some of them, negatively deter Internet shopping (Forsythe & Shi, 2003).

3. Methods

The paper employed an online survey to collect data from a sample of Internet users in Lagos State, who regularly browse the Internet but have not used the Internet to make purchases. Sampling actual Internet users makes it possible to address the challenge of access to the Internet (Doolin et al., 2005). A total number of 262 respondents participated in the survey. The main instrument of data collection was a structured questionnaire. The self-Internet-based

questionnaire, measured on a 4-point Likert scale (1, strongly disagree and 4, strongly agree), was adapted from previous studies (Dai et al., 2014; Naiyi, 2004). The questionnaire has two sections. Section one consists of bio-data of respondents and section two comprises statements about perceived risks. Perceived risk is the independent variable, measured by perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk. Internet shopping is the dependent variable. There are 22 items in the scale. The questionnaire was posted on social media and to the email addresses of our phone contacts, with a comprehensive covering note explaining the purpose of and the target population for the survey. The survey lasted for 15 days.

Both descriptive and inferential analyses of data were undertaken. We analysed the respondents' bio-data using frequency counts and percentages. We ran a multiple regression analysis to test the direct effect of the three types of perceived risk, examined in the paper, on Internet shopping. The validity and reliability of the adapted instruments (Dai et al., 2014; Naiyi, 2004) were satisfactory.

4. Results and discussion

Table 1: Respondents' bio-data

Variables	Frequency	Percentage	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Sex:			**Marital status**:		
Male	104	40.0%	Single	94	36.0%
Female	158	60.0%	Married	122	47.0%
Total	262	100.0%	Separated	27	10.0%
			Widow/Widower	19	07.0%
			Total	262	100.0%
Age:			**Occupation:**		
Below 20 years	19	07.0%	Public sector	86	33.0%
21-30 years	72	27.0%	Private sector	81	31.0%
31-40 years	116	44.0%	Self-employed	38	14.0%
41-50 years	41	16.0%	Students	57	22.0%
Above 50 years	14	06.0%	**Total**	262	100.0%
Total	262	100.0%			

Source: *SPSS Output, 2018.*

Table 1 indicates that 60 per cent of the respondents were male; while the remaining 40 per cent were married; 44 per cent of the respondents fell into the age category of 31 to 40 years; and 33 per cent were employees of the public sector in Lagos state. Though more male participants responded to our survey, a study by Forsyth and Shi (2003) found that gender did not significantly explain Internet shopping behaviour in the U.S.

Table 2: Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.714[a]	.510	.495	6.83425

a. Predictors: (Constant), Summation of perceived product risk variable, summation of perceived time risk variable, summation of perceived delivery risk variable.

Source: *SPSS Output, 2018.*

The R in table 2 is the multiple correlation coefficient. It determines the quality of the prediction of the dependent variable, Internet shopping in this case. The value of R is .714 and suggests a good level of prediction. The R^2 value in the table is called the coefficient of determination and describes the amount of variance in the dependent variable that can be explained by all the independent variables combined together. Therefore, the (R^2 = 0.510) indicates that 51.0 per cent of the variance in Internet shopping (dependent variable) is explained by the three independent variables, namely, perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk.

Table 3: ANOVA[b] (Goodness of fit model)						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**DF**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	**Regression**	65243.473	5	13517.163	262.835	.000[a]
	Residual	73254.426	1392	48.825		
	Total	138497.899	1397			
Summation of perceived product risk variables, summation of perceived time risk variables, summation of perceived delivery risk variables.						
b. Dependent Variable: Summation of Internet shopping variables						

Source: *SPSS Output, 2018.*

The F-ratio in table 3 tests the extent to which the overall regression model is a good fit of the data. The results shows that at least one of the three independent variables statistically significantly explains the dependent variable, i.e. $F(5, 95) = 262.835$, $p < .0005$, indicating that the model is a good fit. This suggests a linear relationship among the variables and that there is a 95% chance that this relationship is not due to chance.

Table 4: Multiple regression results for perceived risk barriers to Internet shopping

Variables	**Standardised Beta**	**t-value**	**Sig.**	**Collinearity statistics**	
				VIF	**Tolerance**
Constant	4.473	16.804	.247		
Perceived product risk	-.548	-.419	.000	.868	1.283
Perceived time risk	-.289	-.261	.000	.764	2.421
Perceived delivery risk	-.452	-.164	.000	.821	1.396

Source: *SPSS Output, 2018.*

In testing the three hypotheses stated in the paper, we used the value of standardised beta (β) and t-test statistics level of significance (Sig.) for each of three perceived risks examined in the co-efficients table above. As a rule, where $p<.05$, we accept the hypothesis because it is statistically significant, otherwise we reject it.

H1: Perceived product risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping. The results of hypothesis 1 indicates that perceived product risk is statistically significant and has a negative effect on Internet shopping for our sample ($\beta = -.548$, $p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported, suggesting that perceived product risk deters shoppers from Internet shopping.

H2: Perceived time risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping.

The results of hypothesis 2 shows that perceived time risk is also statistically significant and has a negative effect on Internet shopping for our sample ($\beta = -.289$, $p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is corroborated, suggesting that perceived time risk discourages shoppers from Internet shopping.

H3: Perceived delivery risk has a negative effect on Internet shopping.

The results of hypothesis 3 indicates that perceived delivery risk is statistically significant and has a negative effect on Internet shopping for our sample ($\beta = -.452$, $p<.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is confirmed, suggesting that perceived delivery risk constitutes a barrier to Internet shopping.

5. Discussion

In this paper, we ran a multiple regression analysis to determine whether low adoption of Internet for shopping in Lagos State can be explained by perception of certain risks - perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk - by shoppers. Our model was significant ($p<.0005$), indicating that the model is a good fit. The results show that perceived product risk is the strongest barrier to Internet shopping for our sample. This result suggests that perception of product risk explains the reasons for low Internet shopping in Lagos State. This result is consistent with the results of similar studies (Claudia, 2012; Forsythe & Shi, 2003; Yu et al., 2012; Zheng et al., 2012). Admittedly, the reluctance of many shoppers to purchase via the Internet, due to their inability to

see, touch, feel and compare products, may be a strong deterrent for not engaging in online shopping. Most Nigerians are obsessed by the age long culture of visiting stores to assess a product before purchasing. This can be described as entrenched consumer behaviour. They like comparing product quality, prices, sellers' reliability and other important product attributes before purchasing. This reduces the possibility of the product failing to perform below shoppers' expectation. This is most likely to reduce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) that may be associated with Internet shopping.

Perceived delivery risk is the next significant barrier to Internet shopping, according to our multiple regression analysis. This result also explains the hesitation of most Lagos shoppers to initiate and complete commercial transactions on the Internet. The finding is corroborated by the findings of previous studies (Md Ariff et al., 2014; Almousa, 2011; Masoud, 2013; Zhang et al., 2012; Zheng, 2013). Since most shoppers prefer to take delivery of products as soon as they make payment, the failure of Internet transactions to guarantee immediate delivery heightens the concerns of shoppers and may deter them from Internet shopping. Many shoppers are concerned about non-delivery, late delivery, delivery of wrong products or return of defective products back to the online vendors. To allay this fear, leading etailers in Lagos State and Nigeria, at large, are encouraging payment for the ordered items on delivery. Unfortunately, this has not done much to motivate shoppers to engage in Internet shopping as a large number of people in Nigeria are still purchasing in-store.

Finally, the multiple regression analysis reveals that perceived time risk constitutes the least barrier to Internet shopping for our sample. This finding also suggests that perceived time risk deters Lagos shoppers from engaging in online shopping. This finding is supported by the findings of past studies (Almousa, 2011; Claudia, 2012; Featherman & Pavlou, 2002; Forsythe et al., 2006). Though, perceived time risk is not a major barrier to Internet shopping compared to other risks, according to our empirical analysis, the fear of losing time by shoppers while searching for online vendors, navigating through their websites, comparing products and prices, moving products to the cart, making payment and waiting for delivery, can be real in Nigeria and may deter a large number of shoppers from Internet shopping. Unlike in many developed and emerging markets, Internet infrastructure is not well developed in Nigeria and many developing countries, and this affects the availability and quality of Internet services in these countries. For example, Internet services may not be available for hours (and sometimes, for days) in some locations in Lagos State, the commercial and economic hub of Nigeria. Therefore, most shoppers that place premium on time may avoid Internet shopping and visit stores, especially on their way to their place of work, for their shopping. Conversely, our finding is inconsistent with the findings of Forsythe & Shi (2003), Masoud (2013) and Swiegers (2018). Forsythe and Shi found that perception of time risk was lower for older shoppers, above the age of 50 years and for the shoppers, with less online experience.

6. Conclusion and Implications

6.1 Conclusion

This paper is a concluding part of a research project that examined perceived risk barriers to Internet shopping in Lagos State. Though perceived risk has many dimensions, we examined the impediment of three perceived risks (perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk) to Internet shopping in this paper, while perceived financial risk and perceived privacy risk, as they affect Internet shopping were examined in an earlier conference paper. All the three hypotheses of this paper are supported by the multiple regression model. Perceived product risk, perceived time risk and perceived delivery risk negatively affected online shopping for our sample of online respondents. Perceived product risk emerged as the greatest barrier to Internet shopping while perceived time risk is the least obstacle to Internet shopping. We conclude that perception of risks by shoppers constitutes an important barrier to the growth of Internet shopping in Lagos State. This is despite the growing number of Internet users in Nigeria.

There's no doubt that this paper has contributed to the risk and Internet shopping behaviour literature.

6.2 Implications

The results of this paper have important implications for Internet marketers.

First, the e-vendors should see the high risks associated with Internet shopping as both an opportunity and a challenge. As an opportunity, the risks provide an indication of concerns of the shoppers engaging in traditional buying behaviour. It is suggested that a reduction in perceived risk of Internet shopping might increase the amount of Internet shopping consumers engage in (Sims78& Xu, 2012).

Second, e-vendors should concentrate on stocking and selling high quality products that would satisfy the needs of shoppers most of the time. This will reduce the fears of products purchased online not meeting customer requirements and drive more online transactions.

Third, e-tailers should improve on their delivery efficiency and effectiveness to address customer concern about non-delivery, late delivery and delivery of wrong items. They should develop a policy of compensation for delivery failures; this will boost shoppers' confidence in Internet shopping.

Fourth, the National Communication Commission (NCC) and the relevant committees of both chambers of National Assembly should step up their regulatory and oversight functions on telecommunication companies to make them continuously increase investment in Internet infrastructures. This would increase the quality of Internet services and enhance customer Internet experience whenever they choose to purchase over the Internet.

Finally, e-vendors should engage in massive marketing and promotional activities to enlighten the large number of traditional shoppers about what they are doing to reduce all kinds of perceived risks discussed in this paper and elsewhere. Lee (2009) provides evidence that marketing can contribute to the mitigation of the financial, security and performance risks that characterise Internet shopping. For example, not all shoppers are aware of the e-vendors' policy of encouraging online shoppers to make payment when fully satisfied with the ordered and delivered products. Marketing can help promote this and other policies that can contribute to the reduction of perceived risks.

7. Limitations and Future Research Direction

The present paper is limited by smaller number of the sample size and selection of the sample by a convenience method of sampling. These limitations have made it impossible for the generalisation of the findings of this paper. Future researchers should consider a large sample size selected via any method of probability sampling. Future researchers should consider surveying risk barriers to Internet shopping for specific products (mobile phones, electronics, appliances, cosmetics, shoes or textiles). Finally, future research can focus on the effect of perceived risks on the frequency of Internet shopping by current shoppers, especially as they gain more online experience.

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Part Two
Political Education

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The Role of Nigerian Translators in Promoting Nationhood and National Consciousness

ODIZURU ITEOGU
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

Abstract. Language is doubly regarded in this paper as a psycho-social phenomenon relevant to every national development. It is in this context that this write-up has tried to examine the language question in Nigeria and how intellectual leadership through translators can contribute to the resolution of the raging controversy over selecting or creating a lingua franca for Nigeria's multi-ethnic society.
Sofar, Nigeria has made attempts, sometimes feeble or distorted, to devise an indigenously derived lingua franca. Three (3) national languages (Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba) out of five hundred and twenty two (522) local languages were selected with the intention of eventual selection of one of them as an interim measure to promote nationhood and national consciousness. Despite protests by minority groups and GUOSA language experiment, not much progress seems to have been made to several logistic and political factors.
In the interim, academic and professional translators registered with the Nigerian Institute of Translators and interpreters (NITI) should be co-opted to provide intellectual leadership by translating major works of Nigerian major languages. This will surely promote intercultural understanding among Nigerians, perhaps reducing the mutual suspicion of ethic dominance among the major groups.
The 21st century should witness more concerted efforts towards a resolution of the language question and building a strong foundation for nationhood and national consciousness. Language is a major vehicle of transmission of cultural ideas, values and belief and a tool to stabilize or destabilize any political arrangements, especially in potentially unstable emerging democracies of the so-called third world nations of Africa.

Keywords: Issues, Nigerian Languages, Role, Translators, Nationhood, National Consciousness.

1. Introduction

Language has been conceived in several ways by experts depending on their own concepts of it. For example, Kelly (1969) says that "in considering language, psychologists have concentrated on two of its facets, treating it either as an aspect of human behaviour or as a factor in social activity". His second view of language is that itis a "skill or social activity". Therefore, language could be regarded as both a "psychological and social phenomenon needed in the socialization process of the child. On his part, David (1987) sees language "as unique due to its ability to capture the extensive spread of human thought". In other words, language acts as a purveyor of human thought and its effect on all the possible outcomes of human interaction. Obi-Okoye (2002) quoting David (1987) shares the view that "language appears to be the single most important endowment of human kind as a means of understanding ourselves and our society and of resolving some of the problems and tensions that arise from human interaction".

Therefore, language plays a major role in promoting human understanding and mutual

respect among races and nations. Thus, the promotion of human understanding is even more urgently needed in a multilingual) society. Nigeria needs to give due regard to language in the ECOWAS sub-region, being an important player in the socio-political and economic development and control in the west African region which is massively occupied by French-speaking countries such as Niger, Cameroon, Benin, Togo, Gabon, Burkina Faso, Coted'lvoire, Guinea, etc. In the consideration of French language study, the Nigerian situation is more complicated if we consider the overwhelming presence and impact of English (the nation's official language) and the necessity for getting translators involved in promoting national understanding and stability. This is in addition to the privileged position of the majority languages (Hausa, lgbo, Yoruba) considered as national languages on the language curriculum in secondary schools. In the midst of this multilingual situation, Nigeria's language problem is likely to take more time to resolve by all stake-holders, policy-makers and implementers interested in promoting the nationhood of Nigeria and national consciousness among its citizens, a pre-condition for a hastened development of our country.

2. Review of Literature

In the midst of the apparent confusion of terms, it is evident that Nigeria is yet to devise a lingua franca. A lingua franca is a commonly and internally derived (endoglossic) mode of general communication in any nation. What Nigeria possesses may be categorized as constitutionally accepted languages (Hausa, lgbo, Yoruba) and English (the official language). This has created a problem of how to devise a lingua franca. This has made Oyedola (1998) to explain that the multi-lingual make-up of Nigeria has thrown up difficult options in the attempt to select one of the more than 300 languages spoken in Nigeria as the lingua franca, considering that a lingua franca must be indigenously derived. This Inability Is based on sensitive Issues related to the choice of a lingua franca in a country where the fears of ethnic subjugation are too obvious and almost palpable. In the case of Nigeria, there is the suspicion that the choice of one local language as the lingua franca of the county might probably put speakers of the other local languages at a disadvantage.

Ajlbade (1994) quoting Hansford (1976) writes that "the multilingual Nigerian situation is more complex than normal due to her past history of colonization. According to him, this has led to a situation where about 300 languages were made to co-exist forcefully in one territory by the colonial administrators. This researcher avers that for the purpose of communication, a common language for administrative convenience had to be chosen fast by the colonial administrators who needed to communicate with their subjects in the most efficient manner, hence the ascendancy of English Language in Nigeria.

In Nigeria, no one doubts that there is a language problem, a situation which has obliged linguists and policymakers to seek a solution to the problem of multilingualism. Das Gupta (1968), Elugbe and Emenamjo (1990) corroborate the view that many new political entities are based on tribal attachments by segmental groups more than their ties with the countries. Emenanjo (1990) opines further that cleavages have developed but asks how this situation is managed in developmental issues of the nation. Emenanjo (19903 further explains

Perhaps ...ninety percent of four people in both urban and rural areas are untouched by their alleged Communicative role of English... I should also point out that no artificially-developed language will or does qualify as a national language in Nigeria.

This quotation is a reminder of the difficult obstacle towards deriving an indigenous lingua franca for Nigeria. Apart from the WAZOBIA experiment, there was a second effort. The second attempt was the GUOSA artificial language, a language developed by one Mr. Alex Igbineweka, widely reported by federal electronic media. But criticisms killed the experiment. For example, Emenanjo (1990) says again:

GUOSA was not considered a natural language because in a natural language, an infinity of sentences Is possible In case of GUOSA not even Mr lgbineweka himself Is a complete dictionary

of the language since he constantly has to toll away at expressing a new Idea In GUOSA.
This meant that GUOSA was an experiment that died before it could take off. Other failed suggestions ranged from the WAZOBIA to pidgin and the Ife six- year experiment with Yoruba language carried out by Fafunwa in 1974. Fafunwa's experiment was a bold step, but the experiment failed because there was no official backing.
On the part of the Federal Government of Nigeria since Independence (1960), attempts have been made toward the evolution of a lingua franca in Nigeria. Then, if we accept Dunstan's position (1969) that a lingua franca is a language spoken by at least seventy five percent of the populace and backed up by a legal approval, English may not qualify since less than this percent of Nigerians speak it and itis not indigenous to the country.

At best, English is an official language to Nigerians. As Dunstan (1969) says, "the question of the number and inter-relationship of Nigerian languages has been raised several times… but no claims are made for the status of any Nigerian language". Of course on the part of the federal government it has used the instrumentality of education to tackle the problem of a national language.
For example, the *National Policy on Education* (1977, '81', '96' and 2004) has always recommended the study of the three (3) national languages (Hausa. lgbo, Yoruba)'at varying degrees and different levels. But English continues to be both a compulsory subject and language of instruction and public discourse, whereas French and Arabic remain optional subjects at school. But critics have criticized the retention of English as Nigeria's National Language. For example,
Simpson (1978) says that:
Only very educated Nigerians have a fair chance of knowing it. Although Nigerians know their mother tongue the fact that the bulk of administration and education presuppose a good mastery of English and no other tongue does not encourage either competence in or use of mother tongue. Most educated Nigerians assume wrongly that they are bilingual in English and the mother tongue.

Arising from the above problems, Simpson emphasizes reasons for a national language (Lingua franca) and they include (i) national consciousness and pride (ii) Cultural dynamism (iii) physiological equilibrium (iv) efficacy and meaningful communication. The summary of Simpson's proposal boils down to one conclusion: let Hausa language be chosen as Nigeria's lingua Franca and his reasons are threefold:
(i) Since Hausa has relatively fewer dialect, its learnability will be enhanced over and above other major languages (ii) Hausa has a greater number of Nigerian speakers not of northern origin and (iii) Hausa has greater influence outside Nigerian borders.

However such scholars as Emenanjo and Osaji (1990) share the view that "since each of these great traditions (languages) is numerically and ideologically strong enough to support separate and large scale socio-cultural and administrative integrations their competition within a single politic makes for rather constant internal tension and for inter-ethnic disunity". In summary this problem highlighted by Osaji and Emenanjo concerning the WAZOBIA "concept assumes that any language chosen as the national language must be politically neutral Unfortunately, there Is no politically neutral language in Nigeria today, and this point sets aside Simpson's unguarded choice of Hausa language out of the three existing national languages. Interestingly, the same Emenenjo and Osaji (1990) despite their conviction, list factors (some of which are quoted here) that should guide Government in evolving a lingua franca for Nigeria:
The population of speaks with age occupation and class distribution
Location Geographlca4 political and social boundaries
Present status: any evidence of change in status, decline increase;
Literature: Oral arid written tradition, use in educational institutions, Political, religious and media use.
But these factors can be associated with each of the present national languages. In another study, Emenanjo and Olagoke (1990) argue that ethnic and political prejudice may inhibit the selection

of a national language, just as they denounce the teaching of foreign languages in Nigeria. They posit that learning a second Nigerian language would metamorphose into a solution of the national language problem. However, this researcher doubts this very much because not many Nigerians go to school for learning or for other reasons. A large population of illiterates is still found outside the school system despite the current Universal Basic Education programme that contains an adult education component.

Another school of thought favours a simultaneous development of the three national languages (Hausa, Igbo,Yoruba) and English language in the hope that English would prevail eventually. The leading proponent of the possibility of English becoming Nigeria's lingua franca is Prof. Ayo Banjo who believes that the long encounter between Nigerians and English language is enough reason to be optimistic Banjo (1996) offers one or more possible scenarios below.

According to him, the English Language it fully neutralized in Nigeria and is on its way to becoming an indigenous language in the country, and in time may well assume the status of the mother tongue of some Nigerians. Should that happen, Nigerian English would become a strong candidate for the status of official language and lingua franca, hence putting a stop to the feuds among the three WAZOBIAlanguages (Hausa, lgbo and Yoruba). He adds that Nigeria may join Demark, Norway and Sweden where English is widely spoken without making its national language. As he puts it English is a second language (L_2) in Nigeria because following the development in India one could envisage a time in the future when English would share the status of official language with one of the country's indigenous language. Many Nigerians, according to him would wish to see an official language that is indigenous.

In all of the above, Banjo (1996) seems to share the gradualist approach of Bamgbose towards evolving a lingua franca, implemented in stages. However, Banjo (1996) points out that "Bamgbose's advocacy of a gradualist approach is based more on the processes for the choice of an endoglosic lingua franca (choosing a local language) as opposed to a process that will lead to an exoglosic lingua franca [choosing a foreign language).

Moreover for long, fears have been expressed over the feasibility of operating many languages in Nigeria, formally or informally. Banjo and Christophersen (1996) have expressed these same fears over the possibility of operating a trilingual or even quadrilingual education, all in the attempt to evolve an acceptable lingua franca forNigeria in the years ahead.

Another argument by Ezikeoiaku (2002) is that "the Nigerian situation shows that there is no real lingua franca for the whole country, the nearest to one being Nigerian Pidgin English; however, there are regional lingua franca. Hausa in the North, lgbo in the east and Yoruba in the west, all three are languages spoken by about 80% of the total population 0f the nation, whereas minority languages are spoken by about 20% of the entire population". Brann (1986) has categorized Nigerian languages thus:

First Group: Hausa, Igbo, Yoruba are decamillionaires, languages spoken by more than million people (demolects). Second Group: The centimils or languages spoken by more than 100, 000 people (or ethnolects). Fourth Group: Languages spoken by less than 100, 000 people.

This classification shows clearly the complex nature and layers of the language problem in a multi-lingual nation such as Nigeria. Definitely, the search must continue in order to build up relevant knowledge in the area of language policy and planning in Nigeria. This search will and should include finding out the role of translators in recreating a new nation in which local languages, literatures, religious beliefs as components of non-material aspect of the conglomeration of Nigerian cultures, receive considerable attention of government and researchers.

3. Translators and National Development in Nigeria

Translators may not readily come to mind as agents of social-cum-cultural and even political integration, but in a multilingual milieu, such as Nigeria, their role and importance must not be

overlooked. Translators too are purveyors and promoters of international peace and understanding between nations, intercultural communication, and exchange of ideals and ideas for which each society is known. Let us examine briefly the possible roles of translators in promoting peace and understanding between and among the disparate ethnic groups that dot the Nigerian landscape. Several areas are highlighted in this write-up: Literature, language and history of the Nigerian people, parliamentary communication, intelligence-gathering, etc. The roles of translators in these areas are aimed at promoting nationhood and national consciousness in Nigeria through mutual understanding and respect of our various cultures, ethos and common aspirations.

One, in Literature, indigenous literature, there are major examples: lgbo literature, Hausa literature, Yoruba literature and others. References are made here to literary texts written in Nigerian languages. Like it happened in ancient Europe where works were translated from Latin and Greek into several other languages of the continent earlier considered vernacular by Roman authorities, Nigerians who are trained translators can and should be involved in multilateral translations of literary texts (written by or about Nigerians) from English into several local languages. No doubt, this approach offers Nigeria an avenue for mutual understandings feeling of togetherness/national consciousness and appreciation of other people's cultural values and belief systems.

Two, in the area of language, as in literature, translators can render service through extensive translation of language texts into other Nigerian languages, in order to assist fellow compatriots who may wish to study and speak other languages of the nation. Today, Nigerian children are taught foreign modes of communication (English, French, Arabic, Italian, Russian, Chinese, etc), why can't we also encourage the teaching and learning of other Nigerian languages other than our mother tongue (MT)? For instance, in the context of teaching the Idoma children to speak lgbo language in the same way we use English to teach French language to Anglophone students, this could be replicated in the effort to teach Nigerian children local languages other than their mother tongues. This was the expectation of the authors of the National policy on Education (1977-2014).It must not be ignored any longer by policy implementers.

Again, translators can promote unity, peace and mutual understanding by translating historical texts of other ethnic groups. For example, the history text by Prof A.E.Ayandele (1974) *The History of the Ijebus* (1850-1950) which is a well-researched work on the history, psychology and philosophy of Ijebus of South West region of Nigeria could be translated into Yoruba, lgbo, Hausa etc. This will be a clear attempt to understand some critical characteristics of the ljebu sub-ethnic group in South West Nigeria. Indeed, there are important historical documents on every ethnic group in Nigeria which should be translated into key national languages. This is with a view to creating peeping holes into epic moments in the historical experience of the Nigerian people, an effort that may provide an avenue for all the speakers of the languages to realize and appreciate the similarities in their socio-political experience and worldview through the ages.

Another area in which translators may be needed in a large number is parliamentary translation. This is about translating proceedings of the National Assembly and the State Houses of Assembly into national languages. The Nigerian constitution allows for the use of local languages by house members (law-makers) during working sessions where facilities are available. The intention is to involve the populace in activities of law-making. Of course, the practicality of this recommendation depends on funding by government authorities at all levels. If parliamentary proceedings are translated, either way, into English or national languages,(Igbo, Hausa, Yoruba) citizen would have access to this document in times of need in addition to enhanced awareness of government activities. Also, there is a compelling need for intelligence agencies in Nigeria to work with trained translators in intelligence-gathering to collect vital information and data in the areas of security, technology industrial espionage, etc for the benefit of national development.

The world economy has gone a full circle in transforming the productive sectors into a type of knowledge economy through the ICT revolution. Surely, Nigeria needs experts in technical translation to translate notable innovations that may help Nigeria to transform her industrial base and thus create more jobs to tackle the frightening spectacle of unemployment.

4. Conclusion

In this discourse, Nigeria is recognized as a multi-lingual, multi-cultural and multi-religious nation in which the language question (choice of a Lingua franca) remains a knotty issue since the 1914 amalgamation of the Lagos Colony with Southern and Northern protectorates. Even though four (4) languages, out of about five hundred and twenty two stand out, namely: English, lgbo, Hausa and Yoruba, the struggle for relevance and supremacy remains a fierce one among them. The struggle for linguistic supremacy among the big league languages in Nigeria as already mentioned above calls for intellectual leadership from the university community and related institutions in order to avert possible political instability if one language was arbitrarily imposed on the country. No one is left in doubt that such an imposition could lead to a political implosion that has the potential to lead to a major crisis. Some scholars such as Banjo (1990) believe that it is better to concentrate on developing English language. Others, such as Elugbe, argue that it is better to undertake a simultaneous development of English and Nigerian languages.

Finally, it is being argued that translators working with English, lgbo, Hausa and Yoruba languages can help to avoid a situation where a forceful selection of any of the national languages (lgbo, Hausa or Yoruba) could become a destabilizing factor hindering national integration in Nigeria. Certainly, the minority language groups are not likely to accept any imposition of a lingua franca chosen from the so-called national languages (the big three: Hausa, lgbo and Yoruba). Therefore, there is a compelling need to involve the highly-priced skills of translators in promoting nationhood and national consciousness in Nigeria in the face of current destabilizing socio-political and economic eruptions in the 21st century Nigeria.

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Ethics in the Public Service in Africa: A Focus on the Nigerian Public Service

EMMANUEL OPUENE DAVIES, SAM ALERUCHI EGBUCHU
Rivers State University, Nkpol-Orowrukwo, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract. A thorough observation of the Public Service in the African society, particularly in the past decades reveals a Public Service bedevilled with several unethical conduct and behaviour covering social, economic, religious and political dimensions. These unethical standards manifest in poor attitude to work, organisational irresponsibility, corruption, inefficiency, low level of productivity. The collapse of ethical and professional standards in the Public Service has led to crisis in governance, especially in the area of implementation of government policies and programs. The focus of this paper is on the examination of ethics in the Public Service in Africa with particular interest on Nigerian Public Service. Ethical standards have been ranked as one of the cardinal instruments of success of any organization. One of the major objectives of this study is to examine the character of administrative ethics in Nigeria and ultimately come up with useful suggestions on how to raise ethical standards which govern the performance of both the exercise of technical skills and operation of organizational procedures in the Public Service. Finally, this paper highlights recommendations geared at promoting ethical behaviour in Nigeria and Africa generally.

Keywords: Ethics, Government, Public Service, Civil Service, Public organization, Society, Nigeria, Africa.

1. Introduction

Ethics is seen as the principles or standards by which behaviour is evaluated in an organization or in a society. Some standards of behaviour are almost universally valued and cherished – such as honesty, integrity, respect for others, trustworthiness – and those who violate these ethical standards are evaluated negatively. Sometimes, the standards by which behaviour is evaluated are influenced by the profession, position or relationship ties of the person taking the action. For that reason, it is found that the ethical standards applied to specific positions, for example public officials, lawyers, doctors, engineers, clergy - reflect the roles and relationships common to that position.

This paper focuses on ethical standards applicable to public servants, usually to elected and career public servants alike. This is because they hold positions in government, public/civil servants are expected to treat their positions as a public trust, and behave only in ways that respect the power and authority the public has placed in that person and the government position they hold.

In the late 1950's and the early 1960s when most African countries gained independence, the countries, particularly Nigeria, inherited a vibrant and effective Public Service from the colonialists that paid serious attention to the good conduct of the officials. The decay in the conduct of Public Servants in Nigeria initially became noticeable in the period immediately following the Civil War. The unethical attitude in the Public Service manifested first in general laxity followed by extortion and then financial mismanagement. After independence, the Public Service which also includes the Civil Service

was as efficient as the erstwhile colonial service which preceded it. Subsequently, something went wrong somewhere and the Public service lost its efficiency and dedication.

The fortunes of some African Public Services especially that of the Nigerian Public Service, generally took a downward turn. Unfortunately, due to lack of serious efforts to handle and arrest the situation and absence of a sustained interest in the flashes of efforts to sanitize the conduct of Public servants coupled with application of technically ineffective remedial measures, the ethical behavior of Civil Servants and other Public Servants degenerated and escalated by the day to the present era.

However, the promotion of a sound ethical culture in the Public Service and the enlarged African society, Nigeria inclusive, has been the driving force underpinning every action of government and its agencies in present day Nigeria. As enshrined in the Public Service charter for Africa, ethical culture manifests in an officer, when among others, he performs his duty efficiently, displays discipline, dignity, integrity, equity, impartiality, fairness, transparency, justice, legality, public spiritedness and courtesy in his actions. These could be seen as the core values intended to guide Public Servants in their daily operations. They are also the common standards by which we evaluate the behaviour of Public Servants, and are informed by democratic principles, social norms, and professional ethics. Public Service organizations are encouraged to find ways to institutionalize these ethical values and hold public servants accountable for behaving in accordance with the standards.

The crisis of governance over the past decades in Africa as a whole and Nigeria in particular as observed by Adegoroye (2005) has been critically associated with the collapse of ethical and professional standards in virtually every facet of our national life. For example, the inability to maintain professional and ethical standards in the civil service and the entire public service resulted in various military coups which adversely affected every stratum of the Nigerian society. He contended that it accounted for the near collapse of the educational system, the increased wave of crime, the decadence in the health sector and the pervasive culture of greed, indiscipline and corruption in the public service. The resultant effect of compromising on standard is that everybody in the society becomes the ultimate loser.

Corruption, fraud, illegal conduct and other types of unethical activity have characterized the public service including the private sector. There is no doubt that different types of unethical behavior have contributed significantly to increased cynism and scepticism by the larger public (Ehrich et al, 2005).

Akinyemi (2002) in Ogundele (2010) noted that one of the greatest social and economic problems in Nigeria which must be tackled is that of breakdown in morals, work ethics, discipline, social responsibility and general civility among citizens. Ethical problems have forced various governments in Nigeria and other African countries to introduce one form of legislation or the other to curb this ugly trend.

2. Statement of the Problem

Service efficiency has been one of the central issues in contemporary African public administration. Efficiency in turn is grounded on values which help bureaucrats immeasurably to shape the directions and cultures of the organization they manage.

Administration demands proper and effective performance of the individual responsibilities in an organization according to laid down rules and regulations. Administration as a profession has standardized techniques of performance, ethical principles and standards expected of all practitioners. Ethical standards have been ranked as one of the cardinal instruments of success of any organization. Although ethical standards have direct association with legal standards they are indeed different instruments for shaping behavior. Whereas a number of immoral and unethical acts are accommodated within the laws of some nations, ethical behaviors demand more morality, pointing out how people relate to others, how individuals

treat others and the degree of responsibility that individuals feel for others.

When an individual refuses to maintain any moral absolutes such deficiencies rob off on the organization where he affiliates. Thus, often times, the Public Service organizations are criticized for their ethical shortcoming. Studies have shown that unethical behaviors are direct results of inefficiency and low levels productivity (Brown, 1989), (Sherrer, 2000). Unethical behavior particularly in the Public Service is an impediment to economic and social development of any nation.

The above observation is in line with the study carried out by Edwards (2001) on ethics in the Australian Public Service. He noted that the key to the solution of the problems facing the Public Service is the reference to professional standards. These embrace the exercise of technical skills, the operation of organizational procedures and ethical standards governing performance. This is couched on the premise that the question of ethical standards determines how Civil Servants and other Public Servants perform their work in relation to the loyalties they observe and the conflicts they perceive.

However, the problems of the Public Service in Nigeria which need to be corrected to improve the dynamism and effectiveness of the service are:

- The disregard for rules and regulations that could enhance good ethics and efficiency in the service;
- General decline of efficiency and effectiveness;
- The weak enforcement of rules and regulations, relating to unethical behavior and corruption.
- Virtual institutionalization of corruption at all levels and segments of the service
- The perpetual breakdown of discipline;
- Lack of financial accountability and probity and
- The politicization of the top hierarchy of the public service.

The lucid picture of the unethical administrative behavior of the Public Servants painted in the preceding section may seem to suggest the absence of rules and regulations guiding the conduct of Public Servants. Yet, to hold such a belief would be derailing from the point. Legislations abound as to how Public officers in general should behave and conduct themselves in respect of their offices. For instance, there are the Civil Service Handbook, Public Service Rules and Pension Act, the Civil Service Rules (Formerly General Order) and the Code of Ethics for Public/Civil Servants all of which apply specifically to Public Servants among others.

3. Research Questions

The following questions provide the framework on which a questionnaire was developed for the purpose of this study:

- What is the ethical standard of the Civil/Public Service in existence in Nigeria?
- What impact does the level of education of the Public Servants have on their ethical behavior?
- What factors, (including institutional and environmental) affect the ethical behaviors of Nigerian Public Servants?
- What are the implications and remedies for overcoming unethical behavior in the Nigerian Public Service?

4. Objectives of the Study

The major objective of this research paper is to examine the character of administrative ethics in Nigeria and ultimately come up with useful suggestions on how to raise ethical standards which govern the performance of both the exercise of technical skills and operation of organizational procedures in the Public Service.

To help in the achievement of the major objective, the following sub-objectives would be pursued:

- To examine the level of education and moral disposition of, and as such, illuminate the administrative behavior of the Nigerian Public Servants.
- Identify, the institutional and ecological factors that shape the ethical inclination of bureaucrats in Nigeria.

- To make suggestions on how to raise ethical standards which govern the performance of both the exercise of technical skills and operation of organizational procedures in the Public Service.
- Develop a strategic follow-up action that could enhance the quality of Public Service ethics in Nigeria.

5. Ethics: Conceptual Clarification

Conceptual framework entails presenting a general understanding of the key concepts used in the study. This obviates any uncertainties that might arise. From a general view point ethics have been interpreted by many writers and scholars to mean so many things – like an omnibus – that its original meaning seemed to have been lost. However, the discussion and debate on the phenomenon of ethics have been on the increase daily. The concept ethics have received so much attention and momentum because of may be, advances in technology, access to information via satellite communications, the internet and cable networks.

Most of the controversy surrounding ethics stem from its multifaceted nature; it covers everything from economics to culture, the environment, governance, international relations, values and morals, religion and much more. The meaning of ethics is therefore hard to pin down.

Some people hold the view that ethics is concerned with the moral aspect of man, that is, how man ought to behave in the society he finds himself. It also refers to code of conduct or principles governing or regulating man's life. It is in this sense that one talks of the ethics of various professions. For instance, if a member of a particular profession flaunts the code of ethics (conduct) of his profession; his behavior is described as unethical. In this way, every man is checked and equally protected in the society he belongs.

Davis (1990) in his own way conceptualized ethics as consisting of those standards of conduct that, all things considered, every member of a particular group wants to follow even if their following them would mean he too has to follow them. Acting ethically is acting according to appropriate ethical standard. Ethics is related to but distinct from morality. In trying to relate the two, Davis pointed out that morality consists of those standards of conduct everyone (every rational person) wants every other to follow even if everyone else's following them would mean he had to follow them too. On the other hand, ethics (the ethics of a particular group) consists of those morally permissible standards of behavior or conduct each member of a group wants every other to follow even if their following them would mean he or she had to follow them too. Implied, ethics is 'special morality'.

Suffice here to say that we all agree about certain rules of conduct in our societies and or organizations. For example, the rule against murder seems to be common property of everyone or at least of all those not plainly too young, too feeble minded or too mentally ill to count as rational. These universal ethical standards might be called morality while we reserve the word 'ethics' for those morally permitted standards that apply only to particular groups.

For Thompson (2010, p.10):

Ethics or 'moral philosophy' is about thinking through issues of right and wrong. It examines the moral choices that people make, what they are based and how they might be justified.

Thompson went further to divide ethics into two important elements. Ethical theory and applied ethics. 'Ethical theory' asks whether morality should be based on a rational interpretation of nature, anticipated results, personal development or the needs of society, and also examines question about the status of moral language, free will and so on. While 'Applied Ethics' applies such theories to various aspects of life: medical ethics, issues of war and peace, life or death, environmental ethics, business ethics, etc.

In its simplest rendition, ethics could be said to refer to a system of moral principles which affect how people make decisions and lead their lives. It is concerned with what is good for individuals and society and also described as a

moral philosophy. Ethics cover the following areas:
- How to live good life
- Our rights and responsibilities
- Moral decision – what is good or bad?

It can be summarized to mean moral principles that govern or shape a person's or groups behavior, or the moral correctness of specified conduct.

In line with the above, ethics means two things. First ethics refer to well-founded standards of right and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do, usually in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues. Ethics, for example, refers to those standards that impose the reasonable obligations to refrain from rape, stealing, murder, assault, slander and fraud. Ethical standards also include those that enjoin virtues, of honesty, compassion and loyalty (issues of ethics 2010).
In another vein, Mizzioni (2010 p. 4) conceded that:
Ethics is a field that not only looks at ethical and moral ideals that we should have but also examines actual codes of conduct that people indeed follow and use whether consciously or unconsciously. Some ethical codes of conduct are written out and some are orally or socially transmitted.

At this juncture, it will be pertinent to make important clarification. Ethics can be viewed from two angles. The first angle is that it can be seen as an academic discipline contending with what is right or wrong or with moral duty and obligation. Secondly, it can connote the principles of conduct governing an individual or a profession or standards of behavior. In this paper the latter is the sense in which the word is used.

From the foregoing, professional ethics can be taken to mean special standards of conduct that shapes or governs members of a particular profession because they are members of that profession. Professional ethics can only be learnt as part of the training for that profession. Thus, members of the administrative system are expected to learn the ethics of their profession during formal training or on the job (Tunde and Omobolaji, 2009). Seen in this light, professional ethics has variety of colours. For example, Catholic ethics applies to the Catholics; engineering ethics applies to engineers, legal ethics to lawyers; medical ethics to physicians and so on. Institutional ethics, though similar are still distinct. In this case, institutional ethics are special standards of conduct governing all those affiliated or connected in a certain way with a particular institution because they are so connected. This simply goes to answer research question one. Since the Civil/Public Servants belong to an institution there are existing common ethical standards of the Service which, it is believed, are generally understood.

5.1 Administrative Ethics

Administration demands proper and effective performance of the individual responsibilities in an organization according to laid down rules and regulations. The questions may be asked, what are the rules and regulations that guide the performance of administrators? Administration as a profession has standardized techniques of performance, ethical principles and standards of behavior expected of all practitioners, these principles and standards are referred to as ethics.

Thompson (1985) conceptualized administrative ethics as involving the application of moral principles to the conduct of official responsibilities and duties in an organization. For forester (1981) moral behavior refers to the willingness to make difficult decisions concerning right and wrong in situation involving fundamental value conflicts. Chapman (1988) on the other hand has defined Civil Service ethics 'as the application of moral standards in the course of official work'. He further averred that 'the practical dimension of the topic is that area of official conduct and actions where Civil and or Public Servants are not simply carrying out specific instructions or order from higher authority but are making value judgments that have implications for their professional standing. Chapman observed that the judgement of these Public servants do not all

have an ethical element, but the number which do is a matter of increased concern. So it is expected of Public Servants to apply and exercise certain ethical consideration when carrying out orders of political bosses and when they are faced with a situation where they have to make value judgment that have implication for their profession.

Ethics in the Public Service are the broad norms that stipulate how public servants should behave and exercise judgement and discretion in carrying out their official duties. Central to administrative ethics are attitudes, standards, and system of values which have been internalized in the public servant. Its foundation is the belief that what public officials and employees do has a central and inescapable normative component involving values, morality and ethics (York, 1984).

Scholars like Effiong (2004) strongly argued that administration is related to ethics in as much as ethics sets standards of integrity and honesty in human actions. Ethics has, as pointed out earlier in this paper, to do with moral values of the community and administrators, to which public servants are part of, must take cognizance of these values while enforcing public policy. Work ethics demand loyalty to the system, devotion to duty and a very high sense of integrity, high moral standards, honesty and fairness. No formal punishment can be as effective as the condemnation of an employee by his own sense of dignity and pride and by persons of his own class.

Effiong went further to explain that one of the key areas of concern of administrators and indeed the ultimate challenge of an organization is to enhance productivity. And that code of ethics and standards are instruments of effective performance and effective performance is since qua non for productivity.

5.2 Environment of Bureaucratic Morality

This section briefly examines the relationship between the environment and bureaucratic morality, the state, political process and the conduct of public administration in Nigeria. As remarked by Napier (2010) bureaucracy is nothing more than a means of organizing and managing people and is subject to the same kinds of analysis as any other kind of organizational theory. The reason, behind the adoption of bureaucracy by government was to eliminate widespread political corruption and efficiently organize state and local government services.

There has been a considerable debate in the literature of political science dating back to the period of Hobbes as to whether the state, as a sovereign body, should be accountable to anyone or whether it should be treated as a moral and responsible agent. The consensus now seems to be that while the state must be self-accounting on the basis of the constitution and the laws of the country, the individuals who exercise power on behalf of the state whether appointed or elected, must be accountable for the actions they take on behalf of the state (Ademolekun, 2002).

5.3 The Ecology of Administrative Conduct

Policy makers and other public servants operate or work within a specific milieu. The environment in which policies are made and under which policy – makers function determine, to a considerable extent, the context and content of public policy.
The system theory scholars expressed that policies can better be understood and analysed by understanding the environment that generate them and from which they emanate. This is because policy inputs – demands and supports – "are generated in the environment and transmitted to the political system; at the same time, the environment places limits and constraints upon what can be done by policy – makers" (Anderson, 1979).

Organizations do not exist in a vacuum, likewise the Public Service neither do they operate in isolation. They are organically linked with other component structures in the society. They are constantly being affected by external forces which determine their effectiveness and performance. Therefore, it is imperative for the management of any organization to examine

components of their firm's external and internal environments to understand the dynamics and far-reaching changes that are occurring. The illustration of the place of the bureaucracy in the society by Heady (1966, p. 20) is instructive:
The environment of bureaucracy may be visualized as a series of concentric circles, with bureaucracy at the center. We may visualize the largest circle as representing all the society or the general social system. The next circle represents the economic system or the economic aspects of the social system; it encloses the administrative sub-system and bureaucracy as one of its elements.

Rigg (1964), Choforas (1965) and Kalagbor (2001) view the administrative system in terms of 'input' of goals, resources and demands resulting in an 'output' of related goods, services, and regulative acts. Input – primary environmental intake into the system; Through-put-the conversion or transformation process of the input variable or output; Output – the product of input conversion by the system. Feedback – environmental response to output, negative or positive. Thus if administration is considered as a subsystem, as part of a large social system, then its 'output' may be viewed as 'input' for the bigger system. In other words, maintaining the peace, or building roads or defending the state may be outcome of administrative action (outputs) which serve the survival needs (inputs) of a social order. Seen in this light administrative subsystem may be understood, not in terms of its internal arrangement and relationships, but its interaction with the external, non-administrative subsystems of the same society. An alternative way of characterizing an administrative system is by inclining the environment which gives it form instead of outlining its component structures.

From the foregoing, it simply means that no proper understanding of the performance of a structure can be made without recourse to environmental factors. This is amplified by the explanation on the impact of the environment on political structures by Bailey (1970). Bailey explained that it is easy to see how political structures are stated in terms of roles. He defined structure as a set of rules about behavior. The rules list the rights and duties of particular roles; they say what a king, a subject, a voter, a public servant, a party leader, a village headman etc. is expected to do in that particular capacity and what he may expect others to do for him. In the same vain, Rigg defined a structure as any pattern of behavior which has become a standard feature of a social system. Thus, a government bureau is a 'structure' or rather a whole set of structures consisting of the many things the officials in the bureau do regularly; the decisions they make, the people they see, the papers they sign among others. The structure is not composed of the people and things themselves, but of their actions. It does not include all their actions, but only those actions which relate to the goals and work of the bureau.

But an individual is likely to have many roles; the village headman or the public servant may also be a father, brother, a farmer, a priest in the temple, and a part-time trader. At the very least all these different roles compete for a man's time and energy; they may also directly influence his political behavior. Also, the rights and obligations of family ties – extended family, do not end with a person's election or appointment to a position of authority. Contrarily, they are felt all the more keenly. Those who gain office often find themselves besieged by relations and friends of relations expecting benefits for, just as blood links helped to cushion adversity, they would also be expected to confer advantages. To have a family member in a ministry or local government, for instance, is seen as a benefit. In effect the environment both provides resources for political use and puts constraints upon political behavior.

5.4 Institutional Foundation for Professional Conduct

Ethics and morals have remained a cardinal and critical issue in the management and administration of corporate bodies and institutions. This is why, as Aliche (2012) posits, it can simply be seen as 'the ingenious anatomy of corporate institutions'. Companies particularly government owned including the Public Service are easily distressed because of

high level fraud and corruption simply because the managers are not deeply trained with the use and application of ethics in the organization.

Within the history of the Public Service community, multiple reforms have not been able to yield great results simply because the administration and administrators particularly in our contemporary era are not strongly driven with the application of ethical standards in their behavior.

When viewing Public Service ethics at the government wide or institutional level, attention is focused primarily on creating a well – functioning government that can effectively deter and redress corruption. Every government, irrespective of culture or level of economic development, experiences one form of corruption or another.

Public Servants in the performance of their duties to realize the goals of the government of the day are required to be well informed, not only with their work, but with the rules and regulations, procedures and ethical conduct of the Public Service institution. They are governed by two things – the laws of the Public Service, or as Thompson (2010) expressed 'the laws of the land', and the goals that politicians have set. For this purpose measures have been put in place to check the ethical behavior of Public Servants by various governments in Nigeria. These include the Public Service Rules, Public/Civil Service Handbook, Code of Ethics for Public Officers and Civil Servants, Public Complaints Commission, Official Oath, the Code of Conduct Bureau and Tribunal, Independent Corruption Practices and Allied Matters Commission among others. Yet the ethical standards of behaviors spelt out in the Public Service Rules and others are not respected and obeyed by the Public Servants.

6. Theoretical Framework

For a proper understanding of theoretical framework, it will not be out of place to first of all come to terms with what theory is all about in this study.

According to Anikpo (1986), theory is a set of generation statements made on or in relation to hypothesis inferred from a set of premises which have been confirmed true. For Kerlinger (1973) a theory is "a set of interrelated constructs (concepts), definitions and proposition that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena".

Theoretical framework is "the main supporting parts of a building, vehicle or object or a set of facts, ideas from which more complicated ideas are developed, or on which decisions are made". (Biereenu-Nnabugwu, 2006). Theoretical framework here implies the examination of some theories proffered by scholars on the issue of ethics in the public service in Nigeria to enable us consider and select a particular theory on which to couch this study. Theories like the monist theory and the pluralist theory by Keke (1996) are looked at among others and their applicability to this research. In summary, the monist theory holds the view that there is only one single reasonable system of values from which the foundations of ethics can be built on. This system is the same for all human beings everywhere. This theory contends that one fundamental value overrides all other values; the importance of those other values depends on their standing in the overall hierarchical system.

The monist theory has been criticized for its inability to provide a satisfactory theoretical basis for building up the ethics of Public Service for the fact that one single value is not enough to describe the whole sphere of public administration in democratic countries. It also has the shortcoming of incompatibility with changing circumstances, for example, with globalization or extensive administrative reforms.

On the other hand, the Pluralist theory hinges on the nature of values where realization makes life good. This theory offers a description of some conceptual and factorial features relevant to good life, and also undertakes to evaluate these features on the basis of their contribution to good life. Pluralism means a plurality of values. Therefore, pluralism and conditionality should

conform better with democratic governance than monism.

The pluralist theory is important and applicable to this study because it sees ethics as not just a matter of moral values, but also has to do with non-moral values. This is important for Public Service ethics because Public Service ethics is not just a question of morality, but is also a matter of good governance and administration.

7. Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were generated to pilot this study:

- Environment will not significantly influence the ethical behavior of Public Servants in Nigeria.
- There is no significant relationship between the level of education and the ethical standards of public servants.

8. Methodology

This research adopts the historical descriptive method of analysis. Much of the research work is based in archival and library research. The background data for this study is obtained basically from secondary sources which include: texts, journals, reports, case studies, models and in some cases interview conducted and questionnaire distributed to elicit information from respondents.

8.1 Instrumentation

The research instruments used for data collection in this study include questionnaire, interview (oral), texts, journals and the review related literature. The questionnaire which contained thirty four (34) items was designed to sample, views of public servants (both senior and junior) on the issue of ethics in the public service.

8.2 Population

There are over twenty four (24) public ministries in the area of study. As such the total population was not used in the study. However, the sample is three hundred drawn from 24 ministries. Twelve public/civil servants were randomly selected from each of the ministries and questionnaire distributed to them for response.

9. Data Analysis

The data collected were analysed in accordance with the stated hypotheses. The statistical method used in the analysis of data is the chi-square test.

The formula for chi-square is $X^2 = \frac{(0-E)^2}{E}$

E = Theoretical or expected frequencies

The degree of freedom for chi-square is calculated using df = 1 at 05 level.

The figures are presented in a tabular form for easy computation and understanding.

Presentation and analysis of findings on hypothesis 1

Research Question

What factors (including institutional and environmental) affect the ethical behaviour of public servants?

Table 1.1: Public Servants Response

The Environment Impacts on Ethical Behavior	% Assigned to Respondents	No. of Respondents
Strongly Agree/Agree	31.1%	101
Disagree	53.4%	159
Undecided	15.5%	40
Total		**300**

From the table above, it was observed that the respondents do not all agree or disagree with the claim that the environment has any part to play on the ethical behavior of Public Servants. 31.1% of the respondents agreed that the environment impacts on the ethical conduct of Public Servants. 53.4% disagreed with that assumption, while 15.5% were undecided.

The summary of the above finding is that majority of the Public Servants in Nigeria are of the opinion that the environment does not impinge or impact so much on their ethical behavior in the performance of their official duties.

Public Servants, as earlier pointed out, as members and products of the environment where the public service organization operates have various ties and affiliations in the society – family ties, religious, organizational or institutional, associational ties and so on. The various social relations they have in the society can facilitate as well as impinge on their conduct. One important issue in this area is the economic milieu within which the public servants operate. For this reason the public servants were asked if they think they are adequately remunerated with the present economic situation in the country. To this question, 48 (16.0%) agreed that public servants in the country are adequately remunerated. 235 (78.3%) responded in the negative, while 17 (5.7%) expressed no opinion. Put differently, the public servants were asked. Do you think the level of income in the public service is enough to make them give their best performance?

75 (25.0%) responded in the affirmative. 208 (69.3%) disagreed that the level of income in the Service is adequate or enough to make them put in their best performance, the remaining 17 (5.7%) did not respond.

Hypothesis 1: Environment will not significantly influence the ethical behavior of Public Servants in Nigeria.

Table 1.2: Observed Responses

Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided	Total
Male	34	29	56	51	30	200
Female	18	20	36	16	10	100
Total	**52**	**49**	**92**	**67**	**40**	**300**

The hypothesis is tested at 0.05 level of significance. The relevant formula for the calculation of expected frequency is given as:

$$\Sigma\,(RC) = \frac{fR \; x \; fC}{N}$$

Table 1.3 Result of the Association between the perceived influence of the environment and the ethical behavior of Public Servants.

Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided	Total
Male	34 (34.66)	29 (32.66)	56 (61.33)	51 (44.66)	30 (26.66)	200
Female	18 (17.33)	20 (16.33)	36 (30.66)	16 (22.33)	10 (13.33)	100
Total	**52**	**49**	**92**	**67**	**40**	**300**

Having obtained both the observed (that is, frequencies as collected) and the expected frequencies (that is, frequencies as calculated) the next step is to calculate the X^2 using the formula:

$$X^2 = \Sigma \frac{(0-E)^2}{E}$$

∴ From the above table X^2 calculated = 6.6. (See appendix) from the above, it means that the X^2 calculated is 6.6. The level of significance is 0.04 and with the degree of freedom (df) at 4. The X^2 value for 4 df at 0.05 level of significance is 9.488.

The X^2 calculated value of 6.6 was not significant of 05 level of freedom. Therefore, the hypothesis that environment will not significantly influence the ethical behavior of Public Servants in Nigeria is accepted since the X^2 table value of 9.488 is greater than the X^2 calculated value of 6.6.

Presentation and Analysis of findings on hypothesis II

Table 2.1: Educational Level of Respondents

	Frequency	Percent
Certificate	70	22.8
1st degree	155	50.5
2nd degree	44	14.3
PhD	5	1.6
Missing value	7	2.3

Research Question: How does the level of education of the Public Servants affect their ethical behavior for the rules to be understood?

Table 2.2 Public Servants Response

The Level of Education Adequate for the Rules to be Understood	% Assigned to Respondents	No. of Respondents
Strongly Agree/Agree	36.7%	110
Disagree/Strongly Disagree	50.0%	152
Undecided	13.3%	38

Total No. of Respondents = 300

Deriving from the above table, it is observed that not all the respondents have knowledge of the fact that their level of education is adequate to understand the rules governing the conduct of Public Servants. 36.7% of the respondents agreed that the Public Servants level of education is adequate for them to understand the rules of the Public Service; 50.0% disagreed with that assumption, while 13.3% expressed no opinion or were undecided.

From the finding above, majority of the Public Servants in Nigeria have the belief that their level of education is not adequate enough for them to understand the provisions of the rules and regulations governing their ethical conduct in the performance of their duties.

199 (66.3%) of the respondents claimed to have read a copy of the Pubic/Civil Service Rules at one time or the other while 91 (30.3%) responded no., 173 (75.7%) of respondents claimed to be familiar with the contents of the document. 157 (52.3%) think the provisions of the Public Service Rules are adequate to make them perform their official duties efficiently while 126 respondents (42.0%) think otherwise.

Hypothesis II : There is no significant relationship between the level of education and the ethical standards of Public Servants in Nigeria.

Table 2.3: Observed Response

Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided	Total
Male	41	30	59	50	20	200
Female	22	17	30	13	18	100
Total	**63**	**47**	**89**	**63**	**38**	**300**

The hypothesis is tested at 0.05 level of significance. The relevant formula for $X^2 = \Sigma \frac{(0-E)^2}{E}$

Table 2.4: Result of the association between level of Education and the ethical standards of Public Servants.

Gender	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Undecided	Total
Male	41 (42.00)	30 (31.33)	59 (59.33)	50 (42.00)	20 (25.33)	200
Female	22 (21.00)	17 (15.66)	30 (29.60)	13 (21.00)	18 (12.66)	100
Total	**63**	**47**	**89**	**63**	**38**	**300**

Having obtained both the observed (that is, frequencies as collected) and the expected frequencies (that is, frequencies as calculated) the next step is to calculate the X^2, using the formula.

$$X^2 = \Sigma \frac{(0-E)^2}{E}$$

$\therefore$ From the above table, X^2 calculated = 8.18 (See Appendix).

The level of significance is 0.04 and with the degree of freedom (df) at 4. The critical X^2 value for 4 df at 0.05 level of significance is 9.488. The X^2 calculated value of 8.18 was not significant at 05 level of freedom. Therefore, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the level of Education and the ethical standards of Public Servants in Nigeria is accepted since the X^2 table value of 9.488 is greater than the X^2 calculated value of 8.18.

10. Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion

From the preceding sections in this paper, findings showed that factors which bear on professional conduct of Public Servants are mainly of two kinds. These are the institutional correlates and the ecological or environmental factors.

On the surface, the study discovered that the institutional framework of the conduct of Public Service operations appeared adequate. The reason being that at independence, Nigeria, like other commonwealth countries, inherited a vibrant Public Service built upon strong and sound structural foundation. This institutional basis has been further strengthened, reinforced and modernized by regular post-independence reforms.

But looking beyond the surface, however, it was found out that there is a profound institutional gap which seriously circumscribes the efficacy of institutional contrivances. This gap relates to the absence of a strong will for the implementation and enforcement of necessary rules and regulations of conduct. In the main, the body saddled with the responsibility of maintaining discipline is the Public/Civil Service Commission. Unfortunately, this body is impaired in the performance of its duties by its omnibus character.

The problem of institutional gap is further compounded by ecological factors that bear on the performance of Public Servants. Though the stated hypothesis that the environment will not significantly influence the ethical conduct of Public Servants was accepted, the operations of the Public Service have been hampered by the activities from the environment. In this stance, one of the serious ecological problems that hinder the efficiency of the Public Service operations today is poor motivation and remuneration, as findings showed. As such, an effective proposal for reform must not lose sight of the institutional and ecological configuration. In the attempt to cure the ills of the Public Service there has to be a synergy of the two factors – the interaction of elements when combined produce a total effect that is greater than the sum of the individual elements, contribution and so on.

Ethical issues are given much attention in countries like the United Kingdom and U.S.A. This shows that there is room for improvement of our ethical standards in Nigeria if we pay much attention to it. Studies of ethics have been made compulsory courses in the advanced countries in institutions of learning based on the belief that the more you teach them, the more they are likely to take root in the hearts of the people and consequently influence their behavior. This approach should be adopted in the Nigerian society.

Furthermore, policies and programmes, or strategies and tactics should be designed to change organizational member behavior. This could be done in three categories: (1) Those that will discourage unethical behavior through the processes of sanctions and reform of organization members' behavior; (2) Those that will reward organization members for exemplary acts of ethical behavior and (3) those that should focus on developing desired value behavior in the members of the organization through ethical re-orientation.

The following recommendations are made in addition to those contained in the report of the National workshop on Public Service Ethics in Africa, 2002:

- There should be a national integrated strategic approach to the problems of corruption and other unethical behavior in the Civil/Public Service.
- There is the need to identify coordinate, reinforce and sustain the current anti-corruption initiatives in the country.
- Establish mechanisms that provide citizens and public officials with channels for reporting alleged acts of corruption or abuse of authority.
- Mechanisms to reduce uncertainties about life in retirement should be put in place by the government.
- Countering conflicts of interest and enacting administrative reforms in the Public Service.
- Mechanisms to support accountability and transparency in democratic processes should be established.
- There is the need to adopt a targeted and focused approach to capacity strengthening of various institutions, charged with the various aspects of Public Service ethics.
- Need for consistent and continuous dissemination of information related to sanctions against unethical behaviors.
- Building partnerships between government, non-governmental and civil society organizations to stem the tide of corruption and other unethical conducts in the public service.
- Ethical behavior should be promoted by the leadership by example.

10.1 Recommended Strategies for Promoting Ethical Behavior.

The promotion of sound ethical behavior in Nigeria generally should take place in both the private and public organizations and all arms of government – Federal, State and Local Governments. This is simply because most private organizations and government agencies in the country are not properly aligned with values, morals and even convictions that build a strong, secure, healthy and prosperous nation. When nation, societies and other forms of organizations, loose their sense of purpose and significance, then confusion, frustration, discouragement, disillusionment and corporate suicide whether gradual or instant, reign (Munroe, 2001).

Two broad strategies are suggested here in line with Ogundele et al (2010):

(1) Reducing unethical business practices: Three stage approaches are suggested in this respect which includes:

(a) **Strict Sanctions:** The imposition of severe and appropriate sanctions on individuals and organizations that breach business and societal ethics. These sanctions must be prompt and sufficiently strong to act as deterrent to other prospective offenders.

(b) **Moral Suasion:** This approach calls for the launching of massive propaganda and campaign calling for disciplined behavior and practices of sound moral values. This should be championed

by individual organizations, governments and its agencies, among others.

(c) **Reward of Excellence or Outstanding Behavior**: In situations where an individual exhibits outstanding act of disciplined behavior, he/she should be rewarded in status and in kind. Such gesture on the part of appropriate authorities, institutions or individuals will motivate others to be ethical in their behavior.

(2) **Developing Ethical Behavior:** This is a deep rooted approach to change the perception, values and orientation of the society in general and the operations of business organizations in particular. Three methods or strategies are equally suggested here:

(a) General development of ethical behavior in individuals, groups and organizations: This calls for massive education, training and development in schools, colleges, polytechnics and universities. At the primary and secondary school levels, moral instruction should be made a compulsory subject.

(b) Development of Ethical Codes for various professionals and Adhering to such codes: There is the need to strengthen the implementation and enforcement of codes of conduct and the enforcement of sanctions for breach in order to restore sanity into their operations and to earn respectability from the outside world and prospective investors.

(c) Revitalizing the culture of Excellence: This calls for the restoration of African traditional values. Africa had a culture of excellence which modernization and civilization had robbed off our social fabric. The honest, considerate, truthful, respectable, accountable etc. African personality should be appropriate to borrow from the Japanese in a number of ways. These include:

(i) Building an organizational culture that supports excellence

(ii) Establishing ethical standard based on culture founded on ethical principles and sound values will be force for excellence.

(iii) Having strategic and articulated human resources – through the process of selection, placement and training.

(iv) Building a spirit of high performance into culture by inspiring people to do their best (v) having shared values by employees and managers which will be core of excellence (Lawal, 2002).

10.2 Conclusion

The Public Service is the bridge between the government and the people. The principle upon which this relationship is based has not changed over the years. However, to ensure delivery of government programs in the light of current efforts to enable the country achieve vision 20:20:20, macro and socio-economic, and development objectives, it is important that the Public Service recognizes its pivotal responsibility and seeks to adapt to the new demands of governance. To this end, work ethics and values have been codified for the Public Service. Nigeria requires a vibrant Public Service that calls for fundamental change of attitude, behavior, processes and procedures as well as new management orientation that emphasize professionalism, transparency, accountability, trust, competence, integrity, efficiency and citizens - focus.

Imbibing these values is critical in ensuring that Public Servants render high quality service to citizens. In this vein, the notion of customer satisfaction becomes fundamental and should be understood as essential to the attainment of goals of governance. This codified document should therefore, be seen as an integral part of the existing legislations, regulations and codes binding on Public Service and must be read in consonance with those provisions and applicable sanctions. It is strongly hoped that if the letter and spirit of this work ethics and values are faithfully imbibed and the recommendations herein made are followed and implemented, the Public Service would be on the path of reclaiming its battered image and lost glory.

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Reflective Discourse Instructional Strategy, Gender and Age Effects on University Students' Citizenship Knowledge in Nigeria

AFOLABI OLUBELA
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

TAIBAT A. O. OLADIMEJI
Federal College of Education (Special), Oyo, Nigeria

Abstract. Citizenship education as a conscious process of inculcating certain values, habits and attitudes which the society considers desirable and essential for its survival as a unit and for its overall development. The traditional methods such as lecture method, talk-chalk method, note-taking method, and the likes, the school system at all levels has not been able to achieve the national educational objectives as well as the objectives of citizenship education in Nigeria. In order to inculcate desirable socio-political values in the students, especially those at tertiary level, there is need for teaching strategies that would re-orientate and re-focus students' thinking pattern, such that they will see the need to change positively and live as well-informed and responsible citizens. study determined the effects of reflective discourse instructional strategy on undergraduates' citizenship knowledge in southwest, Nigeria. The study also determined the moderating effect of age and gender on students' citizenship knowledge. The study adopted a pretest-posttest, control group, quasi-experimental research design with 2x2x2 factorial matrix. Using total enumeration sampling technique, 511 participants who were 300 level social studies undergraduate students were selected from intact social studies classes in six purposively selected universities in South-west Nigeria. The results of the finding revealed a significant main effect of treatments on students' knowledge of citizenship education concepts ($F_{(2,498)} = 56.89$, $P > .05$, $\mu^2 = .19$). The finding showed that reflective discourse instructional strategies enhanced students' knowledge more than the modified lectured method. The reflective discourse instructional strategy increased learners' knowledge of citizenship education concepts. Based on the findings of this study, it was recommended that reflective discourse should be used by teachers to teach concepts in social studies. To do this, teachers should always organize lessons to encourage active listening and reflection of students. Students should also be opened to alternative viewpoints by engaging in dialogue, peer-explanation, group discussion, brainstorming and collaborative activities. Collaboration should also be emphasized in learning rather than individualism.

1. Introduction

Social Studies embraces those studies which are concerned with how people build a better life for themselves and their fellow human beings; how people deal with the problems of living together, how people change and are changed by their environment. Swan and Hofer (2013) posit that since human beings live in the reality of inter-dependence principles, social studies programme is therefore, local in content but global in

context. The National Council for Social Studies (NCSS, USA, 2010) describes social studies as an integrated study of many academic disciplines which promotes civic competence in the learners at all stages of education; ranging from pre-primary to post-graduate levels. Citizenship education is one subject, according to VanSledright (2011) that is specifically designed in content and function to produce healthy, good and active citizens, wherein a good citizen is seen as patriotic, responsible, disciplined and conscientious, morally sound with love for his/her country.

Budano (2012) describes citizenship education as a conscious process of inculcating certain values, habits and attitudes which the society considers desirable and essential for its survival as a unit and for its overall development. Furthermore, Ogunyemi (2009) asserts that one major task of citizenship education is to increase understanding and acceptance of national diversities and to foster the uses of such an understanding to generate desirable social attitudes such as co-operation, discipline, social and moral responsibility. Furthermore, Adeleke and Olubela (2010) reiterate that citizenship education promotes respects for others and recognition of the quality of all human beings, and this would help in combating all forms of discriminations (racist, gender-based, religious, ethnic, etc) by fostering the spirit of tolerance and peace among human beings. Falade (2008) and Magstadt (2009) explain that if citizenship education concepts are taught well in school, learners would be prepared learners for social responsibility. McCowan (2006), Ughamadu (2006) and Mezieobi (2010) in different studies also establish that effective teaching of citizenship education will make the citizens to become more alive to their rights and obligations to fellow human beings and the society, at large. Whereas, in situations where students are ill-informed or disenfranchised from productively participating in socio-political activities, it is certain that such country would be retrogressive or backward among the comity of nations (National Council for Social Studies, 2007). This situation could be said of the present political dispensation in Nigeria. Interaction with students reveals a growing sense of disenchantment with all levels of government and distrust in government's policies and programmes (Ijalaye, 2009). Onike (2013) explains that majority of students would not want to participate in politics, while those who even participate in electioneering activities are used for electoral fraud and violence. Many of the youths who would not compromise are either harassed or marginalized. Even Orbih (2013) regrets that despite that women in Nigeria were formidable part of the past socio-economic and political development of the country, they have been relegated to the background in politics. Few of them who dare enough to pursue politics are labeled as promiscuous or lazy. Iyamu and Otote (2005) observe that, while many of today's political leaders were elected as youths into various positions in the past, the Nigerian youths are now marginalized and deprived of political appointments and electoral positions. Even upon graduation, there is little or no hope for gainful employment for them, and this contributes largely to youths' restiveness and national insecurity.

Furthermore, the negative influence of the peer pressure has misled many students from the path of honour, ethics and values (Ewumi and Olubela, 2013). Also, Ajibewa (2008) remarks that the current derailed societal value system in the country have heightened students' the incivility level. To Olubela (2010), many parents and guardians now pursue money and fame at the detriment of their children/wards. This in the view of Onike (2013) may not be unconnected with the level of poverty and unemployment in the country. Government's poor commitment to educational practices has also left a gap between the goals of citizenship education and the current realities of the socio-political system in Nigeria. In addition to these problems, the problem associated with the teaching/learning of citizenship education in Nigeria today stems from the ineffective teaching of the subject.

However, Olubela (2012) observes that this gap is revealed in the teacher centered methods, in which students work primarily alone learning is achieved through repetition, and the subject contents are strictly adhered to and guided by old foreign-cultured textbooks. In such methods,

teachers are the all-knowing and all-talkers, while students only sit down look, and at best, copy notes which are dictated by the lesson-centred teacher. With these traditional methods such as lecture method, talk-chalk method, note-taking method, and the likes, the school system at all levels has not been able to achieve the national educational objectives as well as the objectives of citizenship education in Nigeria. Therefore, in order to inculcate desirable socio-political values in the students, especially those at tertiary level, there is need for teaching strategies that would re-orientate and re-focus students' thinking pattern, such that they will see the need to change positively and live as well-informed and responsible citizens.

Meanwhile, the effects of age and gender on academic performance of students in many school subjects have been determined (Hess, 2009). Adesoji (2008) emphasizes that many factors contribute to student's knowledge, attitude and skills. Such factors include; the teaching methods, teacher's attitude, influence of parents, gender, age, cognitive styles of pupils, career interest, amongst others. Evidence from some studies such as Elnathan (2012), Swan and Hofer (2013) show the influence of age on students' knowledge and awareness of civic concepts. This position slightly negates the findings of Oyeleke (2011) who observe that Nigerian students; irrespective of their age (and other factors such ethnic origin and religion) are either civic unconscious or politically insensitive to their civic rights and obligations, electoral matters, democratic processes and constitution issues. It thus became imperative for this study to determine the influence of age on citizenship education.

In the same vein, male students have been observed to be more alert to political activities than female students. This is also the case in the nation's political terrain which shows the gender inequality in political participation of men and women in elective positions (Ogunyemi, 2011). Heafner (2008), Nichol and Sim (2008) and UNESCO (2012) did not observe significant gender difference in learners' knowledge and dispositions to democratic, civic and citizenship issues respectively. This thus calls for empirical evidence to determine whether there will be any significant difference between male and female students' citizenship knowledge, attitude and practice. The study also found out whether students that are 20 years and above; who have reached voting age are more civic conscious than those students below 20 years. Hence, this study determined the effects of reflective discourse instructional strategy on undergraduates' citizenship knowledge in southwest, Nigeria. The study also determined the moderating effect of age and gender on students' citizenship knowledge.

2. Theoretical Framework: Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory

Albert Bandura was the major motivator behind social learning theory. Social learning theory focuses on the learning that occurs within a social context. It considers that people learn from one another, including such concepts as observational learning, imitation, and modeling. Among others, Albert Bandura is considered the leading proponent of this theory. Bandura's Social learning theory argues that individual learns and acquires knowledge through observation and imitation. Social learning theory as propounded by Bandura (1986) stated that behaviour can be changed through exposure to various forms of experience. This theory assumed that people can be induced to change their behaviour by presenting them with new information about the characteristics of the existing behaviour.

The theorist saw personality as a product of interaction of an individual with his environment and his or her psychological processes. He believed that human behaviour is influenced by what he sees, hears, perceives, feels, conceives, creates and participates in. Bandura (1977) was of the opinion that a person's environment shapes his or her learning and that human behaviour, development and learning are products of interaction with, and experience acquired in the environment. The ability to respond appropriately to the environment is therefore necessary for children to participate in a teaching – learning process.

The social learning theory of Bandura emphasize that one of the fundamental means by which new modes of behaviours are acquired and existing patterns are modified, entails modeling and vicarious processes. Bandura (1977) who developed this theory establishes that learners learn by observing the behaviour of others (parents, teachers, friends, and famous people) and imitating and modeling their behaviour. Acquisitions of new skills by observing the behaviours of others are a common part of everyday life. The opinion imitators, they imitate what they have seen others do. Learners acquire large units of behaviour through watching, imitating, modeling and interaction with others. The social learning theory provides framework for reflective discourse strategy. Reflective discourse is a specialized use of dialogue or discussion devoted to searching for a common understanding and assessment of the justification of an interpretation or belief (Mezirow, 1995, 2000).

3. Reflective Discourse and Citizenship Knowledge

Oduolowu (2007) asserts that education has essentially been a social process in capacity building and maintenance of society since the creation of human beings. Therefore, to cope with the changing realities and uncertainties of human life, effective strategy is a weapon with which to equip the people to acquire relevant knowledge, skills and habits for surviving in the modern world. Baxter-Magolda and King (2008) also emphasizes the need to find collective experience and arrive at a best decision. Evidences of this is found daily, in the political and citizenship realities in Nigeria, where many educated and elite populace refrain from politics or show outright lethargy to constitutional and democratic processes. To develop common ground, there is the need to help others and ourselves move from self-serving struggle and move towards empathetic listening and informed reflective discourse.

Mezirow (2000) also shows the evidence of reflective discourse strategy in providing efficiency in teaching and learning processes. Reflective discourse is the use of specialized dialogue devoted to searching for a common understanding and assessment of the justification of an interpretation or belief. Clark, Nguyen and Sweller (2006) explain that reflective discourse is about making personal understanding about issues or beliefs, by assessing the evidence and arguments of a point of view on issues, and being open to looking at alternative points of view, or alternative beliefs, then reflecting critically on the new information, and making a personal judgment based on a new assessment of the information. In this case, reflective discourse strategy offers solutions to citizenship issues and multi-dimensional socio-political problems in Nigeria through mutual understanding and interaction. The goal of reflective dialogue is to develop mutual understanding and common knowledge among the learners (Whitney & Trosten-Bloom, 2010).

Moon (1999) views reflective discourse as being involved in the knowledge generation process. York-Barr (2006) explains that reflective processes or actions contrast from the routine which derives from impulse, tradition, and authority. Gimenez (1999); Russo and Ford (2006) agree that because most teachers, at some level think about what they are doing, reflection must be defined as a more systematic way of looking at one's work. It should be no surprise that the literature yields no single agreed upon definition of reflective discourse. The tendency of a person to participate in and exude reflective behaviours, including writing and participating in reflective discourse, can be linked to many variables including their view of the nature of knowledge and their approach to learning. The manner in which one views the nature of knowledge can influence a learner's ability to be reflective or to exude reflective behaviours. In the context of this study being reflective means to participate in reflective discourse. Whitmire (2004) describes three levels of knowing: absolute knowing, transitional and independent knowing, and contextual knowing. These levels of knowing can be aligned with different types of reflective discourse in which social science would engage. If a learner views knowledge as certain and absolute, they believe there are right and wrong answers and only authorities know

the right answers. These learners will likely not participate in discourse that extends upon being able to describe one's own concrete classroom experience or provide additional details about one's own experience. Stevenson (2010) describes this as pre-reflective discourse.

Learners who view knowledge as transitional or independent believe that knowledge is partially certain and partially uncertain or view all knowledge as uncertain because everyone has their own beliefs. These learners will begin to question previously held assumptions and realize that authorities can be wrong or biased. These learners realize there can be more than one correct answer to a problem. They evaluate or refute without supplying developed justifications. Whitmire (2004) describes this learner as participating in quasi-reflective discourse. To this extent, it is only when learners see knowledge as contextual and believe it should be judged on the basis of evidence in context, is a learner able to participate in reflective thinking and reflective discourse. These learners will participate in discourse designed to provide or ask for justifications, both implicit and explicit, concerning why others believe or act the way they do. This type of discourse can be evaluatory while providing or responding to justifications. It will assess adequacy in problem solving processes with the aim of improvement.

4. Statement of the Problem

The continuous use of teacher-centered strategies portends retardation in teaching-learning processes; as learning outcomes are largely reduced to mere passing of examination; leaving out the essential knowledge which are required for enhancing responsible citizenry and active political participation of students. Previous researches have contributed to making learning more impactful, yet the socio-political challenges highlighted in the study are still on the increase in Nigeria. Perhaps, many of these strategies have been limited to primary and secondary school levels, with little attention to university students. Furthermore, the alarming increase in youths' derailment in the country may not be unconnected with the fact that classroom teaching largely concentrate on the lower cognitive skills of knowledge, comprehension and application, thus, this study went further into higher skills of analysis, synthesis and evaluation, thereby providing the students the opportunity to rationalize objectively, critically and reflectively. Research evidence have also shown that the use of appreciative inquiry strategy could enhance students' propensity to vote, re-orientation and learners' competence and participatory skills of democratic citizenship. This strategy also has the potentials of increasing students' capacities to analyze public issues and to cooperate with others in group activities. This study, therefore, determined the effect of reflective discourse strategy on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwest, Nigeria. The study also determined the moderating effect of age and gender on students' learning outcomes in citizenship education concepts.

5. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

Ho 1. There is no significant main effect of appreciative inquiry instructional strategy on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

Ho2. There is no significant main effect of gender on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

Ho3. There is no significant main effect of age on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

Ho4. There is no significant interaction effect of treatment, gender and age on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

6. Methodology

The study adopted a pretest-posttest, control group, quasi-experimental research design with 2x2x2 factorial matrix. Using total enumeration sampling technique, 511 participants who were 300 level social studies undergraduate students were selected from intact social studies classes in six purposively selected universities in South-

west Nigeria. The intact classes were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Experimental group was exposed to reflective discourse instructional strategy while the control group was treated with modified lecture method. The treatment lasted 12 weeks. Instrument used for data collection was Citizenship Education Concepts Knowledge Test (r = 0.87), and instructional guides for each of the strategies. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data were analyzed using Analysis of Covariance and Scheffé post hoc test.

7. Results

Ho 1. There is no significant main effect of reflective discourse instructional strategy on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

Main effect of Treatments on students' citizenship knowledge

Table 1: Summary of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) on students' citizenship knowledge

Source	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Eta square
Corrected model(Explained)						
Pretest Knowledge	1093.462	12	91.122	12.662	.000	.234
Treatment group	6.300E-02	1	6.300E-02	.009	925	.000
Gender	818.785	2	409.393	56.890*	.000	.186
Age	.422	1	.422	.059	.809	.000
Treatment x Gender x Age	32.292	1	32.292	4.487	.035	.003
Error(Residual)	.473	2	.235	.033	.968	.000
Corrected total						
	3583.728	498	7.196			
	4677.190	510				

*significant at 0.05

Table 1 showed that there was significant main effect of treatment on social studies students' knowledge of citizenship education concepts ($F(2,498) = 56.89$, $P > .05$, $\mu 2 = .19$). This implies that the post-test scores of students in citizenship education concepts differ significantly across the experimental and control groups. Therefore, Ho1 is rejected.

The estimated marginal means in Table 2 showed the magnitude of students' mean knowledge scores in the experimental and the control groups.

Table 2: Estimated Marginal Means of post-test citizenship knowledge scores on the Treatment, Age and Gender across the groups

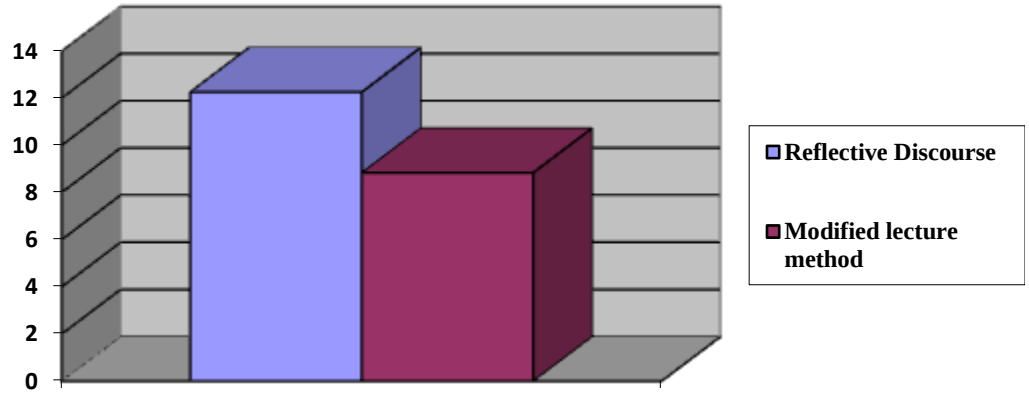
Treatment Groups	Gender	Age	Mean	Sta.Error
Reflective Discourse Strategy	Male	Below 20 years	11.95	.453
		20 years & above	13.31	.456
	Female	Below 20 years	11.19	.360
		20 years & above	12.54	.439
Modified Lecture Method	Male	Below 20 years	7.46	.446
		20 years & above	8.14	.457
	Female	Below 20 years	8.09	.422
		20 years & above	10.24	.443

Table 2 revealed that students in the reflective discourse strategy group had higher adjusted post-test means knowledge scores (X = 12.25) than the students in the modified lecture method who had the least adjusted mean knowledge scores (X = 8.48). The grand mean being 12.57. Moreover, the source of the significant difference obtained in Table 3 was traced using scheffe post-hoc test.

Table 3. Scheffe's Post Hoc tests analysis of post-test citizenship knowledge scores by treatments

Treatment	Mean score	Reflective Discourse	Modified lecture method
Reflective Discourse	12.25		*
Modified lecture method	8.83	*	

The result from post-hoc analysis in Table 3 revealed that students in the experimental group I (reflective discourse) performed significantly better than students in the control group.



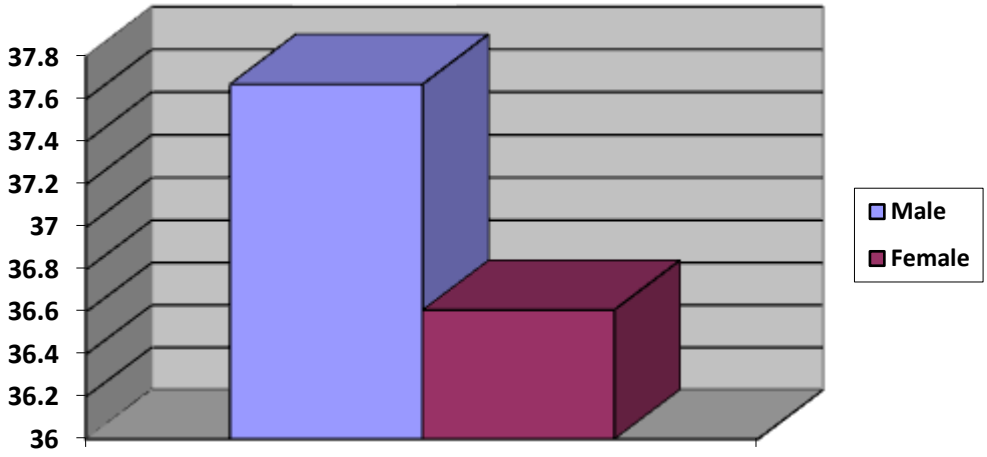
Ho2. There is no significant main effect of gender on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

From Table 4, there was no significant effect of gender ($F_{(1,498)}$ = = 1.986, P > .05, μ^2=.004). The effect size of 0.4% was negligible; hence, Ho2 was not rejected.

Table 4: Estimated Marginal Means of post-test citizenship practice by Gender
Grand Mean = 37.14

Gender	Mean	Sta. Error	95% confidence interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	37.67	1.41	35.29	40.05
Female	36.61	1.21	33.86	39.37

Male students had higher citizenship practice means score = 37.67 while female students had lower mean score 36.61, but the difference was not significant.



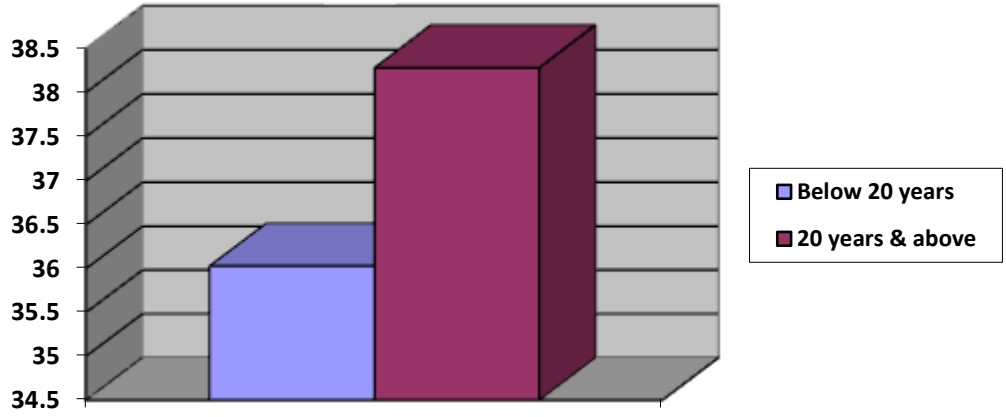
Ho3. There is no significant main effect of age on undergraduate students' citizenship knowledge in southwestern, Nigeria

From Table 5, there was no significant effect of age ($F_{(1,498)} = 1.564$, $P > .05$, $\mu^2 = .003$). The effect size of 0.3% was negligible; hence, Ho3c was not rejected.

Table 5: Estimated Marginal Means of post-test citizenship practice by Age
Grand Mean = 37.15

Age	Mean	Sta. Error	95% confidence interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Below 20 years	36.03	1.25	33.52	38.49
20 years & above	38.28	1.36	35.62	40.93

Students who were 20 years and above had higher citizenship practice means score = 36.03 while students who were below 20 years had lower mean score 36.03, but the difference was not significant.



8. Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

8.1 Summary

The results of the finding revealed a significant main effect of treatments on students' knowledge of citizenship education concepts. The finding showed that reflective discourse instructional strategies enhanced students' knowledge more than the modified lectured method. The reflective discourse instructional strategy increased learners' knowledge of citizenship education concepts. The strategy also enhanced students' use of specialized dialogue to searching for a wider (Moon, 2004) and common understanding of concepts (Mezirow, 1995, 2000). On attitude, reflective discourse strategy also impacted on the students to develop their critical skills, by considering a wide range of political, social, ethical and moral problems, and explore opinions and ideas other than their own. Meanwhile, appreciative inquiry strategy also had significant main effect on students' attitude to citizenship education concepts. During class, students were able to develop self-confidence which helped them to successfully deal with significant life changes and challenges (VanSledright, 2011). Furthermore, Reflective discourse strategy impacted on students' citizenship practice. To Moon (2006), appreciative inquiry instructional strategy provides educators with opportunities to acquire skills and techniques for the efficient transmission of content to students (technical) and to develop ways to better interact with learners, encourage participation, set up warm and inviting atmospheres for learning, and meet the needs of learners.

8.2 Conclusion

Reflective discourse instructional strategies enhanced students' citizenship knowledge, attitude and practice more than the lecture method. The lecture method inhibits students'

freedom and initiative to explore, seek and inquire. Lecture method also fosters competition rather than cooperation, individuality rather than collaboration. As a result, culture of apathy, lethargy, greed, ethnic suspicion, discrimination, insecurity, exploitation is promoted in students; and the results are what we currently battle with in the country whereas teachers' adoption of reflective discourse strategies would enhance learners' competence, mass of information, positive orientation to socio-political issues, culture of tolerance and collaboration, students' propensity to vote, leadership and participatory skills of democratic citizenship. These strategies increase students' capacities to analyze public issues and to cooperate with others in group activities. Using these strategies for teaching and learning in Nigeria would reduce the current frightening crime rates; and thus promote orientation for sustainable ethnic cooperation and religious tolerance, fair and peaceful electioneering and good governance.

8.3 Recommendations

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

(i) Reflective discourse should be used by teachers to teach concepts in social studies.

(ii) To do this, teachers should always organize lessons to encourage active listening and reflection of students.

(iii) Students should also be opened to alternative viewpoints by engaging in dialogue, peer-explanation, group discussion, brainstorming and collaborative activities. Collaboration should also be emphasized in learning rather than individualism.

(iv) Training of teachers on the application of reflective discourse strategy should be organized on regular basis.

(v) The training should also be followed up by effective monitoring and supervision.

(vi) Lecture method where teachers see themselves as the supreme custodian of knowledge, and students as passive on-lookers and note writers, should be discouraged.

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Education, Media and Security: The Case of Nigeria

ODIZURU ITEOGU, A.V. JIBOWO
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

Abstract. Without a carefully organized security system any entity (political or economic) would be in jeopardy. Without security, in its various forms, all developmental efforts would nose-dive into a nullity because security is necessary to safeguard all areas of socio-economic activity. Every developmental paradigm and design must fashion into it the element of security to ensure that all progress is not lost. That is our concern in this paper. That is an analysis of the relevance and promotion of security via education and the mass-media. We would realize that education permeates all sectors of the society. This is important because Nigeria needs to jealously guard and guide her common existence and the material success needed to sustain her in the years ahead.

This paper has revealed that there is a common chord among the different components of socio-economic and political strides that links national security and eternal vigilance by citizens and agencies of state statutorily empowered to so do. These agencies spread across educational and media structures and organs. The citizens, acting in concert individually or as groups ought to join hands with the agencies of government to secure the developmental gains made in Nigeria since our political independence on October 1st, 1960. The promotion of security must receive the greatest official and individual attention to ensure safety for all citizens through the instrumentality of education and effective media- driven enlightenment.

Keywords: Education, Media, Security, Development, Case of Nigeria.

1. Introduction

In recent times, Nigeria has experienced several security challenges, north, south, east and west: insurgency in the north promoting radical and dangerous religious views, militancy and kidnapping in the South-South and the South-East and cattle rustling in the West & North. Hence, security has become a cascade of confusion that governments at all levels have been unable to curtail. As a result, millions of citizens have been displaced from their ancestral homes, with many living in IDP camps for internally displaced persons. The worst of all has been the infamous kidnapping of 276 Secondary School girls from Government Girls' Secondary School, Chibok, Borno State, North East Nigeria. Still counting, it is three (3) years plus (14/4/2013), since that sad episode in Nigeria's history took place. How did Nigeria get into this intractable impasse? How have the "bokoharam" people succeeded in taking that large of children hostage? How could education contribute to the solution? How can the media contribute to the security of the family and of the individual citizens? These and other vital questions shall be addressed, including the interrelatedness among the words education, media and society. The issue of security of the citizens and the nation must be everyone's concern because insecurity knows no race, tribe, religion or gender.

2. Discussion

2.1 What is Security?

In a layman's language, security refers to safety or freedom from every attempt or effort to protect persons and property from attack, molestation or any destructive infiltration into the privacy of others. But this is a partial perspective of what security is or ought to be. In its broad form, security could include other forms of individual security, for example human rights security, job security, food security, etc. Nations need security for citizens and other assets. Odunlami (2005) opines that at the national level, security is also perceived from two angles: the old and the new. The old school of militarist thinking conceives national security from the angle of military response and management of threats". He explains that one of its proponents Lippmann (p. 128) asserts that national security "rises and falls with the ability of a nation to deter an attack or defeat". On the other hand, Maniruzzaman (1982) regards national security from the prism of "protection of minimum core values of any nation, its political independence and territorial integrity" (opcit). It must be added here that the primary duty of a sovereign state is security of the state and its citizens at all times. Some promoters of this view insist that physical security is not enough for overall development. Odunlami (2005: 129) quoting Nwolise says that other variables impinge on national security, such as: socio-economic conditions of the people, human rights records of the government in power, the way power is shared in the country, the way government relates to other countries, the level of commitment of the groups to the task of keeping the nation alive". Against the background of the old school postulations, a new school of thought is developing on the concept of national security. One of its proponents is Robert Mcnamara formerly of the United Nations Organisation.

The new school of thought sees security as development, and that explains why Odunlami (2005: 129) shares Mcnamara's is view(1968:149) in The Essence of Security, published by Harper & Row:

In a modernizing society, security means development. Security is not military force though it may involve it, security is not traditional military activity, though it encompasses it, not military hardware, though it may include it. Security is development and without development, there can be no security".

Put in another way, Adamu (1990) and Nweke (1988) share this view by explaining that security, whether individual, national or regional goes far beyond the activities of military and paramilitary forces. They argue that security extends to "economic self-reliance, social cohesion and political stability" (opcit). In this sense, security reaches every segment of human activity by governments and their agencies, individuals, corporate organizations, NGOS, all professional groups or associations. But what constitutes development, a necessary ingredient for security of each society?

2.2 Some Definitions of Development

Let us consider some definitions put forward by researchers all cited in New Perspectives in Applied Communication by des Wilson (2005 124-126):

Inayatullah (1967): Development is change toward patterns of society that allow better realization of human values that allow a society greater control over its environment and over its political destiny and that enables its individuals to gain increased control over themselves.

Kleinyans (1975): development ultimately is not a matter of technology or gross national product, but the growth of a new consciousness, the expansion of the human confidence.

Rogers (1976): development is a widely participatory process for social change in a society, intended to bring about social and material advancement.

Suld and Tyson (1978): development is a historical process through which human beings choose and create their future within the context of their environment to achieve a humanistic and creative society.

Des Wilson (1990): Simply put, development is what society thinks makes its people live richer and better lives.

All of these definitions point to a consideration that development instantly tantamounts to transformation, removing poverty, lessening the disparity between social classes whether in rural or urban areas. Later in this write up, our attention is going to turn to the role of education and the media in ensuring security which is a sine qua non for all types of human development (including mental development, physical development, economic development, political development, rural development, urban development, etc).

2.3 Some Media Theories Vis-à-Vis National Security

In our present society, we need some theories on communication in order to appreciate the role of the media in national security development. We shall consider only two relevant theories in this write-up.

Development media theory: This theory opines that the relevance of the media, as an important component of social transformation is always to ensure the continuous development of the nation's security (Odunlami, P. 101). Clearly, this theory focuses on the major contribution of the media in all spheres (economic, political) of national development. Folarin (1998) lists four key principles of development media theory, namely:

- The media should accept and carry out positive development task based on national policy without prejudices to their traditional functions,
- The media should accept and help in carrying out special development task of national integration, socio-economic modernization, promotion of literacy and cultural creativity.
- The media should identify and give attention to foreign news to link with other countries with similar interests.
- Media workers should fulfill their obligation to defend their rights, in order to safe guard freedom of the press.

Agenda-setting Theory: This theory underlines the need for the media to work with other segments of society to bring about the desired change at group or individual level. The theory implies that the media sets the agenda or predetermines the direction of public discourse on all issues of relevance to a given society. Folarin (1998) advances the argument that the agenda – setting theory confers the responsibility of sensitizing the public and assisting in shaping the public opinion to assert its right to hold opinion on issues of public concern. The agenda-setting theory has the following features according to Odunlami (2005:103):

- The quality of frequency reporting
- Prominence given to the reports through headline display, … Timing on radio and television
- The degree of conflict enervated in the reports and
- Cumulative media specific efforts over time.

These two theories (development media theories) seem to support the view that there should be a free access to information needed to enhance development which is an offshoot of security in any nation, Nigeria inclusive. Then, the question arises, how does the media contribute to ensuring national security leading to overall national development?

2.4 Roles of the Media

The roles of the media are numerous. So, only a few will be discussed in this paper. These roles include those suggested by Odunlami (op cit):

- Investigation into all public issues capable of dividing the nation
- Information for society,
- Education/Enlightenment,
- Suggestions through positive criticisms,
- Correction through exposure of unlawful practices which affect society negatively,
- Reformation of society,
- Transmission of Culture and
- Entertainment

In short, the media is traditionally noted for education, entertaining and informing society. The Nigerian media has not failed in this connection. At this juncture, we want to zero in

on the role of education in promoting security for individuals and society.

3. Education and Security in Nigeria

What is the link between education and security in the context of overall development? Earlier, we tried to define security, according to McNamara (1968) as development without which there can be no security. Now, what is education? Before proposing some definitions and theories of education, let us share this view about its relevance. Des Wilson (2005) quoting Okwilagwe (1999) opines that:

The education system of any nation forms the main or central energy source necessary for generating the current that ensures the existence and development of that nation. It brings about, if well directed, self-realization, better human relationship and national efficiency, effective citizenship, National technological development…. (P. 318).

Now, let us consider the point of view of formal education as a planned education system. Formal education is development, and development is only possible in the context of a secure environment. This concept of education sees it as a process which is linked to qualitative education. No wonder Obanya, et al (1985) says that education is development, explaining further that:
Development can be physical (dealing with physical traits only), intellectual (dealing with the intellect or brain) as well as social (dealing with the individual's ability to live in harmony with other people in society (P.4).

This implies that education concerns itself with the all-round development of the individual who in turn is expected to contribute to the overall development of society. As agreed elsewhere, without security, there cannot be any appreciable development in the several sectors of human operations. Furthermore, we believe that there are other types of education. They include informal education which is less consciously planned unlike planned education that is consciously planned. There is also non-formal education, placed between the formal and informal education. In recent times, other types of education have emerged, for example life-long education, basic education, etc. Life-long education as a concept originated by UNESCO – United Nations Educational Scientific and cultural organization headquartered in Hamburg. Germany. UNESCO has shown much interest in the theory of life-long education. According to this theory, education is tantamount to a never-ending learning to live, a type that ensures we learn more about our society even out of school. The problem with this theory is that there is no limit to what constitutes education. Another concept is basic education which approximates to a minimum level of universal education which is usually compulsory. It is made up of six years in primary education, then three (3) years of junior secondary education. Nigeria practices this type of education.

Back to the relationship among education, media and security for a moment. Let us equate the teacher to the communicator, both of whom create awareness for individuals in their environments. Therefore, we could equate the roles of the school teacher to those of the media communicator. Both professionals almost always share similar goals which include information- gathering and dissemination, information through suggestions towards solving emerging problems. Education and communication act individually or as groups to enhance development of society which is only possible in a situation of security at all levels. This comparative analysis of the roles of education and the media towards national security is very apt at this period of Nigeria's challenged security in the six (6) geopolitical zones of the country.

4. Conclusion

Against the background of the current insurgency by Boko Haram in the North-East Zone (Borno, Adamawa & Yobe States), kidnapping in South-West, the militant activities in the South East & South-South Zones and the rising menace of Fulani (?) herdsmen in all zones of Nigeria, Nigeria's Federal government may consider the teaching of peace, conflict resolution and security studies at the lower

levels of education. This is where social studies or Civics should be made compulsory for students in senior primary schools and throughout the Six (6) years of secondary school education. Also, security studies should form part of the General Studies (GNS) in all tertiary institutions.

In this way, security awareness will be created for students, their parents and teachers. But schools alone cannot carry out this onerous assignment. Professional bodies, social organizations, NGO's, Town Unions and Clubs, etc. should be assisted by the mass media to play their roles in maintaining security for all sectors and elements of the Nigerian society.

Finally, education in the context of national or regional security should be considered as part of the strategies of security enlightenment or security consciousness. Also, it encapsulates the need for public cooperation with government agencies through several avenues, including prompt intelligence – gathering and its quick dissemination. In this way, education equates to awareness-creaction by the channels of education-- related activities and media practice, designed to promote the overall security of the nation and her citizens. In recent times, the United States of America has proposed a specialized ICT University for the armed forces, starting with a population of five thousand (5000) soldiers to concentrate on ICT- based security system.

No wonder, Jibowo and Oladunjoye (2003) broached the idea of the link between information-sharing and communication. They opine that "communication is a process of transmitting thoughts, sharing or imparting information or ideas… and linking people (P. 36).

It is in this context that we observe that managers of Education and communication can and do act individually or as groups to enhance development of society which is only possible in a situation of security at all levels. To ensure the success of Nigeria's security measures, there must be a tripartite cooperation among government education agencies, media organizations and security agencies (military, Para-military and non-military).

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Chris Ali and the Rationality of Military Rules in Nigeria

OLUKAYODE FELIX OYENUGA, ODUNLAMI BABATUNDE
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

Abstract. An undeniable factor in the history of Nigeria is the intervention of the military class with governance. While some scholars justify this, others sees it as an aberration that must be permanently rooted out. Scholars of Plato's persuasion radically dismissed the rationality of military rule, but an intense study of the Africa political situation shows that military involvement in politics is compulsory particularly in a polity like Nigeria.
This paper explores the problem with democracy in Nigeria and defined the role of military in line with Chris Allis short span and corrective ideology

1. Introduction

Military intervention in politics is one of the defining features of plethore governance in Africa. In fact, nations like Nigeria witnessed politics of coups that were justified as rescue and corrective mission. It is however absurd that the rescuers in most cases perpetrated even more perfidious acts than the ousted politicians. Corruption, assassination, violation of rights, prebendalism etc are associated with military rule. One may then be tempted to regard military intervention in politics as a meaningless and useless enterprise. But, with a keen insight into the Nigeria's situation Chris Ali, enunciates that when situation calls for, the action must be short and sharp thus, this essay is a philosophical re-appraisal of Chris Ali's idea on military intervention in Nigeria's politics.

2. Analysis of Concepts

The idea of politics is subject to diverse interpretation. An ordinary analyst who preview it from the realm of party contest may construe politics as "strategic manovering to outwit an opponent and emerge as winner of a political contest" (Boladale 2017:42) Really, this definition is not totally wrong inasmuch as it is peripheral. "The scope of politics goes beyond party strategy, stratagem, propaganda etc". It enshrines the basic principle and science of governance. Thus, politics is seen as "the science and art of government" (LUCINDA & MARTINS 2015:394). Writing from the same perspective Obafemi Awolowo asserts that politics is the science or the art of the management of public affairs (Awolowo 1980:176) in modern times, the dynamics of politics especially in nations consists, of the process of making decisions that apply to members of a group "it refers to achieving and exercising position of governance – organized control over a human community, particularly a state". (Wikipedia) Karl W Deutch amplifies this point," politics is decision making through public facilities" (1974:83). The political life includes a variety of activities that affects the policy of the authorities or it as accepted by a society and influence how to implement policy. We participate in political life, if the activities we do deal with the making and implementation

of policy for society. By implication David Easton notes that:
"Political life concerns all those varieties of activity that influence the kind of authority and adopted policy for a society and the way it is put into practice. We are said to be participating in the political life, when our activities relate in some way to the making and execution of policy for a society" (Easton).

Man is basically a political being. He lives in the midst of scarce resources, other rational being and diverse mindsets powered by ideas and circumstances. Thus, there is a need to use authority and power to control the society.

The aim of politics is political development. Political development consists in the development of the institutions, attitude and value that form the political power system of a society. It enhances the nation's capacity to mobilize and allocate resources. As Hans Park (1984) puts it, it refers to the capacity of the political system to satisfy the changing needs of the members of the society. (Park 1984:58). A politically developed state implies an enhanced political participation based on the principle of accountability and proper mobilization of state resources for the betterment of men. The military or armed force is a professional organisation formally authorized by a sovereign state to use force and weapons to support the interest of the state and defend against external aggression.

3. Chris Alli: The Federal Republic of Nigerian Army

Major General Chris Ali (rtd) can best be termed a professional soldier: combative, diplomatic and administratively equipped. He held various appointments at infantry and brigade level. He used his book mentioned above to x-ray politics in the military. He brings out the actions and the repercussions of military interregnum in politics from a first-hand perspective.

4. The Problem with Nigeria Democracy

Democracy is a universal concept and no nation can be said to have absolutely perfected it. "The history of most African countries throughout their existence as independent nations has been mainly that of authoritarian regimes trying to masquerade as democracy. In delineating the boundaries of democracy, we are able to see that genuine democracy is absent in Africa and is even difficult to establish because of the prevailing socio-economic and political order which is monolithic and authoritarian "(Owolabi 2006:121). The problem of democracy in Nigeria goes beyond authoritarianism. It includes corruption, violation of fundamental human rights, militarisation of politics, monetization of electoral process, morbid tenacity for power or self-perpetuation in power, lack of adequate participation of the people in politics. More so, the democratic system is an imported one based on party contest and triumph in election. Party based democracy does not adequately protect the interest of the people. It cannot easily generate consensus. "The value system is the winner takes it all". (Onyekpe 2004:64). Areas that are believed to have rooted over whelmingly for the wielder of power are compensated with appointment. More so, members of the winning power enjoy patronage more than others.

5. Chris Ali and the Rationality of Military Rules in Nigeria

The intervention of the military class in the political administration of Nigeria is one of the essential themes that pervade Chris Ali write-up on the Nigeria military. Primarily, Ali tends to be against the phrase military intervention in Nigeria. According to him:
. . . what is pertinent is perhaps to refer to civic intervention intervention in military governance since independence. The truth is that the nation since 1900 had been ruled by the military and quasi military personnel which the traditional militancy of pre-colonial authority. Practically, all colonial rulers of pre-independence Nigeria were soldiers or men who derived their stays from the threat of the use of military power (Ali, 2001:162).

An insight into this shows that Ali has a perspective on the issue of the military in politics but another thing is the authorical

perspective of other analyst. Ali's expose is purely foundationalist. Secondly, pre-colonial authority could not be properly captured with the phrase "Traditional militancy" we cannot but acknowledge the democratic problems and the idea of check and balance in the pre-colonial time. The executive powers of the kings are not boundless. Their executive power does not absolutely overrule judicial insight and deliberation on issue. Thus, i consider the phrase traditional militancy somehow extravagant and uncomplimentary in the description of the prescribed authority in ancient Nigeria.

Going through the exposition of Chris Ali, it is made known that the Nigerian military has since 1966 developed an unquenchable thirst and hunger for political and civic power. Altogether, ten coups, as acts or intention or unfulfilled conspiracies; two against civil government and seven targeted at removing existing military regime. Five were failures attracting grave penalties to the conspirators and their associates while two installed new military governments. (Ali 2001:163) one question that must be quickly considered is why these series of coup-de-tat?

The Nigerian military has often claimed to be on rescue mission, corrective intervention and pragmatic action for political stability. Essentially, a prevailing theory on military intervention is that the armed forces venture into the arena of political power to correct the ills created by the civilians. They do this so that the ship of the nation will not be grounded.
Adenekan Olomola justified military intervention from this corrective posture in his word:
The military class is a third force. It is an opposing powers to the abuse and misuse of power by the civilian. The problem is that democracy afford a special latitudes of freedom that can be easily misused, manipulated and marred. In the case of Nigeria, the military always comes on board when the civilians corruptly abused the tent to civil rules. (Olomola 2016:86)

Actually, Olomola captures one of the Chief reasons for military intervention but he is too categorical. Not all military interventions are driven by passion for correction and democratic stability. Chris Ali will not totally agree with this. In his words:
Regional, Sectional or tribal groups as they have occurred in Nigeria seek to promote or redress the interests of a major tribe, one of the three regions or a district military interest. While rationalising their motivations, the conspirators justify their treasonable acts by appealing to nationalist sentiment, national interest and incidence of lack of national consensus (165).

In line with the core of existentialistic philosophy, some of these coups are existential outpour of "resident nothingness crying for being" in the life of man "Man is a reservoir of possibilities" Adelo 2014:13). As such, his rationality predisposes him to several techniques of self actualisation. Coup is a ladder to political power. It can be justified on a corrective thesis as many scholars do but Ali wants us to note that in dealing with causes, we should deviate from the textbook pattern of lodging arguments at the altar of the praetorian theory, nationalism and patriotism, modernising and civilizing influence of the military protecting the people from themselves and the need of national or state security (163). Thus, beyond the thesis of political correction, there are more fundamental reasons why the military venture into the avenue of political authority. They are for self aggrandisement and the realisation of personal ambitions Ali further intensified his position on this:

Coup detent is a behavioural pattern of actions, conspirational in nature by which an individual or groups with vested interests seek to change by violent overthrow the status quo. In Nigeria's experience, the motivations have been personal ambition, tribal, ideological, hegemonic and regional imperatives it has also been applied to prevent changes in power nuances and equation.
The phrase "vested interest" deserves attention coup plotters have reasons. To them coup is not an arbitrary invasion of the political share.

Within the theoretical scope of plato's political philosophy, one may consider coup as a serious

aberration and an unjustifiable infraction of the political rights of the people. The military class is mentally and physically suited for defence. They are not equipped to political leadership as plato propounded. A cursory look at his philosophy shows that there are three groups of individuals in the society and this correspond to the three fold compartmentalisation of the human soul.

In the Republic, Plato asserted that the Psyche is composed of three parts: the logical, the spirited and the appetitive. This, division reflects the three order of men in the society there will be justice in such society when each part fulfils its functions without attempting to interfere in the function of others.
Plato emphasized a well spelt out division of labour. Mainly, division of labour is the separation of tasks in any so that participants may specialize. "Individuals, organisations and nations are endowed with or acquired specialized capabilities and either form combination or trade to take advantage of the capabilities of others in addition to their own (Richard 2013:76) writing from this theoretical base, plato identified the rational element, the spirited element and the appetitive element in the constitution of the human soul. The rational element is that part of a man's soul which enables him to reason, to argue and embark on critical deliberations. The spirited element is responsible for courage and strength of will, while the appetitive elements consist of desires and passion for sex, food etc. Thus a man will be psychologically healthy if the three parts function harmoniously.

Since the state is an aggregate of individual's act or action, an ideal state would be a manifestation of the correct placement of man in line with his natural amplitude. As there are three parts of the soul, there are also three group of men in the society. An ideal state would be composed of three classes. As expatiated by Richard Popkin and Aurum Stroll.

An ideal state would be composed of three classes: the ruler to administer it, warriors to defend it and all other citizens to provide the essentials of life. Each of these classes corresponds to a division of the individual soul. The ruling class is the rational element of the society the soldiers are its spirited element and the other citizens are its appetitive elements. . . (Avrum & Popkin 1982:59).

Plato articulated the rule of these classes, but sternly warned that the guardians are to be given absolute authority in running the state. "No one from the lower class was allowed to intervene in the administration of the government; for the member of the lower group were not expert. Ruling is a skill men differ innately in their capacities or abilities, those who exhibited ruling capacity should be trained along this line and because they have the greatest skill in ruling, they ought to be given absolute authority "(Stroll 1982:60).

In his analogy, this is a conflation of two district categories. Besides, plato's analysis fenced out the artisan and auxiliaries from acting as ruler. In line with their military rule is aberration. Soldiers are mentally and physically trained to guide the state. They are not to usurp the role of the ruler.

A point to be noted is this plato's idea as enumerated here is bound to lead to despotism, really he analysed a good division of labour but at the level of rulership, his criteria for choosing leaders cannot but produce autocratic leaders. Moreso, soldiers are not mentally and physically structured in carrying out civil rules. This argument might be very good in ancient Greek but contemporary reality and a fundamental incursion into the development of man shows a contrary stance. Chris Ali to an extent agrees with plato. He writes that

The soldiers role in the political environment are defined in the constitution of the land should be respected. It soldiers must intervene in governance directly, then the Nigeria constitution ought to be altered and amended to accommodate the contingency for military intervention. I believe that, so long as the constitution has no provision for military intervention, any such political adventure is manifestly illegitimate and grossly illegal, no

matter what the expedient may appear to be (Ali:85).

Is Alli saying that military rule is an aberration? Alli is tactical and conversant of situational peculiarities. Thus, he offers a balanced view. According to him:

Those who have promoted the cankerworm of intervention through the medium of coups and similar practices which are inoroical to the growth of a democratic culture must answer sometime for this constitutional aberration and clear adventure in personal aggrandisement. . . the soldier may be the instrument of rapid and short restoration, but they should not constitute themselves into the solution in a multi-national composition like Nigeria (P.85).

Why must Alli frown at a long stay of the military in power the reason is simple. "They not only lack the temper, they only behave like tax forces" (85). They are psychologically unfit for political rule.

Christ Ali does not believe in the usage of coup to correct political rule. "I have a very strong disdain for coups. . . coups and soldier have failed not only the nation, but also themselves as viable instrument of change and order (P.87) meanwhile a clear study of page 238 show that Ali is also a coup strategist. He is not a saint.

6. Conclusion

Chris Ali, is of the opinion that military intervention in political governance should be short. Short and sharp intervention not lasting than six months, for new election to take place. "It would therefore have been corrective action directed primarily at the rapid restoration of the people's power and democratic structure" (311) meanwhile political system is complex and dedicate that, at times, short span as Ali recommended may not work.

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Understanding Contemporary Vigilantism: A Case Study of the Vigilante Group of Nigeria (VGN)

CHUKWUMA C.C. OSAKWE
Nigeria Defence Academy Kaduna, Nigeria

BULUS NOM AUDU
Nigeria Police Academy, Wudil, Kano State, Nigeria

Abstract. Vigilante groups in Nigeria assume different structures and patterns of operation and these are determined by the nature of their societies and the purpose for which they exist. Many of them that can be classified as militias represent interests along the plural Nigeria societies and religions. Yet there are other groups under the umbrella of the Vigilante Group of Nigeria (VGN) that do not represent any political, economic and religious interest, but only tackles crime in Nigerian communities. This group (VGN) is the focus of this paper. Thus, this paper examines a rare and interesting dimension of vigilantism in Nigeria by reviewing the VGN which was established; placing willing vigilante groups under one National umbrella, and later given Federal backing with the aim of operating professionally alongside government Law Enforcement agencies in the country. Examining the VGN as a single body in effect provides a concise and more encompassing understanding of vigilantism in Nigeria. However, as exist in other Law Enforcement Agencies in Nigeria, there is the chronic challenge of logistics and adequate funding in not just boosting operational efficiency but also enhancing capacity building and manpower development to majority of members who are still largely illiterate.

1. Introduction

It is generally perceived that the presence of or the emergence of vigilante groups is either a symptom in the global south on the pervasiveness of private security and or the inadequacy of the police necessitating the need for some form of community policing. In Nigeria, it is a hybrid of these perceptions. Vigilante groups in Nigeria have often emerged when there is the perception of increased criminality or social deviance which threatens social order. These groups have flourished not only in places where States lack capacity to protect citizens from crime, but also where the state itself is believed to be corrupt or untrustworthy. Deep mistrust of the State and formal security providers, driven by the inability of Law Enforcement Agencies to provide basic security and protect its citizens' human rights, further encourages vigilantism. The vigilante groups in Nigeria assume different structures and patterns of operation and these are determined by the nature of their societies and the purpose for which they exist. Many of them that can be classified as militias represent interests along the plural Nigeria societies and religions. However the proliferation of these numerous, largely unprofessional, and unlicensed vigilante groups in the country is not

a focus of this paper as the debates of whether they be classified as ethnic militia, militants, or vigilantes is still ongoing.

2. Early Studies

Pratten's (2008:3-8) study provides one of the most significant findings on vigilantism in Nigeria. He adds that since the return to democracy in 1999, Nigeria witnessed a proliferation of vigilantism and that vigilante groups have been organized at a variety of levels from lineage to ethnic group, in a variety of locations from village ward to city street, and for a variety of reasons from crime fighting (due to the failure of the state to adequately police her citizens) to political lobbying. Thus, it is not surprising that these groups have often existed with ethnic, religious, and political identities. This is buttressed by ongoing claims of extrajudicial executions and torture, combined with evidence that vigilante groups were involved in ethnic and religious clashes in 2000 and 2001. However Prattens analysis (despite being focused on Nigeria) doesn't make mention of the Vigilante Group of Nigeria.

Akaayar (2010:8-10) also notes that in Nigeria today exist more prominent heavily regionalised and sometimes factionalised vigilante groups in the three core regions of Nigeria; the Bakassi Boys among the Igbos of the East, the Hisbah among the Hausa/Fulani of the North and the Oodua Peoples' Congress (OPC) among the Yoruba of the West among many other indigenous law enforcement and crime fighting organisations. This fact has also been emphasised in other similar studies by Fourchard (2008:16-40), Johanness (2008), Matusitz and Repass (2009). He adds that the Hisbah, an Islam-based law enforcement organisation, was officially responsible for enforcing the Sharia system in the North. and that the Bakassi Boys and the OPC on the other hand, though not religious based (as the Hisba), often used indigenous African charms and religious beliefs to carry out their police functions. However, Akaayar's analysis leaves out the extent to which vigilante groups complement law enforcement agencies in crime fighting

Okeke (2013:312) talks about vigilantism as a form of policing existing in contemporary Nigeria following the inadequacies of the police, its abysmal failure as a veritable law enforcement, and the discontent between the police and the community. He notes that over the years, the police had been accused of bribery and corruption, extra-judicial killings, intimidation and the use of excessive force on innocent citizens, giving arms to armed robbers, involvement in the armed robbery, mass and illegal arrest, unable to confront the armed robbers, etc.

Consequently, as Okeke states, community members resorted to self-defense or mob action for their own protection against criminal suspects which was often unregulated and in the form of violent reprisals; the emerging vigilante security apparatus too stopped handing over suspected criminals to the police and instead began to carry out extra-judicial executions killings of suspected criminals. In other words, the increased incidence of crime since the end of military rule resulted to the formation of armed groups posing as vigilantes in nearly every corner of Nigeria.

Nevertheless, this study largely depends on the use primary sources through the conduct of oral interviews with various leaders of the VGN in Nigeria. Oral data acquired is however supported through information gathered from secondary sources. Finally, the study follows the thematic approach. Thematic approach has to do with organizing and presenting the findings on the basis of similarity of ideas as opposed to the chronological approach based on sequence of events. In the thematic procedure, the sequence of events is maintained under each theme. In this way focus is easy to maintain in the description and analysis of issues throughout the study.

3. The Concept of Vigilante

The term vigilante is derived from the Latin word vigilans, which means to be watchful. However, the meaning of this concept, which has an old social history depended on the peculiarities of the situation where it existed (Akaayar 2006:4). While there is no precise

scholarly definition or understanding of what vigilantism exactly is, it is commonly understood as "an organized attempt by a group of 'ordinary citizens' to enforce norms and maintain law and order on behalf of their communities, often by resorting to violence, in the perceived absence of effective official state action through the police and courts" (Sungusungu 1987:36). Vigilante-type organizations have existed in many cultures, in past and present times, in both rural and urban settings. These groups flourish not only in places where states lack capacity to protect citizens from crime, but also where the state itself is believed to be corrupt or untrustworthy.

Various studies also point to the effectiveness of these groups, and there are well-documented cases where vigilante success led to a dramatic decrease in crime. Of course, as the literature also demonstrates, "The history of vigilantism is filled with cases of mistaken identity, in which the wrong person was made to pay for someone else's deeds" (1987:12). The public image of these groups often presents a one-sided picture of vigilante groups. They are often described as mere brutal and undisciplined mobs or crowds consisting of mostly young people without any clear social or political identity and as emotional and spontaneous. Pratten (2008:65) argues that often vigilante activities are not solely focused on security. vigilantism serves a range of other functions in a community, such as disciplining children, sponsoring unemployed youth, recovering debts, and screening political candidates. It sometimes include mediation and arbitration tasks. In Nigeria, groups created such as the Oodua People's in the South West, Bakassi Boys in the South East, and Hisbah in the North have often been viewed as either vigilante or militia groups. This study recognizes the complexity of vigilantism, and looks beyond the one-sided picture of these movements as brutal gangs by examining it as an organised legal structure through the activities of the Vigilante Group of Nigeria (VGN).

4. Rise of Contemporary Vigilantism in Nigeria

The increasing frustration throughout Nigeria about uncontrolled criminality, un-managed violence and its associated problems has only highlighted the inadequacies of the police and its abysmal failure as a veritable law enforcement agency. Indeed, there is a wide gap between the police and the community that they are supposed to protect (Rotimi 2010). It is observed that the Nigeria Police Force in particular which was fashioned after the British security and law enforcement model lacks indigenous Nigerian foundation and is structurally and procedurally a stranger to Nigerians. As a symbol and tool of colonial occupation, this scenario has resulted in a resurgence of indigenous crime fighting agencies that are culturally and historically rooted in Nigeria's pre-colonial past. In other words this contemporary Nigerian vigilantism is inspired by the articulation of claims to a set of rights based on historical and spiritual legitimacy of vibrant young men who are desirous of defending their communities under the protection of traditional or local religious practices (Pratten 2008:6).

Nigerian vigilantism, therefore, represents the logical extension of traditional ethics and historical practices concerned with the policing of Nigerian communities. Therefore, it is a grassroots response to the failures of Nigeria's conventional police and judicial systems. Thus, the emergence of the vigilante groups indicates that the State security apparatus have failed to adequately protect the lives and properties of the Nigerian citizenry. Although, there has not been any time in the history of Nigeria that government was not faced with security challenges, the exit of the military and the institutionalization of a liberal democratic government in 1999 witnessed dramatic increase in security problems and the proliferation of the vigilante groups could be regarded as an outcome of the situation. Indeed, democracies guard against the militarization of the democratic polity hence the increased and expected viable role of the police.

This study admits that during this time, the number of vigilante groups and militias rose steadily. However, it is important to state clearly here that vigilante groups are separate from

militia groups even though militia groups also claim to offer some form of communal policing against potential threats. This clarity is necessary seeing that both vigilante and militia have been erroneously discussed in various literature as synonyms. This paper argues that while vigilantes enforce the law of the land in collaboration with the police, the militias defy the police as they are found executing wars. In both cases however, the failure of government agencies to guarantee the protection of lives and property necessitated the provision of security from outside the formal security structures of the State. For example, the first category of prominent groups that can be classified as militia as against vigilante: Oodua Peoples' Congress (OPC) emerged in 1994, pursuing two objectives as flushing criminals out of Yoruba land and protecting Yoruba interests in Nigeria and outside.(*Tell* 2001:43). On the other hand, the 'Bakassi Boys' were created as a vigilante group in 1998 by traders in the City of Aba who wanted to protect themselves from robbers (Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada 2017). Similarly in northern Nigeria, in the 1990s, the Hisbah groups were also vigilantes who enforced compliance of the Sharia law, which was to compliment the services of the police. Hisbah, came about to resolve peculiar security problems of their communities Umaru 2016). However some of these groups have gradually had their security services influenced by political interests. This has made many observers continually raise the question of if these designated vigilantes groups should actually be called militias instead. However it is important to note that the night guard (made up of local hunters) system of Nineteenth Century Ibadan remains the veritable precursor of the modern day OPC. The vigilante groups in the north, especially in Kano, were offshoots of the *Yantauri* (traditional hunters) as they were called (Olaniyi 2013:55).

However the second category known as the Vigilante Group of Nigeria (VGN) have been more officially recognised as they are comprised of the groups (inclusive of retired police and military men) that operate in both urban and rural areas in partnership with the police. Their aim was/is to protect government infrastructure, the private sector as well as to protect people subject to attack from hoodlums. But generally, they have been better known for keeping night surveillance of their communities, halting suspicious movements and making arrests. The VGN is the focus of this study as far as vigilantism is concerned.

5. Controversies and Modes of Operations

Vigilante-type organizations in Nigeria have often emerged because of the rise in crime and due to the increasing failure of the State to secure life and property by maintaining law and order. These groups flourish not only in places where states lack capacity to protect citizens from crime, but also where the state itself is believed to be corrupt or untrustworthy. Deep mistrust of the state and formal security providers, driven by the inability of the police to provide basic security and protect its citizens' human rights, further encourages vigilantism. Again, the public image of these groups often presents a one-sided picture of vigilante groups. They are often described as mere brutal and undisciplined mobs or crowds consisting of mostly young people without any clear social or political identity and as emotional and spontaneous. More troubling is the perception of some of these prominent groups as militias promoting ethnic, political, and religious interests of private individuals or groups who finance them. Simply put: unprofessional in Policing. For example, while some members of the OPC are involved in vigilante activities, patrolling the streets and chasing down criminals, others members are known to have engaged themselves with issues that foment crisis than those that offer security (Abraham 2007: 407). The Hisbah groups in Northern Nigeria are seen as helping in the preservation of the Islamic culture. It is in recognition of their services that the Supreme Council for Sharia in Nigeria (SCSN) requested the federal government not to see the Hisbah groups as Security rivals but as complimenting the services of the police (Jibril 2016). The Bakassi Boys on the other hand have been accused of operating under the orbit of the South-Eastern

State Governors and also of defying the law and killing real and perceived criminals.

Although the modes of action somewhat varied among the community watch groups and the vigilantes interviewed here, there were several similarities. Usually patrols were made up of groups of young men who meet after dusk (any time from 9pm to 12am) to patrol specific areas until the morning hours (until about 5:3am latest). While these young men patrolled or were gathered with one another, they kept a vigilant eye on their surroundings and for possible trouble and criminal elements. These patrols stopped and interrogated any stranger that entered their neighbourhood especially at odd hours. Once a person was deemed suspicious, the group would question the individual to find out their motive or intention for being in that area. If they found the explanation acceptable, they would let them go or escort them to where they claimed they were going. However, if the person in question seemed to have been lying then other actions were taken (Kabiru 2016).

The specific course of action taken by different vigilante groups, when faced with a criminal or a potential one, seemed to greatly vary from group to group. Those groups that had approval from the police to operate as community watch groups clearly recognized that even criminals have rights and 'with power comes responsibility'. However, at times the captured person was never immediately, and not always, brought to the police; As an individual's guilt or innocence was often determined on the spot after an interrogation sometimes (Obiesie 2016). Patrolling the streets is a dangerous undertaking, and group members say that they themselves have often been injured when facing criminals. As a result, they have armed themselves with cutlasses, bows and arrows, iron bars etc, claiming that the criminals often were better equipped than they were. Consequently they felt forced to respond with armed violence.
Baker (2002:238) touches upon this issue of escalating violence. He argues that the most fundamental response to the use of force is counterforce. Despite the fact that citizens arm themselves, criminals continue their illegal activities while preparing themselves with the intention to meet defensive violence with violence. However, criminal violence not only drives people to defend themselves but also to retaliate in anger. When this happens, the escalation of violence is often unavoidable. The 'defensive violence' of Nigerian 'vigilantes' could thereby be seen both as a response, a consequence, and a contributing factor to the structural and physical violence of everyday life in Nigeria. These aspects highlight that the existence of vigilante groups leads to a number of negative consequences. The most obvious one is when these groups become more of a threat, rather than the defenders of the community. The unpredictable nature of these groups can become particularly exacerbated when the young men patrol the streets under the influence of alcohol or drugs, or when their vigilante ways become profitable; for example, when they resort to extortion or other gang-like activities.

On the one hand, there is much evidence that 'so-called' suspects' rights are severely violated by these methods and the manner in which they are apprehended. But on the other hand, one can wonder who is protecting the rights of the community members who live in constant fear from burglary and other crimes. However this study observes that the escalating violence as mentioned was not only a reaction to better armed criminals, but also a result of frustration. Sam Eze (2016) notes that many vigilante groups typically feel a strong sense of frustration about the fact that apprehended criminals were not properly dealt with by the police or the courts, and that in many cases they were released after a day or two. A combination of either corruption, due process or lack thereof.

In their defense, a police officer in the department of operations, Force Headquarters (annex) Lagos, explained that often these groups would apprehend a suspected criminal and bring the person to the police without any concrete evidence (Dangana 2016). He also claimed that the group members were not always willing to follow up these cases and/or testify against the suspected criminals in court. This study observes that most vigilante groups seemed more willing to take the law into their own hands, rather than to hand over the suspected criminal to the police

force which the vigilantes have a notion of being inefficient, and corrupt. This clearly demonstrates an area where better communication and increased awareness between the police and Vigilante groups could lead to a possible reduction of violence and mob justice. However, this improvement between the police and vigilantes is already being seen following the activities of the Vigilante group of Nigeria (VGN).

6. The VGN

The establishment of the VGN could be traced to the year 1983 when various communities in Nigeria started to establish night watch from volunteers in the community who also consisted of local hunters and youths (*The Constitution of Vigilante Group of Nigeria* 2003). However it was from 1985, following the increase of crime in Nigeria that the then Inspector General of Police Etim Inyang, urged communities round the Country to establish their own vigilantes to assist the police in tackling crimes following an upsurge of crime(*The Vigilante* 2016). These vigilante associations were to aid the police in putting an end to the rising wave of criminal activities ranging from murder, rape ,theft, and in protecting lives and properties. Consequently, elders in various communities in Nigeria thought it necessary that a civil defence organisation should be reinstated. Thereafter, the Vigilante Group was established. By 18th March 1999, the Vigilante Group was officially incorporated by the Corporate Affairs Commission and established as the Vigilante Group of Nigeria with nine Board of Trustees members. And by March 2003, the VGN had come up with a detailed Constitution. The Aim and Objectives were spelt out under Article 4 as follows:

- To assist the Police and other law enforcement agencies to curb crime.
- To protect and preserve public property.
- Assist the Police in crowd control and maintenance of peace at public functions where the need arises.
- With the clearance of the Police, assist public agencies in the protection of their establishment plants and equipment.
- To give information to the Police and other security agencies of criminals or wanted persons residing in the Ward or Local government.
- To locate the permanent or temporary residences of receivers of stolen properties and "419 practitioners" (obtaining under false pretence) for the purposes of enabling the police to arrest or monitor their activities.
- To make positive and useful contributions to the advancement, progress and well-being of the community by mobilising and assisting in communal development efforts.
- To abide by the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and all relevant laws and bye-laws (*The Constitution of Vigilante Group of Nigeria* 2003).

According to Alhaji Ali Sokoto (2016), the pioneer founder of the VGN, the VGN started in the Tudun Wada area of Kaduna State (Nigeria) when at a certain period there was high rate of criminal activities and street thugs were roaming the streets oppressing people. Women were harassed and sometimes raped even in broad daylight sometimes in the company of their partners. The situation became worrisome which prompted the Commissioner of Police at that time to instruct the Divisional Police Officer (DPO) of Gidan Gayu (that is in the Tudun-Ido area of Kaduna State) to address the matter. "The DPO was Dabo Aliyu and he together with the 'Hakimi' (District Head), Dan Dawa, summoned a meeting of stakeholders of the committee and elders and I was among those that were invited. We deliberated for six weeks before we finally agreed that a security group to be known as 'banga' was to be formed and banga means vanguard or watch over".

Everybody was allowed to be a member and when the Group started, the whole idea of properly organizing vigilante groups now spread. What followed was the drafting of a constitution and the registration of the Board of Trustee by 1999 with Ali Sokoto elected the National Chairman. There are branches all over Nigeria and there is no State that is not represented.

On the VGN's relationship with the Nigeria Police, Ali Sokoto says that it is very cordial. He says when a thief is caught, that they make sure they interrogate him thoroughly until he admits his faults before he is taken to the police station, but that their problem with the police is that they don't support or assist them with anything. This writers submission here is that aggressive interrogation a thief when caught, as quoted by Ali Sokoto's may go against the tenets of professionalism especially in the eyes of most professional international organisations and in an era of increasing voices against 'jungle justice' and human rights abuses by law enforcement agencies in Nigeria; plus, the position of the law that all accused are deemed innocent until found guilty in a court of law. What is clearly extant is lack of professionalism and due process

Ali Sokoto however admits that some States give assistance to VGN State Commands but that the VGN at the National level hardly ever receives any assistance. In his words, members of the VGN are not paid because the services rendered are voluntary. Members of the VGN must be gainfully employed or engaged in some activity to earn a living and not depend on the VGN for salary. Also as part of the recruitment process, anybody who buys the recruitment form must take the form to his Ward Head and Village Head who will testify of his character. When the candidate completes this process and returns the form, he is then given an ID card. The purpose of this, according to Ali, is that when such a person commits a crime, those that signed his or her form can be held responsible.

Ali Sokoto contends that the VGN has a good relationship with the public and that as a matter of fact those who are members of the vigilante are people in the community. He points out that people love the VGN and that they have good relationship with the people, which is why they can easily arrest with ease someone in the community who has committed a crime. Again, although he mentions that members of his Group don't use conventional guns he admitted that they sometimes use traditional weapons like bows and arrows or local guns; the type used by hunters and that permission to use such guns are usually gotten from the Local Government.

According to a source, Vigilantes have been in existence for a long time and different places had different ways of practicing vigilantism from the Local Government to the States. The VGN however came into existence from 18 February 1999 with the sole aim of bringing all the vigilante groups in the country under one body. From that period it was decided that the existing body of vigilantes that was prevalent in the north should work to embrace other vigilante across the country. Jahun (2016) says that when the VGN was registered, it was observed that all members occupying key positions in the Board were Hausas (and only one Yoruba), so the VGN was operating more like an ethnic and regional body. However, that before formation of the VGN, a vigilante structure had been existing in the Northern parts of the Country after independence with its first Chairman; retired Commissioner of Police Usman Faruk. Then in 1996/7 Ali Sokoto was elected as the National Chairman/Commander-General. Ali Sokoto held the position until 31st January 2009 when Usman Jahun was elected as the Chairman/Commander-General.

When the VGN first emerged it tried to bring all the States together because formerly every State seemed to operating on their own using their own kind of uniform. However the VGN was later able to design a standard uniform (i.e. a dark brown shirt and trouser with a dark red beret) for all vigilantes throughout the federation and a standard leadership structure was eventually put in place. Furthermore, VGN has been going to all the States of the Federation, encouraging and seeking the support of State Governors to back the operations of the VGN by passing laws and bills to support their existence and offer some kind of State intervention. In the States that such bills were passed, vigilantes were assisted with facilities and incentives to help them in the day to day running of affairs. In these same States, security patrols were enhanced and stipends were provided for the members. For instance in Kano State VGN received fifty one Hilux vehicles for the State Command, in Zamfara State eighteen Hilux

vehicles and one thousand two hundred motor cycles, in Kaduna State four Hilux vehicles, twenty six motor cycles and two power bikes etc. In several States stipends are being paid monthly to the VGN members (Jahun 2016).

At the National level there is no financial support from the Federal Government, however VGN receives full moral support from Federal Security organs like the Nigeria Police Force, Department of State Services, Office of the National Security Adviser and the Federal Ministry of Interior. The only dependent source of income for the VGN National Headquarters sometimes mostly comes from the States where they have the full support of the State governor (Jahun 2016).

On the issue of carrying arms, VGN is not allowed to carry arms such as conventional guns, though they patrol with the Nigeria Police. They supply the police with intelligence since they are more familiar with the local terrain than the Police. But there are some exceptional cases where their members are allowed to carry guns for instance in parts of the North East due to the peculiar war situation. Also in some States where the level of crime is high and due to the severity of some cases, the vigilante are given arms but such arms are carried under licence from the Commissioner of Police in that state (Jahun 2016).

The VGN also boast of a data base where they keep the records of all registered members of the VGN across the 36 states of the federation and the FCT, prepared according to Local Government and State. Currently the VGN boast of about 1.4 million registered members (Jahun 2016).

On training, some institutions provide training for the VGN and also some private firms. For instance that they are in partnership with several leadership training centres in the country like the Citizens and Leadership Training Centre, Shere Hills, Jos. VGN collaborates also with the Nigeria Police who offer assistance in many ways by providing the training and allowing the use of their facilities especially some of the Training schools across the States. Likewise, the DSS, NSCDC who offer lectures and drills using their facilities also in Katsina and Abeokuta. Vigilante members are offered training in the area of Intelligence gathering, disaster management, provost, conflict resolution, basic police duties, leadership training and organisational management. Most of these trainings are self-sponsored according to him, and in some cases participants from every State are sponsored by their States or Local Governments and others are also sponsored by individuals and community members.

Currently there is a Bill before the National Assembly which is the bill for the establishment of the "Nigeria Vigilance and Community Service Corps". The Bill seeks to bring all the different vigilante groups in the country under one body and all the other types of community self-help groups. It requires that any of such vigilante groups must be registered and operate under the National body. This would help in curbing the proliferation of Vigilante groups across the country. And it is also hoped that the eventual passage of this Bill would ensure that the Federal Government provides financial and logistic commitment to the VGN (*National Assembly Press Proceedings* 2016). VGN hopes to achieve proper partnership bordering on many areas such as providing security, safety, environment sanitation, environmental protection, emergency management services, disaster management etc.

Interestingly, Federal Cabinet members from the Interior Ministry and Heads of security agencies as well as some Non-Governmental organisations such as the Department for International Development (DFID), CLEEN Foundation (formerly Known as Centre for Law Enforcement Education) etc have attended or participated programmes and workshops or seminars organised by the Jahun led VGN (Jahun 2016). Maintaining security has become increasingly complex and, as a result, education requirements for security agencies should be increased. It is further opined that better educated officers will be 'more rounded' thinkers and exhibit a more courteous and refined behaviour (Banjiram 2014).

7. Structure and Operational Guidelines of the VGN

Membership of the VGN is usually open to Nigerians who are supposed to be or:

- Are not less than 18 years of age
- Are of unquestionable character
- Are physically and medically fit
- Are residing in the community where they work
- Have not been convicted of any criminal offence
- Pledge to abide by the rules and regulations of the organisation and the laws of Nigeria

An intending member shall be guaranteed or recommended by traditional rulers in the area and identified by two persons in the community (Obiesie 2016).

It is worthy to note (as shown in the VGN constitutiton) that termination of one's membership can be through resignation, termination, expulsion, death, insanity, gross disability, or conviction by a court of law. As part of the VGN operational guidelines, any VGN member can arrest any person who:

- Commits an offence in his presence.
- Is reasonably suspected or having committed an offence unless such offence is one which the suspect cannot be arrested without warrant of arrest.
- Has escaped or attempted to escape from lawful custody.
- In whose possession is found goods or properly stolen or reasonably suspected to be stolen.
- Is found taking precautions to conceal his presence or goods or property in circumstances which afford reason to believe that he has committed an offence or who is taking such precaution with a view to committing an offence (Obiesie 2016).

Added to this is the fact that a vigilante member or members making the arrest shall actually touch, confine, or subdue the body of the person arrested unless there is submission to custody by ward action. As a way of further checkmating the activities of its own members there are certain offences which disciplinary action may be taken such as breach of the constitution, acts or conduct likely to bring the organisation into disrepute or ridicule, engaging in dishonest practices including defrauding the organisation, engaging in activities likely to cause disaffection among members, issuing un-authorised pronouncement or press releases in the name of the organization, acts of sabotage against the activities of the organization, disorderly conduct of meetings, holding illegal meetings and making unauthorised contacts on behalf of the organisation, and illegal arrest extortion and torture of suspect (Usman 2016).

Following arrest there are procedures that VGN members are expected to follow. First, the person arrested must be immediately informed in the language he understands of the reason of his arrest; Secondly, the person is to be treated in a dignified manner and not subjected to any torture, extortion or fine; Thirdly, the person upon arrest is to be taken to the nearest police station as soon as practicable but definitely within twenty four hours of the arrest; Fourthly, family members of the arrested person are to be allowed to see the person and to converse with him; Fifthly, whenever any member or members of the VGN arrest a person, his name, address and relevant particulars must be taken and entered in the organisations appropriate register; Sixthly, the arrested person should not be prevented from eating food, drinking water and saying prayers if he so desires; and Seventhly, the VGN is to follow up the case of an arrested person handed over to the police and if the suspect is arraigned in court, they should be ready and willing to testify in such case (Usman 2016).

Kano State Commander Alhaji Kabiru (2015) emphasises that a VGN member is expected to work to the best of his ability without showing any personal interest, tribal, religious and political bias in the execution of his duties. Neither is he to take the law into his hands nor go out on duty without being assigned to such duty. Again, is not to reveal the modus operandi of the organisation or its secrets without authority. He must also respect and obey his

senior officers, members of the public and the law enforcement agencies as well as abide by any lawful directives of his superiors and the law enforcement agents. This includes going on patrol as assigned in company of the police or with their clearance where applicable. Members are warned against instituting or maintaining any proceedings in court against the organisation unless a member or members have first exhausted the internal machinery for resolving issues by appealing to the Executive Committee at the appropriate level up to the National Council and Board of Trustees (Kabiru 2015).

Sam Eze (2015) notes The VGN is structured along the lines of a Ward, Local Government, State, and National level all having Chairmen, Vice-Chairmen, Secretaries, Publicity Secretaries, Treasurers, Legal Advisers, Auditors. To complement VGN efforts Ex-officio members comprising representatives of the communities, police, DSS, two religious leaders, traditional leaders, and one person of high integrity, at the various structural levels (as they apply) are directly or indirectly involved in supervising the activities of the VGN. To play an advisory role, there is also a Board of Trustees of Nine persons which are supposed to be individuals of unquestionable character and reputation appointed (or terminated) by the General Meeting of the VGN (the highest organ of the VGN) and which comprises of the States Chairmen, The States Secretaries, The States Treasures, Members of the National Executive Council, and Members of the Board of Trustees (*Vigilante Group of Nigeria* 2014).[61]

In terms of remuneration, the VGN have no standing allowances, but in appreciation of their contributions to the maintenance of community security, members of their communities and other philanthropists make financial and material donations to them. Also, the Local Government Chairmen sometimes extend financial assistance to the groups in their local government area. Twenty four States have however supported the VGN with Kano, Zamfara, Ogun, for instance providing twenty one, eighteen, and twelve Hilux vehicles respectively to their State Commands. Ogun also provided thirty four motorcycles and Jigawa provided ten buses. This is apart from the torchlight's and related items that some well wishers donate. However, all these are still a far cry from taking care of the bulk of the needs of the VGN, hence the constant appeal to federal government support(*The Constitution of Vigilante Group of Nigeria*, 2003).

Contrary to popular belief, The VGN though largely comprised of poorly educated individuals, is also made up of educated and enlightened individuals. For instance, VGN Commander General Jahun, is a retired Army Colonel who possesses a Masters Degree and other professional qualifications. The minimum expected qualification for membership into the VGN is First School Leaving Certificate. However, one of the main challenges apparently being faced by the VGN is that of funds not just for equipment but also for training and psychological development. The members and their executives often reach out to government and individuals in the society for financial assistance.

The VGN is also to protect younger people, women and the aged who are vulnerable and subject to attack from hoodlums (Akaayar 2010:16). In regard of their mode of operation, these groups have no uniform operational mode throughout Nigeria. It varies from place to place depending on the circumstances that prevail in their areas of operation. In some places, their attention is directed to road surveillance by day and night like the police, but generally, they keep night surveillance of their communities, halting suspicious movements and making arrests. During the day, they retire to their offices, which are their constructions, where they continue to receive cases, conduct trials and administer punishment on convicts. Cases that defy solution or require detention are sent to the police for appropriate actions. In other to keep the police abreast of their activities and progress, the VGN submit monthly progress reports to the police unit nearest to them, who evaluates the extent of the VGN's supplementary security services and makes its observation available to the State Police Headquarters. Jahun (2016) says his groups of vigilantes have no relationship with groups like OPC, Bakassi Boys and other such similar groups.

He gives some examples of recent successful operations carried out by the VGN with the support of the police and army. For example he says that in collaboration with the police in 2015 and 2016, over twenty thousand cows were recovered from cattle rustlers in Kano alone with ten thousand in Katsina, and six thousand in Zamfara and Kaduna States respectively. Also, that there was an arrest of several cult leaders in Benue State in 2016. Interestingly, the VGN according to Jahun has also been in the forefront in the ongoing battle against insurgency in the North East of the country. When Mubi in Adamawa State, was captured by the Boko Haram insurgents he said his men fought to take back the town and that even Magdalli, and Baga town in Bornu were recaptured with the active participation of his men alongside the military. Unfortunately, Jahun adds that many of the VGN members have lost their lives in the line of duty without any form of compensation. For instance, over one thousand died in 2009 as a result of the North East insurgency which also claimed the life of the VGN State Commander in Maiduguri and virtually all the State Executive Officers and their family members, as well as the destruction of the state secretariat.

8. Conclusion

An issue bearing on the success of community policing in Nigeria is the emergence of local vigilante groups to fight crime in communities where the police have done little to maintain law and order. The VGN is a national organization as well as a voluntary one whose membership is made up of people from the very community where they operate. They are involved in community policing as a registered group with the backing of the law. In other words, they liaise with law enforcement agencies to carry out their community policing duties. However it must be mentioned that it is not part of their duties to prosecute criminals. Once any criminal is arrested, they forward such a suspect to the police. Their closeness to the grassroots and their knowledge of the local terrain thus makes them a necessary tool in community policing. There is however the need for adequate funding of the VGN to enable it improve its public perception. Such funding will help it gear towards being more professional made possible through better training, and regular seminars to enlighten and educate them on their roles in cooperation with other law enforcement agencies.

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Part Three

Teaching and Learning Skills

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Students' Perception of the Learner Support Services in Distance Learning Institute (DLI), University of Lagos

OBIAGELI J. MODEBELU, ADEDUN O. ADEGUN
University of Lagos, Nigeria.

Abstract. Open distance learning has come to stay as one of the recognized mode of learning at different levels of education especially university level**.** The main purpose of this study is to determine students' perception of the learner support services in Distance Learning Institute (DLI), University of Lagos. Specifically, the study sought to ascertain students' perception of the help desk and counselling services in DLI and find out students' views about the ICT and LMS services in DLI. 6 Research Questions and 2 hypotheses were raised to guide the study. The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. The population of the study was made up of 10, 889 (5329 male and 5560 female) registered students of DLI for 2016/2017 academic session. Proportionate stratified sampling method was employed to select 386 students for sample size of the study. Mean score and standard deviation (SD) were used to answer the research questions while the t-test was used to test the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of probability. In testing the hypotheses, t-test statistical tool was employed. The results showed that students perceived the help desk is strategically located and the staff are friendly to attend to the students. They also perceived that DLI library is not conducive for learning, the library cannot be accessed on-line and not well equipped with current books. Among the findings were that learners will need the audio and video presentations of the modules, L.M.S need to be upgraded. The hypotheses revealed a significant difference between the perceptions of learner support services by students based on gender with t-test value of 9.901 and p 0.000<0.05. It was evident with t-test value of 4.168, p0.000<0.05, that there is significant difference in the perception of learner support services provided in DLI by the students based on year of study. It was recommended that the counseling centre should be publicized to attract more students. The DLI AIG blog should post information on personal and social issues bothering students.

Keywords: Learner support services, Gender, Open and Distance learning, Perception

1. Introduction

Open distance learning has come to stay as one of the recognized mode of learning at different levels of education especially university level. Open distance learning evolved from correspondence and distance education which were mainly characterized by sending and receiving learning materials by post, hence the name correspondence. In this 21st century however, open distance learning is now powered by different forms of electronic and digital gadgets. This makes it possible for learners, who are separated in time and space from the institution and their facilitators, to study on their own most of the time. Owing to this separation or isolation of distance learners from their institution and facilitators, most of the time, learner support services have been incorporated into the whole process as an important aspect of

distance learning. Learner support services are designed to bridge the gap which exists between the learner and the institution.

Brindley and Paul (2004) opined that in ODL, learner support has been a central issue of interest to distance educators for the past two decades as practitioners and researchers have tried better to understand the experience of the distance learner, what holds learners back, and what contributes to persistence and success in the learning process. Hence, the development of learner support in ODL has paralleled and reflected the change in conceptualization of education as transmission of pre-packaged knowledge to that of a dynamic transformative process, focusing on developmental constructivist models of teaching and learning and findings ways to engage the learner as an active and central participant in the learning process (Brindley & Paul 2004, pg 42)''

Ndudzo (2013) says that the learners' support system is an important service that needs to be provided by an institution to the learners because of the characteristics of distance learners themselves. Many authorities including Tait 2000 and Keegan 1995, agree that a learner support mechanism helps to address students' requirements that may affect their learning. These include career and course choice guidance, preparatory needs, study skills, access procedures to seminars, psychosocial needs, collaborative and group discussions, guidance on tutorials, learning materials, assessments and writing of assignments. It also includes guidance and counselling on non-academic issues

Gatsha and Evans (2010) say that the term learner support refers to the services provided to distance learners so that they can overcome barriers to learning and complete their studies successfully. Thorpe (1994) sees learner support services as constituting all those elements capable of responding to a known learner or group of learners before, during and after the learning process. Thorpe (2002) maintains the learner support learner support should be geared towards meeting all the needs the learners might have in other to guarantee quality learning. This explains the whole essence of learner support in any open distance learning programme. This is because open distance learners because of their isolation and distance from the institution requires quality learner support services before admission; to guide them to make the right choice of courses, on the programme services; to assist them to benefit maximally from their learning experience, and post programme support services; aimed at assisting them on matters bothering on getting transcripts and other necessary correspondences with the schools. The post programme support service may also include giving career information and communicating with employers about the learners.

According to Simpson (2000) learner support services include all activities beyond the production and the delivery of course materials that assist the students in the progress of their studies. These include academic and non-academic or administrative support.

Academic support according Simpson (2000) is designed to assists students with cognitive, intellectual and knowledge related issues of specific courses. These may include printed modules, multi-media academic materials such as video recordings, radio lectures, audio cassettes, tutorials, study center meetings, library services and other academic oriented materials and -activities they help the students to relate comfortably with their learning tasks.

Non-academic learner support services according to Simpson (2000) assist students in their ability to be organized and effective in their studies. Non-academic support services include counselling; pre admission counselling, counselling while on the programme in different areas of the students' lives, training programmes on time management, study habits, examination attitude, orientation, and student's unions and associations, and many more programmes designed to help the students to bridge the gap caused by being distance learners. According to Chattopadhyay (2014), learner support system in open distance education varies from one institution to another. In other words, each institution would design, develop and implement learner support services that are in line with the peculiar characteristics of its students. In essence, what constitute learner support services

in one institution may not be important in another institution, However, all of the learner support services, no matter the form or composition, are geared towards assisting the learners in achieving their major goal of enrolling in the programme.

Furthermore, Baloyi (2012) affirms that learner support is a generic term, which is applied to the range of services that are developed by the institutions in order to assist the students to meet their learning objectives, to gain the knowledge, expertise and skills to be successful and to complete their course or studies. In other words, learner support services are designed to help learners to enter a programme, remain and progress on the programme and successfully complete the programme. It also helps in reducing attrition rate in any open distance learning programme. Brindley and Paul (2004) noted that learner support includes all those interactive processes intended to support and facilitate the learning process from the student's first point of contact with the institution, including tutoring, teaching, counselling, advising, orientation, administrative services and even peer tutoring and alumni support. The major reason for this is that learner support services provides students with the intellectual, emotional and social needs of their enrolling in the programme in the first place. This is referred to as the cognitive, affective and systemic characteristics of learner support by Tait (2000). Tait (2003) states three reasons why learner support services are very important in any open distance learning institution. These are:

Students need support, just like in any other human endeavour, students would need all the necessary help they can get to ensure their success in the programme they have enrolled in.

Learner support helps to reduce drop-out rate otherwise called attrition rate. A good learner support programme would ensure that the learners are retained in the programme. Learner support such as counselling, guidance, course advising, mentoring, training, etc are all designed to assist the learners overcome different challenges that may be threatening their success in the programme.

The facilitator or e-tutor through the process of mediation relates the teaching content to the student as an individual in her or his situation, including the social, economic, geographic and cultural dimensions.

Many authorities have studied learner support in relation to academic performance and effects of learner support services on the learners. Arko-Achemfour (2017) studied support gaps in an open distance learning context, the result of the study revealed that although most of the support services are in place, students in the study who live in the rural areas are not able to access them adequately thereby impacting adversely on their studies.

Baloyi (2012) studied learner support in open and distance learning context, a case study of ABET programmes in the University of South Africa. The result revealed among other things that in spite of the limitations, learner support in ODL has the potential to improve the success rate of students. Kamau (2012) studied the effectiveness of learner support services to distance learners in a primary education diploma, a case study in Botswana the study revealed that there is need for sustained learner-tutor and learner-learner interaction and regular communication with the supporting institution during the learning process. This would require planning and aligning learner support services to identified learners' needs, access to learning resources including the existence and application of effective monitoring and supervision mechanisms for academic, counselling and administrative support in order to ensure commitment and accountability of learner support providers.

Ukpo (2005) carried out a study on the relevance of learner support services at the National Teachers Institute (NTI) in Nigeria, the study revealed among other things that the students were pleased with the administrative, academic and counselling services, but were not pleased with the material distribution and the library services. The study also revealed that the students liked the support they receive from their tutors and study centre administrators, however,

they were displeased with the inadequacy of course materials.

Farajollahi and Moenikia (2010) studied the relationship between student support services and distance students' academic achievement. They study revealed a significant relationship between students support services and its components with academic achievement of students. Adelowotan and Adewara (2009) surveyed the quality of the learner support programme for distance learning students in Distance Learning Institute, University of Lagos. The study revealed that the students were satisfied with the tutorial, library services and the support they received at the study centres. The students however showed dissatisfaction in the way the Institute personnel attended to their complaints. Their study equally revealed that the students would like the Institute to reach out to them more using the mobile telephone device. Chesto (2011) who also found significant influence of class level on students' perception and attitude towards counselling. Patrick and Ihejirika (2012), studied students' perception of the quality of learner support services in National Open University of Nigeria, the result of the study indicated that there were no significant differences in the level of importance and level of satisfaction between male and female learners on the learner support provided.

The Distance Learning Institute (DLI) University of Lagos started as a correspondence and open studies Unit (COSU) in 1973, to assist in the production of science education teachers for Nigerian primary and secondary schools. It was later transformed to Correspondence and Open Studies Institute in 1983. The institute operated on more of face-to-face mode in the transaction of the teaching and learning. However, with the growing need for access to formal education all over the world and Nigeria inclusive, as well as the advancement in technology and the shift globally to learning using e-platforms, the Institute was restructured by the University Senate in 1997 to be in line with the global trend. Ever since then, the Institute has continued to position itself to using blended modes of learning in reaching to its numerous students both within and outside the country. The core values of the Institute include life-long education, learner centeredness, continuing learning, learner support, learner satisfaction, integrity and honesty. Learner support is one of the core values of the Institute, the Institute has learner support and counselling unit which received high scores during NUC Validation visit to the Institute in 2015 as well as in 2016. A lot has been put in place for the students to enable them have smooth experience in the learning activities in the Institute.

2. Statement of the Problem

The learner support unit of the DLI provides services to students in different areas including counselling, library support, help desk, provision of course materials in different forms (video, module text, radio lectures), online learner support and blog activities. Also, the LMS is used in reaching out to the students when they are not in residence. The learners in DLI have been availing themselves of the opportunity of using these services. There may be challenges the students encounter in the use of the learner support services available in DLI. Especially now that the Institute has almost migrated to full Open Distance mode of learning, thereby reducing the face-to-face contact periods at the study centres and laying more emphasis on the activities on the LMS according to National Universities Commissions' guideline on open distance learning in Nigeria. Whether they are satisfied with the services or their views about how these services can be improved on has not been ascertained in recent times, hence this present study to find out students' perception of the learner support services in Distance Learning Institute, the University of Lagos. The reason for this is in line with the opinion of Haghighi and Tous (2014), that analysis of learners' responses concerning the learner support services may provide the student support system with a better understanding of learners' expectations, thereby positioning the learner support services to serve the students better.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to determine students' perception of the learner support

services in Distance Learning Institute (DLI) University of Lagos. Specifically, the study sought to:

- Ascertain students' perception of the help desk activities in DLI.
- Find out students' views about the counselling services in DLI.
- Determine students' perception of the Library services available to the in DLI.
- Find out students' perception of the course materials available to them in DLI.
- Ascertain students' views about the online learner support services in DLI.
- Find out students' views about the ICT and LMS services in DLI.

4. Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study

- What is the students' perception about the activities of the help desk?
- How do DLI students view the counselling services available in DLI?
- What is the students' perception about the library services in DLI?
- What is the students' perception about the course materials available to students in DLI?
- How do students in DLI perceive the online learner support services available in DLI?
- What are students' views about the ICT and the LMS services in DLI?

5. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were raised and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

- There is no significant difference in the mean rating of male and female students on their perception of the learner support services available in DLI.
- There is no significant difference in the perception of the learner support services in DLI by the students based on year of study.

6. Methods

The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. Survey research design according to Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) focuses on people, their opinions, attitudes, motivation and behaviour. Hence, survey was adopted for this study because the researchers want to survey the students' opinions on their perception about the learner support services available for them. The population of the study comprised 10,889 (5329 males and 5,560 females) registered students for 2016/2017 academic session in the three Departments in the Institute. Proportionate stratified sampling method was employed to select 386 students for the study. To get a good representative of the population, the Taro Yamani formula for sample size selection was used to determine the sample size for the study. A total of 386 sample was determined for the study. The sample size was randomly selected from the population and a total of 189 female and 197 male learners were selected. A 35-item questionnaire titled Perception of Learner Support Services by Students (PLSSS) was designed and used for the study. The questionnaire had six clusters according the research questions raised. The instrument had a 4-point response scale of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree with the weights of 4,3,2,1 respectively. The instrument was validated by 2 experts from Guidance and Counselling in the University of Lagos. Their suggestions and corrections were used in modifying the questionnaire to suit the study. To determine the internal consistency of the instrument, Cronbach alpha method was used, a reliability coefficient of 0.78 was obtained. This was taken as high enough to consider the questionnaire reliable to be used for the study. A total of 386 questionnaire was administered, however only 368 that were returned and properly filled were used for analysis. Mean score and standard deviation (SD) were used to answer the research questions while the t-test was used to test the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of probability. The criterion mean for the study was set at 2.50, this means that any item with a mean score of 2.50 and above indicated agreement. A mean score below 2.50 indicated disagreement. In testing the hypotheses, t-test

statistical tool was employed, and a null hypothesis of no significance was accepted were t-calculated was less than t-critical of 1.96 at 0.05 level of significance but rejected where t-calculated was greater than the t-critical.

Research Question 1: What is the students' perception about the activities of the help desk?

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of Students' Perception of the Help Desk

S/N	Item	N	Mean	SD	decision
	The help desk is strategically located to attend to students' needs	368	3.51	1.81	Agree
2.	The help desk staff are very friendly and they attend to students promptly.	368	3.40	1.61	Agree
3.	Students' matters are professionally handled by the help desk staff.	368	3.17	1.55	Agree
4.	Staff members at the help desk are not friendly and they do not handle students' matters well.	368	1.08	1.11	Disagree
5.	The help desk does not delay students' matters, it needs to be improved on.	368	3.20	1.16	Agree
6.	The help desk serves no need for students.	368	1.12	1.01	Disagree

In Table 1, the result shows that items 1,2,3 and 5 had their mean value ranging from 3.17 to 3.51 which are higher than the criterion mean of 2,50. The four items also had Standard Deviation of 1.81, 1.61, 1.55 and 1.16 respectively. This indicates that the students agreed that the help desk is strategically located to attend to their needs, that the help desk staff are friendly and that they attend to students promptly and that students' matters are professionally handled. They equally agreed that the help desk does not delay students' matters. They however disagreed that staff members are not friendly with mean score of 1.08 and SD of 1.11 and that the help desk serves no need for the students with mean score of 1.01 and SD of 1.01. This is an indication that DLI students value the help desk and the services provided to them through the help desk.

Research Question 2: How do DLI students view the counselling services available in DLI?

Table 2: Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' view about the counselling services available in DLI

S/N	Item	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Decision
7.	The counselling services in DLI is good and help students in managing the challenges	368	3.41	1.16	Agree
8.	I am not aware that there is counselling service in DLI	368	1.80	1.11	Disagree
9.	I have never seen the counselling unit in DLI	368	2.13	1.12	Disagree
10.	The counselling centre should be publicized to attract more students.	368	2.94	1.08	Agree
11.	Counselling is not for Nigerians it is too foreign. I do not see its usefulness	368	2.51	1.17	Agree
12.	I am not satisfied with the activities of the counselling unit, it needs be improved on	368	2.47	1.18	Disagree

In Table 2, the result shows that items 7, 10, and 11 have mean scores ranging from2.51 to 3.41 which are higher than the criterion mean of 2.50. The three agreed items also has SD of 1.16, 1.08, and 1.17 respectively. This indicated that the respondents agreed that the counselling services in DLI are good in meeting the students' challenges, that the counselling centre should be publicized and that counselling is not for Nigerians. Items 8, 9 and 12 had mean scores ranging between between1.80 and 2.47 which is below the criterion mean, and SD of 1.11, 1.12 and 1.18. This shows that the respondents disagree that they are not aware of the counselling services in DLI and that they have never seen the counselling unit, and that they are not satisfied with the activities of the counselling unit. This goes to show that the students have favourable disposition towards the services of the counselling unit as an aspect of the whole learner support programme in DLI.

Research Question 3: What is the students' perception about the library services in DLI?
Table 3: Mean score and Standard Deviation of Students' Perception of Library Services

S/N	Item	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	decision
13.	The Library is modern and has enough current books for students	368	1.70	1.50	Disagree
14.	DLI Library is not well equip for ODL mode of learning	368	2.52	1.19	Agree
15.	DLI Library has enough open education are relevant for ODL students	368	2.74	1.13	Agree
16.	I can access the library from anywhere I am	368	1.26	1.68	Disagree
17.	The Library is conducive for learning	368	1.08	1.10	Disagree
18.	The Library staff are friendly are willing to assist students to get materials in the library	368	2.83	1.18	Agree
19.	I have never used the Library , so I don't know whether it has adequate services or not	368	2.61	1.15	Agree
20	I am allowed to borrow books from the Library for my studies.	368	2.71	1.31	Agree

In Table 3, the result shows that items 14, 15, 18, and 20 have mean scores ranging between 2.52 and 2.83 which are higher than the criterion mean of 2.50. The SD for the five items were 1.19. 1.13, 1.18, 1.15, 1.31 respectively. This shows that the respondents agreed that the library is not well equip for ODL mode of learning, that the library however have enough open education resource and that the library staff are friendly and willing to assist students to get materials in the library. On item 19, with a mean score of 2.61, the respondents agree that they have not used the library so that they cannot comment whether it has adequate services or not. This is understandable since their mode of learning is ODL, it is not compulsory that they would use the library in the Institute. There are other channels through which they can assess learning materials as ODL students without necessarily using the library in the Institute. Item 13 with mean score of 1.70 and SD of 1.50 shows that the respondents disagree that the library in the Institute is modern and had current books. Item 16 and 17 had mean score of 1.26 and 1.08 and SD of 1.26.and 1.10 respectively. This shows that the respondents disagreed that they can assess the library anywhere they are and that the library is conducive for learning.

Research Question 4: What is the Students' Perception about the Course Materials available in DLI?

Table 4: Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' Perception on Course Materials

S.N	Item	N	Mean	Standard deviation	decision
21.	Course materials are available for students in both soft copies and module copies.	368	1.43	1.55	Disagree
22.	DLI course materials are easy to read and learner friendly.	368	2.72	1.28	Agree
23.	The Course materials are rich enough, they cover the course content appropriately	368	1.69	1.43	Disagree
24.	Apart from the text form of the modules, I would like to have the audio copies.	368	2.85	1.11	Agree
25.	We need the video presentation of the module for easy understanding of the content.	368	2.96	1.10	Agree

In Table 4, the result shows that items 22.24 and 25 have mean scores 2.72 to 2.96 which are greater than the criterion mean. The SD for the items were 1.28, 1.11 and 1.10. This indicated that the respondents agreed that DLI course materials are easy to read and learner friendly, that they would like to have audio copies of the course materials and that they need video presentations of the course materials. While items 21 and 23 have mean scores of 1.69 and 1.43 respectively which are lower than the criterion mean of 2.50. This shows that the respondents disagreed that course materials are available for students in both soft copies and module format and that the course materials are rich enough and they cover the course content appropriately.

Research Question 5: How do Students in DLI perceive the Online Learner Support Services in DLI?

Table 5: Mean Score and Standard Deviation of Students' Views about the Online Learner support

S/N	Item	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Decision
26.	I am not aware that there is online learner support available for students in DLI.	368	2.71	1.28	Agree
27.	The online learner support service is good and students' queries are attended to properly.	368	1.18	1.71	Disagree
28.	Not all student matters can be handled using the online learner support	368	2.85	1.10	Agree
29.	The online learner support services should be improved on	368	3.05	1.25	Agree
30.	The DLI AIG blog should post more information on personal and social issues that bothers students	368	3.07	1.24	Agree

In Table 5, the result shows that items 26, 28, 29 and 30 had mean scores ranging between 2.71 and 3.07, which are greater than the criterion mean of 2.50. The items have SD of 1.28, 1.10, 1.25 and 1.24 respectively. This shows that the respondents agree that they are not aware that there is online learner support available for them, that not all students matter can be handled through online learner support, that the online support services should be improved on and that the DLI AIG blog should put more information bothering on personal and social issues concerning the students. Item 27 had a mean score of 1.18 ad a SD of 1.71, this indicates disagreement that the online support service is good and that students' queries are attended to properly using the online learner support service.

Research Question 6: What are students' views about the ICT and the LMS services in DLI?

Table 6: Students' Views about Internet and LMS

	ITEM	N	Mean	Standard deviation	**Decision**
31	The internet facilities in DLI is very good	368	2.86	1.10	Agree
32	I have issues with the LMS as it needs to be upgraded	368	2.66	1.14	Agree
33	The LMS is difficult to access	368	2.58	1.12	Agree
34	I prefer face-to-face teaching to the materials posted on the LMS	368	2.64	1.18	Agree
35	The LMS is not learner friendly	368	2.52	1.17	Agree

In Table 6, the result shows that items 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35 had mean scores ranging between 2.52 and 2.86, and standard deviation and SD of 1.10, 1.14, 1.12, 1.18 and 1.17 respectively. This indicates that the internet facilities in DLI is very good, however, the LMS needs to be upgraded, and that the LMS is difficult to access. Also the respondents agree that they prefer face-to-face teaching to the online mode of posting materials on the LMS and that the LMS is not learner friendly.

Test of Hypotheses

Table 7: The Test values for the differences in the perception of learner support services by students based on gender

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 Female Perception – Male Perception.	.45294	.59646	.04575	.36263	.54325	9.901	169	.000

T =9.901, p=.000 which is significant at 0.05 level of probability

Since p-value = 0.000 < 0.05 (the α value) therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected meaning that there is significant difference between the perception of learner support services by students based on gender.

Table 8: T-test values for the Differences in the Perception of the Learner Support Services in DLI by the Students based on the Year of Study.

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Std Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Yrs. 2and 3 – Yrs. 4 and 5.	.41176	.81470	.09880	.21456	.60896	4.168	169	.000

T =9.901, p=.000 which is significant at 0.05 level of probability

Since p-value = 0.000 < 0.05 (the α value) therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected meaning that significant difference occurred between the perception of learner support services by students in DLI by the students based on year of study.

7. Discussion

From Table 1, it is clear that students perceived that the help desk is strategically located and the staff are friendly to attend to the students. Learners agreed that their matters are handled professionally by the help desk staff. This corroborates the work by Adelowotan and Adewara (2009) who found out that students were satisfied with the support they received at their study centre. This also corroborates the work of Ukpo (2005) whose worh showed that students like the support they received from their tutors and study centre administrators.

Table 2 indicated that they are aware of counseling services in DLI which they found to be good and help students to manage their challenges. Table 3 also shows that the DLI library is not conducive for learning, the library cannot be accessed on-line and not well equipped with current books. However, they agreed that the library staff are friendly and books are easily borrowed. Table 4 shows that learners agreed that their course materials are easy to read and understand. They agreed that they will need the audio and video presentations of the modules. However, they perceived that the course materials are not readily available and does not cover all the course content. This calls for revision of the current course materials in use in the Institute. The major reason why the course materials need to be readily available is considering the fact that these students are ODL students who are supposed to study on their own majority of the time. This is therefore not in support of the work by Gbenoba and Dahunsi, (2014) who opines that the success of any ODL institution depends on the availability of learning materials in quality and quantity. Table 5 indicated that online learner support services is bad because students' queries and not attended to properly. From table 6, it was agreed by all students that the internet facility in the school is good but the L.M.S need to be upgraded because it is difficult to access. This is justifiable because learners are just learning to adapt to a new online mode of learning other than the traditional face-to-face learning they are used to. From the first hypotheses, the there is significant difference between the perception of learner support services by students based on gender. However, the study by Patrick and Ihejirika (2012) on NOUN students revealed no significant difference between the perceptions of learner support services provided based on gender. From the second hypothesis, it was evident that there is significant difference in the perception of learner support services provided in DLI by the students based on year of study. This result corroborates the findings of Chesto (2011) who also found significant influence of class level on students' perception and attitude towards counselling.

8. Recommendation

Generally, from the results of the study, it is recommended that:

- The Staff at the help desk need to be motivated more to continue in attending to the students promptly and to treat all students' matters with dispatch.
- The counselling centre should be publicized to attract more students. It should also hold regular online sensitization programmes for the

students through the Institute's websites and the LMS.

- The Learning Management System (LMS) in the Institute needs to be upgraded and the students given refresher lessons every session on how to access and use it.
- The DLI AIG blog should post information on personal and social issues bothering students.
- The library needs to be upgraded and equipped with state-of-the-art facilities and also e-journals, e-books and other Open Education Resources that would enable the students to benefit more from the library.
- The course materials should be improved on and should be produced in different varieties – audio, videos, and even on other devices that can enable students benefit maximally from the materials.

9. Conclusion

The study was conducted to ascertain students' perception of the learner support services available in Distance Learning Institute (DLI), University of Lagos. Learner support is a very vital and crucial aspect of open distance education. It needs to be constantly researched into to understand the best way to improve on it. This is to enable the Institute to serve the students better. From the present study, it can be concluded that the learner support services at DLI is good, however, there is still areas that need improvement. Areas such as provision of modern facilities and current books and journals in the library, improving on the course materials.

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Principals' Capacity Building Skills and Teachers' Job Performance in Senior Secondary Schools in Plateau State, Nigeria

TIMSON IFEANYI. I. NDUPUECHI
University of Jos, Nigeria

Abstract. The title of the paper is the relationship between the principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau state, Nigeria. The problem of abysmal students' academic performance in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations (SSCE) particularly in English and Mathematics in Plateau State, Nigeria, which has apparently been attributed to the principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance has been something of great concern to education stakeholders. The discouraging situation has deprived these students opportunity of getting admission into tertiary institutions. It is believed that if the situation is not checked the productive capability of youths will be negatively affected and national development retarded. The aim and objective of the paper was to find out the nature of principals' capacity building skills in relation to Teachers' job performance. *The research design adopted for the study was correlational type, since the aim of the study was to find out the relationship between dependent and independent variables*. The population of the study was made up of 303 principals and 870 teachers. A sample of 174 principals which represent 57% of the principals and 487 teachers representing 56% of the teachers were taken. The results of the study showed that principals have adequate capacity building skills. Some of the recommendations are that efforts should be made by the Nigerian governments (Federal and States) and other education stakeholders to make resources available to enable both Principals and Teachers attend more seminars, workshops and conferences. Also training and retraining of teachers should be encouraged. By these Principals and Teachers will be in tune with the dynamics and teaching strategies of the 21st century

Keywords: Principals' Capacity Building Skills, Teachers Job Performance and Secondary Schools

1. Introduction

Students' discouraging academic performance in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE) which apparently has been attributed to teachers' poor job performance and principals' capacity building skill is something of concern to most Nigerians and education stakeholders among others. Statistics have shown that in the recent years (2011-2015) students' academic achievement in (SSCE) conducted by the examination bodies- National Examinations Council (NECO) and the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) in Plateau State, Nigeria have been consistently low and declining. The failure rate (WAEC, 2015) ranges from 69% to 70% for English Language and 68% to 70% for Mathematics. These are core and compulsory subjects at the Senior Secondary School level.

The researcher noticed that the failure trend prompted the declaration of state of emergency on education by Plateau State government in 2009 to stem the tide. However, this appears not

to have yielded desired results as failure rate persists. Similarly, some Nigerians have blamed the school administrators (principals) and the teachers while some blamed the students themselves for the decline in academic performance. Whoever to be blamed, it is apparent that principal's capacity building skill has correlation with teachers' job performance and students' academic achievement (Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson & Wahistrom, 2004). *Principals are expected to encourage the training / re-training of teachers (capacity building) that is creating enabling environment for teachers to attend workshops, seminars, conferences and symposia. When teachers are trained and retrained it is expected that they will be in tune with the constantly changing curriculum and teaching methods. The knowledge and new skills acquired by teachers from the capacity buildings programs are expected to exert positive impact on their job performance. However, absence of capacity building programmes in senior secondary schools appeared to have denied the teachers the opportunity of being abreast with new issues and trends in education. This might have given rise to teachers' ineffectiveness.*

The aims and objective of this study are to find out the relationship between principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau state, find out the level of teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau State. The following research questions were answered in the course of the study, what is the level of principals' capacity building skills? and what is the level of teacher's job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau State? *T*he following hypothesis was formulated and tested to guide the study at 0.05 level of significance. There is no significant relationship between principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau State.

2. *Method*

The research design adopted was correlational type, since the aim of the study is to find out the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The population of the study is made up of all principals and teachers in public senior secondary schools in the five educational zones in Plateau State. There are 303 principals and 870 teachers in the zones. Table 1 depicts the distribution of the principals and teachers in the five educational zones, which form the clusters of the population.

Table 1: Population of the Study Based on Educational Zones in Plateau State

Zone	LGA	No of Schools	No of Principals	No of Teachers
One	Jos North, Jos South, Jos East	94	94	320
Two	Bassa, BarkinLadi, Riyom	41	41	118
Three	Mangu, Bokkos, Pankshin. Kanke	56	56	161
Four	Kanam, Wase, Langtang North, Langtang South	80	80	165
Five	Mikang, Shendam, Quanpan	32	32	106
	Total	**303**	**303**	**870**

For the sample of the study, two educational zones (One and Four) were selected to represent all the other Zones. Since the zones form the clusters of the population, all the 174principals' and the 487teachers in the two sampled zones were used for the study. This represents 57% and 56% of the population of principals and teachers in the state respectively. The justification for the use of this high percentage is because the study uses the descriptive survey research design

Table 2: Sample of the Study

Educational Zones	LGAs	No of Principals	Number of Teachers
One	Jos North, Jos South, Jos East	94	322
Four	Kanam, Wase, Langtang North, Langtang South	80	165
	Total	**174(57%)**	**487(56%)**

The population of the study is made up of clear and recognizable clusters, five educational zones. Hence the simple random sampling technique was used to select two educational zones from the five educational zones. Two research instruments were used to collect data for the study and these were Principals' Managerial Skills Questionnaire (PMS - Q) and the Teachers' Job Performance format (T.J.P). The direct method of data collection was used for the collection of data using the PCBS – Q and the *TJPF*. Research questions were answered using simple frequency counts and percentages. Hypotheses were tested using Chi – square test of independence at 0.05 level of significance.

3. Result

Research Question, what is the level of principals' capacity building skills? The result shows that all the five items have a mean of more than 2.5 (average mean) hence the principals have all the five capacity building skills.

Table 3: Principals' Capacity Building Skills

S/N	Items	Always	Often	Sometime	Rarely	Undecided	N	Mean	SD
1.	Principal recommends staff to attend seminars related to their job	17	129	17	17	-	174	2.80	0.70
2.	Principal encourages the funding of staff to attend workshops, seminars, symposia and conferences.	35	87	35	17	-	174	2.80	0.70
3.	Principal encourages staff to further their education.	52	52	53	17	-	174	2.80	0.57

The results also showed that the hypothesis was rejected since the χ^2 calculated (5.34) is greater than the χ^2 critical (3.22). This means that there is a significant relationship between principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance

4. Discussion

More than half 103 (59%) of the principals in senior secondary schools in Plateau State have moderate level capacity building skills. This means that more than half of the principals in Plateau State senior secondary schools possess moderate level capacity building skills while only 23% possesses low capacity building skills and 18%

5. Conclusion

The study was on the relationship between principals' Capacity Building skills and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau State. Prior to the study, the researcher observed the abysmal academic performance of senior secondary school students in Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE) conducted by West African Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examinations Council (NECO) in Plateau State. This apparently has been attributed to principals' Capacity Building skills and teachers' job performance and obviously something of concern to most Nigerians and education

stakeholders among others. The researcher noticed that the failure trend prompted the declaration of state of emergency on education by Plateau State government in 2009 to stem the tide. However, this appears not to have yielded desired results as failure rate persists.

Similarly, some Nigerians have blamed the school administrators (principals) and the teachers while some blamed the students themselves for the decline in academic performance.

Whoever to be blamed, it is apparent that principals' Capacity Building skills have correlation with teachers' job performance and students' academic achievement. The study showed that there was no significant relationship between principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance, (there is no significant relationship between principals' capacity building skills and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Plateau State) was rejected since the calculated value (5.34) is greater than the critical value (3.22).

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Will Organizational Variables Predict Secondary School Teachers' Job Involvement in Ogun State, Nigeria?

R. OLUGBENGA AZEEZ, SESAN O. MABEKOJE
TAFEEK O.JINMI, R. ALABA ADENUGA
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

Abstract. The present study examined organisational justice, organisational politics and organisational trust as predictors of job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State, Nigeria. Three were raised and answered in the study. Four hundred and fifty (450) teachers selected from public secondary schools through the use of proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques were administered with four standardized instruments: Job Involvement Questionnaire, Organizational Trust (OTQ), Organizational justice scale and Perceived Organizational Politics Scale**.** The data collected were analyzed using multiple regression analysis (MRA) and the result was tested for significance at 0.005 level. The results showed that the predictor variables jointly predicted the criterion variable. Results further showed that there was relative contribution of each independent variable to the prediction. Based on the findings, it was recommended that educational managers should take into consideration teachers' interests and capabilities while assigning courses to them, since teaching courses which is interesting to them is one of the issues that result in job involvement

Keywords: Organisational justice, Organisational politics, Organisational trust, Job involvement, Teachers.

1. Background to the Study

Globally, education has been widely recognized as one of the indicators of development. It is the main machinery for achieving the socialization or modification of the Homo sapiens. One of basic purposes of education is to produce trained and qualified manpower for the development of a given country. At the epicenter of the educational process, in the production of required manpower, lays the teachers. Teachers occupy a unique place and are the heart and soul of any educational institutions. They translate curricula, syllabi and policies to competencies and realities. Teachers are the second most important factor in the teaching and learning process aside the students. However, the status of the teachers overall, has diminished during the last few decades (Azeem 2010). This may be due to tapering commitment and involvement of teachers.

Based on their importance to teaching/learning processes, some levels of involvement and commitment are required from teachers. Being involved in one's job in the workplace - psychological, physically, intellectually and morally – has its effect on productivity. Job involvement has emerged as an important variable in organisational research and is gaining increasing research attention. Studies (Balachandran & Gowthami, 2016; Scott, 2004)

have shown that employees with high level of job involvement commit their time, energy and efforts to work which inevitably enhance productivity. Presumably/hypothetically, when involvement in one's profession is greater, competency might increase. Job involvement is job-related significant behaviour of an employee. It is the degree to which an individual is personally involved with his job - the extent to which the individual identifies himself or herself with the job.

Lodahl and Kejner introduced the concept in the 1960s and it has since been popularized and studied in organizational psychology and allied fields. Literature (for instance, Ishwara, 2010) revealed that job involvement is intimately tied up in the protestant work ethics, the moral character of work and a sense of personal responsibility. Anyone who has internalized these traditional values will probably be involved regardless of the situational context within which he might be employed. It is the psychological identification of an individual with the work which influences his/her workplace behaviour - psychologically identification with one's job, and the importance of the job to self-image and self-concept job involvement (Shaffer, Joplin, & Hsu, 2011). It is one of the most successful Human Resources practices used for enhancing employee efficiency and performance (Rizman, 2011) and has been observed as motivation to carry out work, highly compatible between personal and organizational goals, which stimulate motivation among employees to generate positive work outcomes (Rehman, 2011).

A number of variables may engender employees' job involvement. These include, but not limited to, social support, leader-member-exchange, motivation, and promotions. This study is however, interested in three organization-based factors (justice, politics and trust) as they could facilitate teachers' job involvement. Justice naturally connotes fairness, fair-play and equity. The term *justice* connotes how things ought to be. Justice is then expected to be seen in the workplace. The roles of justice in the human's social and organizational life cannot be overemphasized. Moazzezi, Sattari and Bablan (2014) posited that organizations mirror the society and that the establishment of justice in them is as good as the establishment of justice in the society at large – hence the need for organizational justice. Organizational justice has been widely studied in the fields of management, psychology and organizational behaviour (Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005). It is the extent to which employees consider workplace measures, relations and outcome to be fair in nature – it is a critical resource in the workplace critical resource (Loi, Ngo & Foley, 2006)

Organizational justice has been found to relate to emotional reactions (Weiss, Suckow & Cropanzano 1999), play an important role in the health and well-being of employees (Brockner & Wiesenfeld 2002), associated with job dissatisfaction, retaliation, workplace aggression, lower work commitment and withdrawal, seen as a moral duty (Folger & Glerum 2015), have a positive relationship with productivity and professional performance (Moazzezi, Sattari & Bablan, 2014), have relationship with variables such as professional satisfaction (Mugane, 2016), professional commitment and function (Ajala 2015; Colquitt *et al.,* 2001). Literature (Richards, Hof & Alvareng 2000; Räikkonen, Matthews , Flory , Owens & Gump 2009) has also suggested that factors associated with justice perceptions, such as discrimination may influence susceptibility to illness, such as elevated unfavorable serum lipids and negative feelings. Essentially, organizational justice should be underscored in the workplace to foster employees' job involvement.

The multi-layered nature of organisations introduces lots of dimensions to workers' interactions. Such interactions might breed cliques, cohorts and territories – which inadvertently introduces politics into the workplace. Because organizations are made up of individuals with different beliefs system, ethos, values, ideas, and attitudes, their interpretation of events are influenced by what they believe rather than realities. These differences become the yardstick for subjective interpretation associated with organizational events like politics (Delle, 2013; Silvester,

2008). The social nature of humans and freedom to associate creates political climate whether at the family, school or organisations. Like the bigger social milieu, politics is rife in organisations. Molm, (2007) sees organizations as social entities that are laden with struggle for resources, interpersonal conflicts, and a variety of strategies employed by individuals and groups within human organisations for personal benefits, needs and goals. The scrabbling for the, assumable, limited resources brings about organizational politics. Studies have argued that politics is rife in all human organizations and as such deserves more attention and empirical examination (Gandz & Murray, 2000; Mayes & Allen, 2007; Mintzberg, 2003; Pfeffer, 2002).

Organizational politics is the use of power to affect decision making process - when individuals have divergent views about how resources are to be used and mobilized. Organizational politics involves behavior strategically designed to maximize self-interests (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989) - that is, employing a constellation of forces by an individual or a group to gain advantage over others. This may however contradicts the collective organizational goals or the interests of other individuals. McAfee & Champagne (2007) averred that it involves those activities undertaken within organizations to acquire, develop and use power and other resources to obtain one's preferred outcomes in a situation where there is uncertainty or disagreement. Understanding organizational politics, therefore, is crucial for a better understanding of organizations because it often interferes with normal organizational processes (decision making, promotion, and rewards) and damages productivity and performance on individual and organizational levels

Empirical literature has established a negative relationship between organizational politics and job attitudes or stress-related responses (Drory, 2003; Ferris, Frink, Galang, Zhou, Kacmar, & Howard, 2006); organizational politics enhanced withdrawal behaviors and turnover intentions (Bozeman *et al.*, 2006; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 2007); organizational politics is associated with turnover intentions (Miller, Rutherford & Kolodinsky, 2008; Rozhan, 2008); negative relationship between organizational politics and work outcomes such as direct negligent behavior and actual job performance has potential for stress and naturally creates an unpalatable atmosphere for people to work (Delle, 2013), perceived higher politics in the organization has less support for innovation (Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995; Thiphaphongphakaphun, 2012), it increased in job anxiety, decreased in job satisfaction and withdrawal from organization, (Ferris, Harrell-Cook & Dulebohn, 2000), increased job stress (Azeem, Mahmood, & Haq, 2010).

Kacmar & Carlson (1997) identified three factors of the perceptions of organizational politics conceptual, namely (a) General political behavior (GPB). This is included the act in the manner of self-serving in order to achieve the goals of individuals; (b) Go along to get ahead (GAGA) -this has to do with lack of the interest and the silent action or inaction shown by the individuals in order to secure the one's best interest (Byrne (2005); and (c) Pay and promotion policies (PPP) - this involves politics in the organization promotion policies (Poon, 2004). The three dimensions individually and jointly affect job involvement.

Human interactions could be weakened or strengthened by basic trust exhibited by members of the community. The presence of trust is crucial to all human institutions. Trust then becomes the anchor sheet on which further interactions among people are built. One other predictor variable of interest is organizational trust. Employees naturally would like to work in an environment of trust and respect; an environment where they feel their contribution to organizational goals and objectives are appreciated. They want have the opportunity to show management that they can accomplish a task with the creativity obtained from working in teams. Literature reviewed has shown that trust and job satisfaction are essential elements to an organizations success. Cook and Wall (2000) submitted that trust is a highly important ingredient among individuals and groups within organizations and may engender the long-term

stability of the organization and the wellbeing of its members.

An organizational climate of trust enables employees to present their ideas and feelings, use each other as resources, and learn together. Without trust people have a tendency to keep to themselves, rather than share their thoughts, which inhibits creativity (Jordan, 2009). Trust may build assurance among team members. However, many employees have been found to hold increasingly negative views of their organizations (Perry & Mankin, 2007). This may be due to trust-related issues. It has been observed that four in five employees are suspicious of management (Lazarus & Salem, 2005). Building Organizational trust becomes imperative. Organizational trust deals with employee's feeling of confidence that the organization will perform actions that are beneficial or at least not detrimental, to him or her (Tan & Tan, 2000). Farhangian, (2016) reported significant and positive effect between Organizational Commitment and Trust on Job Involvement of employees. Also Sibamba (2017) reported that job satisfaction was related to trust in organisations.

Organizational trust is multidimensional. The Mishra Model for Organizational Trust (1996) identified four dimensions of organizational trust - competence, openness and honesty, concern for employees, and reliability. A new factor (identification) had been recently added (Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis & Winograd, 2000). Competence has to with perception that assumes the effectiveness not only of the leadership, but also of the organization's ability to survive in the marketplace; openness and honesty is most frequently referred to when speaking in respect to organizational trust, involves the amount and accuracy of information shared, as well as the way in which it was communicated; concern for employees pertains to the efforts by others to understand the feelings of caring, empathy, tolerance, and safety when in business activities; and reliability deals with the issue of counting on co-worker, team, supplier, or organization to do what they say (Shockley- Zalabak, et.al, 2000). The final dimension is –identification - measures the extent to which we hold in common goals, norms, values, and beliefs associated with our organization's culture. This dimension indicates how connected workers feel to management and to our co-workers (Shockley-Zalabak et al 1999).

Despite the value of job involvement to individual and organizational survival it has been observed that employees' involvement is dwindling by the day. Literature has shown that employee involvement is on decline and there is a deep lack in involvement among employees today (Richman, 2006), half of all Americans in the workforce are not fully involved or they are disengaged, thus creating "involvement gap" (Bates, 2004; Johnson, 2004; Kowalski, 2003), involving employees is considered to be one of the most challenging tasks Management now faces (Aleinein, 2016). While western organizational literature has numerous studies relating to the organizational variables in this study, empirical evidence from Nigeria is dearth or non-existent, especially combining them in a study. This and some reported inconsistent findings in relations to the variables are the drive for the present study. The study is aimed at achieving the following objective is to detemine: (i). the extent to which the independent variable (organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust) can influence the criterion variable (job involvement). (ii) if there is any relationship among organisational justice, organisational politics, organisational trust and job involvement).

2. Research Questions

Three research questions were raised to guide this study:

- Will the predictor variables (organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust), when combined, significantly contribute to the prediction of criterion (job involvement) of participants?
- What is the relative contribution of each predictor variable to the criterion?
- Is there is any significant relationship among organisational justice, organisational politics, organisational and job involvement of participants?

3. Method

3.1 Research Design and Participants

This adopted the descriptive research design of the ex- post facto type because there was no manipulation of any of the variables. Four hundred and fifty (450) public secondary school teachers selected through the use of proportional stratified and simple random sampling techniques from public Secondary School in Ogun State Nigeria participated in the study. The sampling adopted a multistage approach - first stage of stratification was represented by the three Senatorial Districts (Ogun Central, Ogun East and Ogun West), second stage was to randomly select six (6) public secondary schools from each of the Senatorial District and the last stage involved randomly selecting twenty five (25) teachers from each of the selected schools.

3.2 Measures

Four standardized instruments were used in collecting data and analysis for this study.

Organizational Justice: Two questionnaires developed by Price & Mueller (1986) and Niehoff, & Moorman (1993) were used to measure 2 dimensions of organizational justice which are: Distributive justice and Procedural justice. Distributive justice is a five-item scale measures the degree to which rewards received by employees are perceived to be related to performance inputs. The scale reported Chronbach alpha reliability of .90 while procedural justice was measured using 15 items developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993). The scale consists of two factors: systematic and informational justice, that are consistent with taxonomy of procedural justice. It has reliability coefficient of .90. Job involvement was measured with the 10-item Job Involvement Scale developed by Kanungo, 1982. This scale measures the degree of psychological importance of one's job using a five-point Likert scale. The reliability coefficient reported by author was .86. Organizational Trust Questionairre (OTQ)**,** developed by Paliszkiewicz (2010) is a 15 items scale that was used to measure organizational trust among all levels of management. The scale was measure on a 5 point Likert-type scale representing strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, neither agree nor disagree = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1.The internal reliability alpha coefficient was .86. Perceived Organizational Politics Scale was (POPS: Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). The 15-item scale is scored on a 5-point Likert type rating. The internal consistency estimate was found to be .87 (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001).

3.3 Data Analysis

The researchers personally administered the instruments with two other research assistants and all the questionnaires were collected immediately. Data resulting from the instruments were analyzed using Multiple Regression Analysis, with significant level fixed at 0.05.

4. Results

Table1: Coefficients and model summary for the organisational justice, organisational politics and organisational trust on job involvement of secondary school teachers

Coefficients (a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	50.461	2.134		23.646	.000
Organisational Justice	-.161	.028	-.330	-5.759	.000
Organisational Trust	-.125	.029	-.226	-4.258	.000
Organisational Politics	.277	.053	.298	5.271	.000

Model summary R^2 = .148; R^2 (adj) = .142; $F_{(3,417)}$ = 24.100; p<.001

a. Dependent Variable: job involvement

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational politics, Organisational trust, Organisational justice

The table 1 (Model Summary) shows that there exist positive and significant relationship between the combined predicting variables (organisational politics, organisational trust, and organisational justice) and the dependent variable (job involvement). The value of the coefficient of determination (R = .384; R^2 = .148 $F_{(3,420)}$ =24.100; P< .05) implies that organisational politics, organisational trust, and organisational justice contribute about 14.8% to job involvement of secondary school teacher in Ogun State. By the results the research question one was answered in the affirmative because the predictors contributed to the criterion.

In terms of relative contributions of each predictor, the results above further showed that the independent variables (organisational justice, organisational politics and organisational trust) made significant relative contribution to the prediction of job involvement of secondary school teachers. Organizational justice made the highest contribution (B= -.330; t= -5.759; P<.05) follow by organizational politics (B= .298; t= 5.271; P<.05) and lastly by organizational trust (B= -.226; t= -4.258; P<.05). This implies that job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State to a large extent depends on (organizational justice) the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedures, interactions and outcomes to be fair in nature

Table 2: Model Summary of the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for combined contribution of organisational politics, organisational trust, and organisational justice on job involvement of secondary school teachers

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.269[a]	.073	.070	5.45381	.073	32.780	1	419	.000[a]
2	.333[b]	.111	.106	5.34686	.038	17.931	1	418	.000[b]
3	.384[c]	.148	.142	5.24053	.037	18.133	1	417	.000[c]

Predictors: (Constant), Organisational justice
Predictors: (Constant), Organisational justice, Organisational politics
Predictors: (Constant), Organisational justice, Organisational politics, Organisational trust

The results in Table 2 above indicated that when organizational justice was entered into the regression model as the first predictor variable based on the strength of its relationship with job involvement, there was a significant contribution to the prediction of job involvement (R = .269; R^2 =.073; Adj R^2 = .070; $F_{(1, 419)}$ = 32.780; p < .05). By this, organizational justice alone accounted for 7.3 percent of the variance in job involvement. When organizational politics was introduced into the regression model as the second predictor variable, together with organizational justice, it revealed a significant effect on job involvement (R = .333; R^2 = .111; Adj R^2 = .106 $F_{(1, 418)}$ = 17.931; p< .05). This revealed that organizational justice and organizational politics together predicted 11.1% of the job involvement. In effect, organizational politics was able to add about 3.8 percent to the prediction of job involvement of secondary school teachers. When organizational trust was finally introduced into the regression model as the third predictor variable, together with organizational justice and organizational politics, it revealed a significant effect on job involvement (R = .384; R^2 = .148; $F_{(1,417)}$ = 18.133; p<.05). This revealed that organisational justice, organisational politics and organisational trust together predicted 14.8 % of the job involvement. In effect, organizational trust was able to contribute about 3.7% to the prediction of job involvement.

***Table 3*: Correlation matrix of the relationship among study variables**

	job involvement	organisational justice	organisational trust	organisational politics
job involvement	1			
Organisational justice	-.269**	1		
Organisational trust	-.247**	.474**	1	
Organisational politics	.010	.562**	.454**	1

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

The results in table 3 above revealed that there was negative relationship between job involvement and organizational justice ($r_{(421)} = -.269$; $p<0.01$), job involvement and organizational trust ($r_{(421)} =-.247$; $P< .01$), and there was positive relationship between job involvement and organizational politics ($r_{(421)} =.010$; $P< .01$), organizational justice and organizational trust ($r_{(421)} =.474$; $P< .01$), organizational justice and organizational politics ($r_{(421)} =.562$; $P< .01$), organizational trust and organizational politics($r_{(421)} =.454$; $P< .01$). This implies that the this research question seeking significant relationship among organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust in the prediction of job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State Nigeria is answered in the affirmative.

5. Discussions

This study investigated the predictive power of organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust of job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State Nigeria. The result showed that there was significant combined contribution of organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust to the prediction of job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State Nigeria. The result further revealed that there exist positive and significant relative contributions of the predicting variables (organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust) to the dependent variable (job involvement of secondary school teacher). The value of the coefficient of determination shows that the predictors contributed about 14.8% to job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State.

The findings of this study corroborate earlier findings, which revealed that job involvement as an important association between justice perceptions and job satisfaction (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009; Fatt, Khin, & Heng, 2010; Malik & Naeem, 2011; Nojani, Arjmandnia, Afrooz & Rajabi, 2012; Zamani, 2014); job involvement contains work values and work attitudes, which are often affected by individual factors and that job involvement is an attitude which will be induced by working situation (Chang, 2010; Hsu, Su, & Huang, 2012), significant positive relationship between organizational politics and job involvement because employees try to escape the politics by burying themselves into work (Ferris & Kacmar, 2002) however a meta-analytic report found no significant relationship between politics and job involvement (Brown & Leigh1996). The findings of the study also aligned with others of the role of organizational trust on job involvement. Bakiev (2013) established that there was a positive and significant relationship between organizational trust and job involvement. The results of the studies showed that interpersonal trust in employees and creating trustful climate led into high level of job involvement and performance improvement. This aligned with Sharma and Yadav's (2018) work that found a strong and positive relationship among organizational justice, trust, and work engagement.

The results showed that the independent variables (organisational justice, organisational politics, and organisational trust) made significant relative contribution to the job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State Nigeria. Organizational justice made the highest contribution follow by organizational politics and lastly by organizational trust. This implies that job involvement of secondary school teachers in Ogun State to a large extent depends on (organizational justice) this presupposes the extent to which employees perceive workplace procedures, interactions and outcomes to be fair in nature.

A large body of literature has supported the idea that pay level, pay rules and task-distribution (forms of distributive justice) were positively correlated with job involvement while pay rules distributing tasks (forms of distributive justice) and rule administration (a form of procedural justice) were positively associated with job satisfaction (Farahbod, Azadehdel, & Jirdehi, 2013; Rhodes, Susan & Steers, 2001; Soleimani, Ahmadi, & Khodayari, 2013;). In fact, Mohamed (2014) reported that equity perception, resulting from justice components, leads to increased attitudinal commitment,

decreased job search and quality performance. Perception of employees that they are fairly treated could lead to identification and involvement with the organization. The results of this study are in line with the findings reported by Roberat et al., (2009) as well as Livingstone et al., (2005) and Ebeh, Njoku, Ikpeazu and Nwiana-Ana (2017) who reported that there is significant positive relationship between organizational justice and job involvement, they further reveal that perception of fairness in awarding promotions as a measure of internal equity most significantly predicted higher levels of job involvement and lower likelihood of employees turnover.

The study showed a relationship between organizational politics and job involvement. Organisational politics is the second potent predictors of the interdependent variable. While some studies have found positive correlation between organisational politics and job involvement; organisational politics and job satisfaction (Julius, Ojiabo & Alagah, 2017) majority of the literature reviewed established negative relation between the predictor and criterion variable. For instance, organisational politics has been found affecting job burnout (Vigoda-Godat & Talmud, 2010), turnover, neglect, loyalty, absenteeism and job satisfaction (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007), counterproductive work behaviors (Rosen, 2006), antisocial behavior (Bodla & Danish, 2013), politics behavior was a negative significant predictor of job involvement (Atta, & Khan, 2016).

Organisational trust was also found to predict orgainsational involvement. Trust could have a positive effect on social capital in general. Since job Involvement is the degree to which employees submerse themselves in their jobs, devote time and energy in them, and consider work as a central part of their overall lives (Sethi & Mittal, 2016), an environment of trust is needed. Trust has been found to strengthening citizen action, willingness to share information, commitment and welfare in the workplace and in general can lead to innovate, collaborate, exchange ideas and knowledge (Yilmaz, (2006), caused improvement and retention of employees by fostering communication and cooperation between employees and managers and by promoting teams efficiency (Saad, & Abd rabou, 2016)

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

Today, public education is considered as one of the elements of sustainable development, and in most of the countries, a great portion of general budgets is allocated to its promotion, improvement and efficiency. Teacher is the most important person for the all-round development of students. Therefore job involvement of the teacher is an important factor for classroom effectiveness and also school improvement. This study has found that job involvement of teachers is a necessary trait which helps to increase the overall performance of teachers and consequently students. Teacher's level of job involvement determines the effective transmission his knowledge and skills to the students in the classroom. Hence to improve the teachers' job involvement, measures to be taken to improve their level of organizational justice in relation to salary raise, fringe benefits, incentives, salary, recognition and promotion. There should be fairness in awarding promotions as a measure of internal equity. This study revealed that organizational justice, organizational trust and organizational politics have a significant influence on some work-related attitudes. Evidence from this study suggests that, organizational justice, organizational trust and organizational politics have a significant and positive impact of job involvement. This means, ministry of education and other stakeholders in education industries need to combine effort to work on organizational related attitudes (politics, trust and justice) in other to enhance high level of job involvement from the teachers.

Teachers are one of the most important factors affecting the educational advancement of students, and the important factor which influences the teacher's behavior is job involvement. In order to increase the level of job involvement we need to have a realistic and all-embracing approach to its determinants. Among the different viewpoints, the most realistic one is that job involvement is a function of

organizational climate. In other words, involving teachers in their jobs requires a favorable organizational climate which could encourage teachers to do their job.

Based on the result of the analysis of this study the following recommendations were made:

The school managers should take into account teachers' interests and capabilities while assigning courses to them, since teaching courses which is interesting to them is one of the ways resulting in job involvement. The government at federal, state and local levels should try in various ways to create an intimate and sincere environment in schools, and in this way, reinforce openness, honesty, mutual trust, and in turn, job involvement. For this purpose, direct confrontation, direct conversation with teachers should be on the agenda of principals and officials.

The educational managers and officials must avoid making promises which they cannot fulfill, since failure to fulfill their obligations will result in increasing distrust and insincerity in schools, and in turn, will decrease job involvement among teachers. Creating competence-based trust in the staff is considered as a gradual process. The principals and officials should assign teachers the teaching of courses which they can handle properly and do not need to resort to lies to make their work seem good. Particularly, the new teachers need to be assigned courses which they can teach properly and correctly, so the habit of becoming successful will be reinforced in them.

Competence-based trust greatly affects the job involvement among teachers. Holding different meetings for educational planning or for resolving school problems can boost teachers' spirit in schools and get them involved in their job. The officials of Education Department need to create equal opportunities for development and growth of teachers. Equitable distribution of information and resources in schools, clear dissemination of information and access to reliable information will lead to increased teachers 'trust and in turn, increased job involvement among them. Formulating suitable reward system for employees to creative beliefs and ideas based on their performance and formulating the rules to support the views of employees and encouraging the employees to present creative ideas. Fairness in awarding promotions as a measure of internal equity most be encouraged.

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Part Four
Educational Administration

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Principals' Administrative Strategies for School Effectiveness in Secondary Schools in Yobe State

UMAR GARBA
Yobe State University, Damaturu, Nigeria

Abstract. This study examined principals' administrative strategies for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State. Specifically, the study investigated the opinions of teachers on principals' administrative strategies for school effectiveness. Three research questions guided the study. This study adopted a descriptive survey research design. The population of the study consisted of teachers in all secondary schools in Yobe State. The sample consisted of three hundred and eighty-eight (388) teachers. The instrument used for the study was questionnaire titled: Principals' Administrative Strategies for School Effectiveness in Secondary Schools (PASSE). Frequency count and percentages were used in analyzing the collected data. The findings of the study revealed that instructional supervision by principals were not carried out fairly; principals' leadership style were more of autocratic and laissez-faire which could affect the school effectiveness among others. Based on the findings, it was recommended among others, that principals should adopt suitable leadership style that could promote school effectiveness.

Keywords: Principal, Administrative, Strategies, School, Effectiveness

1. Introduction

Education is widely believed as the biggest instrument for economic progress, human development, political survival and effective national development of any country. It could be considered as the single largest enterprise in any country of the world which kNigeria is not an exception. Therefore, it is through the education system that the citizens or rather the members of the society are taught the expected behaviour of the society. It is also a means by which individuals acquires socially acceptable vocational skills with which one can be useful member of the society.

It can be recalled that Nigeria has witnessed series of changes in the administration and management of its educational system. First of all, it was started by the missionaries and with the independence in 1960, it was realised that the type of missionary education was deficient and inadequate to meet the yearning and aspirations of our societal needs. This prompted the government's interest to get fully involved in the administration and management of the education industry (Nwankwo 1981 cited in Yabo, 2007).

The secondary education has occupied an important position in the national education system. Because it is that sector of education that usually comes immediately after primary education and also comes before tertiary education. Principal is the professional and administrative head of the school. He plans, organizes, directs and coordinates all the affairs of teaching and non-teaching staff and students. He assigns responsibilities to teachers and supervises them so that the school objectives can be efficiently and effectively achieved.

The school principal is the one who interpret policy, executes curriculum programmes. He is responsible for the students' welfare, physical facilities, equipment, financial administration and he should ensure and maintain effective school-community relationship. Therefore, for him to achieve his predetermined school objectives, he needs to possess certain administrative skills such as instructional programming, staff personnel administration, student personnel administration, financial and physical resources and school-community relations.

There is a number of administrative strategies which in one way or the other can assist the principal in discharging out his daily activities. Failure to take into cognizance may likely to encounter problems in the administration of his school. Hornby (2010) defined administration as the activities that are done in order to plan, organize and run a business school or other institution. Another definition of administration as described by Nwankwo, (1987) viewed it as the careful and systematic arrangement and use of human and material resources, situations and opportunities for achievement of specific objectives.

Therefore, from the above definition of Administration, it could be viewed as a process of dealing with human and material resources in order to achieve the predetermined school objectives.
Administrative strategy is concerned with the way and manner in which an organisation is shaping in the right direction towards the achievement of its goal. The administrative strategies include planning strategy, personnel strategy, coordinating strategy and so on. These administrative strategies are important for school effectiveness in secondary schools.

School effectiveness is viewed as the ability to plan, organize and coordinate many and often conflicting social energies in a school system. It can also be seen as the school effort to make changes toward improving the students' level of achievement.

The principal occupies the administrative and managerial position in the secondary school. Adasalegbe, (1971) viewed that the principal as an administrative head, a manager, a community public relations man, a supervisor, an instructional leader, a curriculum innovator and a catalyst towards planned revolution. Iheukwumere,, (2006) was of the view that students' performance, teachers' achievement and school effectiveness all depend on the quality of the principals in the school. Ezeocha, (1985) believed that next in importance to the quality of teaching service is the quality of administrative strategies executed in the school by the principals.

The principals' administrative strategies refer to the ability of the school principal to effectively carry out administrative task related to instructional programming, staff personnel administration, physical resources and school-community relations towards achieving the school goals and objectives.

2. Statement of the Problem

Secondary education is the type of education that prepares youths to higher education. In order to realize this, there is need to provide or rather adopt an appropriate administrative strategies by the principals. Recent visitation by the researcher to some secondary schools in the state revealed that there is poor principals' administrative strategies which led to poor school climate. This can be seen in some areas such as, inadequate facilities, poor instructional supervision, poor planning, poor principal leadership style and the like. Thus, there is a dire need to assess principals' administrative strategies for effective service delivery. Therefore, it is believed that the success f a principal largely depends on his ability to carry out his roles and make effective use of his administrative skills (Eniola, 2006). This study, therefore, set out to do this, taking into consideration on the secondary schools in Yobe State.

3. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are to:

- Find out principals' instructional supervision for school effectiveness in Yobe state secondary schools.
- Ascertain principals' leadership styles for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools.
- Identify principals' communication strategies for school effectiveness in Yobe state secondary schools.

4. Research Questions

- What are the principals' instructional supervision for school effectiveness in Yobe state secondary schools?
- What are the principals' leadership styles for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools?
- What are the principals' communication strategies for school effectiveness in Yobe state secondary schools?

5. Methodology

5.1 Research Method

The study adopted descriptive survey design. The population of the study comprised all the teachers of secondary schools in the three educational zones in Yobe state. Simple random sampling technique was adopted in selecting teachers in the secondary schools from the three educational zones.

5.2 Instrumentation

A structured questionnaire was developed by the researcher titled: Principals' Administrative Strategies for School Effectiveness (PASSE). The questionnaire was designed to collect data and responses from the Principals as regard to their administrative strategies for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State.

5.3 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

In this study, content validity method was use for verification of the questionnaire items. The instrument for this study was validated by experts in education department of Yobe State University, Damaturu.

5.4 Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

The data on Principals' Administrative strategies for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State were collected, tabulated, coded and analyzed using statistical tools of frequency distribution count and percentage.

6. Result and Discussion

Research Question 1: What are the Principals' instructional supervision for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State?

Table 1 Responses of teachers on Principals' instructional supervision for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State.

S/N	Item Statements	SA		A		U		D		SD		Total
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	%
1.	The school principal supervises teachers frequently during the cause of instruction.	24	6.2	26	6.7	49	12.6	179	46.1	110	88.4	388	100
2.	Teachers are satisfied with the principal's instructional supervision.	8	2.0	24	6.3	26	6.7	194	49.9	136	35.0	388	100
3.	Principal's instructional supervision looks at the negative and good work of the teachers.	184	47.4	92	23.7	50	13.0	44	11.0	18	4.6	388	100

4.	Principal carries our instructional supervision fairly.	197	50.8	125	32.2	8	2.1	24	6.2	34	8.8	388	100		
5.	Principal's instructional supervision makes the school to achieve its goals and objectives.	184	47.4	92	23.7	50	13.0	44	11.0	18	4.6	388	100		

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher (2018)*

Table 1.1 above is the frequency distribution of responses by teachers on principals' instructional supervision for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe State. The result from the responses indicated that item 1, majority of the respondents indicated that lack of frequent supervision by the principals during the course of instruction as represented by (46.1%) of the respondents that show negative answer. This indicated that principals do not supervise teachers frequently during the cause of instruction. This can affect the principals' administrative strategies for school effectiveness.

Item 2 was whether teachers are satisfied with principals' instructional supervision. The responses indicated that majority of the respondents disagreed with the statement which represents 49.9%. This indicated that teachers are not satisfied with the way and manner with the principals' instructional supervision.

Opinion of respondents on whether principals look at instructional supervision at the negative and good work of the teachers, 47.41% agreed on the statement.
On whether principals carry out instructional supervision fairly, 50.8% agreed.
The stance taken by most respondents showed that principals' instructional supervision make the school to achieve its goals and objectives. This was supported by 47.4%.

Research Question 2: What are the principals' leadership styles for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools?

Table 2: Responses of teachers on principals' leadership styles for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools.

S/N	**Item Statements**	**SA**		**A**		**U**		**D**		**SD**		**Total**		
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%			%
1.	Principals involve Teachers in decision-making process.	94	24.3	84	21.7	24	6.2	127	32.7	59	15.1	388	100	
2.	Principal gives teachers complete freedom to solve problems on their own.	207	52.0	102	25.8	18	4.2	34	8.3	28	6.7	388	100	
3.	Principal does not Encourage input by teachers.	59	15.1	127	23.7	24	6.2	84	21.7	94	24.3	388	100	
4.	Principal allows Teachers to take decision and he only moderate.	191	49.1	73	18.7	49	12.5	51	13.0	26	6.7	388	100	
5.	Principal has a good rapport with his teachers and students.	166	42.3	70	17.5	18	4.2	109	27.7	26	6.2	388	100	

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher (2018)*

As to whether or not principals involve teachers in decision-making process, 32.7% disagreed, while 24.3% strongly agreed. As to whether principals give teachers complete freedom to solve problems on their own can be described 52.0% strongly agreed while 8.3% disagreed with the statement. However, 32.7% agreed that principals do not encourage input by teachers. Only 21.7% disagreed with the statement.

49.1% of the respondents strongly agreed that principals allow teachers to take decision and he only moderate. This showed that the leadership style of the principals indicated "I don't care attitude" which would not urger well for effective school administration.

Item five on table 2 was on whether principal has a good rapport with his teachers and students. The responses indicated that majority of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement. This is a good development, because it can lead to effective school administration.

Research Question 3: What are the principals' communication strategies for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools?

Table 3: Responses of teachers on principals' communication strategies for school effectiveness in Yobe State secondary schools.

S/N	Item Statements	SA		A		U		D		SD		Total	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%		%
1.	There is an open door policy that encourages teachers to walk in and talk to principals on issues related to school.	76	19.6	223	57.5	40	10.4	40	10.4	49	12.5	388	100
2.	There is effective Communication between Principal and teachers.	67	17.1	77	19.8	58	15.0	75	19.3	111	28.3	388	100
3.	Principal keeps teachers informed about important school matters.	41	10.5	119	30.7	34	8.8	133	34.1	61	15.8	388	100
4.	Principal uses multiple channels of communication in the school.	102	26.3	167	43.1	0	0	86	22.2	33	8.4	388	100
5.	Principal tries to eliminate or reduce all the communication barriers within the school.	34	8.8	70	18.0	26	6.7	150	38.3	108	27.8	388	100

Source: *Field Survey by the Researcher (2018)*

Table 3 indicated that three of the statement were agreed (statements 1, 3 and 4) which showed that teachers were not encouraged with the nature of communication, that is to say there is no open door policy by Principals on issues related to the school. Also Principals not keep teachers informed about important school matters and Principals does not use multiple channels of communication in the school.

Response rate as presented in table 4 item 2 showed that majority of the respondents representing 28.8% strongly disagreed to the assertion that there is ineffective communication between Principal and teachers. In the same vein majority of the respondents were disagreed with the assertion that Principals try to eliminate or reduce all the communication barriers within the schools representing 38.3%.

The findings of this study is in collaboration with Mgbodile, (2000) who revealed that for

school administration to be effective, principals must possess certain administrative strategies which include leadership competencies, supervisory skills and effective communication.

7. Conclusion

This study was an attempt to examine the principals' administrative strategies for school effectiveness in secondary schools in Yobe state. In view of this, the paper looked at some of the administrative strategies such as instructional supervision, leadership styles and effective communication. Based on the findings of this paper, which indicated that principals' leadership style were more of autocratic and laissez-faire in the administration of the school. The paper recommended among others that principals should adopt suitable leadership style that could promote school effectiveness.

8. Recommendations

Based on the findings from this study, the following recommendations were made:

i. Principals should make it as a duty bound to supervise teachers during the course of instruction so as to enhance teaching and learning;
ii. Principals should adopt suitable leadership styles that could promote school effectiveness;
iii. Principals should ensure that there is good flow of communication in the school for effective teaching and learning and
iv. There should be training of all school principals in form of workshops, seminars and conferences on issues of administrative skills in order to enhance school effectiveness.

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Adequacy of Monitoring and Supervision of Public Primary Education in Ogun State, Nigeria: An Evaluation

GOKE JAYESIMI
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

Abstract. The study appraised the state of monitoring and supervision of public primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria. It adopted the descriptive survey design. The Supervision and Control of Primary Education Questionnaire (SCPEQ) was used to gather data. Data obtained were analysed using frequency count, percent, mean and standard deviation. The results show that public primary school supervision was not regular, continuous and thorough. They also reveal that there were not enough professionally trained school supervisors, and that the volume of work was so enormous that supervisors on ground were often overwhelmed. They indicate further that inspectors did not employ cooperative strategies with teachers to ensure efficient functioning of the school system and that they maintained a superior-subordinate relationship with teachers. The study recommends the employment of professionally trained personnel in adequate number. It also suggests the provision of efficient transportation arrangement for school inspectors, especially in the rural areas, and prompt payment of travelling allowances to encourage and motive them to greater productivity.

Keywords: Monitoring; Supervision; Appraisal.

1. Background to the Study

It is universally acknowledged that education is the process of preparing an individual to become a functional, responsible and acceptable member of the society. Education is the aggregate of the process by which a child acquires attitudes, abilities and other forms of behaviour of positive value to the society in which he lives. It helps the individual to develop physically, mentally, morally, socially and technologically, Education has the power to transform lives. It widens people's freedom of choice and action. It empowers them to participate in the social and political lives of their societies and equips them with the skills they need to develop their livelihoods.

At the foundation of every education system is the primary level of education. Primary education, as referred to in this study, is the type of education given in institutions to children, usually between the age of six and eleven years, to equip them with sound basic education in reading, writing, and mathematics, and an elementary understanding of subjects such as history, geography, natural sciences, social sciences, art and music. It is the kind of education that develops in the individual the capacity to read, write and calculate, and have a general knowledge of the world around him. It also lays a sound basis for scientific and reflective thinking (Akinbote, 2007). This way, it helps to eliminate illiteracy, which is one of the strongest predictors of poverty, and prepares the foundation for an individual's intellectual growth and development. As a result of its basic nature, primary education is the only education sub-sector that is available to children in all

countries, both developing and developed, as well as in rural and urban areas. This, probably, is the reason why it is the largest sub-sector of any education system, and offers the unique opportunity to contribute to the transformation of societies.

Scholars, researchers and other stakeholders in the education industry have expressed concern about the state of primary education in Nigeria. The public perception was that the quality of education at this level was low and that standards had dropped. Moja (2000) observed that the general performance of pupils in public examinations was poor and that this was due to lack of adherence to acceptable educational practices such as effective monitoring and supervision of schools. The Department for International Development (DFID) described primary education in Nigeria as facing 'a multi-dimensional crisis.' According to it, access was limited and quality was poor. It reported that large number of children was out of school, while some were in school but not learning basic skills such as reading, writing and calculating. The agency found out that learning outcomes in Nigerian primary schools were worse than in many other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. It identified several factors responsible for this situation, and noted in particular that teachers and school activities were often poorly supervised (DFID, 2009). Other scholars and researchers (Ogunu, 2005; Worlu, 2011; Obiweluozor, Momoh & Ogbonnaya, 2011) have posited that inadequate monitoring and supervision of public primary schools remains one of the banes of the Nigerian education system.

Monitoring, according to Eweniyi (1998) refers to the activity of measuring progress in a plan or project implementation. It entails the collection of information about what actually takes place during the process of implementation in order to find out:

- how the resources put into the plan are being utilized;
- how activities that are crucial to the implementation are progressing;
- if deadlines are being met or not;
- whether or not plans are working out as anticipated.

Monitoring is a continuous exercise. It is a strategy for correcting deviations that may arise between what is intended to be done and what is actually being done. Hence, it is part of the learning process designed by those directly involved in its implementation. It is a process whereby the activities of the school are followed with the aim of ensuring that school objectives are realized.

Supervision, on the other hand, can be described as a constant and continuous process of personal guidance based on frequent visits to a school to give constructive advice and to encourage the teachers in the bid to improve teaching and learning in the school. Supervision of activities at the school level is a key factor in ensuring the good functioning of education programmes. In fact, supervision has always been an integral feature of education programmes in all countries. It is a primary function of those who are saddled with the responsibility of ensuring school success and improvement in pupils' achievement through effective leadership. In theory, supervision has two basic functions which directly impinge on school functioning. First, supervision should help to maintain system-level norms. This is important since primary education is a basic unit of a larger system. While each school may have its own uniqueness and individuality, together they have to follow certain common patterns of organization and functioning. Secondly, supervision should promote change and development of every school. While this two-fold definition is accepted in theory, the actual functioning of the supervision system in many countries often presents a one-sided picture of control and monitoring with practically no support for change and development (Govina & Tapan, 1999).

In Nigeria, the need to rejuvenate and make more effective the system of school monitoring and supervision has become important more than ever before. The sudden explosion in the population of pupils, coupled with the attendant increased complexity in school organization, has

made the need for effective supervision more imperative. This is, in addition to the Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme introduced in the country in 1999, which entails nine years of uninterrupted schooling for children between six and fourteen years. The curricula of the lower and middle levels of basic education have been expanded to cater for a vast body of knowledge in the light of the ever-changing global trends in science, technology and the arts. For the goals of these levels of education to be achieved, there is the need for effective and result-oriented teaching and learning process, and healthy interaction among teachers, pupils, and external education officials. It means there is the urgent need for both internal and external inspection and supervision of schools.

Governments at various levels in Nigeria have recognized the need to monitor not only school activities, but also the financial provisions to the system. Education officials at the Ministries of Education, both federal and state, and the local levels have set up quality control divisions in their respective ministries and boards to ensure that quality education is maintained through regular inspection and continuous supervision of instructions and educational services as laid down in the National Policy of Education (FRN, 2004).

Many scholars have, however, observed that primary school inspection and supervision in Nigeria is not being done as effectively as it should be, and that this lack of effective control is one of the challenges facing the Nigerian education system. They note that supervision of schools is neither regular nor continuous, and that schools are supervised only routinely. They also posit that there are not enough professionally trained inspectors and supervisors to do the work as effectively as it should be done (Sulaiman, 2004; Ogunu, 2005). According to Ogunu, supervisors and inspectors from the ministries of education are usually insufficient and not adequate enough to carry out the duties required. In addition, many of these school inspectors have not been professionally trained and therefore are not qualified to perform the task. The consequence of this is that a lot of unprofessional practices are carried out in the schools to the detriment of pupils and the school system. Ogunu observes further that internal supervision is equally ineffective as school leaders are weighed down by routine administrative duties such that they have little or no time to visit classrooms and observe classroom interactions. This study evaluated the adequacy of monitoring and supervision of public primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria.

2. Methodology

The study adopted the descriptive survey design. The sampling technique was random. Ten (10) public primary schools were randomly sampled from each of the randomly selected seven (7) local government councils (there are 20 local government councils in the state) cutting across the three senatorial districts in the state. 5 classroom teachers were randomly sampled from the 70 selected schools, making a total of three hundred and fifty (350) participants. A self-designed questionnaire, the Supervision and Control of Primary Education Questionnaire (SCPEQ) was used to gather data. The Supervision and Control of Primary Education Questionnaire had two sections. Section A consisted of twenty items designed along a 4-point Likert Scaling System (Not true, Almost True, True, and Very True). It contained items designed to measure the frequency with which education inspectors visited schools, adequacy of number of inspectors, compliance of school inspectors with the principles of school supervision, and inspector - teacher relationship, among others. Section B contained 10 items of the 'Yes' or 'No' format (items 21 – 30) which dealt mainly with the duties and responsibilities of school supervisors.

The SCPEQ was given to some lecturers in the Department of Educational Foundations and Counselling, and the Institute of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago – Iwoye, for comments and suggestions. Their observations and suggestions were factored into the final copy. To establish the reliability of the instrument, a pilot test was carried out using the test-retest method. The instrument was administered twice to the same group of teachers at an interval of two weeks. The selected number of participants was small, and they did not form

part of the sample of the real study. The instrument yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.83.

The researcher, and his three research assistants, took the instrument to the selected schools and administered them on the selected teachers. Data gathered were analysed using frequency count, percentage, mean and standard deviation.

3. Results

Frequency Table on the State of Monitoring and Supervision of Public Primary Schools in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Item	Not True		Almost True		True		Very True		Mean	SD
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
1. Schools are supervised only routinely.	53	16.2	93	28.4	137	41.9	44	13.5	2.48	1.009
2. There are not enough inspectors to inspect schools.	91	27.8	113	34.6	81	24.8	42	12.8	2.22	1.001
3. School inspectors are often overwhelmed by the amount of work such that supervision is not thorough.	88	26.9	152	46.5	59	18.0	28	8.6	2.08	.898
4. School inspectors are often confused over what to monitor.	125	38.2	149	45.6	39	11.9	14	4.3	1.82	.812
5. Inspectors do not offer corrective measures based on their observations.	102	31.2	155	47.4	47	14.4	23	7.0	1.97	.859
6. Criticisms by inspectors are not free of bias.	56	17.1	109	33.3	116	35.5	46	14.1	2.46	.942
7. Inspectors do not employ cooperative strategies with teachers to ensure efficient functioning of the school system.	88	26.9	125	38.2	86	26.3	28	8.6	2.15	.944
8. Inspectors maintain a superior-subordinate relationship with teachers.	17	5.2	81	24.8	156	47.7	73	22.3	2.87	.824
9. Supervision is done in such a way that teachers are not given the opportunity to prove their worth.	72	22.0	158	48.3	60	18.3	37	11.3	2.19	.907
10. Inspectors do not motivate teachers to improve their productivity.	105	32.1	141	43.1	49	15.0	32	9.8	2.02	.935
11. Supervision helps to ensure that the quantity and quality of teachers' work are clearly specified.	7	2.1	13	4.0	143	43.7	164	50.2	3.42	.686
12. Supervision helps to ensure that school environment is free of tension and emotional stress.	14	4.2	50	15.3	149	45.6	114	34.9	3.10	.833
13. School supervision ensures immediate recognition of good work and makes this public to others.	10	3.0	28	8.6	159	48.6	130	39.8	3.24	.782
14. Supervision helps to identify the merits and demerits of the school system.	6	1.8	17	5.2	137	41.9	167	51.1	3.42	.691
15. Supervision helps in applying appropriate techniques to eliminate/reduce the demerits in the school system.	8	2.4	26	8.0	163	49.8	130	39.8	3.26	.745
16. Supervision helps to create confidence in incompetent teachers.	29	8.9	35	10.7	142	43.4	121	37.0	3.09	.909
17. Supervision assists in identifying urgent needs in classrooms and schools in general.	7	2.1	21	6.4	141	43.1	158	48.3	3.37	.665
18. Corrections offered by inspectors help to improve teaching competence.	5	1.5	8	2.4	138	42.2	176	53.8	3.48	.654
19. Corrections made by inspectors help teachers in the task of school management.	8	2.4	7	2.1	168	51.4	144	44.0	3.37	.665
20. Supervision motivates students to work harder to achieve the required standard.	13	4.0	23	7.0	146	44.6	145	44.3	3.29	.778

Items	No		Yes		Mean	SD
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		
21. Supervise teacher's classroom competence.	24	7.3	303	92.7	.93	.261
22. Supervise teacher's personality and effectiveness.	38	11.6	289	88.4	.88	.321
23. Inspect teacher's class control and discipline.	21	6.4	306	93.6	.94	.246

24. Inspect class organization and discipline.	40	12.2	287	87.8	.88	3.28
25. Supervise teacher/pupil relationship.	56	17.1	271	82.9	.83	.377
26. Check pupils' class work.	16	4.9	311	95.1	.95	.216
27. Inspect the state of facilities in the school.	78	23.9	249	76.1	.76	.427
28. Inspect the general cleanliness of the school.	37	11.3	290	88.7	.89	.317
29. Inspect school records.	20	6.1	307	93.9	.94	.240
30. Offer corrective measures based on their observations.	69	21.1	258	78.9	.79	.409

The table shows that schools were supervised only routinely (55.4%); that there were not enough inspectors to inspect schools (72.2%); that inspectors were often overwhelmed by the amount of work involved such that supervision was most often not thorough (73.1%); that school inspectors were often confused over what to monitor and evaluate (61.8%); that inspectors did not offer corrective measures based on their observations (68.8%); that criticisms by inspectors were not made private and not free of bias (82.9%); and that supervisors did not employ cooperative strategies with teachers to ensure efficient running of the school system (73.1%).

The table further reveals that supervisors maintained a superior-subordinate relationship with teachers (70.0%); that supervision was done in such a way that teachers were not given the opportunity to prove their worth (77.9%); and that supervisors did not motivate teachers to improve their productivity (68.9%). The respondents, however, were of the opinion that supervision, if properly carried out, would help to ensure that the quality and quantity of teachers' work are clearly specified (97.9%); that supervision helps to ensure that the school environment is free of tension and emotional stress (95.8%); that supervision ensures that good work is recognised immediately and made public to others (97.0%); that supervision helps to identify the merits and demerits of the school system (93.0%); and that supervision enhances the application of appropriate techniques to eliminate or reduce the demerits in the school system (97.6%).

Also, the table indicates that supervision helps to create confidence in incompetent teachers (91.1%); that it identifies urgent needs in classrooms and the school in general (91.4%); that corrections offered by supervisors help to improve teaching competences (96.0%); that corrections made help teachers in school management (95.4%); and that supervision motivates students to work harder so as to achieve the required standard (88.9%). The table also shows that school supervisors supervise teacher's classroom competence (92.7%); supervise teacher's personality and effectiveness (88.4%); inspect teacher's class control and discipline (93.6%); inspect class organisation and management (87.8%); supervise teacher/pupil relationship (82.9%); check pupils' class work (95.1%); inspect the state of facilities in the school (76.1%); inspect the general cleanliness of the school (88.7%) and inspect school records (78.9%).

From the results in the table, it can be seen that monitoring and supervision of activities in public primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria was not regular, continuous and thorough. The results also reveal that some supervisors were not professionally trained and, consequently, some principles guiding school monitoring and supervision were not strictly followed.

4. Discussion

School personnel remain one of the most significant resources in the school. Supervision of school personnel and other resources is an integral component of school leadership function and is central to the attainment of the goals and objectives of education. The Nigerian National Policy on Education has stated in very precise terms the objectives of education supervision which is to "ensure quality control through regular and continuous supervision of instructional and other educational services" (FRN, 2004; 2013, p. 50).

The results of this study, however, show that supervision of primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria, was neither regular nor continuous. It shows that school supervision was done only routinely. This finding corroborates the finding of Sulaiman (2004) who discovered that

supervision and control of primary schools in Ogun State was not adequate, and that the inspectorate division of the Ministry of Education supervised schools only routinely. She observed further that the Ministry of Education and the monitoring department of the Local Government Education Authority were short-staffed and only on few occasions did inspectors and monitoring teams visit schools on either general or routine inspections. The finding of this study also agrees with the position of Ogunu (2005) who posited that school inspection and supervision by officials of the Ministry of Education was not done as often as it should.

This study also shows that there were not enough school inspectors to carry out supervision as effectively as it should be, and that supervisors were often overwhelmed by the volume of work involved such that supervision was not thorough. This also finds congruence with Ogunu's finding that school inspectors were usually insufficient or not adequate enough to carry out the duties required of them. The consequence of this shortage of supervisory personnel is that most often, supervision was not effective to the detriment of children and the school system. Obiweluozor, Momoh and Ogbonnaya (2011) also found out that the number of professionally trained supervisors in Nigerian schools was not enough to meet the needs of effective supervision. They observed that the number of schools had increased, and student population had gone up astronomically, widening the teacher/pupil ratio. The increase in the number of schools and pupils would mean more work for few supervisors which could overwhelm them.

Worlu (2011) opined that one of the banes of the Universal Basic Education programme in Nigeria was lack of effective supervision. According to him, supervision involves regular and continuous visits to inspect and evaluate the activities that go on in schools. He lamented, however, that supervision rarely took place. Ezekwesili (2007) also bemoaned that in Nigeria, there had been no supervision of schools in decades. According to him, lack of supervision of schools in the past had been the bane of failed education policies, and that a system not supervised and evaluated was heading for collapse.

The National Policy on Education notes that in order that the functions of school inspection and supervision

"*…may be discharged efficiently, a cadre of qualified staff is required*
in adequate numbers and quality at the different operational levels by
the local, state and federal authorities." (FRN, 2004, pp 50).

Bessong and Ojong (2009) found out that, to the contrary, supervision of Nigerian primary schools was not done regularly principally because of shortage of personnel and other problems such as lack of transportation, especially in the rural areas, and non-payment of allowances and touring advance to supervisors. They posited that the rapid increase in the number of schools, school enrolment, and explosion in knowledge had made school supervision more tedious and demanding, thus requiring more personnel. In what they computed from the Report of the Sub-committee of the Joint Consultative Committee, published in the Journal of the Federal Inspectorate of Education 2008, they discovered that for school inspection in Nigeria in the 2007/2008 academic session, there was 1 inspector allocated to 26 primary schools in Cross River State, 1 to 47 schools in Anambra State, 1 to 123 schools in Akwa Ibom State, 1 to 54 schools in Imo State, 1 to 33 schools in Abia State, 1 to 102 schools in Sokoto State, and 1 to 78 in Ogun State. This was the pattern in almost all the other states of the country.

Arong and Ogbadu (2010) in a study attributed the many complex problems bedevilling the Nigerian school system to lack of adequate educational inspection and supervision, especially at the primary education level. They found out that this lack of adequate inspection and supervision had variables that directly or indirectly contribute to the decline in the quality of education.

Inadequate and ineffective supervision of primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria, is not desirable considering the significant role

supervision plays in the achievement of quality education. If qualitative education is seriously desired so that the standard of education in the schools can be improved, school supervision must be accorded high priority. Through inspection and supervision, the inspectors and supervisors assist in improving classroom instruction because teachers are made more confident and competent, and pupils are motivated to work harder in order to achieve the required standard, and in the long run, achieve the goals of education. Without thorough and effective supervision, there will be no assessment of teaching and learning, no improvement in teaching and learning, no means of identifying the merits and demerits of the school system, no means of identifying urgent needs in classrooms and schools, and there will be no avenue to examine continuously school instructional goals and assess teachers' performance in meeting such goals. The sudden explosion of the population of pupils, in addition to the attendant increased challenges of school organization, and the introduction of the Universal Basic Education scheme in Nigeria have made it imperative, more than ever before, that school supervision be given greater attention. A situation where schools are supervised only routinely will make the attainment of the goals of education difficult.

5. Conclusion

Supervision and control of school personnel and activities are significant elements of school leadership and are crucial to the achievement of quality education. Supervision helps to maintain school system-level norms. It also assists in promoting change and the growth and development of every school. This study analysed and appraised the state of monitoring and supervision in public primary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria. The results of the study show that supervision of these schools was neither regular nor continuous. It also shows that there were not enough school inspectors to carry out supervision as effectively as it should be, and consequently, the few available supervisors were often overwhelmed by the volume of work involved such that supervision would not be thorough. Lack of transportation, especially in rural areas, and non-payment of allowances and touring advances to supervisors have been identified as some of the problems militating against adequate and effective supervision of schools.

It is suggested that concerted efforts be made to eliminate these difficulties. Government and its agency must employ adequate number of qualified and professionally trained school supervisors who understand the rudiments of the profession. This way, supervision will be less cumbersome and more effective. Transportation must be provided to ease movement, especially in the rural areas, and increase the area of coverage. Prompt payment of allowances and touring advances to supervisors should be done so as to motivate them to achieve higher productivity.

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Motivational Techniques, Communication Patterns, and Job Productivity of Non-Academic Staff in Ogun State Owned Universities of Nigeria

MUYIWA ADEYEMI, A. ADETUNJI
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria.

WALE OSITOYE
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria

Abstract. This study seeks to find out whether motivational techniques and communication pattern relatively and collectively affect employees productivity. Six (6) hypotheses were tested for this purpose. The descriptive survey design was employed in investigating the aforementioned correlates. The population of study included 1496 and 486 non- academic staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University (Ago-Iwoye) and Tai- Solarin University of Education (Ijagun) respectively. A sample of some 299 and 97 staff were respectively selected from these two schools for questionnaire administration. The simple percentage and correlation statistics were employed in analyzing the responses of the entire 396 sample who responded to the 32 questionnaire items. The results obtained showed very strong correlation between the understudied factors. It was, therefore, recommended that care should be taken in choosing the appropriate motivational techniques and communication patterns if the expected levels of employee outputs have to be achieved. Choosing and applying the right motivational techniques and communication pattern will produce the best results in any given employee.

Keywords: University Education Motivational Techniques, Communication Patterns, Job Productivity and Influence Rate

1. Introduction

The classical economists of the 19th-century had the idea that individuals choose to maximize profits in every relation that they ever get involved in. Both the contemporary economists and educationists have equally held strongly to this belief (Kottak, 2005). For this reason, both individual psychologists and economists have shown a great concern about how best to achieve motivation (in the industrial/ economic setting) in order to produce the desired results of profit maximization (Ibid, 2005). Such a concern is, nevertheless, a worthwhile concern since productivity can be said to be the raison detre of any management and that of any establishment built for progress. Without such motivation that suits the requirements of the individual or group employees, the subject matter of economics – economizing – which refers to rational allocation of scarce means (resources) to alternative ends (uses, results, production) cannot be achieved.

In recent times, productivity has become an everyday word, especially ever since the Second World War, Governments, Politicians, Economists, and Academics in the University system have all stressed the importance of productivity. This is because of its relationship with the general economic health of any nation in question. Furthermore, every corporate management in the world have become concerned with productivity because when comparisons are made with competitors in the world market, productivity is the main indicator used to measure effectiveness.

In line with the foregoing, organizations like the University system nowadays are aware that if they have to forge ahead they need to motivate their workers in order to enhance the attainment of desired productivity. So, they have used such traditional incentive programmes based upon extrinsic motivators such as salary and benefits. Nevertheless, years of experience have equally taught such organizations that intrinsic motivation is needed in order to arouse a worker's passion or commitment to the job he/she does. It is also important to stress that shared vision, leadership, team work, training, increased capability, and goal accomplishment are inseparable and powerful motivators that can be encouraged and embedded to create a high performance culture.

Due to poor administration, many corporate Universities have failed in realizing this vital dream of achieving productivity through staff motivation. Many of these Administrators have good motives and sometimes laudable plans that could have produced the desired results, but, due to some reasons like poor communication skills and patterns, and improper motivational techniques in their relations with the employees, the desired results have often failed to surface. Understandings of motivational tools and techniques, alongside those of effective communication, have become major prerequisites to the attainment of organizational objectives that are associated with productivity (Adeleke, 2001). Therefore, if managing (Koontz and O'Donnell, 1976) involved the creation and maintenance of an environment for the performance of individuals working together in groups towards the accomplishment of common objectives, it equally involves an understanding of how best to effectively communicate aims and objectives to the staff, and an understanding of the type of motivational skill(s) that will suit an individual or group personality (temperament).

To this end, this research work aims at providing information on the link between choice of motivational techniques, communication patterns and employee job productivity.

2. Statement of the Problem

Despite the frequent review of workers' salaries and allowances over the years, it is amazing to learn that a good number of employees are getting dissatisfied with their jobs and work condition (Oshiomole, 1992). Ever since the inception of democratic government in Nigeria, workers wages have been reviewed almost on a yearly basis thus putting more money into circulation. The increasing flow of money notwithstanding, the fact of workers being increasingly dissatisfied with their jobs is recurrent news.

Most past studies, (Owoye, 1992 and hamburger, 2000), on the causes of workers' job dissatisfaction and issues of strikes in work places have identified some economic and institutional factors such as inflation, union membership and income policies of the government as having positive influence on workers emotional disposition to work leaving out the impact of other non- monetary motivational techniques and communication patterns in organizations.

However, since all of these factors have not quelled the problem of ever increasing dissatisfaction between employees and employers, at both the private and public sectors, it means that the solution lie in some other slighted areas of interest. Improper motivation coupled with poor communication skills are likely causes of this persistent dissatisfaction between employers and their worker. Hence, this study intend to find out the correlation between motivational techniques, communication pattern and workers productivity.

3. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were generated and tested in this research work:

$H_{1:}$ There is no combined contribution of communication patterns and motivational techniques to workers' productivity in the universities.
H_2: There is no significant relative relationship between the motivational techniques used and workers' productivity.
H_3: There is no significant difference in the results obtained when the same motivational techniques and communication patterns are applied to opposite sexes of employees.
H_4: Both married and unmarried workers responded the same way to the applied motivational techniques and communication patterns used across the universities.
H_5: Communication pattern does not affect job productivity of workers.
H_6: There is no association among motivational techniques, communication patterns and job productivity

4. Research Method

4.1 Research Design

This study is a descriptive research hence the survey research design has been employed in investigating the connection between motivational techniques, communication patterns and employee job productivity. This choice is relevant because this study has attempted to investigate the current status of management practices in an economic environment like Nigeria. As well; this method makes it easy for data to be collected from such large scale population of study as this. Finally, it is very useful since I do not intend to manipulate either the study population or their responses but to base my report on responses freely generated by them for this study.

4.2 Population

The population of this study consists of all the non-academic staff working at various units of two government-owned universities in Ogun State, namely: Olabisi Onabanjo University (O.O.U), Ago-Iwoye, and Tai-Solarin University of Education (TASUED), Ijebu-Ode. In this regard, the research has covered 1496 (O.O.U. Administrative/Records Office, 2009) and 486 (TASUED Administrative/Records Office, 2009) non- academic staff, respectively, of the above named Universities. The choice of this population is due to the quest to determine the impact of the independent variables (motivational techniques and communication patterns) on the dependent variable (productivity of staff-officers) of universities in Ogun state.

4.3 Sample and Sampling Procedure

A purposive random sampling technique has been employed in selecting the sample population. 20 per cent of each of the population understudied has been used as samples for the study. In this regard, 299 and 97 non-academic members of the universities have been collectively used as the sample for this study.

The sampling techniques have been purposive because, the research focuses on a particular stratum of the university working population with the aim of determining their efficiency and effectiveness as influenced by motivational and communication factors. A simple random sampling technique has been used to select the sample for the study in order to give every element of the selected population an equal chance of participating in the study.

4.4 Research Instruments

The research instruments (i.e. the tools with which this research study has been carried out) have included a researcher's self-designed questionnaire tagged "Employee Personnel Productivity Scale". This questionnaire has three sections: Section A was meant to help collect demographic information on the respondents' job characteristics, while sections B and C contain questions to gather the participants' responses to the problems of the research. The questions in sections B and C are statements in 4-points

Likert's response scale as follows. SA – Strongly Agreed, A – Agreed, D – Disagree, SD – Strongly Disagreed.

The above questionnaire has been supplemented with structured interviews with some selected and available staff of the universities understudied.

4.5 Validity of Instrument

To ensure that the self-designed questionnaire served the purpose for which it was made, it was presented to my supervisor and other experts in the department of Educational Management and Business Education of Olabisi Onabanjo University for screening and thorough vetting to ensure the face, content and construct validities of the instruments. The necessary corrections were equally made before it was employed for use.

4.6 Reliability of Research Instrument

In order to ensure that the self-designed structured questionnaire is reliable, that is, able to produce similar results without random or unstable errors, when administered at different times under the same conditions, the test-retest approach has been applied. The questionnaire was applied twice to the sample population with two weeks in-between the applications. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient has been employed in calculating the correlation between the first and second scores to determine the consistency of the measuring instrument in achieving its purpose.

4.7 Administration of the Instrument

The research questionnaires were retrieved by me, with assistance from my research assistant, within two weeks. The researcher visited Olabisi Onabanjo University (O.O.U.) and Tai-Solarin University of Education (TASUED) to obtain the necessary permission and thereby distributed copies of the questionnaire to the sample population as necessary.

4.8 Data Analysis

Data gathered with the research instrument were analyzed using simple percentages, and simple regression analysis.

5. Results and Discussion of Findings

The results of the hypotheses tested are presented below:

Test of H_1: There is no combined contribution of communication patterns and motivational techniques used to workers' job productivity in the universities.

Table 1: Communication Patterns and Motivational Techniques as Predictors of Job Productivity

R = 0.413 R^2 = 0.171 Adjusted R^2 = 0.159 Standard Error = 10.979						
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Regression	3645.201	2	1822.600	15.121	.000[a]	Significant ($p<0.05$)
Residual	17718.193	147	120.532			
Total	21363.393	149				

Table 1 shows that communication patterns and motivational techniques combined together to account for 17.1 % of the total variance in job productivity (R^2 = 0.171). The outcome probability of $p<0.05$ is significant enough to indicate that both communication patterns and motivational techniques combine to determine what the workers' job productivity ultimately looks like. Also table 4.4 shows significant ties the variables. There is highly significant relationship between motivational techniques and job productivity ($r = +0.406$, $p<0.05$). There is also significant relationship between communication pattern and motivational techniques ($r = +0.328$, $p<0.05$). Likewise, there is significant relationship between communication patterns and job productivity ($r = +0.205$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, H_1 is rejected since

communication pattern and motivational techniques combine to produce the ultimate shape that workers' job productivity takes.

Test of H_2: There is no significant relationship between the motivational techniques used and workers' productivity.

Table 2: Motivational Techniques as Predictor of Job Productivity.

R = 0.406 R^2 = 0.165 Adjusted R^2 = 0.159 Standard Error = 10.980						
	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Regression	3520.285	1	3520.285	29.199	.000[a]	Significant (p<0.05)
Residual	17843.108	148	120.562			
Total	21363.393	149				

Table 2 shows that motivational technique is a predicator of job productivity. It accounted for 16.5 % of the total variance in job productivity (R^2 = 0.165) resulting in a probability of p<0.05 in the surveyed institutions. Thus, motivational technique seriously influenced job productivity of the non academic staff of the understudied universities. More so, table 4.3 shows that communication pattern accounts for 4.2 % of the total variance in job productivity (R^2 = 0.042). With communication pattern representing part of the motivational techniques, the probability of p<0.05 is a significant percentage. With communication pattern equally representing motivational technique, this result and the former implies that H_2 is incorrect and should be rejected. Therefore, it is appropriate to state that motivational techniques seriously influence the final output of any group of staff.

Test of H_3: There is no significant difference in the results obtained when the same motivational techniques and communication patterns are applied to opposite sexes of employees.

Table 3: Gender and Workers' Job Productivity under the same Motivational Technique and Communication patterns.

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	df	T	P	Remark
Motivational techniques male	84	36.5119	11.44867	1.24915	148	-1.286	0.201	NS
Female	66	38.6970	8.69831	1.07069				
Communication patterns male	84	36.7500	12.98737	1.41704	148	0.847	0.398	NS
Female	66	35.0606	10.91207	1.34318				
Job productivity male	84	34.8095	10.81106	1.17958	148	-1.152	0.251	NS
female	66	37.0758	13.28540	1.63532				

NS= Not Significant (p>0.05)

As shown on table 3, there is no significant difference between male and female job productivity when the same motivational techniques and communication patterns are applied. The probability of p>0.05 is an indication that there is no significant difference between male and female employee reactions to similar motivational techniques and communication patterns of the understudied institutions. This is to say that, to a large extent, H_3 is correct. That is, there is no significant difference in the results obtained when the same motivational techniques and communication patterns are applied to opposite sexes of employees.

Test of H_4: Both married and unmarried workers respond the same way to the applied motivational techniques and communication patterns used across the universities.

Table 4: Marital Status and Motivational Techniques, Communication Patterns and Job Productivity.

	Marital status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Df	T	P	Remark
Motivational techniques	married	79	36.2278	8.02552	.90294	148	-1.562	0.121	NS
	Single	71	38.8592	12.35810	1.46664				
Communication patterns	married	79	31.4430	10.97053	1.23428	148	-5.292	0.000	*
	Single	71	41.0845	11.32727	1.34430				
Job productivity	married	79	33.3797	10.51288	1.18279	148	-2.672	0.008	*
	Single	71	38.5070	12.96134	1.53823				

From table 4, marital status of the surveyed employees did not significantly affect their reactions to the applied motivational techniques ($t = -1.562$, $p>0.05$). The table indicates that marital status of the surveyed employees had no significant effect on their reactions to the applied motivational techniques ($t = -1.562$, $p>0.05$). Therefore, the choice of motivational techniques is not necessarily dependent on employee marital status. They both respond in the same way to same techniques of motivation. This implies that H_4 is significantly correct. However, there is significant difference between married and single workers' job productivity ($t = -2.672$) under the influence of the same motivational techniques ($t = -5.292$, $p<0.05$). With $p<0.05$, single workers rated higher in ensuring effective communication in the understudied institutions than their married counterparts. Expectedly then, the singles produced greater outcomes under same conditions of service than their married counterparts. This means that although both the married and singles equally accept the same working conditions, there productivity is not dependent on their acceptance of the conditions but on some other factor(s).

Test of H5: Communication pattern does not affect job productivity of workers.

Table 5: Communication Patterns as Predictor of Job Productivity

$R = 0.205$ $R^2 = 0.042$ Adjusted $R^2 = 0.036$ Standard Error = 11.758						
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Regression	900.884	1	900.884	6.516	.012[a]	Significant
Residual	20462.509	148	238.260			($p<0.05$)
Total	21363.393	149				

From table 5 above, communication pattern accounts for 4.2 per cent of the total variance in job productivity (i.e. $R^2 = 0.042$, $p < 0.05$). This percentage is significant; meaning that H_5 is not an acceptable notion. Therefore, communication pattern is an important factor that can enhance, or otherwise limit, worker's job productivity in the surveyed institutions of higher learning. Careful selection of befitting techniques to motivate the workers will surely encourage the surveyed staff to strive to yield improved output, no matter how little.

Test of H_6: There is no association among motivational techniques, communication patterns and job productivity

Table 6: Correlation Matrixes of Motivational Techniques, Communication Pattern and Job Productivity

	Motivational techniques	Communication Patterns	Job productivity
Motivational techniques Pearson Correlation	1.000		
Sig. (2-tailed)			
N	150		
Communication patterns Pearson Correlation	.328	1.000	
Sig. (2-tailed)			
N	150	150	
Job productivity Pearson Correlation	.406	.205	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)		.012	
N	150	150	150

Remark: Significant ($p<0.05$ in each case).

Table 6 portrays significant relationships among the variables of this study. There is highly significant relationship between motivational techniques and job productivity since $r = 0.406$ and $p < 0.05$. There is also a notable relationship between communication patterns and motivational techniques in that $r = + 0.328$ while $p < 0.05$. Likewise, there is a significant association between communication patterns and job productivity from the fact that $r = 0.205$ with $p < 0.05$. Thus, from the ongoing, then, the implication of the results is that the better the motivational technique, the higher the job productivity of any given set of staff in the understudied population group. Also, the results of communication pattern are directly related to the level of motivation achieved and received; the outcome of this association is then portrayed in the productivity achieved. Therefore, in order to enhance job productivity, motivational techniques and communication patterns should be constantly improved and maintained over time.

This study sought to compare the effects of motivational techniques and communication patterns on employee productivity. In this process, it sought to identify and explain the various motivational techniques that could be applied to different individuals to achieve a targeted end through a change of behavior in the employee. This study also identified different communication patterns that could be employed to ensure a smooth and effective interaction between the employers and the employee, as well as among the employees at different cadres.

Examining the effects of adequate and appropriate motivation on workers job productivity; explaining the result of effective communication on employee's output; discovering how best to improve the employee's attitude towards his or her job for maximum productivity; and providing recommendations based on the findings of the study constituted the purpose of this study.

The findings show that what really matters in boosting employee productivity or output is not the kind of motivation that is employed but the extent to which the employee is being truly motivated by any chosen method. This is conformity with earlier findings by Maslow (1954), Koontz,O'Donnel and Weithrich (1980) that the ability of the employee to identify employee needs and to attend to them adequately is what determines adequate motivation and corresponding productivity.

In line with the findings made by Adeleke (2001) and Flippo (1988), which point out that understanding motivational tools and techniques, alongside those of effective communication, are major pre-requisites to attending organizational goals that are associated with productivity; this study discovered that effective communication is very important in ensuring a desirable employee output. That is to say that when the right communication pattern is in place, it surely motivates the employee to produce the desired output. Furthermore, communication pattern is a form of motivational techniques in that it is part of what spurs a burning desire in the employee, to produce the desired output. Therefore, there is a high correlation between the three variables – motivational techniques, communication patterns and job productivity. This implies that it is necessary to always improve on adopted motivational techniques- which include communication pattern(s) - to achieve and maintain adequate output from any given staff.

Concerning gender difference, this study discovered no significance between male and female staff reactions to the same styles of motivation. Nevertheless, experience shows that opposite sexes do not always have the same interests. Therefore, sometimes, and as much as possible, employers should try to slightly vary their methods of motivating the employees to ensure that every employer performed appropriately.

6. Conclusion

If the best motivational techniques are applied to the individual employees, the appropriate level of motivation that is high enough encouraging the employee to yield maximum output could be ensured. In this regard, effective communication is very important. Finally, poor motivational techniques and patterns resulting to inadequate

staff motivation have been responsible for the failure of most institutions in the country.

7. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research work, the following are recommended:

The institutions in Nigeria should take much time to study their staff to know the kind of motivational technique that would be appropriate to encourage them to be highly productive. This is what constitutes effective management, which koontz and O'Donnell (1976), Inegbenebor (1982), Greiner et al (1981:30) say involves the creation and maintenance of an environment for the performance of individuals working together in groups towards the accomplishment of common objectives. This understanding of how best to effectively motivate a given staff, following a careful study of the employees is a target that every employer must seriously target to achieve.

Secondly, there should be constant evaluation of the employees to discover how effective the applied technique(s) have been on them in order to make the necessary adjustments. In fact, John, (1981) observed that such evaluations are very necessary for effective management strategies that are needed to boost employee output. This is because, according to the group, such study is the basic source of information for managerial planning that can produce improved level of motivation to ensure adequate employee productivity.

In choosing the motivational technique, emphasis should not be laid on any particular type of motivational techniques at all at the initial time. However, such emphasis should be made after a chosen technique has passed the test of time. This is because, productivity of the staff does not depend on the type of motivation chosen but the ability of the chosen motivational technique(s) to produce the desired effect(s). Choosing a particular motivational technique, whether in the form of communication technique(s) applied or otherwise, and maintaining it without careful periodical evaluation for adjustment or change, can lead to applying the wrong motivational techniques which Oshiomole (1992) has observed as being capable of the ever increasing dissatisfaction and low level of motivation and productivity among Nigerian Workers.

Fourth, whatever motivational technique that may be chosen, effective and adequate communication pattern should form a basic component of such because since mistakes often occur with the employee in carrying out their functions, as a result of misunderstanding of the intention(s) of the leadership or the information source, such mistakes often limit employee productivity. As much as possible the best means of communication that has tested positive on the employees should always be applied.

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Managing Employee Diversity for Effective Productivity in Secondary School in Rivers State, Nigeria

JOHN IIBI
Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract. There is increasing observation that diverse employee management pose challenges and threats to effective school administration and management in Nigeria. The paper examined managing employee diversity for effective productivity in secondary schools in Rivers State. However, in order to achieve this, the paper considered the following: the introduction to the study, conceptual clarification of management, diversity management and effective productivity. This paper considers incentives and motivation as a meansof encouragement to take action, these are direct and indirect benefits offered to employees. They are two types of incentives, monetary and non-monetary. The paper also discussed the strategies of managing employee's diversity. The paper suggested that schools and government should create and maintain policies guiding diversity management and employees in accordance to those differences as this will reduce if not eradicate discrimination, stereotypes and prejudice. Also that Rivers State is a multicultural state and such school administrators and policy makers should not carry their cultural experiences and perspectives to their educational decisions and actions to avoid cultural conflicts in a pluralistic school environment.

Keywords: Management, Diversity, Employees Diversity, Effective productivity

1. Introduction

The growing diversity of the employees has been one of the most vital management issues that began in recent years. The differences existing among individuals in the work place in relation to age, religion, culture, gender, disability among others referred to as employee diversity. The success of an organization is dependent of the work force. The success and quality of the students is determined by the quality performance of the employees managed by both academic and non-academic staff of the school as an organization. The expansion of employees' diversity along racial, ethnic, and gender lines, as well as the growing percentage of the employees' that is lower than the age 30 and above the age 55 have several implications for human resource development experts, employees and the organization in general.

In recent years, greater access to jobs for women especially in the federal and state ministries, parastatals, agencies have been increasingly diversified in Nigeria's workforce.In secondary schools, diverse cultural backgrounds, different ethnic groups, different gender, age, religion, and educational background are drawn from the employees. The key factor of this study is to know how these diverse employees are being managed. Diversity is the way that people differ which can affect performance of a task within an organization, these differences could be in terms of age, gender, religion, race, education, culture etc. Diversity is the differences among people due to age, gender, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, outlook, socio-economic

background, educational experiences, abilities, incapacities and any other characteristics that are used to differentiate among people. The aim of employee's diversity is to select the best people of each group by identifying, attracting and retaining a workforce where talents can perform at its best to maximize organizations value. It is important to recognize and embrace the diversity that employees bring to the organizations. Each employee is to be valued and encouraged to maximize his/her potential in the workplace. People from various walks of life should be able to serve in order to make the organization successful. The creative positive power that comes from diversity can be achieved. The ability to attract, develop and retain a quality diverse workforce lies in the organization success, thereby promoting an environment that values professional growth, individual respect, and dignity. Important ethical and social responsibility issues are raised by diversity. Diversity is a critical issue for secondary schools, such that if not properly handled can impede the growth of an organization especially in this increasing global world.

The effective management of diversity is not just bringing diverse employees, it means to appropriately respond and appreciate the needs, values, beliefs and needs that diverse people bring to the school. It also means finding the most effective ways to utilize talents and skills of diverse employees by correcting misconceptions about how and why different employee groups differ from one another. In other to succeed on this, management shows greater effort towards accepting differences by opening work opportunities to people of diverse culture, religion, race, sex, experience, educational background and disability.

In a diverse environment of employees, the management of secondary schools has to do with the understanding of educational curriculum, orientations, educational training and experience of the employees. Employees' interest and organizational interest are always at a conflict because of the diversity of the employees. In some cases, diversity of employees' interest influences organizational interest, if administration is not able to ascertain the interest of its employees and that of the organization when making a decision. Diverse traits also influence the attitude and behavior of employee to work, hence performance and productivity of employees according to Nwankwo (2004) will experience different levels of input.

2. Conceptual Clarification

Here conceptual meanings and clarifications are made in respect of management, diversity, diversity management, effective productivity.

2.1 Management

Management is an important organizational tool necessary in the effective and efficient achievement of organizational goals. The school system is unique because its major objectives is the development of human resources for the growth and development of society. Base on this, it is very important that the school is managed properly.

Management is conceptual because it could mean different things in different situations. According to Agabi and Akinwumiju (2008) defined management as planning and organizing human and material resources in such a way that can ensure effectiveness and efficiency in an organization. In this case management is directed at the achievement of organizational goals most advantageously in terms of the use of organizational resources.

Management is a social or interaction process intended to ensure collaboration, participation and involvement of others in order to achieve preset goals of any organization (Obasi & Asodike, 2007). It is the co-ordination of all the resources of the school through the process of planning, organizing, directing and controlling in order to attain organizational objectives (Nwachukwu, 1988 in Ilueme &Ebirim, 2016). It is the process that coordinates the efforts of people to achieve the goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively in the school system (Wikipedia, 2015). It is the process of getting works completed efficiently and effectively with and through other people. Management functions are planning, organizing,

staffing, reporting, directly, coordination and budgeting. Agabi cited in Agabi and Ebong (2004) sees management the organization of all human and material resources in a particular system for the achievement of some specific school objectives in the most sensible manner. Management is required in every school whether profit or non-profit making for effective performance. The need for management arises whenever people work together to achieve preset objective. However, according to Bratton and Gold (2012) the term management may be applied to either a social group or a process. Adeyemi (2009) in Asodike and Adieme (2014) opines that management as a social process is concerned with identifying, maintaining, motivating, controlling, and unifying formally and informally organized human and material resources within a social system. Since the organizations are seen as mobilizing and monitoring of activities in order to effectively achieve organizational goals as well as that of the society that they work in.

2.2 Human Resource management (HRM)

Human resource management has been defined as that part of the management process that focuses on the management of people in work organizations (Bratton and Gold). The major asset of any organization is its human resources who work for the attainment of the organizational goals. The people in an organization are the ones who make things happen. The sophisticated machines, equipment cannot operate themselves; likewise, are the material resources which when not utilized will be unproductive and wasteful. Bratton and Gold (2012) in Asodike and Adieme (2014) categorically stated that human resource management is concerned with satisfying employees' work related needs and dealing with their problems. This shows that task-oriented managers should not only focus on the job, but also on the welfare of their subordinates. All employees ought to be treated as valuable human resource. However, the human resource in education includes the students, teachers, school managers, and administrative staff in the ministry of education and non-academic staff. The HRM in our educational system is the function of the Personal Management Department in the Ministry of Education. But in the nursery, primary, secondary and tertiary institutions, it is the function of the office of the head teachers, headmasters/mistresses, principals and the registrars respectively. Their primary concern is the employees, students and their relationship with the organization.

Motivation could mean different things to different people. To the ordinary man in the street, it simply means "encouragement". To Longman (2005) it means very strong reason for action. One can say that motivation refers to the driving force that will comply people to put in their best towards the actualization of goals. Going by this definition of motivation, by the adoption and application of appropriate teaching methodology a teacher can strife for effectiveness if the external forces needed to activate teaching effectiveness are positive, encouraging and continuous, otherwise the teacher may become indifferent to the result of his teaching.

Teachers who come to school regularly, teach their lessons, and perform other functions expected of them as teachers, expect to be positively rewarded. Such teachers expect that at the end of the month, their salaries should be paid, they should be recommended for promotion when due; they should not be reprimanded in front of their students, they should not be sacked from work without reason or notice, and they should be provided with facilities that will enable them perform their duties effectively and efficiently. They do not expect to be molested by parents whose children they had admonished in the course of carrying out legal duties.

In Nigeria schools, financial remuneration is a powerful instrument of teacher motivation. Every worker desires to receive some payment at the end of the month as in the case of Nigeria. Regular payment of salaries and other emoluments makes the teacher happy in his work because he has something to look forward to as a reward for the performance of allocated duties. However, irregularities in the payment of teacher salaries as well as in the provision of

other forms of benefits such as promotion, in-service training, provision of workshop materials and other teaching aids have often resulted in tension and conflict between teachers and their employers. This conflict has often resulted in indifference attitude to work, frequent industrial actions and brain drain in the teaching profession into other fields of endeavor where job performance is better compensated.
Therefore, to stimulate positive attitude to work as well as effective and efficient teacher performance in schools, the following element of reinforcement should be given to teachers:

- A salary that is not too far removed from that received by their contemporaries in other fields of human endeavor.
- This salary should be paid regularly as and when due.
- Workshops should be organized at least annually for teachers, to update their knowledge.
- Teaching aids should be provided regularly for school teachers. Where this is not always possible, teachers should be allowed to improvise materials to aid the process of teaching and learning.
- Hardworking teachers should be promoted as and when due.
- The school environment should be made generally healthy with safe facilities that do not endanger the lives of teachers and learners.

These are some of the ways a teacher can be rewarded on his job. If this is done, the school can effectively achieve its goal of improved and sustained standard of education. The teacher on his part will also achieve job satisfaction (Agabi & Akinwumiju 2008).

Incentives are a means or an avenue of encouragement to take action. Incentives could be direct and indirect benefits given to employees as intrinsic motivators. They are the applications of additional inputs that shape the education process to achieve the eventual outputs of education in desirable ways. According to management study guide, (2013) in Ogbuagu (2016) sees incentive as act or promise for greater action. They are things given in addition to wages. It could beextraremunerationof accomplishment or better work. It is a normal thing that nobody put of performances without a drive. Thus, an expectation for a reward is an influential incentive to motivate employees. Beside monetary incentive there are some other stimuli that can propel an individual to do better like job satisfaction, job security, job promotion and pride for accomplishment.

Incentives is also defined by Ugwu & Coker (2012) in Ogbuagu (2016) as special pay programs designed to motivate high performance. It attempts to link a portion of pay to job performance to encourage higher productivity. They are behaviors that help to achieve educational goal performance. Incentives relates compensation to productivity. A primary purpose of incentive is to encourage greater productivity from individual and work groups. The suppositioncommonly made is that money or cash alone might not motivate employee. In designing incentive, output standard should be established. The standard is the measure of work that a normal well trained employee working at regular pace should be able to accomplish in a given period of time. Incentives could be monetary or non-monetary.

2.3 Concept of Diversity

The word diversity originated from the middle English word *diversite*, used from 1300 to 1350. According to the Merriam Webster Dictionary (2015) diversity is the state of having or being brought together of opposing elements. It implies an addition or annex of different types of people of dissimilar races or cultures in a group, organizations or institutions. That is a situation where there exists a partial change of life within an environment; educational background, and so on. When individuals, plants, animals or things of different types or categories coexist within a particular environment, ecosystem, organization or institutions, this is referred to as diversity. However, diversity means more than just individuals with different educational, socio-economic, religious and political views coexisting. Diversity also means how people

become aware of themselves and other people within and outside their immediate environment. Diversity referred to any characteristic that people are likely to use to express themselves, that being is different from me. Differences in people such as employees can be seen in the way people think, the way they act and the different energy levels that they put into their work. Thompson, (2006) cited in Bhalia, (2013) posits that diversity is a variety of experiences and perspectives which arise from difference in race, culture, religion, physical or mental abilities, age, gender, sexual orientation and other characteristics. Cox (2001) defines diversity as the disparity of social and cultural identities among people existing together in a defined employment or marketing setting.According to Armstrong (2009), diversity refers to the given categories into which individuals fit at birth such as race, ethnicity, class, nationality and gender or that it may refer to the voluntary categories that individuals adapt to over time. Marilyn and Demand (2013) posit that diversity implies valuing the characteristics that make a person unique such as age, ethnicity, education level and family background. They further stated that the inclusion of diverse individuals in a workplace foster a greater and healthier exchange of new ideas among employees which enables the organization to harness the unique characters of the workforce.

2.4 Diversity Management

Diversity Management on the other hand is a combination of programs, policies and activities that support an environment where employees' variances are valued and united into each part of the school's operations. It supports in understanding, valuing, respecting and promoting a diverse workforce to ensure that managers preserve and capitalize on the ideas and skills all employees bring to the school. Successful diversity management initiatives improve both performance and the cohesiveness of the school. Diversity management is a process that intends to maintain and create a work environment geared towards positivity, where individual similarities and differences are valued, so that every individual's potentials can be reached in other to contribute maximally towards the organizations strategic objectives and goals.(Patrick & Kumar, 2012). Schools have become more global today, this has led to an upsurge in heterogeneousness between employees and has increased the challenges of school to manage diverse employees. Incorporating divers people and their perspectives has become major concern for every organization. The consequences for not managing diversity would lead to lack of skills, abilities, and interest in employees, which will eventually increase employee turnover and lessen individuals and schools' performance to a great extent. Schools that manage diversity are recipients of additional commitment, and better satisfied as well as performing employees.

According to Jones and George (2006), the effective management of diversity means much more than hiring diverse employees. It means learning to appreciate and respond properly to the needs, attitudes, beliefs and values that diverse people bring to an organization. It also means correcting misconceptions about why and how different kinds of employee groups are different from one another and finding most effective way to utilize the skills and talents of diverse employees. Diversity management is concerned with school efforts to ensure that all people are valued regardless of their differences. It also ensures that every employee has the opportunity to utilize their potential in other to enhance their self- development and contribute to the organization. It recognizes that people from varied background can contribute fresh ideas and perceptions that can bring about a more efficient way of work thereby increasing productivity. Successful diversity management helps an organization in nurturing creativity and innovation thereby tapping hidden capacity for growth and improved competitiveness (Patrick& Kumar, 2012). Diversity management means creating an enabling environment where diverse workforce can perform to its full potential in an equitable work environment where there are no given advantages or disadvantages to a group (Torres& Bruxelles,1992) cited in (kundu 2001). In essence diversity management is a strategy that is intended to foster and maintain a positive work environment by human resource experts or managers. Diversity management programs will

encourage recognition and respect for individual dissimilarities found amongst a group of employees. The important idea of diversity management is to inspire employees to be comfortable with diversity in workplace and develop gratitude for differences in race, gender, background, sexual orientation or any other aspects that may not be shared by every person working in the same area of the school.

2.5 Effectiveness

The concept of effectiveness is related to efficiency in education. Effectiveness is the ability to produce the desired or intended result. Igwe (2006) made a distinctive differentiation between effectiveness and efficiency. He stated that effectiveness is the accomplishment of recognizable objectives of cooperative action and that the degree of effectiveness is indicated by the degree of accomplishment. He further reiterated that, apparently an objective of co-operation is non-personal, been the aim of the system of cooperation as a whole. However, although effectiveness of co-operation effort relates to accomplishment of an objective of the system and is determined with a view to the system's requirements, efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives.

The effectiveness of an educational system refers to the achievement of the system's objectives.A senior secondary school is said to be effective if its students do well in the senior secondary school certificate examination. A subject teacher is effective if his/her students perform well in his /her subject. Therefore, effectiveness is concerned with the achievement of organization's objectives, lesson objectives, teacher's objectives among others. The ultimate goal of formal organizations is effectiveness to the extent to which organizations achieve their objectives with minimum expenditure of time and money. The effectiveness of an educational institution is the extent to which students are achieving, the teachers are satisfied, the staff morale is high, the student's drop-out rate is low, etc. In public utility it is the extent to which services are rendered promptly and satisfactorily; and for business organizations, it is the extent to which profit is maximized. Public utilities in Nigeria in general are said to be ineffective because they fail to satisfy public expectations by not rendering services promptly and adequately (Ukeje, Okorie & Nwagbara, 1992).

2.6 Staff Development as a Tool for Effective School Management

Staff development can be defined as the efforts put in at improving the performance of staff through skill development and further training. According to Daft (2003:422) in (Agabi & Akinwumiju 2008), "Training and development represent a planned effort by an organization to facilitate employees' learning of job-related behaviour". Staff development may include:

- On the job training
- Orientation training
- Classroom/workshop training
- Out-of-job training

On –the-job training: Is a training which an employee acquires in the course of performing his regular assignments. This type of training prepares the teachers for various roles. A more experience teacher is paired with a less experience teacher in the performance of a particular assignment. Through assignment as form teachers, house masters/mistresses, heads of departments, a classroom teacher can also be exposed to administrative tasks, so that when such teacher is eventually pulled from the classroom to administrative functions, he/she will not be a novice in the new position.

Orientation training: This is the first training given to new employees. The new employee is introduced to the school mode of operation. The orientation of staff is often carried out by an older staff. The new staff is introduced to the facilities in the school, the culture, standard and goals of the schools are also explained to the new staff in the course of the training.

Classroom training/workshop: This type of training is usually carried out in a classroom. Lecturers (resource persons) are invited to give lectures to school staff in a particular areas of school interest. The resource person can also be

drawn from the school itself. In this case, a staff that is knowledgeable in a particular problem area may be asked to give workshop training to other members of staff, in a classroom **Setting \Out-of-job training:** This type of training is facilitated by the employer by giving employees the opportunity to improve on their training through the acquisition of higher education. In Nigeria for instance, teachers in most public schools are encouraged to use their long vacation to acquire higher education by participating in sandwich programmes in universities. In some cases, older teachers are granted study leave to enable them acquire full time tertiary education. Such teachers are expected to acquire higher education in areas that are relevant to the school system. They are also expected to return to their jobs at the end of their training especially if such training was acquired with full salary. Out-of-job trainings are facilitated by the employers because the employer provides the enabling conditions but may not necessarily pay the fees for the training programme.

2.7 Concept of Productivity

The concept of productivity is one that could be used to explain different phenomenon in different situations but have the same meaning. Productivity is usually tied to the word 'produce' which is used to explain the output derived from a venture. In the economic world, productivity is usually used to refer to the outcome derived by an organization when an economic resource or resources are committed in the form of an input into the production of goods and/or services.

Productivity in education is how much individuals and society are getting from the education sector, given the resources they put in. This can be in form of: the quality of the inputs to the educational process, the quality of the process itself and the quality of the outputs from the process. In the 21st century, there has been a shift away from traditional models in which most students might have been viewed as passive recipients of teaching, absorbing information in an uncritical way, to a growing superficial processing of information (Elmore, 2002). Thus, nowadays, education is child-centred, everybody is interested in the performance outcome of a pupil or student.

The concept of productivity has two dimensions: efficiency and effectiveness. Efficiency refers to the level and quality of service which is obtained from the given amount of resources (Epstein, 1992) in (Adieme & Sergeant-Awuse). If the educational sector can produce a larger quantity or greater quality of output with the same amount of resources, it has enhanced its efficiency. Effectiveness refers to the level to which the provider meets the needs and demands of the stakeholders in the educational sector or clients. In the education sector, these stakeholders include: students, parents, communities, state governments, industry, and the nation at large. In Nigeria, one of the national educational goals is "the acquisition of appropriate skills and the development of mental, physical and social abilities and competencies as equipment for the individual to live in the and contribute to the development of the society" (Federal Republic of Nigeria, p.8). It often assists to view productivity in terms of inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes. Inputs are the several resources required to run the educational program. They include: financial resources, customers, clients, staff, student characteristics (academic, demographic, needs and expectations, interests); faculty characteristics; facilities (classrooms, library, buildings, instructional equipment); and instructional programs, curriculum, courses, schedules; support services (canteen, recreation, food, transportation etc.). The transformational processes are how the educational program is carried out. They are as follow: design (courses, programs, schedules. Inputs, class size); delivery (methods to deliver course material to the students); measurement of the outputs (number and frequency of quizzes, tests, assignments, continuous assessment and examinations); and evaluation of the program. The outputs are the units of service. They include: academic achievement (success rates, skill development, competency); graduation, dropout, failure; post-graduate(pass rates on professional examinations, additional education, e.g. success rates in getting admission in graduate schools);

and employment achievements (employer satisfaction) (Adieme & Sergeant-Awuse).

3. Challenges of Employees Diversity in Senior Secondary School

Although employees' diversity management offers opportunities that can enhance school performance, it also presents school organizations with several challenges. It must be recognized that employees do not set aside their cultural values and lifestyle preferences when they come to work, as such, it is expected that these innate differences must generate conflict between and among employees. Unmanaged diversity in the school environment can result in difficulties such as discrimination, ineffective communication and legal action amongst others. In the management of diversity in the school environment it is important to understand the nature of the challenges especially in a developing economy such as Nigeria, in order for school administrators to effectively and efficiently manage them. Some of these challenges include the following:

3.1 Discrimination, Prejudice and Stigmatization

Diversity in the school environment tends to generate a lot of negative treatment towards the minorsection of the population. Staff and students of the minority are discriminated against because of their social class, race, gender, or religion, physical disability, mental disability and so on irrespective of their input to teaching and learning. In some cases, they are judged not on their effort, talent or physical merit but based on factors listed. Whenever teachers and students of an educational institution are stigmatized because of their tribe, gender, race, physical disability, political affiliation or ethnicity they become resentful towards others and unwilling to teach and learn. The resultant effect is a drop in school productivity. Educational administrators, who engage in judging and prejudicing their staff and students based on certain social differences, unconsciously create an antagonistic teaching and learning environment which inhibits school growth and productivity. According to Lippert-Rasmussen (2006) in Asodike (2016), such discrimination in the work place (school environment) can restrict employees of an organization from the opportunities or privileges they are entitled to.

3.2 Fear Prevents Effective Teaching and Learning

Human beings are naturally in opposition or afraid of change. This fear of opposition to change makes teachers and students of educational institutions afraid of their colleagues who exhibit qualities or characteristics different from what they are used to. In a diverse school environment with teachers and students from different socio-economic backgrounds this fear of change prevents people from teaching and learning together. There are educational administrators or members of school staff who refuse to work with people from a certain social, ethnic, religious and cultural background. They will avoid these individuals or prefer not to assign responsibilities to them; this mentality prevents new ideas from emerging and impedes progress of the organization (Rubin, & Hewstone, 2004) in (Asodike, 2016).

3.3 Ineffective Communication in Schools

Diversity in the school environment in the form of differences in language, disability and cultures can obstruct effective communication among school administrators and students. The ability to effectively communicate an instruction or decision in schools and classrooms is vital to the success or failure of the set educational objectives. Situations where educational managers speak a different language from their subordinates can frustrate effective communication. Cultural and language barriers in educational institutions need to be overcome for diversity programs in a school environment to succeed. Ineffective communication within an educational institution leads to confusion, low morale and costly mistakes. Similarly, teachers and students with disability must also be catered for educationally. Most educational institutions require special teaching and learning materials in order to teach effectively. However, if these teaching and learning materials for the disabled

are not made available, the entire process of communicating to these disabled individuals will be compromised. Admission requirements should specify the areas the school can handle and areas they cannot in terms of teaching staff and facilities.

4. Benefits of Diversity Management

In this contemporary era of diversification, an educational institution's productivity, success and competitiveness depends upon its ability to embrace diversity and the opportunities it presents. As a result of globalization, the world has become more diverse than ever before. Businesses and educational institutions are able to communicate and exchange ideas with the people from diverse countries, tribes, races, religions, and political affiliations across the globe on "real time" basis (Jaja, 2014). This diverse business world has its advantages such as the following:

4.1 Greater Market Share

Diversity in the school environment builds an educational institution's market share. An educational institution that has a diverse group of teachers and students from different backgrounds (racial, gender and ethnic), can have a greater market share to all groups of people, from a wide range of racial and ethnic background, men and women, old and young adults. This is because the staff of such an educational institution will appear more approachable and inviting to applicants, particularly students and teachers from similar backgrounds and diverse groups that exist in the school (Asodike 2016).

4.2 Improved Flexibility

In today' fast changing world of globalization, educational institutions have to remain innovative, flexible and constantly evolving to meet up with the demands of the global market. Educational institutions which fail to evolve and change along with the times are usually left behind or swallowed up by larger institutions that are adaptive and flexible. Loysk (1996) in Asodike (2016) stated that improved flexibility or adaptability is one of the corner-stones of business success and such adaptability in the business of education is usually as a result of a diverse staff. Educational institutions with a diverse workforce can provide an increased variety of educational solutions or innovations in service, teaching and learning, even outsourcing teachers. Productivity and development can be ensured when members of staff are encouraged to bring their diverse talents, experiences and ideas into a flexible and fluctuating school environment.

4.3 Variety of Opinions, Experiences and Ideas

Diversity in the school environment creates a working environment that has a variety of viewpoints and opinions. This is an advantage to educational institutions because it provides different options to choose from in dealing with problems or in accomplishing educational goal. An educational institution that has diverse members of academic and non-academic staff, that are free to communicate their opinion, provides a reservoir of ideas and experiences that can be tapped into by the school. The educational institutions can draw from this basin of ideas to meet strategic business needs of the school and the needs of students (Lunenburg, & Ornsteen, 2009).

5. Strategies of Managing Employees Diversity

Thecurrent workforce is far more different in structure that it has been before; this is as a result of factors such as globalization and variations in demography. Diversity is ubiquitous, no two persons are similar as such there is need for the creation and implementation of diversity management strategies which will inspire all employees to reach to their highest ability resulting in higher productivity, profit and return on investment. So many strategies have been identified by scholars on the management of diverse workforce. Wentling, (2013) in Malik-Mustapha, (2011), identifies some strategies for the management of employees' diversity to include:

- Training and education program in areas such as awareness building, skill building, helping employees understand the need for valuing diversity, educating employees on specific cultural differences, providing the skills necessary for working in diverse work team and providing the skills and development activities necessary for diverse group to do their job and have the opportunity for advancement.
- Organizational policies that mandate fairness and equity for all employees.
- Organizations should provide mentoring programs for minority employees so that they won't feel intimidated.
- More systematic career guidance and planning program.
- Use of performance appraisal systems that are non-discriminatory.
- Outreach programs, such as internship programs, scholarship, targeting, recruitment in the community and lectures at school.

For diversity to succeed, the most crucial strategy is seeing it as commitment throughout the organization beginning with the top management. The school administrator must be committed to managing diversity in the entire school academic and non-academic, diversity result must be measured, that is, it must be accounted for. Managing accountability for achieving results must be emphasized and rewarded. Once this is done other diversity management strategies can be implemented. A diversity management committee can be formed, strategies like diversity training, mentoring system, appraisal systems and encouragement of work teams will be cared for by the committee. In the same vein, Jones and George, (2006) outlined eleven steps in managing diversity effectively:

Secure Top Management Committee: Top management commitment to diversity is essential for the success of diversity related initiatives. Top managers need to develop the correct ethical values and performances or business oriented attitudes that allow them to make appropriate use of their human resource.

Strive To Increase the Accuracy of Perception: One aspect of developing the proper values and attitudes is to take steps to improve the accuracy of view. Administrators should consciously attempt to be open to other points of view and perspectives. Seek them out, and encourage subordinates to do the same.

Increase Diversity Dwareness: It is natural for managers and other members of an organization to view other people from their own perspective because their own feelings, thoughts, attitudes and experiences guide their perceptions and interaction. The capability to appreciate diversity, still, requires that individuals become conscious of other perceptions and the several attitudes and experiences of others. Diversity awareness programs focus on providing organizational members with accurate information about diversity, uncovering personal biases and stereotypes, accessing personal beliefs, attitudes and values also learning about other points of view.

Increase diversity skills: Efforts to increase diversity skills emphasis on improving the manner managers and their subordinate interrelate with each other and on improving their ability to work with different people. It is important that secondary school employees are able to communicate with diverse employees. Diverse school employees may have different styles of communication, may differ in their language fluency, may use words differently, may differ in the non-verbal signals they send through facial expression and body language and may differ in the way they perceive and interpret information. Managers and their subordinates need to learn how to communicate effectively with one another if the school is to benefit from the skills and abilities of diverse workforce.

Encourage flexibility: Managers and their subordinates need to learn how to be open to diverse methods and means of doing things. They should be open and not feel vulnerable or intimidated. Employees need must be understood by the management. Managers should be flexible in balancing work life and family life, religious beliefs etc.

Pay close attention to how employees are evaluated: Managers must make certain that ample time and attention are devoted on the evaluation of employees' performance without

biases. Vague performances standards should be avoided.

Consider the number: The relevance of the under-represented groups like women and other minority groups should be recognized and appreciated for the enhancement of productivity.

Empower employees to contest biased behaviors, actions and remarks: When managers or employees observe another colleague being unfairly treated, they should be cheered to express out and rectify the situation. Top managers can make this take place by making an administrative culture that has zero tolerance for discrimination. School staff should be enabled to challenge discriminatory behavior.

Provide training utilizing a multipronged, ongoing approach: Multipronged approach would be used to increase diversity consciousness and talents in schools. These could be use of films and printed materials supplemented by experiential exercises to uncover hidden biases and stereotypes, sometimes a forum for learning and discussion of differences, values experiences should be encouraged. Group exercises, role plays, and diversity related experiences can help organizational members develop the skills they need to work effectively with a variety of people.

Employees should be rewarded for effectively managing diversity: If management of diversity is effectively valued in the organizational objectives, then employees should be rewarded for their role to the school objective.

Diverse employees should be encouraged to be mentored: Mentoring is very important for minorities. Mentoring is a method whereby an experienced member of the school (mentor) offers advice and guidance to a less experienced member (protégé) and helps the less experienced member learn how to advance in the school and his career. For effective diversity management mentorship must be encouraged.

6. Inclusion as a Strategy for Management of Employee Diversity

Creating an inclusive working environment is more than just giving everyone equal opportunity. It is about letting individuals to be themselves at work, respecting differences and allowing them know that their contribution is appreciated. Inclusion at its most basic level is about ensuring that no one is disenfranchised as a result of age, gender, race, nationality, religion, physical or mental disabilities or social background. It also involves bringing together and harnessing the diverse unique forces and resources possessed by man in a way that makes the institution to benefit from the differences. For schools to achieve this, educational managers must attempt to create an environment of involvement, respect and connection to enable the institution to maximize from the pool and richness of ideas, backgrounds and perspectives for the creation of business, value and goal achievement. In essence, for managers to attain inclusion they need to consider the needs of the unique individuals who make up an organization instead of not putting them into boxes based on certain characteristics (Nara 2012).

The U.S. Diversity and Inclusion Plan (2010-2015) proposed some policies for managing and incorporating inclusion as a strategy for managing diversity. They submit that inclusion can be applied as a strategy by:

- Applying hiring flexibilities/authorities and recruitment strategies to actively build a diverse applicant pool.
- Reviewing employee view point survey results to identify actions
- Reviewing attrition surveys that are linked to job satisfaction
- Implementing outreach plans for all outreach programs through recruitment, information sharing, networking and public relations
- Mentoring, coaching and provision of support for all diverse groups
- Participation of all diverse employees in career development activities
- Encouraging employees to seek or participate in more complex activities
- Supporting, rewarding and identifying all actions that encourage excellence in the workplace.

The U.S. department contends that these policies are necessary because inclusion is the ability to leverage the myriad of differences towards high-performing organizations (U.S. Department of

the Interior 2012). Diversity naturally exits but inclusion is only achieved when the culture is open to change, willing to adapt to differences and embarks on a journey to become more cross racially competent (Hudson, 2011).

7. Conclusion

This paper concludes that diverse work team brings high values to organizations, therefore respecting individual differences benefit the work place by creating a safe and fair work environment where everyone has access to challenges and responsibilities this implies that employees should be integrated, accommodation and managed appropriately for goal realization. It also concluded that recruitment should come from different sources in respective of age, gender, religion and culture to avoid homogeneity. School administrations ought to have a conscious understanding of the problems that affect employee diversity, breed new knowledge and implement management practices to prevent its occurrence.

8. Recommendations

This study hereby recommends that:

- School administrators should have a conscious understanding of employee diversity in educational institutions. Thereby, allocating courses to employees in their area of specialization in order to bring about effective productivity.
- Government should have an understanding of how to manage employee by prompt payment of salaries, employees who are due for promotions should be promoted.
- Schools and government should create and maintain policies guiding diversity management and manage employees in accordance to those differences as this will reduce if not eradicate discrimination, stereotypes and prejudice.
- Rivers State is a multicultural state. School administrators and policy makers should not carry their cultural experiences and perspectives to their educational decisions and actions to avoid cultural conflicts in a pluralistic school environment instead cultural synergy should be created in workplace. A positive climate in an inclusive workplace will foster and promote diversity.

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The Practice of Inclusion and the Training Needs of Inclusive Education Teachers in Relation to Geographical Location in Lagos State

MOJISOLA NKECHI MANUEL, EMIOLA ADETOUN GLADYS
University of Lagos, Nigeria

Abstract. Inclusive education demands the equal rights of both special needs and regular learners in the general classroom irrespective of disabilities and geographical location. The implementation of inclusion following the UNESCO'S standard requires a huge commitment of human and material resources as well as adequate teacher preparation. It was observed that Lagos State Government embarked on the implementation of inclusion in the State since 2003. In view of this, the study investigates the practice of inclusion with special reference to teacher's status, training, practice and teacher's ratings of the performance of special needs learners in the inclusive units situated in a defined geographical location, Lagos State. The sample consisted of all the eighty three (83) teachers in the 29 inclusive units in the geographical area known as Lagos State. Three (3) research questions and two hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. Descriptive survey research design was used. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics while the hypotheses were tested using chi-square at 0.05 level of significance. Some notable findings are that, not all the teachers in the inclusive units were beneficiaries of the inclusive training conducted twice so far. Learners with hearing impairment topped the rating list by trained and untrained teachers. Similarly, trained teachers attested that there was a marked difference in their classroom delivery as a result of the training. Against the aforementioned, the study recommends that the inclusive units in all geographical locations in the State should be majorly manned by trained regular teachers and that government should invest in more support to aid the learning of other learners.

Key words: Geographical location, inclusive education, special needs, trained teachers, teacher's status

1. Background to the Study

The early years in the life of any child are regarded as the 'formative period' in which development is most rapid and uttermost care needed. The justification for providing adequately for childhood years, according to Osanyin (2013), lies in the recognition and acceptance of the fact that early learning influences later learning, and that a favorable geographical environment is essential for early learning. To this end, Sopekan (2013) suggests that a children's pre-school is a healthy environment for providing healthy life style and positive experiences for children. Juke (2007), also hints that school readiness depends on cognitive, motor and socio-emotional development. Consequently, strategies that promote total growth and development of all children are to be evolved,

Various researches in the field of child development have established that the first five years of life are extremely crucial to a child's

intellectual, emotional, social and physical development. These are the most impressionable years as they lay the foundation for the development of the child's personality. Concomitant with the above, Trembay (2000), advances that the significance of the early years in shaping the quality of a child's growth, education, health and economic welfare has been recognized in child's growth and development research. There are evidences according (Osanyin 2012), that during early childhood, brain cells grow in abundance, Patterns of behaviour, competency and learning are initiated and established while social environmental factors begin to modify genetic inheritance. From the foregone, it can be deduced that when children are found at an early age to have a form of disability that may likely hinder learning, such that they may require learning in a segregated setting, including them in a general classroom may bring faster cure to them. This is because, at this critical stage, the brain is undergoing rapid development which may be encouraged through inclusion. In the words of (Hornby 2000), "An abundance of teachable moments occur during infancy and the pre-school period that can be best used in the inclusive settings with teachers who are trained to recognize such developmental opportunities".

In the context of international protocols and conventions such as the Rights of the Child, Education for ALL (EFA) goal 1, and the Millennium Development Goals, it becomes necessary to ensure that every child lives, grows well, and develops to full potential, protected and allowed to participate meaningfully and productively in the society.

The US congress in 1975 passed a law which specifies the rights of all children with special needs, and those who had been excluded from public schools due to disabilities, to a free, appropriate public education in the least restrictive environments.

The provisions of the 1994 Salamanca conference on special needs and education paved the way for the Lagos State government's decision to implement inclusion in schools within its geographical boundary in 2003. The State currently has 29 inclusive units spread across its 17 local government areas. Consequently, a higher number of children with special needs have found themselves in the general classrooms. The inclusion of children with special needs in the general classroom is referred to as inclusive education. Inclusion is therefore, a form of educational reform as it alters the existing structures in the school system. These structures are linked to placement options, curriculum modification and pedagogy, learning styles, materials, space and the total environment (Nwazuoke, 2007).Inclusion demands that the schools change in order to meet and improve the learning needs of all children in a given community within a geographical area, with particular reference to learners with special needs (Obani, 2006). Inclusion also recognizes that any child can experience difficulty in learning which may be short lived, long term or at any time during the school career. It is evident therefore that the schools need to continually review themselves to meet the needs of learners with diverse needs irrespective of the geographical location they are situated. Similarly, Kavale (2000) suggests that in order to avoid harm to the academics of learners with special needs in a general classroom, a full range of human and material services/resources are required, which include; support equipment, trained teachers, and support staff, organization of staff scheduled meeting, creation and evaluation of the learners together. Invariably, inclusion requires the adaptation of the school's curriculum to make it accessible to children with special needs. According to Cook & Landrum (2000), one of the most important determinants of inclusion is the attitude of the general education teacher towards accommodating children with special needs. Their findings revealed that, most general education teachers requested for additional planning time, training and resources for inclusive teaching. They further asserted that positive teacher attitude towards inclusion of children with special needs starts with proper preparation and training because the attitude of teachers can be significantly influenced by their own perceived level of efficiency.

Since the inception of inclusive education especially in developing countries such as Tanzania and Ghana, research documents of Ubani (2006), have reported unfavorable perception of inclusion by general classroom teachers. This was linked to lack of support facilities and inadequate staff training. This implied that there was no sufficient preparation for the implementation of inclusion programme.
Major contributions of inclusive education programme according to UNESCO (1994), relate to its ability to:

- Address and response to the diversity of needs of all children
- Increase children participation in learning
- Reduce and eliminate exclusion within and outside school
- Strengthen the capacity of the schools system to reach out to all children and be understood as a strategy to achieve Education for All.

The major impetus for inclusive education was given at the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, held in Salamanca, Spain, June 1994 where more than 300 participants, representing 92 governments and 25 international organizations considered the fundamental policy shift required to promote the approach of inclusive education, in order for schools to serve all children particularly children with special needs.

The UNESCO's Salamanca statement on Inclusion documents that:
"Every child has a basic right to education and that every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs."
The statement emphatically declared that those with special education needs must have access to regular schools. The document noted that regular schools with an inclusive ethos are the most effective way to combat discriminatory attitudes, create welcoming inclusive communities and achieve education for all.

The Salamanca Statement requests governments to:

- Give the highest priority to making education systems inclusive.
- Adopt the principle of inclusive education as a matter of law and policy.
- Develop demonstration projects.
- Encourage exchanges with countries with experience of inclusion.
- Set up ways to plan, monitor and evaluate provisions for children and adult.
- Invest in early identification and intervention strategies.
- Invest in the vocational aspect of inclusive education.
- Make sure there are adequate teacher education programmes for inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994).

Section 7 of the National Policy on Education, (2004) also affirms the Nigeria government's commitment to the education of children with special needs through inclusion. The policy document asserts that government will provide all necessary infrastructures and material resources needed to ensure the education of children with special needs in the general classroom through inclusion. With this backdrop, the Government of Lagos State flagged off its inclusive education campaign in 2003 with two inclusive units at Ikorodu, (Ipakodo Primary School) and Oshodi, (Oshodi Central Primary School). These two schools were to serve as model schools for inclusive education in Lagos State.

In 2006, additional 27 inclusive units were established across the State. The first inclusive education training was conducted for teachers in February/March 2007. The training, organized by the University of Ibadan Consult was specifically for the head teachers of the inclusive units and some selected regular and special teachers. The second training was conducted in 2008. In 2009, a five-man committee was set up and entrusted with the task of reviewing the State Policy in order to come up with a policy statement for inclusive education programme in Lagos State.

However, the state of inclusive education programme in Lagos State and how it is run raised some concerns relating to the approach and evaluation. For instance:

- On what bases were the additional 27 inclusive units established three years after the two pilot schools?
- What was the frequency and duration of training received by inclusive head teachers and the selected teachers?
- Why were all the teachers not trained for the practice of inclusion?
- Why was the inclusion policy only formulated six (6) years after takeoff?

The Lagos State government's inclusive education policy proposed that:
Regular classroom teachers shall be trained on the rudiments of inclusive and special need education.
It also stipulated that

- Free and compulsory education shall be provided for children with disabilities with a teacher/pupil ratio of 1:10 in all inclusive units.
- Vocational training shall be emphasized for the intellectually disabled after which there is award of certificate and job placement.
- Public structures shall be erected in a way that persons with special needs are put into consideration.
- Appropriate assessment centers shall be created in each education district.
- Relevant professional shall be on ground for appropriate placement.
- Implement 30% of basic salary as special allowance for teachers in inclusive units.

Regrettably however, research findings revealed that not all the teachers in the Lagos State inclusive classrooms were exposed to the training conducted for teachers in 2007 and 2008 respectively. Moreover, since the inception of inclusive education practice in Lagos State, it appears that little or no research has been carried out to evaluate its practice with a view to ascertaining its relevance. It is to the foregone and other questions that might arise in the process of this investigation that this study intends to address.

2. Statement of the Problem

Early Childhood period is the most vulnerable and crucial stage of a child's life. The child develops to his best potentials only if properly stimulated by the right people in the right situation within the right environment. Therefore, access to a free and compulsory basic education (irrespective of abilities or disabilities) is a fundamental right of every child, knowing full well that the educational experiences that the child is exposed to during this period are crucial to his or her future. Unfortunately however, Ajuwon (2008), in a review of inclusive education in Nigeria, points out that there has been little or no free access of children with special needs into the general classrooms and that the programme's impact is yet to be felt by the populace. Contrary to this view however, the inclusive education enrolment data reveals an influx of children with special needs into the general classrooms since the inception of inclusion by the Lagos State Government in 2003, SUBEB (2013).

It is against this background that this study seeks to evaluate the practice of inclusive education in early childhood classrooms in Lagos state with a view to assess the available facilities, teacher training and preparation and the mode of practice of inclusive education in Lagos State. To the best of the researcher's knowledge and based on extensive search of the literature, no empirical studies have been done to evaluate the practice of inclusive education in the early childhood classrooms of Lagos State as a geographical location in Nigeria. Hence this study was designed to fill this gap in our knowledge and to chart a way forward for inclusivity.

3. Research Questions

- Is there any difference in the trained and untrained teachers' ratings of learners' performance?
- What is the relationship between inclusive teachers training and teachers classroom practice?
- Is there any difference in the perception of children without special needs and

children with special needs towards inclusion?

4. Significance of the Study

This study is deemed significant because it would assist educational planners to have an immediate feedback on the relative effectiveness of the current inclusive programme in Lagos State.

The significance of the study will also be in the provision of data concerning the ongoing inclusion programme in Lagos State.

The information that will be provided in this study will help the Lagos State Government to review, reform and map out strategies that will lead to quality inclusive education practice.

The study is also significant in that it will reveal the need for training and re-training of inclusive education teachers in Lagos State.

5. Definition of terms

Inclusive Education: The education of children with special needs and other children in the early childhood regular classrooms.

Geographical Location: the particular position a place occupies on the earth's surface

Special needs Children: This refers to children who have been determined medically to require special attention and specific amenities in the school environment that other children do not need.

Teachers' Practice: This refers to the various strategies used by teachers in the early childhood inclusive classrooms to maximize learning for children with and without special needs.

Support: These are all the human and materials facilities that should be in place for effective implementation of inclusive programme.

Teachers' Perception: This refers to the ideas and beliefs of teachers in the early childhood inclusive classrooms towards the inclusion of children with special needs.

6. A View of Lagos State Inclusive Education Policy

It is proposed in the Lagos State government inclusive education policy that:

- All children with special needs are eligible for placement in the general classrooms
- Regular classroom teachers shall be trained on the rudiments of inclusive and special need education.
- Free and compulsory education shall be provided for children with disabilities with a teacher/pupil ratio of 1:10 in all inclusive units.
- Vocational training shall be emphasized for the intellectually disabled after which there is award of certificate and job placement.
- Public structures shall be erected in a way that persons with special needs/learning difficulties are put into consideration.
- Appropriate assessment enters shall be created in the state in each education district and relevant professionals shall be on ground for appropriate placement.
- Government shall implement 30% of basic salary as special allowance for teachers in inclusive units.

Inclusive Units in Lagos State

S/N	LGEA	INCLUSIVE UNITS	EDU. DISTRICT
	Agege	Amosu Pry Sch Ore-ofe Pry Sch	District 1 District 1
	AjeromiIfelodun	Anglican Pry Sch	District 5
	Alomsho	L.G Pry Sch Igando Oki Complex Pry. Sch, Alaguntan	District 1
4.	Amuwo-odofin	1. Amuwo Odofin.Pry. Sch. mile Central Pry. Sch .festac.	District 5
5.	Apapa	Methodist Pry. Sch. Apapa. Sari Iganmu Pry. Sch. Iganmu.	District 4
6.	Badagry	Muslim Pry. Sch. Badagry. L.A. Pry Sch. Ajara Road.	District 5
7.	Epe	A.U.D. Pry. Sch. Epe.	District 3

		Methodist Pry. Sch. Agbowa.	
8.	Eti-Osa	Army Children Sch. Bonny Camp. Eti-Osa. Addo Pry.Sch.	District 3
9.	Ibeju-Lekki	R.C.M. Pry. Sch. Okuraye. R.C.M. Pry Sch. Ayeteju	District 3
10.	IfakoIjaye	All Saint Pry. Sch. Iju Road. New Oko Oba Pry. Sch. Iju	District 1
11.	Ikeja	Bola Memorial Pry Sch. Army Children Pry Sch. Ikeja.	District 6
12.	Kosofe	Maryland Pry. Sch. G.R.A. Pry. Sch. Ogudu Ojota	District 2
13.	Lagos Island	Ereko Methodist Pry sch. ST. Joseph Pry Sch. Elegbata	District 3
14.	Mushin	Ojuwoye Community Pry Sch. Olosa Pry. Sch.	District 6
15.	Ojo	Akanji Aka Pry Sch.11. Ajangbadi Pry. Sch.	District 5

6.1 Categories of Special Needs Learners in Lagos State Inclusive Units

With the exception of the regular learners, the Lagos State Inclusive Education Units have Six (6) categories of learners with special needs as classified below:

- Physically impaired learners
- Visually impaired leaners
- Hearing impaired learners
- Autistic learners
- Intellectually impaired learners
- Learning disabled learners

7. Methodology

This section highlights the various strategies employed in this study.

7.1 Research Design

The study adopted the descriptive survey method for the baseline study. Survey studies aim at describing the characteristics of a population by examining a sample of the group.

7.2 Area of the study

The study was carried out in the 29 early childhood education inclusive units of Lagos State.

7.3 Population of study

All eighty three (83) early childhood education teachers in the twenty nine (29) inclusive units located in the geographical area were involved in the study (Of these 83 teachers 41 had been trained for the practice of inclusion) and all children aged 3-8 years in the inclusive units of Lagos State were also involved in the study.

7.4 Research instruments

In order to assess the practice of inclusion and training needs of teachers in early childhood classrooms in Lagos State, data was collected using the following instruments namely: structured questionnaires for teachers and for children; and structured Interview for teachers

7.5 Data analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was adopted for the analysis of the data collected. Research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as: frequency counts, percentages, mean scores, and standard deviation.

Research Question 1a: What are trained teachers' ratings of learners with special needs in the inclusive classroom?

To determine trained teachers' ratings of learners with special needs in the inclusive classrooms, a cross tabulation of disability types and teachers' ratings were used .The result is presented in 1a

Table 1a: Trained Teachers' ratings of children with special needs in the early childhood inclusive classroom.

Trained Teachers' Ratings of children with special needs in the early childhood inclusive classrooms of Lagos State

Disability Types	Poor	Fair		Good	Very Good	Total
Visual Impairment	11 26.8%	26 63.4%		2 4.9%	2 4.9%	41 100.0%
Hearing Impairment	4 9.8%	8 19.5%		24 58.5%	5 12.2%	41 100.0%
Intellectual impairment	23 56.1%	4 9.8%		3 7.3%	11 26.8%	41 100.0%
Learning Disability	4 9.8%	26 63.4%		8 19.5%	3 7.3%	41 100.0%
Physical Disability	5 12.2%	24 58.5%		6 14.6%	6 14.6%	41 100.0%
Autism	24 58.5%	7 17.1%		8 19.5%	2 4.9%	41 100.0%
Total		71 28.9%	95 38.6%	51 20.7%	29 11.8%	246 100.0%

Table 1a above representing views of trained teachers on the performance of children with special needs in the early childhood inclusive classrooms reveals that respondents rate the performance of children with special needs as follows:

Children with hearing impairment topped the list with 58.5% of the teachers rating of good performance. Both children with visual impairment and learning disability have fair rating in their performance by 63.4% teachers and this was closely followed by children with physical disabilities who are equally rated fair in their academic performance by 58.5%.Whereas, children with autism and intellectual impairment have poor rating in their academic performance by 58.5% and 56.1% teachers respectively.

Research Question 1b

Table 1b Untrained teachers' ratings of learners with special needs in the inclusive classroom?

To determine trained teachers' ratings of learners with special needs in the inclusive classrooms, a cross tabulation of disability types and teachers' ratings were used.

The result is presented in 1b

Disability types	Untrained Teachers' Ratings				Total
	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	
Visual Impairment	12 28.6%	25 59.5%	3 7.1%	2 4.8%	42 100.0%
Hearing Impairment	5 11.9%	10 23.8%	22 52.4%	5 11.9%	42 100.0%
Intellectual impairment	25 59.5%	5 11.9%	4 9.5%	8 19.0%	42 100.0%
Learning Disability	5 11.9%	26 61.9%	6 14.3%	5 11.9%	42 100.0%
Physical Disability	6	20	10	6	42

	14.3%	47.6%	23.8%	14.3%	100.0%
Autism	23 54.8%	9 21.4%	6 14.3%	4 9.5%	42 100.0%
Total	76 30.2%	95 37.7%	51 20.2%	30 11.9%	252 100.0%

Table 4b above representing views of untrained teachers reveals that in the inclusive early childhood classrooms the respondents rate the performance of children with special need as follows:

Children with hearing impairment topped the list with 52.4% of the teachers rating them good in performance. While children with learning disability are rated fair in performance by 61.9% of the respondents. Similarly, children with visual impairment are also rated fair in performance by 59.5% of the respondents, followed closely by the rating of children with physical disabilities who were equally rated fair in their academic performance by 47.6%. However, children with intellectual impairment and autism are rated poor in academic performance by 59.5% and 54.8% respondents respectively.

Research Question 2: What relationships exist between inclusive teachers' training and teachers' classroom practice?

To determine the relationship between teachers' training and teachers classroom practice, a cross tabulation of the percentage of individual opinion for each items was collated under linker type questionnaire. The results are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Perception of Inclusive Training and Trained Teachers' Classroom Practice

ITEM	SA	A	D	SD	Total
Teaching in the regular classroom is not different from teaching in the inclusive classroom	3 7.3%	7 17.1%	4. 9.8%	27 65.9%	41 100.0%
Inclusive training has impacted positively on my classroom delivery	10 12.2	5 12.2%	16 39.0%	10 24.4%	41 100.0%
Knowledge obtained from inclusive training is not different from general education knowledge	9 22.0%	4 9.8%	20 48.8%	8 19.4%	41 100.0%
My classroom delivery is still the same as before	4 9.8%	12 29.3%	5 12.2%	20 48.8%	41 100.0%

Note- This questionnaire was administered to only the teachers who claimed to have been trained Findings from the table revealed that 31 out of the 41 respondents disagree that teaching in the regular classroom is not different from teaching in the inclusive classroom. While 26 of the respondents disagree on the notion that inclusive training has impacted positively on their classroom training. Similarly, 28 of the respondents also disagree that knowledge obtained from inclusive training is not different from general education knowledge while 25 of the respondents attested to the fact that their classroom delivery is still the same before they were trained.

Research question 3: What will be the perceptions of regular and special needs learners in the early childhood inclusive classrooms towards inclusion?

To determine the perception of regular learners in the inclusive classrooms towards inclusion, a cross tabulation of items and the children's yes and no questionnaire was used. The result is presented in Table 3a.

Table 3a: Perception of regular children (LD) to inclusion.

S/N	Statement	Yes (%)	No(%)
1.	Do you like everyone in your class?	38 (76)	12 (24)
2.	Do you feel disturbed by special needs learners in your classroom?	19 (38)	31 (62)

3.	Does your teacher give the special needs learners more attention than she gives you?	33 (66)	17 (34)
4.	Do you want them to remain in your class?	36 (72)	14 (28)
5.	Do you want their parents to take them to another school?	10 (20)	40 (80)
6.	Do you like everyone with special needs in your class?	31 (62)	19 (38)
7.	Do you have a deaf friend?	37 (74)	13 (26)
8.	Do you have a blind friend?	37 (74)	13 (26)
9.	Can you invite them to your birthday?	30 (60)	20 (40)
10.	Do you think they are performing well in school?	30 (60)	20 (40)

The table above reveals that 38 out of 50 i.e. (76%) of children without special needs like everyone in their class. 31(62%) do not feel disturbed by special needs children and 33 (66%) do not feel that the teachers give special needs children more attention. In addition, 36 (72%) will want children with special needs to remain in the classroom, while 40 (80%) do not want the parents of the special needs children to take them to another school. 31 (62%) like everyone with special needs in their classrooms. 37 (74%) have hearing impaired friends while 37 (74%) have visually impaired friends. Similarly, 30 (60%) can invite special needs children to their birthdays and 30 (60%) feel that special needs children are doing well.

Table 3b: Perception of special needs children towards their inclusion.

S/N	Statement	Yes (%)	No (%)
1.	Do you like everyone in your classroom?	32 (64)	18 (36)
2.	Do your classmate make jest of you?	17 (34)	33 (66)
3.	Does your teacher give other children more attention than you?	12 (24)	38 (76)
4.	Do you want to remain in your class?	38 (76)	12 (24)
5.	Do you want your parents to take you to another school?	14 (28)	36 (72)
6.	Do you like your teacher?	30 (60)	20 (40)
7.	Doe your class mate like you?	38 (76)	12 (24)
8.	Do they play with you?	30 (60)	20 (40)
9.	Are you happy in your classroom?	32 (64)	18 (36)
10.	Do you feel bad in you class?	17 (34)	33 (66)

Responses in the table reveals that most of the special needs children i.e. 32 (64%) like everyone in their classrooms, 33 (66%) of the special needs children do not feel that their mates make jest of them. Similarly, 38 (76%) of the special needs children do not feel that children without special needs get more attention than them, while 38 (76%) of the children with special needs will still want to remain in the same classroom and 36 (72%) of the special needs children do not want their parents to take them to another school. In the same vein, 30 (60%) children with special needs like their teachers while 38 (76%) children with special needs think their classmate like them, 30 (60%) children with special needs attests that children without special needs play with them, 32 (64%) children with special needs agree that they are happy in their classrooms and 33 (66%) children with special needs do not feel bad being in the classrooms.

Hypotheses Testing

H_o 1: There is no significant difference in the performance ratings of children with special needs by trained and untrained teachers' in the inclusive classroom.

Table 4: Cross tabulation of trained and untrained teachers' ratings of learners with special needs in the early childhood inclusive classrooms

		Rating of Learners Disabilities				Total
		Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good	
Training	Trained Teachers	71	95	54	29	249
	Untrained Teachers	76	95	51	30	252
Total		147	190	105	59	501

The entries in each cell are the frequency of subjects appropriate to the cell. Each cell is a representation of the sum of counts from each question asked from the respondents about the ratings of children with special needs/learning difficulties in the inclusive units. From this table, it appears that the differences between the groups are in the preferences for the 'Poor' and 'Good' ratings.

Table 5: Chi-square tests trained and untrained teachers' rating

	Value	Df	A symp. Sig (2-sided)
Person Chi-Square	255	3	968
Likelihood Ratio	255	3	968
Linear-by-Linear Association	087	1	768
N of Valid Cases	501		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.32.

The Chi-Square Tests table contains the information needed for evaluating null hypothesis. We do not reject H_0 and conclude that differences between the ratings of learners' disabilities by the trained and untrained teachers are not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that: There is no significant difference in the performance ratings of children with special needs/learning difficulties by trained and untrained teachers' in the inclusive classroom is hereby accepted.

$\chi^2(3, n=501) = 0.255, p=0.968 > .05$.

H_{02}: There is no significant difference in the perception of children without special needs and children with special needs to inclusion

The chi-square table of independence evaluates the differences between groups (regular and special needs learners). In other words, the test procedure tests independence (association) between two variables. This hypothesis was tested with the first five (5) items of the research questions for the two (2) groups

Table 6: Regular and special needs learners' perception of inclusion.

		PERCEPTION TO INCLUSION		Total
		Yes	No	
LEARNERS	Regular Learner	27	23	50
		54.0%	46.0%	100.0%
	Special Needs Learners	23	27	50
		46.0%	54.0%	100.0%
Total		50	50	100
		50.0%	50.0%	100.0%

Table 7 **Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.640[a]	1	.424		
Continuity Correction[b]	.360	1	.549		
Likelihood Ratio	.641	1	.423		
Fisher's Exact Test				.549	.274
Linear-by-Linear Association	.634	1	.426		
N of Valid Cases	100				

0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.00.
Computed only for a 2x2 table

The chi-square tests table shows that the chi-squared statistic is 0.64. The $p > 0.05$ which means that we do not reject the null hypothesis of independence between the perception of children without special needs and those with special needs to inclusion, Therefore, we can conclude that there is no significant difference between the groups. The hypothesis is hereby accepted.

8. Recommendations

Inclusive education is all about creating equity and access to education for all categories of special needs children of school going ages. The reality of this requires that necessary steps be taken by the government and the general public in order to ensure that persons with disabilities are well provided for educationally and not denied the fundamental rights to education. Education should be seen by the government as a basic human right and the foundation for a more just society, therefore:

- There must be a well formulated and practical policy statement on inclusive education on the national level and must be implemented accordingly.
- There must be organized networking among all the bodies and professionals (governmental and non- governmental) working with children with special needs for collaborative effort in problem solving, exchange of ideas and acquisition of new strategies from time to time.
- Government must make provision for both human and material resources to make inclusive education practice successful. Teachers' must be motivated as they work with children with special needs in the general education settings. The implication of inclusion in Nigeria will inevitably create new and increased demands on the teachers as well as stake holders. With the growing number of inclusive schools teachers are expected to make adaptations and accommodations to the curriculum.
- There is need for curriculum modification so as to accommodate all categories of persons with special needs in the general classroom settings.
- Inclusive education should be included in the curriculum of all prospective teachers' at colleges of education, polytechnic and university level.
- Inclusive education requires the modification of all education structure so as to be able to create necessary accommodation for all categories of special needs persons; therefore, government must restructure all schools physical structures so as to make it possible to all categories of exceptional persons to access quality education in the general education settings.
- There is need for governments to do all within their power to encourage positive societal attitude towards persons with disabilities. It is obvious that the negative attitude of the Nigerian society towards persons with disabilities stems out of our belief and this somehow hinders the full acceptance of those with disabilities.

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Sports Administrators' Health Watch for Young Athletes' Participation in Sports for Commercialization in Nigeria

KAYIT SIMON, SUNDAY ONI OWOJAIYE
University of Jos, Nigeria

Abstract. This research report "Sports Administrators' Health Watch for Young Athletes' Participation in Sports for Commercialization in Nigeria" was culled to exhume the modus operandi for catching sports athletes from secondary schools. The population for this research is five hundred (500) senior secondary school students randomly selected from twenty (20) SSS I students from Kwara and Kogi States. The instrument used for data collection was researchers structured questionnaire that consists of ten (10) items that has to do with psycho-social and physio-technical factors. The psycho-social factors deal with 5 items while the physio-technical factors deal with 5 items. Data gathered was done by the researchers and ten research assistants. The data analysis was done using t-test method. Based on the results of data analysis and the discussions, it was discovered that:

(i) act of hooliganism resulting to injuries and even death deterred students.
(ii) Drug abuse; and techniques of curbing it. iii. Early sexual indulgence hinder students.
(iii) Non-motivation of sports students.

Based on the discoveries, it was recommended that:

- The Federal, State and Local Government should through the Sports Council in each state, monitor the athlete star hunt during inter-house athletic competitions in the secondary schools.
- Monetary awards of 50,000 to 100,000 must be attached to students that are record breakers.

Keywords: Sport administrators, Health watch, Young athletes participation and commercialisation

1. Introduction

Being an athlete means one is endowed with attributes of physically sound, morally, social and physiologically well developed. An athlete is viewed to pass 85% of what World Health Organization postulated as qualifying factor of a totally, all round developed person. Athletics, being sport requiring great agility, coordination of the mental thinking faculty for reaction time, well built ectormorphic, mesomorphic and endomorphic physique predicted by adequate nutrition requirement for hundred meters runners, running and throwing, shot putting and hammer throwing athlete respectively. The foremost enumerated attributes are the ideals required of an athlete (the psycho-social requirement). The former are qualification of the athlete (dendrite factor requirement) and the foremost being (physiological factor requirement) (Eniola, 1994). These all round

total development requirement had been found to be unachievable due to certain impediments vis-à-vis (i) high injuries rate (Denali, 2002); (ii) lack of care during outings (Omolawon, 1999); (iii) inadequate staff to handle athlete (Agonsi, 2002); (iv) parental discouragement (Agonsi, 2002); (vi) peer influence (Ajala, 1999); (vi) inadequate facilities and equipment (Agoni, 2002); (vii) psychological problem (Ajayi, 1998); (viii) poor economic status (Agonsi, 2002); and (ix) lack of effective and athletic planning strategy (Eniola, 1994).

All the hindrances/impediments of athletic development in Nigeria are efficious because these sports demand the use of mostly teenagers who fall within age 10-18 years and young adults of age 19-35 years. The former age group, according to Angosi (2002), fall within primary school to secondary school ages in Nigeria. Through exceptionally brilliant ones may be in the university. While the latter are professionals who would have gone to American. Angosi (2002) submission in psycho-social factor affecting effective athletic performance in Nigeria, while Emiola's (1994) are physio-technical factors. And physio-technical factors affect the activities inherent in preparatory period, competitive period and post competitive period. Nigerian coaches/teachers have not totally internalized the techniques of these periods which are divided into phases, dates and recommended exercises.

2. Statement of the Problem

Synthesis of factor affecting effective athletic performance in Nigeria (i.e. psycho-social and physio-technical impediments) form the basis upon which findings was anchored.

3. Research Hypotheses

- Technical factors influencing effective
- Male and female students do not significantly perceived the psycho-social factors influencing effective athletics performance in Nigeria.
- Male and female students do not significantly perceive the physio-technical factors influencing effective athletics performance in Nigeria.

4. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to find out factors influencing effective athletic performance. (i) Whether it is high injury rate (ii) Poor economy (iii) Lack of skills (iv) Lack of care during outings (v) Unavailability of staff (vi) Lack of care during outings (vii) Psychological problems (viii) Parental discouragement (ix) Peer group influence and (x) Insecurity/hooliganism.

5. Significance of the Study

This research aimed at sensitizing physical and health education teachers and coaches on reason why effective athletic performance are not recorded in Nigeria. And to recommend to the sports councils the best method to employ to raise the standard of athletics competitions within Nigerian secondary schools. To encourage sports administrators to catch young athletes from secondary schools with the purpose of making these students star athletes in Nigeria.

6. Definition of Terms

Psycho-social factors: These are factors that influence the thinking faculty of the athlete; the variable that encourage an discourage the act of engagement and zeal for participation.

Physio-technical factors: These are factors that influence the body build, variables like feeding, medical, money facility and person.

7. Research Methodology

The research design used for this study was a descriptive survey research method. This is a method recommended for educational research (Awolola, 2001) where a lot of issues have to be synthesized. The population for this study was all the secondary schools in Kwara State or Kogi State of Nigeria. The sampled population consists 500 students, 250 male students and 250 female students drawn from twenty (20) secondary schools in the two states. The

sampling technique employed for selecting the sampled population was a simple random sampling technique. Twenty five (25) students were selected each from each of the SSS 1 students in ten (10) secondary schools in each of the state capitals. The instrument designed for the study was a researcher structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed for students of age 12-18 years in Senior Secondary School One (SSS 1) so that the language of these questionnaires would be comprehended. The students were asked to pick either SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, UN = Undecided, D = Disagree and SD = Strongly Disagree. The validity of the instrument was determined by face and content validity. The researcher designed the questionnaire, showed to four (4) lecturers in the Department of Physical and Health Education, 2 from University of Ilorin and 2 from Federal College of Education, Okene. These lecturers ascertained the comprehensiveness of the questionnaire's contents as using split half. Two hundred (200) questionnaires were administered to one hundred (100) SSS 1 students from 2 secondary schools. The distributed questionnaire to the students was under the surveillance of the researcher.

7.1 Procedure for Data Analysis

Data gathered was analyzed using t-test statistical method at 0.05 level of significance and at 249 degree of freedom to find out the factors that affect effective athletic performance in the two states (Adegboye, 2001).

7.2 Result and Data Analysis

Data analyses were from the administered questionnaire. The research hypothesis served as guide for the analysis.

Research Hypothesis One: There will be no significant influence of students' perception of psycho-social factors affecting effective athletics performance in Nigeria.

Table 1a: Students' perception of psycho-social factors affecting athletic performance
N = 250

S/N	VARIABLES STATEMENTS	SEX	RESPONSES				
			SA Strongly Agree	A Agree	UN Undecided	D Disagree	SD Strongly Disagree
1.	Lack of care during athletics outing hinder effective athletics performance in Nigeria.	M	83 (5329)	150 (22500)	5 (25)	15 (225)	7 (49)
		F	38 (1444)	189 (35721)	3 (9)	11 (121)	9 (81)
2.	Psychological factors (away from home always) are the problems of athletes.	M	62 (3894)	179 (32041)	1 (1)	5 (25)	3 (9)
		F	69 (4761)	169 (28561)	3 (9)	7 (81)	2 (4)
3.	Parents discouragements are the prospective athletics' hindrances.	M	44 (1936)	187 (34969)	5 (25)	9 (81)	2 (4)
		F	88 (7744)	141 (19881)	3 (9)	15 (225)	3 (9)
4.	Peer group influences (on smoking, drinking, facing academic, getting boyfriends and sex) hinder athletes from effective performance.	M	64 (4096)	171 (29241)	1 (1)	11 (121)	3 (9)
		F	43 (1849)	191 (36461)	2 (4)	10 (100)	4 (16)
5.	Insecurity (hooliganism) serves as threat to athletes' engagement in athletic performance.	M	65 (4225)	179 (32041)	1 (1)	2 (4)	3 (9)
		F	43 (1849)	185 (3425)	3 (9)	15 (225)	4 916)

Table 1b: t-test summary on students' perception of psycho-social factors affecting athletic performance

t-test calculated	t-test critical	Df	Hypothesis @ 0.05	Result
Obtained from the analysis	Obtained from the table	c-l	& @ 24 degree of freedom	The male and female students significantly perceived psycho-social factors affecting athletic performance.
M = 2.499	2.064	24	Rejected	
F = 2.498	2.064	24	Rejected	

Table 1 above shows students' perception of psycho-social factors affecting athletic performance. The t-test calculated value = m = 2.499 = f2.498 t-test critical (table) value = 2.064 the val. 2.499 > 2.0064) critical m = 2.499 f = 2.498. The formulated null hypothesis is rejected. There is significant influence of these factors on athletic performance. Hooliganism during athletic meeting resulting into student sense of insecurity militates against their zeal to involve in athletics. This discovery corroborated Agon's (2000) who confirmed that students' fear of being killed by rival schools students served as the highest ranked factor influencing their athletic performance. Other factors are peer group influence, lack of care, psychological and parent discouragement found to have been advanced by Ajala (1999), Agnosi (2000), Ajayi (1998) and Omlawon (1999) respectively. These factors are what principals at (ANCOPSS meeting) are to address because the rivalry within the secondary schools could have been predicated by insufficient love within the schools and inter-colligate crashes.

Table 2a: Students' perception of physio-technical factors affecting athletic performance
N = 250

S/N	VARIABLES STATEMENTS	SEX	RESPONSES				
			SA Strongly Agree	A Agree	UN Undecided	D Disagree	SD Strongly Disagree
1.	High injury during athletics practice and outing hinder athletics performance.	M	96 (9216)	14 (19881)	1 (1)	9 (81)	3 (9)
		F	53 (2809)	171 (28241)	3 (9)	11 (121)	2 (4)
2.	Lack of monetary incentives and economic buoyancy affects the athletes.	M	85 (7225)	139 (19321)	4 (16)	17 (289)	5 (25)
		F	74 (5496)	149 (22201)	5 (25)	19 (361)	3 (9)
3.	Lack of skills for athletics performance affect the athletes.	M	82 (6724)	151 (22801)	3 (9)	11 (121)	3 (9)
		F	66 (4356)	169 (28501)	2 (4)	10 (100)	3 (9)
4.	Lack of facilities and equipments for practice and competition hinder athletics performance.	M	63 (3969)	171 (29241)	3 (9)	12 (144)	1 (1)
		F	76 (5776)	151 (201)	2 (4)	17 (289)	4 (16)
5.	Lack of qualified PE teachers and coaches affect effective athletics performance.	M	76 (5776)	150 (22500)	3 (9)	19 (361)	2 (4)
		F	73 (5329)	149 (22201)	4 (16)	21 (441)	3 (9)

Table 2b: t-test summary on students' perception of physio-technical factors affecting athletic performance

t-test calculated	t-test critical	Df	Hypothesis @ 0.05	Result
Obtained from the analysis	Obtained from the table	c-l	& @ 24 degree of freedom	The male and female students significantly perceived physio-technical factors affecting athletic performance.
M = 2.499	2.064	24	Rejected	
F = 2.500	2.064	24	Rejected	

Table 2b above reveals students' perception of physio-technical factors affecting effective athletic performance in Nigeria. The t-test calculated value = M 2.499, 2.500 while the t-test critical (table value = 2.064 the cal. Val. > cri Val. (M = 2.499, F = 2.500 > 2.064). The stated null hypothesis remained rejected. There is significant influence of these factors affecting effective students' involvement in athletics performance. High injury sustained without adequate medical attention ranked highest among the factors. This finding supports Danladi's (2000) where amenorrhea are found to be prevalent among the female athletes. Also, lack of monetary gains attached to secondary school prizes for athletes. Lack of adequate athletic skills, lack of qualified coaches/physical educationists who are genuinely interested in the sports and games and lack of scientific current facilities and equipment in the secondary schools for practice and competition are discovered by Agonsi (2002), Emiola (1994), Agonsi (2002) and Agonsi (2000) respectively were the factors hindering effective athletic performance in Nigeria. It could be concluded that at secondary schools' level, provision of incentives, stocking these schools with facilities could go a long way to motivate the athlete

(students). Even at the inter-house athletic competitions, one discover 85% zeal for performance and the issuance of jerseys for the houses, what more is the federal state or local government sponsor these inter-house athletics competitions.

8. Conclusions

Based on the results of data analysis and the discussions, it could be concluded as follows:
89.2% (223) male students are afraid to indulge in sporting activities due to lack of care during athletic outings; therefore effective athletic performance dwindle in Nigeria.

90.8% (227) female students afraid that they are afraid indulging in sporting activities because they feared that they may not have adequate care; suppose they are injured, sleeping arrangement, defence against rape during athletic activities.

91.2% (228) males and female, the majority of the students do not indulge in sporting activities because of insecurity (hooliganism) during athletic engagement. Greater numbers of female students are exceptionally feared of hooliganism.

89.6% (224) male and 89.6% (223) females are afraid that monetary incentives and zeal for economic buoyancy that are not paid affect athletic performances.

90.4% (226) males and 88.8% (222) females are not convenient engaging in sporting activities because of lack of qualified physical education teacher and coaches to guide students' engagement in sporting activities.

Monetary incentives should be attached as prizes during inter-house athletic competitions to the status of scholarship, money ₦50,000 – ₦100,000 for the final year (SSS III) qualified athletes.

Principals should be sensitized through the (ANCOPSS) meeting ensure their schools to live in peace with their neighbor schools.

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Part Five
Educational Psychology

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Impacts of Consumption of Meal on Academic Achievement in Basic Science among Junior Secondary Students in Rivers State

WISDOM J. OWO, LONGINUS NWALA
Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Port Harcourt, Nigeria

Abstract. This study examined the impact of meal consumption on junior students' academic achievement in basic science. It is a cross sectional study carried out on 1960 students who enrolled and stayed in their school for at least two years. They were selected from 24 public Junior Secondary Schools in three senatorial districts in Rives State. They responded to a meal time survey scale (MTSS) used to obtain data on the rate of meal intake. Average score of two years Basic Science examination results of the students was taken as the measure for academic achievement. The results were collected from the student's schools and the average score determined to indicate the achievement level of each of the participants. Percentage, mean and Anova were the statistical tools used in data analysis. Results showed that majority of the students do skip their breakfast and lunch but had their dinner. It also showed that daily eating of breakfast, lunch and dinner significantly ($p<.05$) promotes academic achievement of students. Thus we recommended that parents should ensure that their children or ward regularly consume breakfast, lunch and dinner on daily basis. Also, government should implement the school free feeding programme.

Keywords: Meal consumption, Basic science, Academic achievement, Junior Secondary School.

1. Introduction

The rising knowledge of the value of nutrition in the promotion of growth, good health, disease prevention as well as in the enhancement of general physiological and psychosocial well being of man has led to a greater concern about the kinds of food and the feeding patterns of man especially the young ones-school children and adolescents. Food can be characterized as any solid or liquid substance which when taken into the body supplies the body with chemical substances called nutrients, which are necessary for the body to carry out its functions. The nutrients in food are generally classified into six, which are carbohydrates, proteins, lipids (fats), vitamins, minerals and water. Essentially, food is eaten for the purpose of gaining energy, growth, repair and replacement of worn out tissues as well as for the overall maintenance and regulation of various activities in the body.
The importance and benefits of food in the human body have been documented. Davis, Melina and Berry (2010) reported that the cells in the human body got energy from food calories in the form of macronutrients from carbohydrates, proteins and fats. According to them the recommended total daily calories should include 45-65% of carbohydrates, 12-20% from proteins, and 20-35% from fats.

Food reinforces the body with energy, vitamins, and minerals which are concern with processes that promote neuronal survival (Paus,2010), and promote the syntheses of neurotransmitters which have to do with the efficient flow of information across synapses (Gómez-Pinilla,

2008). Deficiencies or excesses of certain micronutrients can lead to nerves damage in the brain, and thus bring about alterations in memory, impairment of brain function and reduction in the ability to solve problems (Gustafson, 2010). Vitamins and minerals are also very essential in humans even though they are needed in small amounts (Sorhaindo and Feinste, 2006). They help in the production of energy, give support to the walls of blood vessels, promote good vision, bone formation, and have antioxidant functions (Brown, Beardslee and Prothrow-Stith, 2008). Minerals also play a role in maintaining water balance, bone formation and strength, stability of protein structure and immune responses ((Gustafson, 2010). Food is taken for the overall nourishment of the body and for the promotion of healthy living. This can only be achieved through proper dieting such as taking a balanced diet and eating regularly at normal mealtime otherwise malnutrition will occur. Poorly fed children are more prone to death and when they are alive they are likely to experience ill- health and stunted growth rate, and will not be capable to face academic work.

2. Theoretical Framework of the Study

This study relies on Maslow's hierarchy of individual's need. It provides the framework for the conceptualization and understanding of the relationship existing between nutritional needs or food and academic achievement.

Abraham Maslow's (1943) arranged human needs in hierarchical manner from the simple or basic to intricate needs in increasing order of importance as physiological needs, safety needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs, and the need for self-actualization. Maslow (1943) describes the body's physiological need for food, especially in terms of maintaining homeostasis of water, salt, macronutrients, vitamins, minerals, and temperature within the bloodstream. Achievement which simply connotes attainment, success or accomplishment is the desire of every individual because everyone has a need for self-esteem i.e. need to be regarded, valued recognized or respected. According to Maslow, man's primary need is the physiological need that must be satisfied, without which every other need is unimportant. In addition, Maslow opined that once the needs at the lower level are met or satisfied, needs at higher levels begins to surface and governs the individual's thoughts and actions because the satisfaction of lower needs drives one towards higher needs. Going by the Maslow's hierarchy of need, the need for achievement will not drive an individual's thoughts and actions until the basic physiological needs (nutritional needs or food) are gratified. This presupposes that a hungry student cannot be driven to engage in any meaningful learning activities that require one's cognitive processes, attentiveness, alertness, active engagement, and concentration to achieve academic success until he or she is well fed. And so, Maslow's hierarchy establishes an association between food and academic achievement.

3. Eating Habit and Academic Achievement

A review of the link between dietary intake and achievement carried out by Burrows, Goldman, Pursey and Lim (2017) showed that the overall quality of diet correlate with academic achievement of children and adolescent. Again studies on the influence of nutrition on achievement of school children has established that malnourished children or children who eat imbalanced or unhealthy diets exhibits certain kind of behaviours that can hamper learning and academic performance (Kleinman et al., 1998; ASFSA,1989; Parker, 1989). Such bahviour problems may include irritability, apathy, inattentiveness, and lower self-esteem. Research also reveals that the level of children nutrition can directly modify mental ability of school-aged children. For example, hunger following insufficient food consumption is reported to be related with lower grades, higher rates of absenteeism, repetition of class or a grade, and inability to focus or pay attention among students (Taras, 2005; Pollitt, Cueto and Jacoby,1998; Alaimo, Olson and Frongill, 2001).

Lieberman (2003) noted that amino acid and carbohydrate can enhance perception and reasoning. Iron deficiency can decrease the

transmission of dopamine and thus, affects cognition adversely (Pollitt,1993). Lack of or inadequate intake of fruits, vegetables, or dairy products is linked with lower grades among students (MacLellan, Taylor, and Wood, 2008; Neumark-Sztainer, Story, Resnick ,and Blum,1996). Also, deficiencies in vitamins and minerals such as thiamine, vitamin B, vitamin E, iodine, and zinc have been reported to impair cognitive abilities and mental attentiveness (Gustafson, 2010; Chenoweth, 2007). In addition, deficits of some vitamins like vitamin A, B6, B12, C, folate and minerals such as iron, zinc, and calcium are correlated with lower grades and higher rates of absenteeism and lateness among students (Taras, 2005; Kleinman et al.,2002). Furthermore, research showed evidence of improved academic grades and standardized test scores, reduced absenteeism, and increased cognitive performance (e.g. memory) of student following student participation in the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) School Breakfast Program (Bradley and Green,2013; Taras, 2005).

Literature have also proved that the most researched meal time and its impact on learning is the breakfast. Breakfast is the first meal taken in the morning of each day. It is the meal that provides the first source of nutrients and energy for the day, and so helps the brain deal successfully with the demands of the morning (Bellisle, 2004). Eating breakfast can enable the brain acquire the nutrients and energy necessary to function effectively to promote mental and body coordination as well as cognitive activities such as thinking, memory, attention and learning. According to Marquez et al (2001) performance of children on vigilance attention, logical reasoning, arithmetic and problem solving is improved once children consume breakfast. To Vishnukumar, Sujirtha and Ramesh, (2017), Adole and Ware (2014), Gajre, Fernandez, Balakrishna and Vazir (2008), Widenhorn-Müller, Hille, Klenk and Weiland (2008) eating breakfast is correlated with learning outcome and better performance of school children in school activities. Skipping breakfast was also found to have relationship with decreased cognitive performance (such as rate of alertness, attention, memory, processing of complex visual display, problem solving) among students (Gajre, Fernandez, Balakrishna and Vazir,2008; Widenhorn-Müller, Hille, Klenk and Weiland, 2008; Benton and Jarvis, 2007).

Adole and Ware (2014) carried out an assessment on the association between breakfast eating habits and cognitive performance of early adolescents in Shebedino District, Sidama Zone, Southern Ethiopia. In the study a sample of 211 early adolescents aged 11 – 13years old randomly selected from 4 kebeles responded to both questionnaire that assesses breakfast eating habits, socio-economic and demographic factors, and Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children -II tests used to measure cognitive performance. Results indicated significant association between regular breakfast eating habits and Simultaneous scale and Pattern Reasoning ($P<0.001$), mother education ($P<0.001$), and Sequential scale accounting for 13.7% variation. It is also significantly associated with Pattern Reasoning accounting for 31.6 % variation.

Vishnukumar, Sujirtha and Ramesh (2017) carried out an exploratory cross sectional study to assess and compare the nutritional status, academic achievement and behaviour of school going children eating breakfast and those skipping it. The study was conducted using a sample size of 195 school going students within the age range of 10-16 years old obtained from selected schools in Batticaloa district of Sri Lanka. In the study data on background characteristics and breakfast consumption habits were collected using questionnaire while data on the children's food intake was obtained using the 24-hour dietary recall method. From the results of the study, the researchers found that breakfast skipping was common among school going children. Again, they found significant difference in a number of parameters like memory ($p<0.01$), concentration ($p<0.01$), grades obtained ($p<0.01$), attendance ($p<0.01$) amidst others, between breakfast skippers and non-breakfast in favour of the non-breakfast skippers. The study therefore reveals that skipping breakfast negatively influences the

nutritional status as well as the school performance of the students.

4. Statement of the Problem.

Although there is increased evidence of the impact of diet, nutrition, or feeding habits on academic achievement or the relationship among them in advance countries with developed and better economies, the impact of diet and nutrition on school performance in developing countries is somewhat knotty to assess and can be explained by several factors such as home/parent related factors, school factors, teacher and student related variables among other variables. Different reviews indicate that only few studies have investigated the relationship between breakfast skipping and cognitive performance in adolescents in different countries (Hoyland, Dye and Lawton, 2009., Rampersaud, 2009., Taras, 2005). But none of the studies takes a comprehensive assessment of the impact of feeding habits and the frequency of meal time eaten (i.e. breakfast, lunch and dinner) per day on academic achievement.

Again, While studies on the effect of diet, nutrition or feeding pattern on students' performance have been conducted in different countries, empirical studies on the impact of consumption of breakfast, lunch and dinner on academic achievement among Nigerian primary and secondary schools children are scarce. Hence this present study is conducted in Rivers State, Nigeria to assess the impact of meal on academic achievement among school children and adolescents

5. Objectives of the Study

- To investigate how often students eat breakfast, lunch and dinner in a week
- To determine the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of Breakfast (B) per week.
- To determine the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of Lunch (L) per week
- To determine the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of Dinner (D) per week
- To determine the mean academic achievement of students with respect to the number of meal consumed per day.

6. Research Questions

- How frequent do students eat each of breakfast, B., lunch, L; and dinner, D per week?
- What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption breakfast?
- What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to how regular they consume lunch per week?
- What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of dinner per week?
- What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to the number of meal (BLD, BL, BD and LD) consumed per day?

7. Null Hypotheses

HO_1: There is no significant difference in the mean academic achievement score among students with respect to how regular they have their breakfast.

HO2: There is no significant mean difference in the academic achievement score among students with respect to rate of consumption of lunch per week.

HO3: There is no significant mean difference in the academic achievement score among students with respect to rate of consumption of dinner per week.

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the mean academic achievement score among students with respect to the number of meals consumed per day.

8. Methodology

The study is an exploratory one. It adopted exploratory cross-sectional survey research design. This design is chosen because it allows

for the collection of information from the sample only once. In this design, a researcher can only have a once for all observation of the independent variable without the manipulation or control of the variable.

8.1 Sample

1960 students who enrolled and stayed in their school from JS1- JS3 were selected from twenty (24) State owned Junior Secondary Schools in six local Government Areas of Rivers State. The schools were selected through stratified random sampling procedure based on the stratification of the state into three senatorial districts.

8.2 Method of data collection and Analysis

Data were collected through the administration of Mealtime Survey Scale (MTSS) on the students. The MTSS was designed by the researchers and administered to the students with the assistance of their class teachers as to generate data on students' feeding habits. The students were properly guided on how to respond to the items on the MTSS.

Average score of two years Basic Science examination results of the students (participants) was taken as the measure for academic achievement. The results were collected from the student's schools and the average score determined to indicate the academic achievement level of each of the participants.
Data obtained were analyzed using simple percentages and mean to address the research questions while one-way analysis of variance was used to test the research hypotheses.

9. Results

Research Question 1: How frequent do students eat breakfast, B., lunch, L; and dinner, D per week?

Table 1: Students' Response on the frequency of their meal time (Breakfast, Lunch and Dinner) per week

S/No.	Item Statement	Response			
	Section B: Meal time.	**Daily (7days/week**	**5-6 days/ Week**	**3-4 days/ Week**	**1-2 days/ week**
	How regular do you				
1	Eat your breakfast, B?	450 (22.96%)	390 (19.90%)	502 (25.61%)	618 (31.53%)
2	Eat your lunch, L?	158 (8.06%)	490 (25.0%)	688 (35.10%)	624 (31.84%)
3	Eat your dinner, D?	497 (25.36%)	699 (35.66%	684 (34.90%	80 (4.08%)
	Section C: Available number of Meal time.	**BLD**	**BL**	**BD**	LD
	As a student				
4	Which of this meal time do you have on daily basis?	450 (22.96%)	278 (14.18%)	732 (37.35%)	500 (25.51%)
		Breakfast	**Lunch**	**Dinner**	
5	if you cannot eat breakfast, lunch and dinner (BLD) daily, which of these meal times will you prefer to skip most days?	610 (31.12%)	879 (44.85%)	471 (24.03%)	
		BL	**BD**	**LD**	
6	if you are given an opportunity to choose two meal times, which of the two meal time will you choose?	306 (15.61%)	1044 (53.27%)	610 (31.12%)	

Results in table 1 showed that 22.96% of the participants had their breakfast daily, 19.90% agreed having theirs between 5-6days/week, and 25.61% often have their breakfast between 3-4 days/week while 31.53% of the participants had theirs between 1-2 days/week. This means that majority of the participants do often skip breakfast. On the consumption of lunch, 8.06% of the participants indicated consuming lunch daily, 25% indicated having theirs 5-6days/week, 35.10% showed that they consume it 3-4days/week, and 31.84% agreed having it 1-2days/week. Again, this revealed that above half of the participants do skip lunch. The table also showed that 25.36% of the participants are daily dinner eaters, 35.66% indicated having their dinner 5-6days/week, 34.90% indicated eating their dinner 3-4days/week, and 4.08% indicated having theirs 1-2days/week. This means that majority of the participants do not skip dinner.

Regarding the number of meal available per day, table 1 also showed that 22.96% indicated consuming breakfast, lunch and dinner, BLD., 14.18% indicated eating only breakfast and lunch, BL., 37.35% indicated often consume only breakfast and dinner, BD, and 25.51% eat only lunch and dinner, LD. This showed that majority of do not had regular meal per day. In addition, responses to item 5 which addresses meal that students would preferred to skip most days indicated that 31.12% of the participants preferred to skip breakfast, 44.85% preferred to skip lunch while 24.03% preferred skipping dinner most days. More so, with regard to students' preferred two meal time (item 6), table 1 indicated that 15.61% indicated preference for breakfast and lunch, BL., 53.27% had preference for breakfast and dinner, BD while 31.12% preferred lunch and dinner, LD

.

Research question 2: What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption breakfast?

Table 2: Mean academic achievement of students with respect to breakfast consumption

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Daily (7days/week)	61.6111	450	17.05114
5-6 days/week	58.2513	390	17.02526
3-4 days/week	50.8865	502	16.29852
1-2 days/week	49.1327	618	14.51357
Total	54.2612	1960	16.88991

Table 2 showed that those who often had their breakfast had the highest mean achievement (61.6111, SD=17.05), students that had breakfast 5-6days/week had mean =58.2513, SD=17.02526., students that on the average consume their breakfast 3-4 days/week had mean 50.8865, SD=16.29852 while those who often had theirs between 1-2days per week had mean=49.1327, SD =14.51357. This indicates that the mean academic achievement decreases wit decrease in the rate of consumption of breakfast.

HO_1: There is no significant difference in the mean academic achievement score among students with respect to how regular they have their breakfast.

Table 3: ANOVA of mean difference in academic achievement of students with respect to breakfast consumption.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p-value)
Corrected Model	13381.216[a]	3	4460.405	22.833	.000
Intercept	4619321.750	1	4619321.750	23646.667	.000
Groups	13381.216	3	4460.405	22.833	.000
Error	382100.085	1956	195.348		
Total	5722083.000	1960			
Corrected Total	395481.302	1959			

a. R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .032)

Data in table 3 showed that the difference in mean academic achievement is significant, F=22.833, P<.05. And so, HO_1 was rebuffed. Multiple comparison of the difference in mean achievement using LSD revealed that only the mean difference in academic achievement between students who consume breakfast 3-4days/week and those that consume theirs 1-2days/week was not significant (mean diff =1.7538, p=.07 whereas all others showed significant difference.

Research question 3: What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to how regular they consume lunch per week?

Table 4: Mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of lunch per week

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Daily (7days/week)	60.5380	158	17.08750
5-6 days/week	57.7735	490	17.98408
3-4 days/week	51.2558	688	17.46083
1-2 days/week	49.2099	624	14.55666
Total	52.9821	1960	17.15706

Table 4 showed that those who usually take their lunch daily had the highest mean achievement (60.5380, SD=17.08750), while the students that had breakfast 5-6days/week had mean=57.7735, SD =17.98408, and the mean academic achievement of students that consume their lunch 3-4 days/week is 50.8865, SD=16.29852 while those had their lunch 1-2days per week was mean=49.1327, SD =14.51357. This means that the mean academic achievement decreases wit decrease in the rate of consumption of lunch.

HO2: There is no significant mean difference in the academic achievement score among students with respect to rate of consumption of lunch per week.

Table 5: ANOVA of mean difference in academic achievement of students with respect to consumption of lunch per week

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (P-value)
Corrected Model	31198.773[a]	3	10399.591	37.292	.000
Intercept	4189001.658	1	4189001.658	15021.566	.000
Groups	31198.773	3	10399.591	37.292	.000
Error	545461.602	1956	278.866		
Total	6078591.000	1960			
Corrected Total	576660.375	1959			
a. R Squared = .054 (Adjusted R Squared = .053)					

ANOVA test for significant difference in mean academic achievement among the groups of the students with respect to how regular they had their lunch per week (table 5) showed that the mean difference was significant, F=37.292,p<.05.Therefore, HO_2 was rejected. Multiple comparisons of the difference in mean achievement using LSD revealed that apart from the mean difference in academic achievement between students who consume lunch daily and those that consume lunch 5-6days/week that was not significant (mean diff =2.7645, p=.071, all other comparisons were significant. Multiple comparisons of the difference in mean achievement among the groups of students with regards to their habitual lunch revealed that the difference in mean achievement between students that had their daily lunch and those that normally have theirs 5-6 days/week was not significant (mean diff=2.7645, p>.05) whereas all other comparisons showed significant difference.

Research question 4: What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of dinner per week?

Table 6: Mean academic achievement of students with respect to rate of consumption of Dinner per week

Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Daily (7 days/week)	59.9819	497	17.71941
5-6 days/week	51.7783	699	17.99421
3-4 days/week	49.7266	684	14.29832
1-2 days/week	47.8500	80	16.13480
Total	52.9821	1960	17.15706

Table 6 showed that the highest mean achievement score (59.9819, SD=17.71941) was for students who regularly have their dinner daily, while the students that had dinner 5-6 days/week had mean=51.7783, SD =17.99421, and the mean academic achievement of students that consume their dinner 3-4 days/week was 49.7266, SD=14.29832 while those that normally have their diner 1-2days per week had mean=47.8500, SD =16.13480. Thus, the result here indicates that mean academic achievement of students decreases with decrease in the rate of students' consumption of dinner.

HO_3: There is no significant mean difference in the academic achievement score among students with respect to rate of consumption of dinner per week.

Table 7: ANOVA of mean difference in academic achievement of students with respect to the rate of consumption of dinner

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p-value)
Corrected Model	34720.833[a]	3	11573.611	41.772	.000
Intercept	2517822.044	1	2517822.044	9087.471	.000
Groups	34720.833	3	11573.611	41.772	.000
Error	541939.542	1956	277.065		
Total	6078591.000	1960			
Corrected Total	576660.375	1959			
a. R Squared = .060 (Adjusted R Squared = .059)					

Table 7 showed that the differences in mean achievement among the groups of students with respect to how regular they had their dinner was significant ($F=41, p<.05$). And so, HO_3 was not retained. Multiple comparison of the difference in mean achievement using LSD indicated the mean difference in academic achievement between students who had their dinner 3-4days/week and those that consume theirs 1-2days/week was not significant (mean diff =1.8766, $p>.05$) whereas the rest comparisons showed significant difference.

Research question 5: What is the mean academic achievement of students with respect to the number of meal (BLD, BL, BD and LD) they eat per day.

Table 8: Mean academic achievement of students with respect to the number of meals eaten daily.

Meal Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Breakfast, Lunch and Dinner, BLD	55.013	450	13.802
Breakfast and Lunch, BL	46.302	278	13.257
Breakfast and Dinner, BD	53.663	732	14.590
Lunch and Dinner, LD	52.028	500	14.162

Data in table 8 revealed that students in the meal group, BLD had the highest mean academic achievement score (mean =55.013, SD= 13.802) followed by those in the group BD (mean=53.663, SD=14.590) then the group, LD (mean=52.028, SD=14.162) while those students in the meal group, BL had the lowest mean (mean=46.302, SD=13.257).

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the mean academic achievement score among students with respect to the number of meals consumed per day.

Table 9: ANOVA of difference in mean academic achievement score among students with respect to the number of meals consumed per day

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p-value)
Corrected Model	14621.929[a]	3	4873.976	24.451	.000
Intercept	4665143.250	1	4665143.250	23402.900	.000
Group	14621.929	3	4873.976	24.451	.000
Error	389909.801	1956	199.340		
Total	5809197.000	1960			
Corrected Total	404531.730	1959			

a. R Squared = .036 (Adjusted R Squared = .035)

Table 9 showed that mean difference in academic achievement among students based on the number of meal consumed per day was significant ($F=24.451$, $p<.05$.

Using Least Significant Difference multiple comparisons of the difference in mean achievement among the groups of students with regards to their habitual number of mealtime per day revealed that the difference in mean achievement between students that had their daily breakfast, lunch and dinner (BLD) and those whose regularly had breakfast and dinner alone as their daily meal was not significant (mean diff=1.3508, $p>.05$) whereas all other comparisons differ significantly.

10. Discussion of Results

Results showed that greater percentage of the students do skip their breakfast and lunch daily and eat dinner. Meal skipping especially breakfast has been reported to be common among school children and adolescents (Vishnukumar, Sujirtha and Ramesh, 2017). This could be linked to students rushing to avoid lateness to school and or no food on the table due to some familial factors like socioeconomic status of parent amongst others. With regards to the number of meal available per day for students, above 70% of the students do not regularly eat meal per day as only 22.96% of them indicated that they usually consume three time meals- breakfast, lunch and dinner per day while the rest consume two time meals. One interesting result of this study is the preference of students to skip a meal in the event they have a need to do so. Above 40% of the students preferred to skip lunch. Again, considering the students' preferred two meal per day in the event they cannot have three time meal, 53.27% of them preferred to consume breakfast and dinner, BD, while 31.12% preferred lunch and dinner**,** and 15.61% indicated preference for breakfast and lunch. The high preference for BD is likely to be associated with their perceived importance or benefits of breakfast and dinner in promoting students engagement in classroom activities and night prep/studies respectively. Significant differences was observed in the mean academic achievement among students with respect to consumption of breakfast, lunch as well as in the consumption of dinner as students who regularly consume breakfast daily were found to have significantly higher mean academic achievement than did those students who consume breakfast 5-6days/week, 3-4days/week, and 1-2days/week. The same trend was observed for those regularly consume lunch and dinner. This finding concurs previous studies in children and adolescents that made it known that regular eating of morning meal promotes better academic achievement (Vishnukumar, Sujirtha and Ramesh, 2017., Adole and Wuse, 2014). Rampersaud (2009) and Alaimo, Olson, and Frongillo (2001) presented that regular eating of breakfast enhances standardized test score, problem solving, cognitive and memory performance among school children. Eating breakfast can increase the rate of cognitive processes and functions such as episodic memory, attentiveness, concentration in class and in other academic activities and hence improved learning and academic achievement while lack of or irregular breakfast can interfere and impede cognitive processes and lead to poor academic achievement among school children. In addition, the observed significant impact of breakfast, lunch and dinner on academic achievement suggests that with regular meal intake students are better able to stay and learn

in class and at home, experience decreased rate of absenteeism and less behavioural disorder and hence improve in their academic achievement.

11. Conclusions

This study has indicated that adequate meal is sine qua non to academic achievement of students in basic science. It revealed that there is significant difference in students' achievement with respect to rate of consumption of each of breakfast, lunch and dinner in a week. Again, significant difference in academic achievement was observed among students with respect to the number of meal they consume per day. It showed that students that regularly eat breakfast, lunch and dinner daily had higher and significant academic achievement than did students who eat only breakfast and lunch daily, and those who only eat breakfast and dinner daily as well as those who eat only lunch and dinner daily. The study also showed that students had more preference for breakfast and dinner as two meals they will not like to skip daily.

12. Recommendations

Regular meal intake is very necessary for promoting ideal cognitive development, cognitive processes and learning as well as academic achievement and so there is the need to accord appropriate attention to regular consumption of meal.

Thus we recommend that:

- Parent should ensure that their children or ward regularly consume breakfast, lunch and dinner on daily basis.
- Government should implement the school free feeding programme

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Discovery and Emancipation of Basic Science and Technology Students' Behaviour from School Environment Constraints

MOSES OLANREWAJU AFUWAPE
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

FUNMILAYO ADEOLA ADEYI
The College of Education, Lanlate, Oyo State

Abstract. The study investigated the school environment as one of the predictors to students' behaviour in Basic Science and Technology. The design of the study was survey type while the population comprised (50) Basic Science and Technology teachers and (450) public and private junior secondary school students in the selected local government areas in Ogbomoso Educational zone of Oyo state. A self-developed questionnaire on School environment predictors of Students behaviour in Basic Science and Technology was prepared for data collection. The instrument was validated, a cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient method was employed to ensure the reliability of the instruments. One research question and one null hypothesis guided the study. The result were analyzed using frequency count, mean and simple percentage, while t-test statistics was used to test the hypothesis at 0.05 level of significance.
The result showed that unattractive school environment, non-availability of highly equipped library, non- availability of standard Basic Science and Technology laboratory, non-availability of necessary infrastructure like chairs, tables, chalkboard and shelves, Poor school principal's inspection, Noisy environment, Indiscipline on the part of the principal, teachers and students, Insurgence and poor welfare condition. All these have significant effect on behaviour of Nigerian students towards Basic Science and Technology and also call for immediate emancipation for the sake of effective learning. Based on these findings, recommendations were made.

Keywords: School environment, students' behaviour and Basic science and Technology

1. Introduction

Education is the medium by which an individual achieves success in life and it lays the foundation of personality (Kumar, 2017).

Basic Science and Technology, as one of the school science subjects, is an approach to teaching of science. It is a subject that cuts across the school science education curriculum and is needed in all branches of science, applied science and social science. It calls for constant school environmental encouragement and improvement .while students' behavioural pattern is crucial to development of interest in various school subjects.

Dupper (2010) maintains that students misbehave because there are mismatches between their needs and the socio-environmental factors that are within their immediate environment. Student misbehaviour is not only the naughty behaviour of the student but also the

behaviour that disturbs the effective teaching and learning process (Ghazi, Gulap, Muhammad & Khan, 2013) and that interrupts the saner and safer school environment (Schleicher, 2015). Student misbehaviour is a source of worry for all school stakeholders (Gutuza & Mapolisa, 2015; Marais & Meier, 2010; Ramjanally, 2015).

School-related factors that influence the behaviour of the students of secondary schools are factors that emerge from within the immediate environment of students. These factors are related to the external system, namely the school, peer pressure, the family, the community and the media. They are the social systems in which students are influenced by other people in their daily life (Marais & Meier, 2010).

School environment is crucial in this study as it influences students' behaviour intermittently. It consists of both material and non-material resources, It includes the teachers, peers, cohesiveness, the subjects, and method of teaching. A healthy and attractive school environment makes for conducive learning and promotes students' pride in their schools and their interest to stay in school (Mgbodile, 2004). Graff (1987) in Nwizu (2003) warned that the environment in which the learner acquires knowledge has a great influence on the cognitive achievement of the learner. It has also been generally agreed that the quality of learning is markedly influenced by environmental and organizational factors.

Environmental influence before now has not been considered as one of the factors that affect academic performance in secondary schools hence it has little or no attention in educational discourse and consideration. But, over the last decade, remarkable studies have indicated a correlation between the environment and academic performance of students. A student outcome and academic success greatly influenced by the type of school they attend. School factors include school structure, school composition and school climate. The school one attends is the institutional environment that sets the parameters of one's learning experience. As schools are faced with more public accountability for student academic performance, school level characteristics are being studied to discover methods of improving achievement for all students.

Tsavga (2011) maintains that the learning environment plays a vital role in determining how students perform or respond to circumstances and situations around them. This implies that no society is void of environmental influences. The learning environment determines to a large extent how a student behaves and interacts, That is to say that the environment in which we find ourselves tends to mould our behaviour so as to meet the demands of life whether negatively or positively. Awule, cited in Aliade (2008), stated that learning environment should have good infrastructural development, adequate trained teachers, good leadership and adequate instructional materials among others.

Korir & Kipkemboi (2014) state that student outcome and academic success greatly influenced by the type of school they attend. Nwangwu (1990) gave the characteristics of school environment to include school buildings, classrooms, furniture, playgrounds, sporting facilities, laboratories, libraries and equipment which aid the teachers in effective delivery of lessons. According to State of Maine (2002) school environment includes the physical and aesthetic surroundings and the psychological climate and culture of the school.

Odeh, Oguche, Angelina & Ivagher, (2015) investigated the influence of school environment on academic achievement of students in secondary schools in Zone "A" Senatorial District of Benue State, Nigeria. The results of the study indicated that school climate, discipline and physical facilities has significant influence on academic achievement of secondary school students in Zone 'A' Senatorial District of Benue State. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommended among others that school authorities should endeavour to provide a conducive school environment that has good climate for effective teaching and learning. Such environment should be safe, fair and student-friendly.

According to (Chukwuemeka, 2013) environments play major roles in the life of every individual whether a student, teacher, employer or employee. The challenge of education today is to offer experiences that provide students with opportunities to develop the understanding, skills, and attitudes necessary to become life-long learners, capable of identifying and solving problems and dealing with changes. This is particularly important in secondary education, as specified in the National Policy on Education (FGN, 2014) that prepares the students for useful living in the society and for higher education (FGN, 2014). There are three levels of education in Nigeria: the primary, secondary, and tertiary. Secondary education is the education children receive after primary education, but before tertiary education. In order to achieve the goals of secondary education, the environment has to be conducive to learning. In fact, education thrives well only if there is good learning environment to assist learners to get the necessary information at each stage of learning. The environment constitutes an important aspect of the learning process. Hence, it is pertinent to critically look at the environmental factors (school building, library services, school location, school facilities, laboratory adequacy etc.)

2. Statement of the Problem

This study sought to find out how school environment predicts students' behaviour in Basic Science and Technology at junior secondary school level and provide appropriate suggestions for solution.

3. Research Question

What are the school environment constraints that predict the students' behaviour in Basic Science and Technology at private and public junior secondary school level in Oyo State of Nigeria?

4. Hypothesis

There is no significant difference in the school environment as a predictor to the students' behaviour in Basic Science and Technology at private and public junior secondary school level in Oyo State, Nigeria.

5. Research Design

This study adopted a survey design type to provide information about the neutrality of occurrence or characteristics. To this extent therefore, the researcher reported the situation as they had occurred without the manipulation of any variable.

5.1 Population

The target population for the study consists of Education Officers, Basic Science and Technology teachers and students in public and private junior secondary schools in Oyo State, Nigeria.

5.2 The sample and sampling Technique

The sample involved four hundred and fifty (450) upper Basic level (JSSII) students in both public and private junior secondary schools, fifty (50) Basic Science and Technology teachers in selected public and private Junior Secondary schools and Local Education Officers in Ogbomoso Educational Zone of Oyo State of Nigeria.

This study adopted a multi-stage sampling approach. The first stage based on the existing grouping of the five local government areas in Ogbomoso Educational Zone of Oyo State. Three local government areas (Ogbomoso North, Ogbomoso South and Oriire Local Government Areas) were purposely selected. Five public secondary schools out of fifteen and five private secondary schools out of thirty eight public secondary schools were purposively selected in Ogbomoso North Local Government Area. In Ogbomoso South Local Government Area, five public secondary schools out of sixteen and five out of twenty three private secondary schools were purposively selected. Likewise in Oriire Local Government Area, five out of eighteen public secondary schools and five out of seven private secondary schools were purposively selected making a total of fifteen public secondary schools and fifteen private

secondary schools in Ogbomoso Educational Zone. In the third stage, fifteen students were randomly selected from each of the selected public and private schools making a total number of four hundred fifty students. That is, two hundred and twenty-five (225) students from public junior secondary schools and two hundred and twenty-five (225) private junior secondary schools were randomly selected.

5.3 Instrument for data collection

Validated research instrument for this study comprises twenty (20) items to be answered so as to elicit information on school environment. Four likert scale questionnaire as modified by the researchers were used with the weightings of the responses as follows: Strongly Agree= 4 points; Agree= 3 points; Disagree= 2 points and strongly Disagree = 1 point

5.4 Data analysis technique

The data collected were analysed with the use of descriptive statistics and simple percentage while the difference in the relationship was measured using T-test statistics to determine the variation in the attitudinal response to the items.

6. Results

Table 1: Means and Percentages of Respondents on School Environmental Constraints

S/N	ITEMS	Mean of SA (PUB. SCH)	Mean of SD (PUB. SCHL)	Mean of SA (PRV. SCHL)	Mean of SD (PRV. SCHL)	% of SA (PUB. SCH)	% OF SD (PUB. SCH)	% OF SA (PRIV SCH)	% OF SD (PRIV. SCHL)
1	Unattractive school environment	201	24	211	14	89.33	10.60	93.78	6.20
2	Non availability of well-equipped library	211	14	212	13	93.78	6.22	94.22	5.77
3	Non- availability of standard Basic Science and Technology laboratory	171	54	189	36	76.00	24.00	84.00	16.00
4	Non availability of necessary infrastructure like chairs, tables, chalkboard and shelves	188	41	171	54	83.56	16.44	74..00	24.00
5	Poor school principal's inspection	161	64	202	23	71.56	28.44	89.78	10.22
6	Noisy environment	141	84	131	94	62.67	37.33	58.22	41.78
7	Indiscipline on the part of the principal, teachers and students	204	21	210	15	90.67	9.33	93.33	6.67
8	Insurgence and poor welfare condition	217	8	211	14	96.44	3.56	93.78	6.22

Based on the result of this study, the table 1 revealed that:

Unattractive school environment is a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology to which 89.33% of the respondents in public schools and 93.78% of the private school agreed.

Non-availability of well-equipped library is also a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology in both public and private schools. 93.78% in public school and 94.22% in private schools agreed respectively.

Non- availability of standard Basic Science and Technology laboratory is a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology in both public and private schools.

The percentage of those who agreed in public schools is 76.00% while in private schools 84.00% agreed. Non-availability of necessary infrastructure like chairs, tables, chalkboard and shelves is a constraint to the teaching in both public and private schools, 73.78% and 74.67% of the respondents from public and private school agreed respectively.

Poor school principal's inspection is a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology in both public and private schools. 83.56% and 76.00% of the respondents from public and private schools agreed respectively.

Noisy environment is a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology in both public and private schools. 62.67% and 58.22% of the respondents in the public and private schools agreed respectively to support the fact that noisy environment stands as a constraint.

Indiscipline on the part of the principal, teachers and students is a constraint to both public and private schools. 90.67% and 93.33% of the respondent of from public schools and private schools agreed respectively.

Insurgence and poor welfare condition are constraints facing the teaching of Basic and Science and Technology in both public and private schools in Oyo State. 96.44% and 93.78% of the respondent in the public and private schools agreed respectively

Table 2:
Independent Samples Test for school environmental factor

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
School factor	Equal variances assumed	2.130	.145	-2.569	448	.011	-.69778	.27162	-1.23159	-.16397
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.569	441.588	.011	-.69778	.27162	-1.23161	-.16394

The p-value (0.011) is less than 0.05, hence, we reject Ho and conclude that there is a significant difference in the school environment as predictor to the students' behaviour in Basic Science and Technology at private and public junior secondary school level in Oyo State of Nigeria Therefore the null hypothesis is hereby rejected.

7. Discussion of Results

The result obtained in the study showed that there is no significant difference in school environmental constraints to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology in public and private schools in Oyo State. The result of the research question revealed that the respondents in public and private school agreed that unattractive school environment is a constraint to the teaching of Basic Science and Technology, Non availability of highly equipped library, non- availability of standard Basic Science and Technology laboratory, non-

availability of necessary infrastructure like chairs, tables, chalkboard and shelves, poor school principal's inspection, noisy environment, indiscipline on the part of the principal, teachers and students, insurgence and poor welfare condition are all. These findings are in agreement with the view of Nwangwu (1990), Mgbodile, (2004), Aliade (2008), Tsavga (2011) and Korr and Kipkemboi (2014) that a healthy and attractive school environment makes for learning and promotes students' pride in school. Also, the environment in which the learner acquires knowledge has a great influence on the cognitive achievement of the learner. Also, quality of learning is markedly influenced by environmental and organizational factors. Learning environment should have good infrastructural development, adequate trained teachers, good leadership and adequate instructional materials among others. The factors of school environment to include school buildings, classrooms, furniture's, playgrounds, sporting facilities, laboratories, libraries and equipment for teachers effective delivery of instructions.

Therefore, parents, teachers, the school authorities and policy makers are expected to work together in order to promote students' learning outcomes through provision of good learning environment.

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Punishments in Nigerian Secondary Schools: Concepts and Justifications

DAKU NOAH JIMBA
University of Jos, Nigeria

SHINGA ALPHONSUS JOSEPH
Federal College of Education (Technical), Gombe, Nigeria

Abstract. This work titled "the meaning and justification of punishment in the secondary school system" has tried to explore the concept of punishment, as different from the often mistaken understanding and meaning of discipline. Discipline connotes more of a broader concept than punishment. I**t** constitutes treatment to a learner, developing and training to act in accordance with rules. Although punishment inflicts some pain on the defiant, it can also be described as any intentional act used by teachers as well as parents to correct and bring back the defiant learner to a proper behaviour. The work observed that even though punishment is specific and more concrete, discipline is different and a bit abstra**ct.** It is the concern of the researcher to justify the fact that despite some apparent opposition of the usage of punishment, which is seen as evil within a school setting, nonetheless punishment is for the purposes of deterrence and reformation of wrongdoers within the school system. While this paper highlighted the justification of punishment to be used in the school setting to the erring learners as reformative, it is the position of the paper that punishment is an essential evil.

Keywords: punishment, concept and justification

1. Introduction

One of the most seemingly challenging problems that cause teachers and parents heartache, frustration and the feelings of failure is the inappropriate behaviours of the child, who is very often tagged a learner found within the school setting. School administrators as well as teachers are deeply concerned about improper and unacceptable behaviours of learners at whatever level of education. The course of this worry is understandable because they are judged to be successful or not with their ability or inability to maintain certain level of order and control in the school. That is why the issue has occupied their **ti**me, because learners are generally, if not properly controlled, pruned towards the wrong direction. Socrates in Olivia complained that "children love luxury. They have bad manners and contempt for authority; they show disrespect for elders and love chatter in place of exercise. Children are (now) tyrants, not servants of their household. This is sufficient challenges to trouble the parents, teachers as well as the school administrators.

A teacher trapped in this dilemma, while making frantic effort to curb th**e** problem, uses punishment as one of the means to have control of the learners. The word punishment seems to create some sort of feelings of dissatisfaction at some quarters. The reason may simple be attributed to the fact that it causes pain and unpleasantness, hence the debate whether its

applicability and workability is appropriate and possible or not. It is the concern of this paper, therefore, to explore the meaning and forms of punishment and to understand the issues and complexities regarding punishment in a school setting. In addition, the paper examines the theories, conditions and the justification of punishment in the school setting and provided an enlightened understanding in order to avoid the misleading way experts and laymen use punishment and discipline interchangeably. This is with the aim of coming out with a judgment whether or not, punishment as a corrective measure, is proper or not, and whether it should be acceptable or not within the secondary school setting.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

2.1 The Concept of Discipline

The origin of the concept of Discipline can be traced to its Latin origin disciplina which means instruction. This implies a set of rules and instructions to be given to learners to abide by. However, the concept can take a larger and broad perspective. From the W**ebster'**s Dictiona**ry, c**ollections of description of discipline are given:

- As the treatment suited to a discipline or learner.
- As the training to act in accordance with established rules.
- Subjection to rule, order and control, habit of obedience.
- Correction, chastisement inflicted by way of correction and training, hence training through suffering.

These definitions are broader in their horizon, but it suggests that the learner is being administered with some form of treatment so as to be in line with what is accepted within a particular context. He is compelled to live in conformity with what has been spelt out as the standard. However, the last definition resembles what can be described as punishment **w**here the learner learns through some form of pains and unfavourable condition. This is likely to result in the formation of habit of obedience and compliance to rules and regulations that govern a group or society, and especially in a school setting.

In whatever perspective one attempts to describe discipline, the likely trend is the fact that certain distilled mode of behaviours, dispositions and inclinations are expected from the learner. This is assumed to guarantee the smooth processes of teaching and learning within the school environment. What this position amounts to is that discipline entails condition under which educational processes cannot effectively take place without it. Aggarwal (2008) sees discipline as the decent and decorous conduct which contributes to harmony, joy and success love, orderliness, eagerness to discharge duties with regularity, promptitude and efficiency." This implies a causal link between discipline and educational processes, where the object is arriving at a decent environment for learning, teaching and acquiring a body of knowledge.

More, there is the perception that discipline can be used interchangeably with punishment. The proponents conceive the notion of discipline and punishment to be the same and applicable towards one direction. However, a careful analysis will reveal that discipline covers a range of phenomena in variety of contexts, while punishment is one-dimensional in nature. Even though both represent the principles by which certain conditions of order, especially within the school setting is assured, yet discipline goes beyond that. It refers to the personal culture one imbibes to guide him from within and tries to be consistent in doing a particular thing in a particular manner. It must be emphasized that:
Discipline is the general condition of order, (which) has to be maintained if teaching is to proceed. (If it fails) the teacher then has to have recourse to punishment he will have to employ forms of punishment that are both unpleasant and unpleasant and predictable to function as deterrence"[4]

The rationale behind this fact is that of producing orderly and serene atmosphere towards learning especially within a formal school setting.

2.2 The Concept of Punishment

Once the word punishment is mentioned, it seems to suggest one thing straight away: that is to address the complexities of a defiant behaviour, which is mostly found within the school system. That is why Hirst and Peter describe it as a device to which teachers and parents often resort in order to maintain discipline." It is the means by which school owners, through the teachers, use to set on the right track for erring children. So any device or means by which a child or learner is being called to order can be referred to as punishment. However, there is no specific mentioning of any device, thereby making this description of punishment a bit clumsy. Since the definition did not specify the type and now the punishment is being applied on the defiant child or learner, the definition is not sufficient to capture the whole process.

The foregoing description of punishment may pose a problem for one not to view the act of punishment as an action that is the product of anger. It must be emphasized that it is not when the teacher is being provoked by the defiant behaviour of the learner that he strikes. Rather, it should be viewed as Peters (1967) defined punishment as "the intentional infliction of pain or of something unpleasant on someone who has committed such a breach of rules. Here punishment must be intentional, must be planned and not just spontaneous. The act of punishing the defiant must be intended and should have a purpose. This purpose is 'bringing home' the erring learner or child. How does the act bring home the erring learner? Through the pain or feeling of discomfort that is placed on the defiant. This pain is supposed to deter the defiant, and those around, from the tendency of such misbehaviour. Here too, the specified punishment is not indicated.

There seems to be an impression these definitions of punishment bring to the human mind. That punishment is an unpleasant experience meted out to someone who has committed an offence and by a person who is in authority or an expert who has been given the express permission to do so. In other words, it is the process of inflicting pain on an individual who has committed and offence by a person in authority. The emphasis here is also on the unpleasant nature of pains it brings to the deviant learner. The teacher is left to use his discretion to provide the dynamics of the fact of punishment on the offender, so as to suppress the unruly behaviour that stands as a threat to the learner and to the larger society.

The teacher is presumed to be an authority since he is expected to have a body of knowledge acquired in not handling the defiant behaviours in the learners, but also in the issue of control within the school setting. Propelled by this unfaltering conviction therefore, the teacher stands to fill in the gap found in the definitions of punishment. Having been supposedly educated, he decides the type, nature and extent of the punishment. So, punishment is any action or decision, duly taken in full compliance with the existing norms of the school setting with the intention of some corrective measures on the learners. This is with the aim of salvaging not only the deviant, but the entire learning group

It is worth appreciating that these painful feelings that punishment brings should be carefully distinguished from revenge. While punishment is as a result of a breach of rules for the sake of corrective measures, revenge on the other hand, is an act to make someone suffer some pain because he has made someone else suffered same. It looks like attack or a retributory kind of an attitude, which is vindictive in nature. Punishment by its description should make the school system responsible towards educating the younger ones and bringing the minimum condition to achieve this objective. It signals that certain kinds of behaviour that are of standard and are in line with the code be encouraged. While those that are not in line are so suppressed and possibly eliminated by the use of punishment.

The underlying principle that makes punishment significant is that it is meant to bring or impose certain restrain without destroying the positive personality of the learner. It is significant in bringing these minimum conditions under which learning atmosphere (the school setting) is achieved. This will however bring about personal development and eventually the

development of the larger society. An excessive an unrestrained situation can destroy the creative abilities of the learner, while too relaxed a situation can destroy both the learner and the society. This therefore calls for a middle and moderate course upon which the interest of the individual is protected and the general good of the society made to flourish.

2.2.1 Theories of Punishment

Learners sometimes act in such a way that they endanger both the school setting and the large society. They are basically persuaded from behaving in such a way that they do not misbehave through the use of punishment. This follows that unwanted behaviour is accompanied by a negative reinforcement. Nevertheless, punishment is seen as a wicked act and not appropriate to be used within the school setting. Another opinion may suggest the contrary, that it is appropriate to use punishment in school for corrective measures. However, these different opinions are largely informed by theories of punishment.

We shall examine three theories of punishment as highlighted by Peters (1967), namely:

- Redistributive Theory of Punishment: This theory subscribes to 'an eye for an eye and tooth for tooth.'
- Deterrent theory of punishment: This is more civilized than the first.
- Reformative theory of punishment: Which has tried to bring the defiant on the right and acceptable track.

The retributive theory's emphasis is vindictive in nature. It is vindictive because it is basically a revenge and it does nothing other than adding to the circle of violence. This is not likely to improve the learners' behaviour. It is, in fact, incapable of behaviour modification in the learner who may go defiant in the course of school activities. It leaves the learner aggrieved and creating a spirit of resentment. This does not eliminate the condition and possibility of diminishing unwanted behaviour. It creates some feelings of rejection to both the learner and the learner's group. This makes it unwise not to discourage and discard it.

The second theory is deterrent in nature; basically to frighten the defiant and those who are likely to behave in the same defiant manner. This is to scare the defiant and others upon seeing how a particular punishment is exerted on a person whose behaviour defies the existing rules. This is looked upon as a more civilized solution, since it is supposed to correct both the defiant and those of his mates who are prone towards defiant behaviours.

There are cases in some secondary schools where if a student is caught jumping over the fence, he is made to bring forty (40) blocks. This type of punishment has to a large extent achieved its different posture. This is because it has succeeded in terrifying both the offenders and those with the tendencies. The fear is not unconnected with the fact that their parents will be aware of the crime, since the money for the block will come from them and are likely already being burdened with their welfare. No parent is likely to be happy with the situation and invariably, no reasonable child is likely to be happy with the situation of offending his parents. So they generally avoid such acts of misbehaviour so as to remain in the good book of both their teachers and parents.

Reformative theory of punishment is most progressive in nature. This theory posits that any punishment imposed on a defiant learner, should be aimed at modifying the behaviour towards a more acceptable type of behaviour. If character degenerates, those measures that will be used to revitalize the defiant should be aimed at restoring a good character initially seen in the learner. The secondary school system in Nigeria has certain type of punishments that are reformative in nature. Very often once a child is identified as having defied any existing rule, he is made to face the stringent measures of certain corporal punishment, like digging his height, uprooting a tree and sometimes suspension. That same child is being subjected to activities of the guidance and counseling unit of the school to ascertain the root cause(s) of the offence. This is with the purpose of finding lasting solution to

the deviancy. If there is success, then that is reformation, which is the 'be all and end all of punishment.

Condition/Criteria for Punishment

There seems to be a general feeling of disagreement and dissatisfaction among some educators and parents regarding the use of punishment. Arguments and debates have saturated the school setting on the appropriate measures to take in bringing back the learner who does not seem to conform to the laid down rules. This is likely to be directly connected with the abuse in the usage of punishment in the school system, either too high or too low for the defiant to learn any meaningful lesson. Unless the punishment was regarded as painful or at least unpleasant for the person, it should be something else but not punishment. For an act to be called punishment, it has to meet certain conditions as outlined by Harts:

- It must involve pain or other consequences normally considered unpleasant,
- It must be for an offence against legal rules,
- It must be of an actual or supposed offender for his offence,
- It must be intentionally administered by human beings other than offender and
- It must be imposed and administered by an authority constitute by a legal system against which the offence is committed.

For an act to be referred to as punishment, it must need the following conditions. The central idea here is that the act must give some painful experience, it must be planned and intentionally imposed and it must be given out by an authority. Some pertinent questions to ask, how does an active cause pain? What do we mean by pain? For any act to be regarded as painful, it must give some sort of hurt on any part of the body, it must create some feeling of extreme discomfort. This feeling of hurt and extreme discomfort must be planned to meet a specific goal or target. This goal or target is however the act of bringing back the erring learner on track by the competent authority in person of the teacher. But, is it any kind of hurt that produces a targeted goal in the learner? It suffice it to admit the fact that not all of those painful hurts or feelings imposed on the deviant learner are likely to produce those expected outcome. However, a more balanced, well prepared and carefully imposed punishment is likely to bring about a positive transformation in behaviour of the deviant learner.

These conditions being outlined are sufficient to create a great deal of guilt within the defiant offender. Guilt and offence are closely related, because guilt presupposes offence, both should exist together to create and give that sense of repentance. The guilty offers another perspective to the process of abandoning the defiant behaviour of the learner. Guilt is an inner voice that speaks to the learner on the defiant behaviour. It needs stressing that not all persons hear the inner voice, but we can infer that the punishment will facilitate the necessary condition by the presence of pain inflicted on the defiant.

Forms of Punishment

In Nigeria today, there are several forms of corrective measures used in secondary schools which are often called punishment. The act of defiance knows no bound, because learners in whatever context and period, have the same tendencies towards going against existing norms. However, what is important is appropriating the right corrective measures to certain type of offense committed. Usually, the measures taken could be evaluated in the light of the philosophy of discipline that the system has appropriated for itself. Oliva has outlined a number of disciplinary measures. We shall examine five in the light of the Nigerian context.

- Detention keeping a defiant student in class or school while others are out.
- Dismissal from class and isolation sending misbehaving learners out of their classrooms or isolating defiant students who are disorderly from the rest of the class.
- Punishing the group for the offences of one person – punishing the whole class when discovering the particular student who commit the offence prove abortive.

- Corporal punishment: Generally not recommended in the school seen as the last resort.
- Suspension and expulsion: Denial of attendance to school activities for a stipulated period of time and when there is no hope of improvement under the school condition, complete withdrawal from the school.

Detention is very often common in lower classes, it is to deny the defiant either time for break or other activities outside the classroom. This makes the culprit to feel abandoned and with a feeling of being rejected especially if he was to do some extracurricular activities. The second corrective measures implies making the defiant to miss certain class work and activities by either sending him out or isolating him from the ongoing class activities. This measure is psychological in nature. It creates a sense of bad feelings especially if the learner desires to be part of the class for other reasons apart from the learning activities. It humiliates the defiant and makes it less likely for him to commit the offence again. The third corrective measure often brings a general condemnation of the act of the offender by his own group. It makes it less likely for the offender to commit an offence again. However, it may create some unhealthy feelings against the teacher or the authority by the whole group for being punished as a result of someone else's fault.

The fourth measure is quite the last option the school system uses. It is often discouraged even though it is quickest means of conveying to the offender that pain is the reward of committing defiant acts. It is often discouraged because it hurts the offender and it adds to the cycle of violence. The fifth measure makes the offender to miss certain activities of the school and gives him a period of sober examination of his acts. But it as well makes him to lag behind in the academic activities of the school. The expulsion measures are used in cases of which there is no hope of changing such a behaviour. It is done when the school system feels that enough is enough and that such will eventually negatively affects other students. These measures try to address students' difficulties which are connected to personal and environmental factors. Therefore care and restrain must be exercised in the discharge of these measures which serve as corrective measures within the school system. It is largely in line to give punishment proportionate to the offence.

3. Justification of Punishment within the Secondary School Setting

The school system is saddled with the responsibility of transmitting societal values, ideas and skills from the older generation to the younger ones. This happens commonly within the formal system or some form of arranged forum. When such opportunity occurs, children or learners form diverse background are brought together for this purpose. In this situation, there occurs certain level of socialization through which high level of interaction within them is realized. In such circumstances learners can be influenced towards morally unacceptable behaviour that should normally violate the laid down laws. This refers to peer-group influence. Jean Piaget's analysis of peer group influence is a good theory to hold on to in this case. His position is that a co-equal or associates of a particular child can exert certain level of pressure to influence an action, whether good or bad. This implies sameness of behaviour because the peer group is an avenue and source of interaction.

When a case of an influence towards the wrong direction is detected, indicating the likelihood of the exhibiting of a bad behaviour or the act has been committed already, "certain pain should be inflicted when a rule is broken and that it should necessary be inflicted on and only on the person who has broken the rule"[10] This gives the reason why pain through punishment should exist to serve as the deterrent and curb such tendencies towards misbehaviour. This is being propelled by the unfaltering conviction that this pain is likely to cause a change in behaviour and as deterrent to the rest of the scholars. This pain still brings a sense of moral order and so makes the school environment conducive.

In keeping with this belief, philosophers of Bentham's opinion have argued that pain is evil

and that pain through the use of punishment is primarily a mischief because of the discomfort and hurt it brings to the person who is the recipient of the act of punishment. They tend to see pain as retributive and so should be abandoned. They also maintain that it only adds to the circle of violence. However, a closer look at the act of punishment should be appreciative of the fact that pain through punishment is not something truly pleasant, but a little and calculated pain inflected on those learners with deviant behaviour can do well than total refusal to sanction only offender. Because the most important reason behind the use of pain through punishment is to deter the learners so as to prevent future occurrence through the discomfort it brings to the sufferer.

The school system and indeed the larger society hold nothing tangible as regards the reason behind punishment other than deterrence, prevention and reformation. Deterrence primarily occurs when the feelings of discomfort and hurt is inflicted on the offender. This is likely to deter the defiant and those around, and is likely to serve as preventive measures towards, at least the consistency or frequency of the occurrence of such misbehaviour. In the supportive words of Peters the sharp shock involved in punishment may bring them to their senses and help to establish them in a socially more desirable form of conduct". This is what every school is supposed to hold tenaciously. There is, in addition to the above, a dominant but very important function of punishment in the school system. It makes the offender, having been punished, to be sober and further reflect on his action and see whether it will do any good towards achieving future goal.

However, but does pain received through punishment actually serve as deterrence? Does it even serve the preventive and reformative purposes as the main reason of punishment within the school setting? In what way can we say that punishment has reduced defiant behaviours in the learners? Are there no cases of repeating such defiant behaviour at the very instance of giving the act of punishment? It is lamentable to discover instances where pain inflicted through punishment did not actually give out the expected results. Instances abound where in schools, several types of punishments are inflicted on various offenders for various offences, yet same students and sometimes they even make new recruits into the business of committing a crime or the other. Peters[12] provides a comment that punishment is one of the most potent devices for bringing about estrangement. This is indicating an instance where the act of punishment brings isolation and eliminates any form or sign of behaviour modification. Instead of punishment doing to the defiant any good, it rather isolates him and isolation is likely to be a breeding ground for evil act.

But underneath Peters' position, there lays his position of quickly running away from that opinion. To counteract the former position about the estrangement of the individual by a punishment, he admitted the effectiveness of punishment within a school. He pointed out that in most cases, punishment, though it brings pain on the offender by the authority of the teacher, if it is used in a meaningful, planned and dispassionate manner, can do more good than harm. It can also transform someone who has gone defiant. After all, one of the roles of education on the learner is to bring about a positive change. The same Peters[13] "pointed out that there has to be some impartiality in preserving the rule of law. However, through establishing a good relationship with the individual punished, it will go a long way mitigating the estrangement which is often crated or perpetuated by excessive and unplanned punishment.

4. Conclusion

In a school system, especially the secondary level, where parents take their children in confidence and trust, not minding the cost, they expect some form of good behaviour from the youngsters. They as well expect the school system to device potent measures to achieve that. This suggests that no parent goes home and sleep when the contrary is evident. The school system on its own does all to achieve that, and so the issue of punishment sets in when disobedience begins. In keeping to this scenario,

the findings and analysis in this work was an attempt to define the concept of punishment and the dynamics that are associated with its usage within the school system. It is plausible to admit the fact that although punishment causes pains and sometimes estranges the sufferer, the work has shared its voice to say with R.S. Peters that punishment is a necessary evil. An evil which is needed as a corrective measure within the school setting so that the minimum condition of adequate teaching and learning process can be achieved.

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Perceived Influence of Work Stress on Health of Public Secondary School Teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State, Nigeria

E. O. IGUDIA , D. O. ORONSAYE
University of Benin, Nigeria

H. O. OWOMBO
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Abstract. The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between perceived influence of work stress on physical, mental, emotional and social health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. In order to effectively carry out the study to achieve this aim, four *hypotheses were formulated to guide the study. The survey research design was employed for the study and the population consisted of all the 292 secondary school teachers in the 10 public schools in the area of study. The sample size was 200 and was selected through the 2-stage sampling procedures. Data were collected through a self-made questionnaire designed by the researchers on perceived* influence of work stress on physical, mental, emotional and social health of secondary school teachers in the study area. The data were later analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency counts and percentages as well as inferential statistics of chi-square. The results of the study among others revealed that: there is a significant relationship between perceived influence of work stress on physical ($p \leq 0.05$), mental ($p \leq 0.05$), emotional (($p \leq 0.05$) and social health ($p \leq 0.05$) of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. Based on the findings, the researchers concluded that stress has negative impacts on the health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. Following this, it was recommended among others that government at all levels should employ more academic staff in order to reduce teachers' stress and also, teachers should be educated on various stress coping and managerial skills in order to enhance their overall wellbeing.

Key Words: influence, perception, work stress, health

1. Introduction

Work related stress constitutes a major threat to health of employee in the workplace. Stress refers to the totality of all wear and tear or depreciation caused by any kind of vital reaction throughout the body at any one time as a result of activities the body system is subjected to (Sliwinski, Almeida, Smyth, & Stawski,2009; Almeida, Piazza, Stawski, & Klein, 2011). The degree of health implication associated with a work or occupation is a function of activities involved in it (Blasé, 1986).

Stressors, which are activities causing stress have great implications on human health among

which are mood disorder, sense of well-being, behavior, and general body health. Acute stress may make individual unhealthy owing to burden imposed by stressors on the individuals (Harvey, Jones & Schmidt 2003). McMahon, Grant, Compas, Thurm and Ey (2003) posited that stress causes damage to human health and the damage is more in case of long term exposure to stressors. They emphasized that the association between stressors and disease is influenced by the nature, length of time, number, and persistence of the stressors as well as the individual's biological characteristics (genetics), psychosocial resources and coping ability.

According to Neill, Gail and Scott (2005) severe and prolonged exposure to stress might lead to tissue damage and other diseases. Bourbonnais et al (2006) reported that diseases or illness are caused by long term exposure to stress and diseases caused ranges from physical to mental, emotion and social. Kasl (1984) posited that teachers or professors have mortality rates of arteriosclerotic heart disease that are only about one half of the rates for physicians, lawyers, pharmacists and insurance agents which are traced to job stress. Teaching comparably have high level of physical activity and it becomes imperative to point to work demands associated with teaching as a possible clue of investigating health implications associated with the profession.

The stressful nature of teaching job tends to be chronic and demanding compared to other civil service job in the country. Negative health implications traced to teaching stress can cover a broad range of symptoms and experiences, from minor symptoms such as poor mood or tension, to longer-term major difficulties such as clinically diagnosable physical, emotional, social or mental disorders (Bleich, Gelkopf, & Solomon,2003).

2. Statement of the Problem

Knowledge of stressor and stress and their negative impacts on human health is a basic requirement for stress prevention, control and management. A close observation into the activities of teachers in South West Nigeria especially among secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State by the researchers indicates that teachers in this area are stressed in their jobs and that some of them lack stress managerial skills. Most worrisome is that these teachers do not agitate for their work load reduction and this could be related to their poor knowledge and perceptions of the relationship that exists between severe work load stress and their health. It was on this note that this study was conducted to determine perceived influence of work stress on health of public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

Therefore, the study was conducted to test the following hypotheses:

(i) Stress will not significantly have negative influence on Physical health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

(ii) Stress will not significantly have negative influence on mental health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

(iii) Stress will not significantly have negative influence on emotional health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

(iv) Stress will not significantly have negative influence on social health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

3. Method of the Study

The correlation research design was used for this study. The population for the study consisted of all the 292 secondary school teachers in the 10 public secondary schools in Irele LGA of Ondo State. A 2-stage sampling procedure was used to select respondents for the study. In the first stage, 8 schools were purposively selected based on population of teachers. In the second stage,

25 teachers per school were selected using simple random sampling technique. A total of 200 teachers were selected out of the 292 estimated teachers in the study area. The research instrument used to elicit information for the study was the researchers' self-developed questionnaire which was validated by experts in the field of community and school health education. The instrument when designed was subjected to reliability test using Cronbach Coefficient alpha method which yielded 0.81 Alpha Coefficient of Correlation. Data collected were used for the hypotheses generated and were tested using chi-square analysis at 0.05 alpha level of significance.

4. Results and Discussion

Hypothesis 1: Stress will not significantly have negative influence on Physical health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

Table 1: Chi-square (X^2) analysis of the perceived influence of stress on physical health of public school teachers

Items	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2Cal	X^2Tab.	Dec.
Stress causes headache.	49(24.5%)	137(68.5%)	10(5%)	4(2%)	3	225.7	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes muscle tension/pain.	73(36.5%)	105(52.5%)	15(7.5%)	7(3.5%)	3	132.6	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes chest pain.	103(51.5%)	71(35.5%)	23(11.5%)	3(1.5%)	3	123.7	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes fatigue.	58(29%)	127(63.5%)	9(4.5%)	6(3%)	3	192.2	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes insomnia	49(24.5%)	139(69.5%)	7(3.5%)	5(2.5%)	3	235.9	7.815	Sig.
Overall total	332	579	64	25	12	185.1	21.026	Sig.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Note: SA=Strongly agreed, A=Agreed, D=Disagreed, SD=Disagreed, df=Degree of Freedom, Cal.=Calculated, Tab.=Tabulated, Dec.=Decision

Table 1 shows the Chi-square (X^2) analysis of perceived health influence of work stress on physical health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. The results in the table reveal that 19 (24.5%), 137 (68.5%), 10(5%) and 4 (2%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress `causes headache to teachers in the study area. The chi-square test of association computed revealed calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 225.7 against the critical value of 7.815 at degree of freedom 3 and 0.05 alpla level of significant. This implied that stress causes headache to teachers in the study area. Also, 73 (36.5%), 105 (52.5%), 15 (7.5%) and 7 (3.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes muscle tension/pain to teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 132.6against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes muscle tension and pains.

Moreso, 103 (51.58%), 71(35.5%), 23 (11.5%) and 3 (1.5%) respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes chest pain. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 123.7 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes chest pains among school teachers in the study area. Furthermore, 58 (29%), 127 (63.5%), 9 (4.5%) and 6 (3%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes fatigue. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 192.2 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes fatigue to teachers in schools in the study area. The table also shows that 49 (24.5%), 139 (69.5%), 7 (3.5%) and 5 (2.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes insomnia to teachers in school in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 235.9

against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance.
On the overall, chi-square was also computed to test the significant influence of stress on physical health of school teachers in the study area. The result showed that the calculated X^2 value of 185.1 was greater than the tabulated value of 21.026 at df=12 and 0.05 level of significance. Based on this, the null hypothesis that "stress will not significantly influence the physical health of school teachers in Irele Local Government Area" is rejected. On this note, stress had negative significant influence on physical health of secondary school teachers in the study area.

Hypothesis 2: Stress will not significantly have negative influence on mental health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

Table 2: Chi-square (X^2) analysis of the perceived influence of stress on mental health of public school teachers

Items	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2Cal	X^2Tab.	Sig.
Stress causes traumatic disorder.	83(41.5%)	109(54.5%)	6(3%)	2(1%)	3	176.2	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes depression.	65(32.5%)	125(62.5%)	7(3.5%)	-	3	198.2	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes anxiety.	52(26%)	123(61.5%)	22(11%)	3(1.5%)	3	166.5	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes mania.	50(25%)	144(72%)	3(1.5%)	3(1.5%)	3	265.1	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes paranoia.	75(37.5%)	95(47.5%)	27(13.5%)	3(1.5%)	3	107.8	7.815	Sig.
Overall total	325	596	65	11	12	159.4	21.026	Sig.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Note: SA=Strongly agreed, A=Agreed, D=Disagreed, SD=Disagreed, df=Degree of Freedom, Cal.=Calculated, Tab.=Tabulated, Dec.=Decision

Table 2 shows the Chi-square (X^2) analysis of perceived influence of stress on mental health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. The results in the table reveal that 83 (41.5%), 109 (54.5%), 6 (3%) and 2 (1%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress `causes traumatic disordet to teachers in the study area. The chi-square test of association computed revealed calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 176.2 against the critical value of 7.815 at degree of freedom 3 and 0.05 alpha level of significant. This implied that stress causes traumatic disorder to teachers in the study area. Also, 65 (32.5%), 125 (62.5%), 7 (3.5%) and 3 (1.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes depression to teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 198.2 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes depression among school teachers in the study area.

More so, 52 (26%), 123 (61.5%), 22 (11.5%) and 3 (1.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes anxiety. The table revealed calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 166.5 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes anxiety among the teachers. Furthermore, 50 (25%), 144 (72%), 3 (1.5%) and 3 (1.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes mania. The table revealed calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 265.1 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes mania among teachers in schools in the study area. The table also shows that 75 (37.5%), 95 (47.5%), 27 (13.5%) and 3 (1.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes paranoia among teachers in school in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 107.8 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes paranoia among teachers in the area.

On the overall, chi-square was also computed to test the significant influence of stress on mental health of school teachers in the study area. The result showed that the calculated X^2 value of 159.4 was greater than the tabulated value of 21.026 at df=12 and 0.05 level of significance. Based on this, the null hypothesis that "stress will not significantly influence the mental health of school teachers in Irele Local Government Area" was rejected. On this note, stress had negative significant influence on mental health of secondary school teachers in the study area.

Hypothesis 3: Stress will not significantly have negative influence on emotional health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

Table 3: Chi-square (X^2) analysis of the perceived influence of stress on emotional health of public school teachers

Items	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2Cal	X^2Tab.	Dec.
Stress causes restlessness.	81(40.5%)	115(57.5%)	4(2%)	-	3	97.0	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes anger.	78(39%)	100(50%)	12(6%)	10(5%)	3	126.6	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes sadness/mood disorder.	42(21%)	120(60%)	20(10%)	18(9%)	3	137.8	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes heart attack.	63(31.5%)	122(61%)	12(6%)	3(1.3%)	3	180.1	7.815	Sig.
Stress causes hypertension.	35(17.5%)	156(78%)	5(2.5%)	4(2%)	3	312.0	7.815	Sig.
Overall total	299	613	53	35	12	161.9	21.026	Sig.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Note: SA=Strongly agreed, A=Agreed, D=Disagreed, SD=Disagreed, df=Degree of Freedom, Cal.=Calculated, Tab.=Tabulated, Dec.=Decision

Table 3 shows the Chi-square (X^2) analysis of perceived influence of stress on emotional health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. The results in the table reveal that 81 (40.5%), 115 (57.5%) and 4 (2%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes restlessness among teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 97 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes restlessness among teachers in the study area. Also, 78 (39%), 100 (50%), 12 (6%) and 10 (5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes anger among teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 126.6 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes anger among teachers in the area.

More so, 42 (21%), 120 (60%), 20 (10%) and 18 (9%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes sadness and mood disorder among school teachers. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 137 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes sadness and mood disorder among the teachers. Furthermore, 63 (31.5%), 122 (61%), 12 (6%) and 3 (1.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes heart attack among teachers. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 180 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes heat attack among teachers in schools in the study area. The table also shows that 35 (17.5%), 156 (78%), 5 (2.5%) and 4 (2%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes hypertension among teachers in schools in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 312.9 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes hypertension in the study area.

On the overall, chi-square was also computed to test the significant influence of stress on emotional health of school teachers in the study area. The result showed that the calculated X^2 value of 161.9 was greater than the tabulated value of 21.026 at df=12 and 0.05 level of significance. Based on this, the null hypothesis that "stress will not significantly influence the emotional health of school teachers in Irele

Local Government Area" was rejected. On this note, stress had negative significant influence on emotional health of secondary school teachers in the study area.

Hypothesis 4: Stress will not significantly have negative influence on social health as perceived by public secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State.

Table 4: Chi-square (X^2) analysis of the perceived influence of stress on social health of public school teachers

Items	SA	A	D	SD	df	X^2Cal	X^2Tab.	Dec.
Stress causes angry outburst.	99(49.5%)	85(42.5%)	11(5.5%)	5(2.5%)	3	143.4	7.815	S
Stress causes drug abuse.	21(10.5%)	137(68.5%)	37(18.5%)	5(2.5%)	3	212.1	7.815	S
Stress causes tobacco use.	59(29.5%)	57(28.5%)	41(20.5%)	43(21.5%)	3	5.2	7.815	NS
Stress causes social withdraw.	47(23.5%)	143(71.5%)	3(1.5%)	7(3.5%)	3	254.3	7.815	S
Stress causes less involvement in exercise.	52(26%)	96(98%)	46(23%)	6(3%)	3	81.4	7.815	S
Overall	224	475	151	150	12	138.2	21.026	S

Source: Field survey, 2018

Note: SA=Strongly agreed, A=Agreed, D=Disagreed, SD=Disagreed, df=Degree of Freedom, Cal.=Calculated, Tab.=Tabulated, Dec.=Decision

Table 4 shows the Chi-square (X^2) analysis of perceived influence of stress on social health of secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State. The results in the table reveal that 99 (49.5%), 85 (42.5%), 11 (5.5%) and 5 (2.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes under-eating among teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 143 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes under-eating among teachers in the study area.

Also, 21 (10.5%), 137 (68.5%), 37 (18.5%) and 5 (2.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes drug abuse among teachers in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 212 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes drug abuse among teachers in the area. More so, 59 (29.5%), 57 (28.57%), 41 (20.5%) and 43 (21.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes tobacco use among school teachers in the study area.

The table revealed calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 5.2 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress doesnot cause tobacco use among teachers in the study area. Furthermore, 47 (23.5%), 143 (71.5%), 3 (1.5%) and 7 (3.5%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes social withdrawal among teachers. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 254 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes social withdraw among teachers in schools in the study area. The table also shows that 52 (26%), 96 (48%), 46 (23%) and 6 (3%) of the respondents indicated strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed that stress causes less involvement in exercise among teachers in schools in the study area. The table reveals calculated chi-square (X^2) value of 81 against the critical value of 7.815, with degree of freedom 3 at 0.05 alpha level of significance. This implied that stress causes less involvement in exercise among school teachers in the study area.

On the overall, chi-square was also computed to test the significant influence of stress on social health of school teachers in the study area. The

result showed that the calculated X^2 value of 138.2 was greater than the tabulated value of 21.026 at df=12 and 0.05 level of significance. Based on this, the null hypothesis that "stress will not significantly influence the social health of school teachers in Irele Local Government Area" was rejected. On this note, stress had negative significant influence on social health of secondary school teachers in the study area.

5. Discussion of Findings

The findings of this study that stress have negative significant influence on physical, mental, emotional and social health of secondary school teachers in the study area as perceived by these teachers have scientific support. For example, the study of Toussaint, Shields, Dorn and Slavich (2016) shows that, greater lifetime stress severity and lower levels of forgiveness each uniquely predicted worse mental and physical health. Analyses also revealed a graded Stress forgiveness interaction effect, wherein associations between stress and mental health were weaker for persons exhibiting more forgiveness. This is further supported by the assertions that life stress is strongly associated with poor mental and physical health (Cohen, Janicki-Deverts & Miller, 2007; Slavich, Donovan, Epel & Kemeny2010; Toussaint, Shields, Dorn & Slavich, 2016).

This finding of the current study also corroborates with the findings of Kasl's (1984) that, teachers or professors have mortality rates of arteriosclerotic heart disease that are only about one half of the rates for physicians, lawyers, pharmacists and insurance agents which are traced to job stress.

On the influence of stress on physical health again, the findings of the current study, agrees with the assertion of American Psychology Association (APA, 2013) that, multiple studies have shown that sudden emotional stresses especially anger can trigger heart attacks, arrhythmias and even sudden death.

6. Conclusion

Work stress and negative health conditions are related. The findings from this study revealed that work stress had negative health implications on secondary school teachers in Irele Local Government Area of Ondo State, Nigeria. Specifically, stress had negative physical health implications (through headache, muscle tension/pain, chest pain, fatigue and insomnia); negative mental health implications (through traumatic disorder, depression, anxiety, mania, paranoia); negative emotional health implications (through restlessness, anger, sadness/mood disorder, heart attack and hypertension) and negative social health implications (through under-eating, drug abuse, social withdrawal and less involvement in exercise).

7. Recommendations

Based on these findings, the study recommends that:

- Government at all levels and education agencies should regulate teachers' work load.
- Teachers should be encouraged to visit hospitals for periodic medical check-up for early diagnoses of stress related potential diseases.
- School management should do everything possible to reduce the workload of teachers.
- Teachers should be educated on various stress coping and managerial skills in order to enhance their overall wellbeing.

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Investigation of Students' Perception of Social Studies Education for Effective Citizenship in Federal College of Education, Pankshin, Nigeria

RUTH R. A. IRMIYA , GAMKUR BITRUS
University of Jos, Nigeria

SOLOMON REUBEN IRMIYA
University of Jos, Nigeria

Abstract. The introduction of social studies as a school programme was basically meant to solve problems of man arising from his daily interaction with the environment. This would in turn enable him to acquire basic skills, competences and effective citizen. However the views held by different people about the discipline over the years has declined the realization of this object. The purpose of this study is to investigate students' perception of Social Studies Education with bearings on effective citizenship in Federal College of Education Pankshin in Plateau State. The cross-sectional survey research design is adopted to answer the research questions and four (4) hypotheses raised in the study. The stratified sampling technique is used to select a sample size of 253 students from the population of 265 students. 28 items were drawn in a questionnaire which was later subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics for data analysis. The mean and standard deviation are used for the research questions while the Pearson moment correlation was adopted in analyzing hypothesis one and the remaining the T-test of independent samples is used. The results indicated that students positively perceived all the social studies traditions identified in the study at varying degree. The findings further established that, there is no significant difference between male and female students perception of the content of social studies education. But there is a linear relationship between two students perceived the goals of the discipline and the extent of their implementation to promote effective citizenship it was thus, recommended among others the need for teachers to introduce students to the major traditions in social studies so as to enhance their perception of the subject.

Keywords: Student, Perception, Social Studies, Education, Effective Citizenship

1. Introduction

Over the passage of time, man has been faced with numerous challenges in his struggles to survive with a constrained environment. This has given rise to thought processes on the need for an educational programme that would go a long way towards solving the problem arising from man's interactions with his immediate environment. Furthermore, there is a need to help man understand himself, his relationship with others and the complexities present in his physical, social, economic, cultural and political environments. Thus, the main philosophy behind teaching social studies according to Okamoto (1998) is to measure in terms of its contributions at mobilizing learners to cultivate an awareness that could transform them into skilled, competent and effective citizens.

Social studies is therefore an integrated subject that exposes learners to desirable knowledge, attitudes, values and skills necessary for effective socio-civic life. However, for social studies education to achieve its lofty goals and objectives, the learners must have a good perception of the subject matter. Perception refers to the process in which sensory information are organized and interpreted by living organisms to make meaning (Mukherjee, 2002). Perception of social studies education therefore refers to analysis, synthesis and integration of concepts and generalizations related to man and his environment. It is the process of attaining awareness or understanding of social studies education as an integrated curriculum for promoting effective citizenship. Generally, the perception of what social studies education is to the perceiver (students) is related to information about the subject available to the students over the years. This in turn will determine his or her behavior. This shows that perception plays an important role in behavioral changes in students.

Social studies education is perceived differently by different people, Irmiya (2007) observed that, the differences in the perception of social studies have created misconceptions in the minds of ignorant people. It is important to add that, this problem of misconception of social studies is found even among teachers and students alike of social studies in schools. To some people, it is the study of social sciences which includes economics, sociology, anthropology, geography and political science; to others, it is reflective inquiry leading to critical thinking and problem solving; while another group sees it as citizenship transmission; and yet to another group, it is an integration of concepts and ideas from different subject areas. The above conceptions of social studies education are all relevant depending on the needs and aspirations of the society where it is used.

However, in Nigeria the integrated approach which fuses and integrates concepts and ideas from the social sciences, humanities and liberal arts has become the mainstream of social studies education (Irmiya, 2007). The difference in the conception of the goals and content of social studies education results into confusion among teachers and students on what constitutes the subject matter or not. This is a fundamental problem that needs to be addressed if the subject is to make any meaningful impact on the learners. Most research studies on perception of social studies education in Nigeria are centered on the teachers' point of view and as such this study is therefore meant to fill the gap by assessing students' perception of social studies education. It is also meant to give students an opportunity to express their opinions on the impact of the subject matter with regards to the attitudes and dispositional of its learners towards effective citizenship.

Since students at this level are teachers in training, their perception of the goals and content of the subject will go a long way in influencing their practice after school. Al-Gharibi (2008) revealed that, although students viewed learning social studies as enjoyable, they did not see social studies as useful for a career or even being related to their lives. Also, Al-Nofli (2010) examined the perception of 407 Social Studies teachers about Social Studies goals and content areas in Oman. Findings showed that, teachers perceived current events, core values, environmental education, geography, history, family life education and public issues as the most important content areas of social studies. It further revealed that, though social studies teachers viewed all social studies goals as important, the perceived implementation of the goals was lower than that of its importance.

Moreover, Yusuf, Agbonna, Jekayinfa and Saliu (2011) examined the effects of citizenship education component of Social Studies on civic literacy and attachment of upper basic students in Ilorin metropolis using the Quasi-experimental design. The results revealed that the more the students were exposed to citizenship components of Social Studies on a regular basis, the more they acquired the needed civic literacy and attachment. In a related study, Yusuf (2005) investigated the influence of Social Studies education on students' opinions on political participation and democratic reforms in Nigeria using a twenty item questionnaire. The results further showed that Social Studies

students have a more positive opinion on political participation than none Social Studies students. It is therefore, the direction of this article to seek to assess students perception of the goals and content of social studies education as relevant to responsive and responsible citizenship in Federal College of Education, Pankshin. The results also revealed that, both Social Studies students and none Social Studies students have positive opinion about democratic reforms. There is no doubt that the two studies clearly confirm the unprecedented role of Social Studies education in developing effective and viable citizens for nation building.

1.1 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to assess students' perception of social studies education with bearings on effective citizenship in Federal College of Education, Pankshin. It specifically aimed to achieve the following:

- To find out students perception of the content of social studies education.
- To find out students perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant citizenship.
- To find out students' perception of the extent to which the goals of Social Studies education are implemented to promote effective citizenship.
- To find out teachers effectiveness in teaching social studies to promote effective citizenship.
- To assess the availability of instructional materials for teaching social studies for promoting effective citizenship.
- To find out the methods commonly used in teaching social studies for promoting effective citizenship.
- To find out whether gender affect students' perception of the Social Studies education with bearings on effective citizenship.

1.2 Research Questions

The following research questions were used to guide the study:

- What is the nature of students' perception of the content of social studies education?
- How do students perceive the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship?
- How do students perceive the extent to which the goals of social studies education are implemented to promote effective citizenship?
- How effective do teachers teach social studies education to promote effective citizenship?
- To what extent does gender affect students' perception of social studies education for as relevant to effective citizenship?

1.3 Hypotheses

- There is no significant relationship between students' perception of the goals of Social Studies Education and the extent to which they implement for promoting effective citizenship.
- There is no significant difference between the nature of perception of male and female students of the content of social studies education.
- There is no significant difference between male and female students perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship.

2. Factors that Affect Perception

There are various factors that influence students' perception of objects, events, issues, problems and subject matters. Mallum and Haggai (2002) identified interest, need, experience and ability as major factors that affect perception of students.

Students learn, about things that interest them faster and perceive them better, this means they devote their time and energies to understand what they value and show little to no interest in what they don't value. Consequently, in teaching and learning social studies, learning experiences and materials should be carefully selected in

accordance to the interests and aspirations of learners. This will ensure that students get opportunities to contribute in building curriculum content and promote effective perception of the subject by students.
Secondly, students' needs vary as their aspirations increases. Their interests in issues and events is aroused in order to meet their daily needs. Here needs increases the general arousal and changes in perceptual pattern in the direction that promises some satisfaction (Blair, Jones and Simpson, 1975). Based on the above, social studies teachers should endeavor to present issues that help learners meet their various needs (cognitive, effective and psychomotor) while experience, the way people perceive things varies based on their previous experiences. People link what they see, smell, hear and touch with something they have experienced in the past (Mallum and Haggai, 2002). As such teachers should provide their students with learning experiences that are linked to their previous experiences.

3. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

The framework utilized here is the Gestalt Theory of Perception as propounded by a group of German Psychologists known as "Gestalt School of Psychology" which arose in 1890 as a reaction to the prevalent psychological theory of the time. The theory states that the whole is more than the sum of any different parts put together, that people perceive objects, issues a d phenomena better when their characteristics are taken as a total figure or the whole rather than the component parts. To them, things are affected by where they are and by what surround them, so that things are better described as more than the sum of their parts. They also believe that context is very important in perception. The Gestalt theorists identified four laws that enhance perception:

- **Law of Similarity**: Grouping of figures/characteristics that have similar elements to form a pattern or concept.
- **Law of Proximity:** A pattern is easily seen when similar objects appear together.
- **Law of Continuity:** Patterns are more easily formed when similar parts of a figure appear in lines either straight or curved.
- **Law of Closure:** That closed or partially closed figures are more readily perceived than open figures.

The implication of these laws to students' perception of Social Studies Education is that students will have a good perception of the object when learning experiences are arranged on the basis of their connectedness and relationships to one another.

The implication of this to social studies teachers is for them to give appropriate stimuli to learners through motivation and thought provoking messages and questions so as to promote good perception among students. Again learning experiences in form of concepts and generalizations in social studies are to served as input stimuli to the students. The stimuli students receive from social studies content serve as raw materials that are processed in the brain to give meaning. From the above analysis, it is clear that the Gestalt Theory of Perception is considered potentially helpful in understanding students perception of social studies education with bearings on effective citizenship. The theory is relevant to this study because it provides the basis for understanding the various issues and fundamental principles that surround students perception of the goals and content of social studies s an integrated discipline. Therefore, Gestalt Theory of Perception is the theoretical framework against which this article is based, because perception of social studies education is based kb the principles of the theory which emphasizes integration of knowledge into the whole.

4. Aims and Objectives of Social Studies

Social studies aims are objectives differ from society to society, as such the needs and aspirations of societies are not the same, and also their demands changes with time to meet the challenges at hand. As a result, what is termed as social studies intentions changes from time to time and from country to country. Mathias in Irmiya (2007) also identified some

general aims and objectives of social studies in schools:
- To make children aware of the existence and availability of a large body of factual information and society and how to get them.
- Providing them with opportunities of acquiring knowledge about society and learning experiences that are relevant to their present and future needs.
- Help children develop approaches and methods that will allow for discovering relationships between facts and issues to enable them see themselves as part of a whole. These aims and objectives are general in nature, cutting across all levels of our educational system which warrants a review of these objectives of social studies at the tertiary level in Nigeria.

5. The Concept of Effective Citizenship

Effective citizenship means at its simplest, a situation where members or national community are ready, willing and able to get involved in social, economic, political and cultural activities for the overall development of the society. Writing in this direction, the National Council for the Social Studies (2002) defined an effective citizen as one who has the knowledge, skills and acts that are necessary for sustaining a democratic society. This implies that, effective citizenship involves acquiring civic knowledge, developing participation skills and values in the total way of life of members of the society Lar (1999) also defines effective citizen as one whose life is a good example to the fellow citizens. He works for the collective benefit of the society and is ready to defend the integrity of his or her nation even if it results to losing his or her life.

Effective citizenship according to Akinlaye et`al (1997) includes those qualities desirable in the political, civic and personal daily living forever of society. The authors further opined that effective citizenship connotes the following:
- Acceptance of civic responsibilities and discharging them to the best of one's ability.
- Knowledge of the techniques of social actions and how to cooperate with others in implementing and achieving such social action.
- Assumption of personal responsibility to contribute towards a well-informed climate of opinion on current national and state social, economic and political matters.
- Efficiently responsible family member who assumes his or her full responsibilities for maintaining the civic standards his community and the society at large. Consequently effective, citizenship is integral to the creation of sustainable local communities, state and nation at large.

6. The Attributes of an Effective Citizen

Effective citizens are informed, good and active members of the society that are able and willing to work for the common good of society. A society with effective citizens is capable of overcoming all odds and create opportunities for development. Effective citizens have a number of qualities favourables for nation building.

These good attributes includes:

A. **Acquisition of broad based knowledge:** Good citizens have an indepth knowledge of people, history, traditions and problems from where he comes.
B. **Enhanced skills and competences of participation:** There are different forms of skills that citizens need in order to function effectively. They include social skills, intellectual skills, manipulative skills among others. Obi (2007) observed that effective citizens display skills such as self-confidence, initiative, open-mindedness and cooperation which are necessary for effective participation in socio-civic activities.
C. **Responsible attitudes and values:** Obi (2007) observed that it is only through critical thinking, social behaviors and actions that members of the society can improve human conditions of living. Each effective must acquire and be able to display desirable values and attitudes such as cooperation, honesty, integrity, accountability, respect for the rule of law and rights of others.
D. **Enlightened Patriotism:** Hornby in Iyela (2004) defines patriotism as the love for and loyalty which an individual has for his country. Each citizen should be patriotic by the by

demonstrating loyalty to the nation on all his actions, dealings and utterances as well as respect the national symbols.

E. **Embraces core democratic values:** in a democratic society such as ours, effective citizens must imbibe fundamental democratic values and principles. Adebinpe (2004) observed that effective citizens must understand that other citizens of the society also have rights and duties in the state, and that they have to work in harmony with one another in order to realise their personal and societal oaks.

7. Students' Perception of Social Studies Education

Social studies education is perceived differently by different people. Kazi (2007) affirms that "many people often get confused on the nature of social studies in our society schools and colleagues". The difference in the perception of social studies has created misconceptions in the minds of ignorant people (Irmiya, 2007). The situation where trained teachers and students of social studies find it difficult to cowhide the subject is and what it intends to transmit in learners is unacceptable. The fact remains that how teachers or students - to the teachers perceive social studies education determine the way they will teach it.

A few literature reviews center on students' perception of social studies education. Since students of colleges are teachers in training, literatures on teachers perception of social studies is applicable to them. Over the years, social studies educators and professional organizations have identified three perceptions of social studies (Ogunsanya, 1984). These orientations include citizenship transmission, social science and reflective inquiry.

The citizenship transmission perception of social studies is based on the belief that the ultimate goal of social studies js gives inculcate in learners values, skills and knowledge that will enable them become good citizens. It involves indoctrination of what is believed to be core knowledge, values and beliefs of society (Al-Nofti, 2010). Those who subscribe to this orientation equate social studies with citizenship education. They hold that the general purpose of the subject is to transmit citizenship virtues to students so they could become active citizens. However, Irmiya (2007) warned that in the Nigerian context, social studies goes beyond citizenship education or political education.

The second perception called social science orientation focuses on teaching knowledge and skills from the social sciences discipline. The purpose of social studies under this orientation is to inculcate social science knowledga to learners. To achieve this, knowledge from different subject areas like economics, geography, political science, history, sociology and anthropology are put together and taught as social studies. Though, there js a close relationship between social studies and the social science disciplines, the two are not the same (Irmiya, 2007). She further stressed that social studies goes beyond the social sciences as it also covers issues from the liberal arts subjects.

The third orientation is reflective inquiry approach. This perception emphasized the cultivation of research a d problem solving skills in the learners. The conception of social studies is based kb the belief that human beings will always face personal and societal problems, as such, they need skills of problem solving. Akin layers et al (1997) observed that social studies should develop in learners the ability to make reflective decisions, so as they solve both personal and societal social problems.

The integrated approach is the latest perspective that is advocated by contemporary social studies experts. People who perceive social studies along these lines see the subject as the fusion of carefully selected concepts and generalizations from social sciences, humanities and liberal arts for the purpose of developing the total faculty of the learners. This approach sees social issues and problems in their connectedness as they occur in real life situations instead of in compartments or separate forms (Irmiya, 2007). There the integrated conception of social studies is the most accepted perception of the subject in Nigeria (NERDC, 1973; Ogunsanya, 1984; Irmiya, 2007).

From the above analysis, it is obvious that there exist different perceptions of the goals and nature of social studies education. The conceptions and misconceptions are partly caused by the dynamic nature of social studies. What constitutes social studies in one society may not be in another, and what is promoted today may not be the next time. There is also the teacher factor because specialists from the social sciences disciplines that are teaching social studies tend to emphasize their traditional subject areas at the expense of social studies approach to addressing issues.

8. Methodology and Procedure

The study employed a cross-sectional survey design to investigate students' perception of social studies education with bearing on effective citizenship in Federal College of Education Pankshin. The design is appropriate because data was collected from a sample of 2010/2011 students of social studies department of Federal College of Education Pankshin. The population of the study comprised of all NCE students in department of social studies in FCE Pankshin totally 1263 NCE students with 654 male and 604 female students. The sample of this study consisted of 253 respondents selected from the population of 1263 NCE students which according to Ibanga (2002) consisted of 20% of the total population of the study which is a representative sample of 20-30% of the population ideal for a survey study, out of which 129 respondents are male and 124 are female. Stratified sampling technique was used to select the sample respondents. The instrument used for data collection was a well-structured questionnaire called students perception of Social Studies Education questionnaire (SPSSEQ) and was scored using a four-point Likert scale. A reliability co-efficient of 0.71 was obtained which is an acceptable co-efficient for the study.

9. Findings and Discussion

The mean and standard deviation were used to answer the seven (7) research questions. Any item or a group of items as the case may be with mean of 2.5 and above was accepted as a factor. However, any item or factor with mean less than 2.5 was rejected. In essence, any mean score of 2.5 and above indicated acceptance while anything less that than that indicated. The direct method is of advantage to the study because it ensures that questionnaires are reasonably completed and collected as well. It also gives the researcher opportunity to make clarifications where necessary. This method also reduces loss of questionnaires as they are collected immediately after completion.

Research Question One: What is the nature of students' perception of the content of Social Studies education in promoting effective citizenship?

Table II: Mean response on Nature of Students' Perception of the Content of Social Studies Education.

S/No	Statement	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Total	(X) (Mean)	SD	RANK
1	It is citizenship education	151	87	4	6	878	3.54	2.151	1st
2	It is reflective inquiry	82	105	56	5	759	3.06	2.013	4th
3	It is social science structure	89	106	49	4	778	3.13	2.128	3rd
4	It is an integration of concepts and ideas about man within his environment	150	81	12	5	872	3.52	2.183	2nd

Table I indicated that students supported all the conceptions of social studies education identified in this study at varying decree. By ranking, citizenship education (=3.54) was top, secondly integration of concepts and ideas about man within his environment (M=3.52), thirdly social science structure (M=3.13) and lastly reflective inquiry (M=3.06). The result clearly showed a trend of indefinite perception of the content of social studies education as it relates to developing effective citizenship among students.

Research Question Two: How do students perceive the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship?

Table III: Mean Response of Students' Perception of the Goals of Social Studies Education.

S/N	Statement	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Total	(X) (Mean)	SD	RANK
1	Helps students develop social skills for good life	143	95	9	1	876	3.53	2.176	2nd
2	It prepares students for active life in the society	137	92	15	4	950	3.83	3.05	1st
3	It makes students become effective citizens	137	93	15	3	860	3.47	2.168	4th
4	Helps students acquire knowledge about social studies	137	100	8	3	867	3.50	2.172	3rd
5	Helps students develop good attitudes	120	104	19	5	835	3.37	2.161	6th
6	Help students learn about Nigeria diverse culture	118	111	17	2	841	3.39	2.149	5th
7	Help develop in students responsible values	103	111	29	5	808	3.26	2.138	7th

Table above shows that social studies students supported all goals of social studies education suggested in this study at different decree. According to the students responses, the goals were ranked from the top with: it prepares students for active life in society (M=3.83), helps students develop societal skills for good life (M=3.53), helps students acquire knowledge about society (M=3.50) makes students become effective citizens (M=3.47), help students learn about Nigeria diverse culture (M=3.39), and lastly it helps students develop good attitude (M=3.37).

Research Question Three: How do students perceive the extent to which the goals of social studies education are implemented to promote effective citizenship?

Table IV: Mean response of students' perception of the extent to which social studies goals are implemented.

S/N	Statement	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Total	(X) (Mean)	SD	RANK
1	Social studies goals are adequately implemented	98	79	51	20	751	3.03	1.913	1st
2	They are sufficiently implemented to enhance students social skills	80	96	56	16	736	2.96	1.803	3rd
3	They are adequately implemented to promote good attitudes in students	76	90	68	14	724	2.92	1.796	6th
4	They are fully implemented to enhance students' knowledge of the society	82	94	63	9	745	3.00	1.905	2nd
5	The goals are adequately implemented to enhance students' participation in society	78	90	69	11	731	2.95	1.816	4th
6	They are sufficiently implemented to develop good attitudes and values in students	94	69	62	23	730	2.94	1.809	5th

Table IV revealed that students perceived the implementation of social studies goals as sufficient to promote effective citizenship. The fact that all the items scored above 2.5 affirmed this position. However the perceived implementation of the various areas of the goals varies with the top most implementation to enhance students social skills (M=3.03), e.t.c.

Research Question Four: How effective do teachers teach social studies education to promote effective citizenship?

Table V: Mean Response of Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching Social Studies

S/N	Statement	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Total	(X) (Mean)	SD	RANK
1	Teachers do actively involve students in teaching process	78	97	62	11	738	2.98	1.961	3rd
2	Teachers attend lessons regularly/punctually	76	94	69	9	733	2.96	1.958	4th
3	Teachers use instructional materials regularly	79	91	57	21	724	2.92	1.816	5th
4	Teachers show good mastery of social studies	95	87	51	15	758	3.05	2.101	2nd
5	Teachers employ variety of strategies and technique in teaching	96	96	49	7	777	3.13	2.206	1st

As shown in table V students supported all the ingredients of effective teaching identified in this study as indicated by an average opinion of above 2.5. The average response across the items ranked from the top most starting with teachers employ variety of strategies and technique in teaching (M=3.13), teachers show good mastering of social studies (M=3.05), teachers actively involve students in teaching process (M=2.98), teachers attend lesions regularly and punctually (M2.96), and lastly teachers use instructional materials regularly (M=2.92).

Research Question Five: What are the available instructional materials for teaching social studies education in promoting effective citizenship?

Table VI: Mean response of available instructional materials for teaching social studies education.

S/N	Statement	SA (4)	A (3)	D (2)	SD (1)	Total	(X) (Mean)	SD	RANK
1	Relevant social studies textbooks are made available	110	90	40	8	788	3.22	2.20	2nd
2	Computer/internet services are available for learning	75	88	70	15	709	2.86	1.68	3rd
3	There is a social studies workshop	118	99	28	3	828	3.34	2.261	1st

The table above indicated that students supported the availability of all the instructional resources identified in this research study by an average response of above 2.5. However, their decree of acceptance varies across the items. The top most when ranked is availability of social studies workshop (M=3.34), followed by availability of social studies textbooks (M=3.22), and lastly is availability of computer/internet services (M=2.86).

Hypothesis One: There is no significant relationship between students' perception of the goals of social studies education and the extent to which they are implemented to promote effective citizenship.

Table VII: Pearson correlation of students' of the goals of social studies education and the extent to which they are implemented.

Variables	Statistics								
	N	X	df	□	SD	r_{cal}	r^2_{CAL}	r_{table}	Decision
Students' perception of goals social studies	248	52.73	246	0.05	35.10	0.77	0.59	0.195	Reject H_0
Perception of implementation		47.00							

The result shows that the calculated r-value of 0.77 is greater than r-table of 0.195 at 0.05 level of significance with a decree of freedom of 246. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that there is a significant relationship between students' perception of the goals of social studies education and the extent to which they are implemented to promote effective citizenship. The coefficient of determination (r2) indicated that 59% of the variation in students' perception of the extent to which the goals of social studies education are implemented to promote effective citizenship is accounted for by the variation in their perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference between the nature of perception of male and female students of the content of social studies education.

Table VIII: T-test comparison of the nature of perception of male and female students of the content of social studies education

Gender	N	X	SD	□	df	t_{cal}	t_{crit}	Decision
Male	125	35.23	2.413	0.05	246	1.165	1.960	Retain H_0
Female	123	33.96	2.265					
Total	248							

The calculated t- value of 1.165 is less than table value of 1.960 at 0.05 level of significance with a decree of freedom of 246 from table above hence, there is no sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis. This implies that there is no significant difference between the nature of perception of male and female students of the content of social studies education.

Hypothesis Three: There is no significant difference between male and female students perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship.

Table IX: t-test comparison of male and female students' perception of the goal of social studies education.

Gender	N	X	SD	□	df	t_{cal}	t_{crit}	Decision
Male	125	26.19	3.015	0.05	246	2.008	1.960	Reject H_0
Female	123	30.14	3.201					
Total	248							

The calculated t-value of 2.008 is greater than table value of 1.960 at 0.05 level of significance with a degree of freedom of 246, thus there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothsis. This means that there is a significant difference between male and female students perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship.

10. Discussion of Results

The findings shows there is an eclectic perception of the content of social studies education across the traditions of citizenship education, reflective inquiry, social science structure and integrated framework among-students. The result revealed that respondents positively endorsed all the four models but in varying decree. This result is an line with the findings of Orimoloye (183, Olawepo (1984), Jekayinfa (2004) among other, who established a trend of eclecticism among teachers and students of social student about what constitute the content of the subject. The conceptions and perceptions are all relevant depending on the nature and goals of the society in question. Moreever, the study revealed a statistical difference between male and female students perception of the nature of the content of social studies education.

Secondly, students with a mean of 3.48 positively endorsed all the goals of social studies education identified in this study as relevant to promoting good citizenship traits in students. The result confirmed the vital role of social studies education in promoting good attitude; knowledge, values and social skill in students so as to enable them become responsible members of the society. This is in line with the finding of Almaamari (2009) who reported in a research that participants viewed social studies as a means to build national pride and unity; understand right and responsibilities; develop positive attitudes and patriotism. Supporting this view, Yusuf et al (2010 and Yusuf 2005) observed the unprecedented role of social studies education in developing effective and viable citizens for nation building. However, there is a statistical difference between male and female perception of the goals of social studies education as relevant to effective citizenship.

Thirdly, respondents positively endorsed the extent to which the goals of social studies education are adequately implemented to promote citizenship virtues among students. This implies that the goals are not mere good intentions but practicable objectives that have been capable of transforming citizens to responsible members of the society. This result is in consonance with the finding of Yusuf et al (2011) who revealed that the more students were exposed to social studies on a regular basis; the more they acquired the needed Civic literacy and attachment. On the contrary however, Al-Gharibi (2008) reported in a research finding that respondents viewed the implementation of social studies education as not related to their lives.

In another development, the study established a significant linear relationship between student perception of the goal of social studies education and the extent to which they are implemented to promote effective citizenship. This implies that respondents see the goals of social studies as relevant and also practicable in promoting good citizenship virtues. A careful look at the mean of the two groups revealed that the mean of students' perception of importance of social studies goals was higher than that of implementation. This finding is in line with that of Al-Nofli (2010) who revealed that though respondents viewed social studies goals as important, the perceived implementation of the goals was lower than that of importance. The implication of this finding is that there is need to intensify efforts toward realizing the lofty objectives of the subject. The result of this study also revealed a positive endorsement of teachers' effectiveness in teaching social studies by a mean of 3.19 of responses of the respondents. This means that a significant number of respondents believe that social studies teachers have a good mastering of the subject matter and its pedagogical ingredient for promoting effective teaching and learning. This finding is however contrary to the view of Mezeobi (1999) who lamented that the malfunction of the social studies curriculum is due to the inability of teachers of the subject to display professionalism in teaching.

11. Conclusion

Social studies education as an integrated discipline can only be meaningful to the leaner and the society in general when it is properly perceived. As shown by the outcome of this study, there is an eclectic perception of the subject of social studies education among students. There is a general agreement among the student across social studies traditions of citizenship education, integrated conception, social science structure and reflective inquiry. The need for experts in the field to emphasize the integrated model as it incorporate all the other traditions in social studies education. Although there is a significant linear, relationship between the positive perception of students of the goal of Social Studies and their implementation, there seems to be slight different between the two as indicated by their means. The mean score of implementation is lower than that of importance of the goals of the subject. There is there is therefore an urgent need to enhance the implementation of social studies goals so as to enhance students' perception of the subject.

12. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the following are recommended:

- Social studies teachers should endeavour to introduce their students to the major traditions in social studies education so as to enhance their perception of the subject.
- Ministries of education and social studies organizations should work together so as to enhance the implementation of social studies goals for the development of effective citizens.
- Teachers of social studies should endeavour to display professionalism in the teaching process so as to promote effective citizenship among learners.
- Social Studies teachers should patronize the learner-centered methods of instruction so as to instill in learners discovery and investigative skills.

- Social Studies experts and curriculum developers in the field should emphasize the integrated model in social studies education as it is the only tradition that is in consonance with the philosophy of the subject.
- Ministries of education and other relevant agencies should provide computer/internet facilities to colleges of education so as to enhance the performance of teachers and students.

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Perceptions and Beliefs about Cervical Cancer and Screening Services: A Qualitative Analysis among Female Sex Workers in Abuja, Nigeria

KEHINDE DAYO RUTH
School of Nursing, Gwagwalada, Abuja FCT, Nigeria

ILESANMI ROSE EKAMA
University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

ALUKO JOEL OJO
University of Ilorin, Nigeria.

Abstract
Purpose : Cervical screening allows for early detection of changes in the cervix which may suggest cervical cancer, and therefore creates opportunity for initiation of prevention modalities in good time. Literature confirms that perceptions of individuals about any services influence the utilization of such services. FSW are high risk group for cervical cancer, yet their perceptions about cervical cancer screening has not been fully explored in Nigeria. This study is therefore a report of a qualitative analysis of the perceptions of FSW about cervical cancer screening services
Methods : The study utilized a qualitative design to elicit the perceptions of FSW on cervical cancer screening. A Focused group discussion (FGD) was conducted among 18 purposively selected FSWs in selected brothels in Bwari Council. Discussions were centered on perception of cervical cancer, screening services, preventive practices, and actions taken when positive results are received. Data were analyzed using Atlas t.i software package.
Results: Respondents were aware of cervical cancer screening, however knowledge about cervical cancer was poor. Majority understood that they were at risk for cervical cancer although they could not understand abnormal results. Also, majority understand the preventable risk between cervical cancer screening and cervical cancer.
Conclusions: Findings suggest a poor perception about cervical cancer cancer and screening services. This is an indication for educational intervention to be designed purposively for the FSWs in order to reduce the burden of cervical cancer in Nigeria and sub-Saharan Africa.

Keywords: Female Sex Workers, cervical cancer screening, perception

1. Introduction

Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women globally (World Cancer Research Fund International, 2015). In Nigeria, Cervical cancer deaths is reported to be as high as 8,074 (0.42%) of total deaths (World Health Organization, 2014). Routine screening helps to detect precancerous lesions in women (Misiri, 2014).

Cervical screening is a way of preventing cancer by finding and treating early changes in the cervix as these changes could lead to cancer if left untreated (Misiri, 2014). Commonly used screening methods are; cytology tests, cervicography, HPV DNA tests, visual inspection with acetic acid or Lugol's solution (VIA or VILI), colposcopic and Biopsy. According to *Clifford* et.al, 2003 cervical cancer can be effectively controlled by screening unlike many malignant tumours. Papanicolau (Pap) smear screening can identify potential precancerous changes for immediate treatment, thereby preventing cancer development.

Literature confirms that having a high number of lifetime sexual partners maybe associated with a higher transmission of HPV leading to higher cervical cancer rates (Soohoo et.al, 2013). It suggests that the risk of HPV infection and cervical cancer is especially high in FSW. Additionally, previous studies reported that FSW had more than twice the probability of having HPV infection than women from the general population and have a higher prevalence of abnormal pap smears (Valles et al., 2009; Leung et al., 2013). The WHO report in 2013 (World Health Organization, 2013) noted that many studies in developing countries supported visual inspection of the cervix with acetic acid (VIA) or lugol iodine (VILI) as being more sensitive than cytology and helpful for early detection of abnormal changes. It is important to note that individual's perception influence the utilization of screening services. Accordingly, Ndikom and Ofi (2012) described perception as the way of becoming aware of something. It follows that the way an individual perceives a thing will motivate him/her to take action. This implies that if FSWs have the right perception towards cervical cancer, it will motivate utilization of screening services.

Perception of screening tests varies and maybe positive, negative or existential (Williams, 2014). Positive perceptions are concerned with screening benefits and seriousness of cervical cancer (Byrd et al., 2004), perception that screening should start as soon as a person becomes sexually active irrespective of the age (Arulogun and Maxwell, 2012), perception that cancer can be detected and treated early, that shyness should not be a barrier to screening, perception that any health provider at the clinic can provide care irrespective of the gender and that health is more important (Williams, 2014). All these influences the utilization of screening services in positive ways with resultant increasing utilization.

Negative perception occurs when an individual perceive that screening tests would either be painful, or when a person feels she is not susceptible to cervical cancer (Arulogun and Maxwell, 2012). Furthermore, negative perception also connotes expressions of fear of death or that cervical cancer is hereditary and therefore screening services for prevention is not necessary, that lack of symptoms means no need for screening (Williams, 2014). These negative perceptions prevent people from engaging in preventive care like screening exercise because they feel it is not needed and they will prefer not to know their status.

Some women have existential perceptions in which they have some misconceptions about the risk factors of cervical cancer (Williams, 2014). This is linked to cultural beliefs and practices which are often blamed for the occurrence of cervical cancer. For this category of persons, cervical cancer screening is not an option to be considered.

Several studies have been conducted on the perception of FSW towards cervical cancer, however there seem to be a dearth of such studies in Nigeria at the moment.

2. Materials and Methods

This qualitative descriptive study utilized FGD to collect data from brothel-based FSWs. This study was carried out in Abuja which is the capital of Nigeria located in Federal Capital

Teritory. The study was conducted in Brothels in Bwari Area Council. Bwari Area Council is located at the North-East of the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Abuja. There are about 10 brothels strategically located in Bwari council area.

The respondents were purposively selected. Two FGDs were conducted in group of 8 and 10 FSWs, making a total of 18 respondents from one brothel Inclusion criteria were those who had been in the industry for greater than 6 months with ages 18-50 years. An authorized permission was obtained from the President in charge of FSWs to visit the brothel two days prior to the group discussion so as to speak with the chairlady in charge of the brothels in order to select participants. Those FSWs that were available and willing at the time of data collection were invited following an informed consent. The sampling was terminated as soon as the desired number of participants were obtained.

During the process of data collection, two focused group discussions sessions conducted on two different days at 10am in the morning for about 1 hour, 30minutes. The discussion was tape recorded. The interview guide used in exploring their perception has three sessions namely: engagement questions, exploratory questions and exit question.

The discussion took place in a quiet and comfortable place in a brothel where the FSWs reside. During each session, the group was welcomed; the facilitator and the note taker were introduced followed by an overview of the purpose of the discussion and the format of the discussion. Written informed consent was obtained individually, then the facilitator stated the ground rules and each of the participants was allowed to introduce themselves one after the other.

An icebreaker or an introductory question was asked from the participants so as to set on their thinking cap and this was linked with the engagement questions. The exit question was used in ending the discussion and participants were allowed to ask various questions on their mind which is related to the study. In addition to note taking, the each FGD session was audio recorded for transcription. A verifiable and systematic process was used in eliciting essential information about perception of cervical cancer screening.

2.1 Data analysis

The audio recorded interview sessions were transcribed. The audio tape was played over for any omission, non-essential words were stripped off, and repetitions were observed. Thematic coding was done on Atlas ti software and the report was presented in textual format; Participants' responses were quoted verbatim within texts as found appropriate.

2.2 Ethical consideration

Ethical approval letter was obtained from Federal Capital Territory Health Research Ethics Committee (FCT HREC), Federal Capital Territory (FCTA) Abuja. This letter was used to obtain an ethical approval. The approval number is FHREC/2017/01/55/21-06-17

Permission to carry out the study was also obtained from the president of the association of the FSWs, proprietors/proprietresses or managers of the selected brothels.

Once approval was received, eligible FSWs in these brothels were invited to participate. Participation was completely voluntary after an understood consent had been obtained and consent forms well signed by the participants.

The study was carried out in accordance to Declaration of Helsinki. Participants were not coerced and no harm was done to any them. Confidentiality was maintained and any means of identification was jettisoned.

3. Results

Two FGD sessions were conducted. Eight (8) FSWs participated in the first FGD sessions, while ten (10) were in attendance in the second FGD session. During the FGD session of group one participants gave varying responses to the

question which was about their understanding of cervical cancer.
Someone said *"I understand that it is found from the woman's womb and fingering and too much touching of the vagina can cause it".* Another participant in the group opined thus *"It is swelling and decay in the private part",* while someone said that *"It is caused by using of soap".*

Similarly, during the second FGD session two participants gave varying responses to the same question referred above. Someone opined that cervical cancer is *"Caused as a result of starting fuck early"*. One of the participants also asserted that *"It is caused by too much abortion".* Also, another person stated that *"It occurs as a result of too much sperm in the body".* Someone said that *"It also occurs when a woman does not allow her body to dry well after delivery before starting having sex with men".* Another participant said that, *"It is caused by early exposure to sex"*.

When asked of their view about cervical cancer screening, someone said:
"The test is important as we were told during the peer education we had that was sponsored by Global Fund. We were encouraged to do it and check our private part".

During the second session with another set of FSWs, a participant said, *"The test is nice and I like it, I have done it before and I was told to come for follow up"* while another said *"We can't locate the place where they are doing it, we need a place closer to us that will be accessible".* In addition, someone said, *"I have done it and it is very good, I can do it hundred times in a day because I am free and it will help me in the future to know my status"* while another opined that *"The test is very good, I have done it, I like it"*.

On the prevention of cervical cancer, a participant posited that, *"After delivery of baby, give yourself a gap of two to three years before having another baby*". Also, a participant said, *"Avoid too much of abortion"*. Moreover, someone suggested *"Using of condom"* while another participant suggested *"Sticking to just one-man friend (maintaining regular sexual partner)".* Someone also suggested *"Regular check- up through cervical cancer screening".*

The FSWs claimed that they were used to taking some modalities to prevent them from having cancer of the cervix. In their responses to the question which was about the prevention of cervical cancer, a participant posited that *"It can be prevented through proper caring for our private part"* and another said *"By avoiding things that will cause it like cream, soap"* while another said *"Through screening so as to know if one has it or not as we were told during peer education".*

The participants gave their view on why they think cervical screening can be done in the absence of any complaint. One of them answered thus:
"Yes, screening is necessary in the absence of any complaint because in case someone does not have it, the person will be given drug or injection which will make the person not to contact it".

Another woman answered thus;
"It is very okay to go and check yourself because if you go and check and they identify a problem, you will need to ask them for the solution to the problem so that it can be solved"
In order to corroborate the response credited to the previous speaker, another participant said,
"When one is tested and it is certain that one does not have it, it will be easily prevented as prevention is better than cure".

In addition, someone claimed that *"It is good to be screened so that one will know how to prevent herself after the screening".*

In an attempt to explore whether or not the participants comprehend what abnormal screening denotes, they were asked to explain abnormal screening results. Thus, they were asked
"Does an abnormal cervical screening indicate that the individual will develop cervical cancer? While responding to the above question, someone explained thus:

"Yes, an abnormal screening indicates cervical cancer because result is abnormal as stated so definitely it is cervical cancer"

Another said:
"It is not because it might be that one does not have it already but it is trying to show up in one's body but not yet in one's body".

A lady was of the view that:
"It does not indicate cervical cancer because I don't have it, I will only ask them what to do to prevent me from having cervical cancer if I have an abnormal result".

The participants were further asked to discuss what their risk of cervical cancer is. One of them stated that: *"We are at risk of cervical cancer because we are all FSWs and we meet with different kind of men everyday".* Another said, *"We are also at risk because we use soap in washing our private part".*

Similarly, one of them said that *"We are at risk because of multiple sexual partners in which different sperm enters into someone"* while another said, *"We are at risk of cervical cancer because of the kind of job we do"*.

In a bid to state their risk of abnormal cervical cancer screening result, one of the participants replied, *"Yes we are all at risk of abnormal cervical cancer screening result".*

When asked about the preventable risk between cervical cancer screening and cervical cancer, the following responses were given by participants:
"Adhering to medical advice by Doctors, avoiding the use of soap and cream on our private part, going for regular check-up, engaging in screening test to know if we have cervical cancer or not, avoiding of too much of fingering and touching of woman's womb during sex, avoiding the use of cream during penetration".

While responding to same question the participants unanimously said,
"Use of condom, lubricating of the vagina so that condom will not break, taking care of our private part, using only water to wash our vagina and avoiding too much of abortion".
In a bid to state their risk of abnormal cervical cancer screening result, one of the participants replied, *"Yes, we can have an abnormal result anytime"*.

When asked about the preventable risk between cervical cancer screening and cervical cancer, the responses given by participants were,
"Use of condom, lubricating of the vagina so that condom will not break, taking care of our private part, using only water to wash our vagina and avoiding too much of abortion".

4. Discussion

The results of the FGD sessions suggest that knowledge was significantly poor among the study cohort. This is similar to findings of Aharon et.al (2017) in which FSWs in Lima Peru had less knowledge regarding cervical cancer and this affected their uptake of screening services. Likewise, study among FSWs in China also reported low knowledge of cervical cancer, suggesting that adequate utilization of screening services requires adequate knowledge of cervical cancer (Hong et.al, 2013).

Not only that, majority had an adequate knowledge of what cervical cancer screening is as they said they have been educated during peer education by Global Fund and some of them had gone for the screening and will like to do it over and over again. This is in contrast with the findings of Brown et al., (2010) among Peruvian's FSWs which reported low knowledge of cervical cancer screening services. Likewise, study among FSWs also demonstrated that the knowledge and awareness about HPV infection, its consequences and about screening methods for cervical cancer are generally low (Klug et al., 2008). This implies that intense education of FSWs about cervical cancer screening is crucial to regular uptake of cervical cancer screening services.

As regard the prevention of cervical cancer, few of the FSWs have the understanding of how cervical cancer is prevented. Others gave no response to how cervical cancer can be

prevented. This shows that they have a poor knowledge about prevention of cervical cancer. This is consistent with the study among similar group which identified that the knowledge score about HPV infection, consequences of HPV infection, prevention and Pap smear screening were poor (3.66 ± 1.34) (Ersan et al., 2012). Also, reported was low knowledge of prevention practices among Peruvian's FSWs (Brown et al., 2010). This postulate that FSWs should possess an understanding of preventative intervention, this may likely improve their uptake of screening services.

The response of the groups as to whether screening can be done in the absence of any complaint shows that most of the respondents agreed that screening can be done in the absence of any complaint. This is to ascertain status and also receive an appropriate treatment in case of any abnormal result. The comprehension of an abnormal screening result among the participant suggests that they do not understand what an abnormal result is. This can be deduce from the fact that only two people could really state that it does not mean an individual has cervical cancer. If the FSWs can comprehend what an abnormal result is when given, this will make it easier for them to go for screening services because of the fear of cancer. This is consistent with the findings among FSWs in Lima, Peru in which some are scared of an abnormal result and for those with an abnormal result, it was much easier to go for screening services because of the fear of cancer (Aharon et al., 2017).

Furthermore, majority of the respondents agreed that they are all at risk of cervical cancer because they are FSWs and they have multiple sexual partners on a daily basis in which most of them are always irregular partners. This is similar to the risk factors of cervical cancer identified by National Health Service (2015) and Veldhuijzen et al., (2010). An understanding of being at risk is expected to prompt utilization of screening services. However, this did not appear in this case among the study participants. One of the respondents in the study responded that they all are at risk of having an abnormal screening result when stating their risk of an abnormal screening result. This suggests that educational intervention on what an abnormal result connotes should be provided to FSWs. This is hoped to improve uptake of screening services.

As to what preventable risk between cervical cancer screening and cervical cancer is, majority of the respondents know what it is and has something to say in preventing cervical cancer from the use of condom, going for medical check-up and engaging in screening services among others. Few of the respondents have been screened for cervical cancer and therefore understand what the preventive practices should be. This is believed to improve their utilization of screening services because understanding of preventable risks between cervical cancer and cervical cancer screening is pertinent to uptake of screening services.

5. Limitations

Randomization of the respondents could not be carried out because accessing them was difficult. They were all afraid of being prosecuted because their work is illegal.

6. Conclusion

This FGD has shown that the respondents have an adequate knowledge of cervical cancer screening services but poor knowledge of cervical cancer and its prevention. They could not comprehend an abnormal screening result but they agreed that they are all at risk of cervical cancer. This calls for an educational intervention by health professionals in addressing the aforementioned issues among FSWs. This is hoped to improve the perception of FSWs to cervical cancer screening services which will help in reducing the menace of cervical cancer in Nigeria and sub-Saharan Africa.

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Effects of Adult Literacy Programme on Acquisition of Cake Baking Vocational Skills among Prison Inmates in Plateau State, Nigeria

CHARITY UKWO ALIU
University of Jos, Nigeria

Abstract. This study investigated the Effects of Adult Literacy Programme on Acquisition of Cake Baking Vocational Skills among Prison Inmates in Plateau State, Nigeria. Based on the aim and objectives of the study, two research questions and two hypotheses were postulated to guide the study. The study adopted the non-equivalent pre-test, post-test experimental group research design, whereby participants were assigned to experimental and control groups. The population of the study was made up of 1474 inmates from two selected prisons in Plateau State, comprising Jos and Lamingo. A sample of 40 convicted prison inmates were randomly selected for the study. They represent 20 experimental and 20 control groups. The instrument for data collection was Prison Inmate Skill Acquisition Preference Indicator (PISAPI) with content validity index of 0.80 and a reliability index of 0.78. Descriptive statistic of mean and standard deviation was used to answer the research questions and inferential statistics of t-test was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Results revealed that prison inmate in the experimental group performed better in cake baking and event decoration than inmate in the control group. The researcher recommend that teachers should use more of Adult literacy program in the prison on cake making and event decoration should be encouraged which will help equip the inmates face the economic challenges of the society and be self-employed.

Keywords: Prison inmate, Adult literacy program cake baking, vocational skills and prison inmates

1. Introduction

Vocational skill acquisition is an economic development practice that enhances productivity and job creation, especially among prison inmates. Vocational education is any learning experience that is relevant in the world of work. This may take place in a variety of contexts including work places and educational settings. There are different types of vocational skills within the prisons in Plateau State which include the following; carpentry, wood work, tailoring, welding, soap making, hair dressing and shoemaking. However, vocational needs assessment into the prisons in Plateau State indicated that vocational skills such as baking and event decoration training are not available. A need analysis report conducted by the researcher among the prison inmates in the study area indicates that a majority of them are interested in baking. Baking skills are vocational skills that are relevant and profitable in recent times. Ceserani, Kinton and Foskett (2000) defined baking as the cooking of food

by dry heat with an oven in which the action of the dry convection heat is modified by steam. This produces crisps and dry food that are marketable and can generate employment. Baking involves mixing or otherwise (combining of) ingredients such as plain floor, sugar, eggs, butter, baking powder, flavor etc appropriately to form a dough for bread, meat pie, cookies and other pastry products. Baking industry is a money spinning industry that cuts across all ages. Baked products are gaining popularity as they are considered the most staple meal due to busy schedules of people today.

Time keeping is very important in cake baking. Time keeping especially in mixing the dough and the eventual baking in the oven must be observed to avoid overheating the dough. Dough can also be under heated example bread, if the initial heat is low the dough will fall and be damaged. An event decorator must also observe to ensure that the event venue is completely decorated before the stipulated time for occasion. Time is needed to organize the ingredients and in preparation for baking. Similarly, time is required to prepare a particular venue for an event. Vocational skill acquisition will reduce the crime rate in the society this is because people will be gainfully engaged in meaningful money generating enterprise. Vocational skills acquisition will not only reduce crime but could promote economic growth and social development as well as enable prison inmates to engage in productive ventures that are profitable. Intervention in prison education and vocational training could be a worthwhile venture.

Adult literacy education is any learning or educational activity that occurs outside the formal school system and is undertaken by people who are considered to be adults in that society. The importance of adult literacy education cannot be underestimated; this is because it brings about the development of human potentials that are central to all other developmental efforts. To earn a living, persons especially the prison inmates need some form of literacy to acquire relevant vocational skills and to have proficiencies in them.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The society has negative perception and attitude towards prison inmates and ex-convicts. Serving prisoners and ex-convicts continue to suffer deprivation, outright rejection, victimization and stigmatization from the society and especially the people they once lived with. Some of the reasons people engage in crimes and criminal activities include unemployment, poor literacy levels, poverty, lack of vocational skills, peer pressure among others. The rise in crime and consequently imprisonment in Nigeria today can be traceable to the problems above. Cake Baking are among some of the vocational skills that are marketable in the Nigerian society today. This skills can flourish in rural or urban settings and prison inmates can start the business upon release from incarceration, thus transiting from a life in prison into living successfully within the society they were once members.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of adult literacy programme on acquisition of Cake Baking vocational skills among prison inmates in Plateau State. The specific objectives of this study are to:

- Ascertain the level of cake baking vocational skills of prison inmates in Jos metropolis
- Find out whether prison inmates can identify and use baking equipments correctly

- Find out the effects of adult literacy programme on the ability of prison inmates to correctly mix raw materials for baking

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

- To what extent would adult literacy programme affect the ability of prison inmates to acquire baking skills?
- How would adult literacy programme affect the ability of prison inmates to handle equipments in baking and event decoration in the experimental group?

1.5 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at 0.05 levels of significance:

- There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of prison inmates ability to identify and use tools for Cake baking in the experimental group.
- There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of prison inmates ability to mix raw materials in Cake baking in the experimental group.

1.6 Theoretical Framework

This study is hinged on the Human Capital Theory propounded by Schultz in 1961. However, Becker and Mincer contributed to the evolution of this theory in 1964 and 1974 respectively. The theory depicts that investments in individuals can be mathematically measured based on the economic value they are able to contribute to the society. Therefore, education (formal and non-formal), job training and marketable talents are ways in which humans increase their ability to acquire knowledge and generate higher wages.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will hopefully be of benefit to the following stakeholders: the prison inmates, their family members, the prison authority, the Government, and the society at large.

There are quite a number of reasons why people commit crimes, get imprisoned and even re-offend. Some of such reasons include unemployment, stigmatization, illiteracy and victimization. If prison inmates are provided with vocational skills that can enable them re-integrate into the society upon release from prison, especially the vocational skills with minimal startup capital like event decoration and baking skills, this will help reduce the incidence of re-offending. When inmates are engaged in productive literacy and vocational skill that lead to economic and social independence, it will bring about reduction in idleness and consequently may reduce the tendencies to engage in crimes. This is because upon release from incarceration, the inmates could start a business that could make them employable or become independent entrepreneurs and even employers of labour. The vocational skill training of prison inmates may increase their choice of employment after completion of their term of imprisonment which may eventually help them contribute positively to national development (instead of being nuisances to the society). This will hopefully help them to adjust fully into the society knowing full well that there is dignity in labour.

Finally, the outcome of this study if implemented will significantly help reduce the crime rate in the society and may also reduce the tendencies to re-offend due to lack of proper engagement in a meaningful trade since they may return to the society well skilled, reformed and empowered to face the challenges of living.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study was delimited to Jos and Lamingo prisons in Plateau State. The study did not cover other prisons in Plateau State such as Pankshin, Langtang, Shendam and Wase prisons. The study was restricted to convicted prison inmates serving jail term of six months to one year only and not those serving long term of one year and above. The study was further delimited to vocational training in Cake baking.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

2.1 Concept of Vocational Skill Acquisition

Skill acquisition is a means of providing the opportunity to people to make maximum contribution to their own development and to the self-sustaining development of the community. According to Emeka (2011), skill acquisition is a process whereby individuals acquire skills that they can use to impact their generation. Skill acquisition is not for the poor or middle class individuals only but for everyone. It is relevant for career and or professionals as well as dropouts or individuals who cannot further their education due to certain constraint. Skills acquired make individuals versatile, self- sustaining and independent. Tamaraye (2011) said that; through skill acquisition, creativity, initiative, capability, commitment and empowerment, skills are developed or achieved. It is also a means of realizing human energy by providing an opportunity for people to maximize contribution to their own development and to the self-sustaining development of their communities. Vocational skill acquisition training is aimed at transforming the human person so as to bring about his or her potentials and empower others to excel in life. Training for skill acquisition also enables individuals to become independent and self-reliant rather than be a liability to his or her family or community.

Vocational skill acquisition involves training for specific career or trade. It focuses on practical applications of skills learned and is generally unconcerned with theory or traditional academic skills (Doak, 2011). This also provides a link between education and the working world. Similarly, this form of training is usually provided within or outside the conventional learning environment. Vocational skill acquisition training emphasizes skills and knowledge required for a particular job function (such as event management, carpentry). It is also referred to as vocational education or technical education, which aims at equipping people with knowledge, skills and or competence required in particular occupations or more broadly, in the labour market. This is aimed at equipping people with skills that will enable them get good jobs in the modern world and to face the key challenges posed by globalization (United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization UNESCO, 2012).

According to Onah (2000), skill acquisition is the willingness to and ability of an individual to seek investment opportunities to establish as well as engage in a skill that will enable him become self-reliant and also empowers people in diverse skills. Thus, they can become self-employed or employers of labour. The European Centre for the Development of Vocational training (2013) is of the view that vocational skill acquisition training can be formal, non-formal or informal and can take place in education and training institutions, at work places within the informal and traditional apprenticeships and in everyday life. These involve the acquisition of technical and non-technical skills, in addition to general education that are supported by acquiring awareness, knowledge, skills and attitudes relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.

2.2 Baking Skill

Baking is the technique of cooking food by dry heat in an enclosed oven, hot sand or stove in which the action of the dry convention heat is modified by steam. Baking is a combination of different ingredients and skills. The dry heat of baking transforms the ingredients in the mixture which in turn changes the outer layer into brown thereby making the baked product edible attractive and tasty. This procedure can be a lot of fun when the baker is able to painstakingly follow the instruction. The baking business is a lucrative and moneymaking venture that can generate income for the baker, his or her community and the nation at large. Baking industry has an important place in the economy of any nation. This is because people consume baked products so massively due to easy access, low price, safety of time and high nutritional value. With the high rate of busy schedules of people generally, baked products continue to gain popularity.

There are two methods of baking identified by Baking Skills Manual (2013). They include; dry baking; when baking, steam rises from water content of the food. This steam combines with the dry heat of the oven to cook the food .Examples are cakes, pastries etc. Increased humidity baking; when baking certain foods, the oven humidity is increased by placing a bowl of water or injection-steam into the oven thus increasing the water content of the food. The purpose of the prison business is to train the inmates to have livelihood skill, develop the habit of diligence and cultivate their bodies and mind, so that they can adapt to the normal life of the community.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research design

This study employed the quasi experimental research design. Specifically the non-equivalent pre-test, post-test control group design was adopted. According to Awotunde, Ugodolunwa and Ozoji (2002), quasi experimental research designs are utilized in order to carry out a random assignment of subjects into groups.

Population of this study comprised all convicted prison inmates in Lamingo and Jos prisons, Plateau State. The Lamingo and Jos prisons have a total number of 1474 prison inmates serving various jail terms. The population comprises 668 convicted (both long and short terms) 570 awaiting trial, 31 life imprisonment, and 205 condemned. Similarly, out of the convicted prison inmates, 165 are serving short term of six months to one year; while the remaining 503 are serving long term of one year and above. The population distribution is presented below:

The sample for the study comprised 40 convicted inmates who are serving short jail term of six (6) months to one year, that is, 20 from Jos and 20 from Lamingo prisons who have functional literacy and who may not have acquired any vocational skill before, and may be interested in acquiring vocational skill in baking and event decoration. There are615 convicted prison inmates in Jos prison and 53 in Lamingo prison making a total number of 668 convicted inmates in both prisons. Out of this number, 153 are serving short term of six months to one year; while 515 are serving long term of 0ne year and above. The researcher utilized those convicts who will be released between six months to one year. This is to enable the inmates practice the trade immediately without forgetting what they learnt. The choice of Jos and Lamingo prisons is because both meet the criteria for choosing participants for the study. The inmates in Lamingo prison are all convicted short term

and will be released between six months to one year. 165 prison inmates serving short term are in the Jos prison and so selecting the sample for the study did not pose much problem.

3.2 Sampling Technique

In selecting samples for the study, two sampling techniques were employed. They include the simple random and the purposive sampling techniques. Awotunde et al. (2002) asserted that after obtaining accurate sampling frame and numbering the units it contains serially, a simple random sample can be drawn using the lottery or random number. Therefore, a structured questionnaire developed by the researcher was used as a base line data to select inmates that comprised the sample of the study. This technique was also used in placement of inmates into experimental and control groups.

3.3 Instruments for Data Collection

The instrument used for the collection of data for this study is Baking Skill Test (BST). Baking Skill Test (BST) is a researcher made test comprising the theoretical and practical aspects of the training following step by step procedure. Section A comprised the personal data while section B contained ten test items. The test was used to assess the ability to mention equipments and materials needed for baking, ability to explain the step by step procedure in baking, ability to demonstrate practically the step by step procedure, ability to use the tools and materials orderly, ability to mix the raw materials perfectly, ability to recognize safety tips, ability to maintain quality of products, ability to start and finish well, ability to keep to time and ability to keep records. This instrument was used during the pre-test and post-test.

3.4 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability of the Baking Skill Test (BST) was established using test-retest reliability. Furthermore, a pilot study was conducted on inmates in Pankshin prison in Plateau State to ascertain the efficiency and the appropriateness of the instruments. The reliability obtained was 0.850.

3.5 Scoring Procedure

The Cake Baking Skill Test (CBST) is scored based on the following criteria: very high knowledge (90% and above), high knowledge (80%-89%), moderate knowledge (60%-79%), low knowledge (40%-59%) and poor knowledge (0%-39%) respectively.

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

Data for this study was analyzed using descriptive statistic to answer the research questions. The t-test for related sample was used to test the hypotheses formulated to guide the study. This statistic was chosen because of its ability to compare the scores of two groups (experimental and control). The hypotheses were tested at 0.05level of significance. The research questions were answered using the arithmetic mean and percentages. Hypotheses one, two was tested using related sample t-test

4. Results

This section presented and discussed the result of the study based on the research questions answered and research hypotheses tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Research Question 1: How would adult literacy programme affect the ability of prison inmates to handle equipments in baking in the experimental group?

Table 1: Extent to which Adult literacy programme will affect the ability of Prison Inmates to Handle Equipments in Baking in the Experimental Group

Extent of Knowledge	**EXPERIMENTAL GROUP**		**CONTROL GROUP**	
	Pre-test	**Post-test**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**
	Freq. (%)	**Freq. (%)**	**Freq. (%)**	**Freq. (%)**
Poor Knowledge	19 (95)	0	19 (95)	0
Low Knowledge	1(5)	0	1(5)	17(85)
Moderate Knowledge	0	0	0	3(15)
High Knowledge	0	6(30)	0	0
Very High Knowledge	0	14(70)	0	0
Total	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**

Note: Percentage is in parenthesis (%)

Table 1 reveals the extent at which Adult literacy programme will affect the ability of Prison Inmates to Handle Equipments in Baking in the Experimental Group. Before intervention,95% and 5% of the inmates had poor knowledge and Low Knowledge level respectively, Handling Equipments in Baking skills in both experimental and control groups. After intervention, 85% of the inmate in the control group had Low knowledge and 15% had Moderate knowledge Level of Handling Equipments in Baking skills respectively; while 70% and 30% of the inmate in the experimental group had Very High knowledge and High knowledge level respectively in Handling Equipments in Baking skills. This implies that to a high and very high extent Adult literacy programme had affected the ability of Prison Inmates in Handling Equipments in Baking Skills after intervention.

Research Question 2: To what extent would adult literacy programme affect the ability of prison inmates to start and finish the production of baking products after intervention?

Table 2: Extent to which Adult literacy programme will affect the ability of Prison Inmates to Start and Finish the Production of Baking Products after Intervention

Extent of Knowledge	**EXPERIMENTAL GROUP**		**CONTROL GROUP**	
	Pre-test	**Post-test**	**Pre-test**	**Post-test**
	Freq. (%)	**Freq. (%)**	**Freq. (%)**	**Freq. (%)**
Poor Knowledge	0	0	20 (100)	0
Low Knowledge	0	0	0	0
Moderate Knowledge	12(60)	0	8(40)	1(5)

High Knowledge	8(40)	0	12(60)	19(95)
Very High Knowledge	0	20(100)	0	0
Total	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**	**20 (100)**

Note: Percentage is in parenthesis (%)

Table 2 reveals the Extent to which Adult literacy programme will affect the ability of Prison Inmates to Start and Finish the Production of Baking Products before and after Intervention. Before intervention in the experimental group 60% and 40% of the inmates had moderate and high knowledge of Starting and Finishing skills in the Production of Baking Products respectively while in the control group 40% and 60% of the inmates had moderate and high knowledge of Starting and Finishing skill in the Production of Baking Products respectively. After intervention, 100% of the inmate in the experimental group had very high knowledge Level of Starting and Finishing the Production of Baking Products; while 95% and 5% of the inmate in the control group had Moderate knowledge level and High knowledge level respectively in Starting and Finishing the Production of Baking Products. This implies that to a very high extent Adult literacy programme had affected the ability of Prison Inmates in Starting and Finishing the Production of Baking Products after intervention.

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference in the pre-test and post-test mean scores of prison inmates ability to identify and use tools for Cake baking in the experimental group.

Table 3: Summary of t-test Analysis in Pretest and Post-Test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Identify and Use Tools For Cake Baking in the Experimental Group

Groups	**N**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**Df**	**t-$_{cal}$**	**P-value**
Pre-test	20	3.45				
			0.69	38	-32.894	.000
Post-test	20	9.65	0.49			

Source: Field data 2019

Table 3 reveals the t-test Analysis of Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Identify and Use Tools for Baking in the Experimental Group. The inmate in Experimental Group had a pre-test mean score ($\bar{X}$ = 5.60, SD = 0.52) and a post-test mean and a standard deviation score of ($\bar{X}$ = 15.20, SD = 1.55), the degree of freedom of 18 and a t-test value -18.59 with a p-value of 0.000. Since the p-value is less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Identify and Use Tools for Baking in the Experimental Group.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of prison inmates ability to mix raw materials in Cake baking in the experimental group.

Table 4: Summary of t-test Analysis in Pre-Test and Post-Test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates Ability to Mix Raw Materials in Baking in the Experimental Group

ABILITY TO KEEP TO TIME	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Df	t_{cal}	P-value
Pre-test	20	1.20	0.41	38	-24.158	.000
Post-test	20	4.65	0.49			

Source: Field data 2019

Table 4 reveals the t-test Analysis of Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Mix Raw Materials in Cake Baking in the Experimental Group. The Inmates ability to Mix Raw Materials in Cake Baking had a pre-test mean score ($\bar{X}$ = 3.10, SD = 0.74) and a post-test mean and a standard deviation score of ($\bar{X}$ = 8.50, SD = 2.01), the degree of freedom of 18 and a t-test value -7.962 with a p-value of 0.00. Since the p-value is less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected.

5. Discussion of results

Table 1 reveals the t-test Analysis of Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Identify and Use Tools for Baking in the Experimental Group. The inmate in Experimental Group had a pre-test mean score ($\bar{X}$ = 5.60, SD = 0.52) and a post-test mean and a standard deviation score of ($\bar{X}$ = 15.20, SD = 1.55), the degree of freedom of 18 and a t-test value -18.59 with a p-value of 0.000. Since the p-value is less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Identify and Use Tools for Baking in the Experimental Group. This finding is in line with that of Ajah and Nweke (2017) which revealed that vocational training do not exist in Nigerian prison system such as fashion design, dressing hair salon as well as other inmates in Nigeria.

Table 4 reveals the t-test Analysis of Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Mix Raw Materials in Cake Baking in the Experimental Group. The Inmates ability to Mix Raw Materials in Cake Baking had a pre-test mean score ($\bar{X}$ = 3.10, SD = 0.74) and a post-test mean and a standard deviation score of ($\bar{X}$ = 8.50, SD = 2.01), the degree of freedom of 18 and a t-test value -7.962 with a p-value of 0.00. This implies that there is a significant difference between Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of Prison Inmates ability to Mix Raw Materials in Cake Baking in the Experimental Group Since the p-value is less than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. This finding agrees with the findings of Asokhia & Agbonluae (2013) which states that rehabilitation services in Nigerian prisons are not international best compliance.

6. Conclusion

Adults literacy programme on acquisition of cake baking vocational skills among prison inmates in Plateau State have been found to be an effective way of job creation and a rehabilitation strategy to make the imprison inmate acquire skills to be self-employed and make them to have daily, weekly and monthly income through cake baking for birthday, anniversaries, valentine and so on.

7. Recommendations

Based on the outcome of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- Prison inmate should be encourage to prepare cakes while in prison
- Government should encourage cake baking vocational skills in the prison of Nigeria
- Government and Non-profit oriented individuals should provide soft startup loan for this inmates after been released from prison.

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The Issues and Challenges of Hady from Different Islamic Schools of Thought

FATAI OWOLABI JAMIU
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria

Abstract. *Hady* is the second most important obligatory annual rite for Muslim pilgrims from all over the world to perform during the fifth pillar of Islam, the pilgrimage in the city of Minā. There are divergent opinions among different schools of thought on how this aspect is carried out. Due to the improvement in the socio-economic and security related spheres, the number gradually increased. The paper discusses fundamental challenges with a view to finding possible solutions for better actualization of the *hady*. These challenges include: forgetfulness in observing the prescribed rules and regulations, accommodation for the multitudes of pilgrims in Minā, myriads of certified conditions for sacrificial animals, financial incapacitation for the purchase of a sacrificial animal, unreliable agent and fasting at Makkah. It is the view of this paper that if the identified challenges are properly addressed, there will be significant changes in offering at Minā. The paper revealed that different Islamic schools of thought agreed in the area of obligatory *hady* for a non-Makkan pilgrim but it is compulsory for a Makkan pilgrim performing *Ḥajj al-Tamattu'*, they also agreed on its kinds, its requirements, its time, its non-obligatory for *Ḥajj Ifrād* and fasting for *Ḥajj* pilgrim that cannot find the *hady* nor possess means to acquire one. They differed in its obligatory, its place, and distribution of its flesh.

Keywords: Issues, Challenges, *Hady*, Islamic Schools, Thought

1. Introduction

Hady is a fundamental issue for Muslim pilgrims both male and female who are expected to have sufficient and useful knowledge on how it should be carried out for the purpose of their psychological and spiritual well-being. People embarked on Holy pilgrimage to Makkah are ill-informed about *hady*. This is due to negative effects of materialism on the society.

The paper shall be divided into four sections. The first section, aside from the introduction, explains literature review, research methodology and findings. The second section deals with issues of *hady* that include: its kinds, *wājib* (obligatory) and *mustaḥābb* (recommended), and various kinds of *wājib* sacrifice, those for whom *hady* is obligatory, the requirements of the *hady*, its time and place, the legal rules about its flesh and the substitute duty for one who can neither find the *hady* nor possess the means to purchase one, and its distribution. The third section examines the challenges faced by pilgrims on *hady*. The fourth section serves as its conclusion that discovered, however, the purpose of this sacrificial animal is to feed the poor and needy in Makkah and other Muslim countries for achieving greater and wider solidarity among Muslims. It highlighted that *hady* has a significant effect on the pilgrim with a strong determination to abide by its rules and regulations. It also encouraged the pilgrim to do good deeds to fellow human beings as part of the ingredients which entail absolute faith in Allāh

and fervent prayers that Islam recommends for an acceptable Ḥajj.

2. Literature Review

This paper uses the three literary sources, each of which provides a different angle for the study of *hady*. It examines the Holy Qur'ān, *Ḥadīth* and Muslim exegetical reports in order to explore the possibilities and limitations of employing these authoritative texts to legitimate the sacrificial feast.

2.1 The Holy Qur'ān and *Hady*

It is the belief of most Muslims in the world that hady is a festival legalized by the Holy Qur'ān. Such claim can be attributed to three different angles: that the Qur'ān literally prescribes hady; that it is joined to Ḥajj which itself a Qur'ānic imperative and that it is a re-enactment of Prophet Ibrāhīm's sacrifice described in the Qur'ān.
The Holy Qur'ān says:

So pray to your Lord and sacrifice (Q108:2)

The Arabic verb *n-h-r* is derived from the word *anḥar* which is used for upper portion of the chest; hence also it is employed for slaughtering as reference to *yawm al-naḥr* (Day sacrificial Animal), a common expression for *hady* (Jamiu, 2018:). Most Muslims and western scholars uncritically accept this verdict and do not wish to question the rationale behind it (Brisebarre, 1999:96). There are some others who doubt the historical veracity of this assumption that *wanḥar* is a reference to the Day of Immolation (Luxenberg, 2004:308).

There are four loci in the Qur'ān that are employed to legalize current ideas on sacrifice. Words related to the stem q-r-b (to approach, near, proximity) appear in connection with animal sacrifice (Q3:172; 5:27). The text is especially important due to the fact it is related to the animal sacrificed by Hābil, the son of Ādam. In fact, the Qur'ān is silent about the details and significance of this sacrifice. The majority of exegetes have attributed this verse as the first direct reference to the later practice of the *hady*. The opinion of Ibn Kathīr (ca. 701/1300 – 774/1373) is that Hābil's ram was received by God, preserved in paradise and again lowered to earth during Prophet Ibrāhīm's trial, before finally being slaughtered again (145-147).

A second word cluster (*dh-b-ḥ*) means to cut, to slaughter is employed in relation with a cow slaughtered by Prophet Mūsā (Q2:71), sacrifices to the idols (Q5:3) and the substitute animal given to Prophet Ibrāhīm instead of his son (Q37:107). A third word cluster (h-d-y) means to bring, to guide, and to direct; is referred to sacrificial animal in the context of rituals near the Makkan sanctuary. A fourth word cluster (*n-s-k*) means to live the life of an ascetic which has the connotation of sacrifice is *mansak* (pl. *manāsik* or *nusuk*) which also appears in the description of the Ḥajj (Q2:196; 22:34, 67).

2.2 The Qur'ān and Prophet Ibrāhīm's Sacrifice

The ultimate Qur'ānic base of the *hady* is found in the story of Prophet Ibrāhīm in Q37 which relates and describes how he is tried by God when he wanted to sacrifice his son Ismā'īl thus:

And when he (his son) was old enough to walk with him,
he said: O my son! I have seen in a dream that I am
slaughtering you (offering you in sacrifice to Allah). So
look what you think! He said: O my father! Do that which
you are commanded, if Allah wills, you shall find me of the
patient. Then, when they had both submitted themselves
(to the Will of Allah), and he had laid him prostrate on his
forehead (or on the side of his forehead for slaughtering);
We called out to him: O Abraham! You have fulfilled the
dream! Verily thus do We reward the good-doers. Verily,
that indeed was a manifest trial. And We ransomed him with

a great sacrifice; And We left for him (a goodly remembrance)
among the later generations. Peace be upon Ibrāhīm. Thus
indeed do We reward the good-doers.

In the absence of any Qur'ānic obligation to re-enact this momentous sacrifice, it will be seen how the connection between the Ḥajj, *hady* and Prophet Ibrāhīm's trial is greatly emphasized in sermons during the period of *'Īd al-Aḍḥā* (Mittwoch, 1972:21). At this juncture, it should be mentioned that most Muslims agree that there is no particular Qur'ānic injunction to perform the *hady*, while others condemn such statement as a sin (Olsson, 1998:202). In fact, all agree that the role of Prophet Muḥammad in the institutionalization of hady must be recognized (Platti, 1994:159).

2.3 *Hady* and Prophet Muḥammad

Two revolutionary adoptions were believed to have changed the pagan *hady* into acceptable Islamic festival which one had to do with the place, the other with time. The spatial development from a local cult based at a sacred centre (Makkah) to a world-wide phenomenon involving the whole Islamic world, and the temporal change of the solar season and religious ritual were effective unifying elements for other communities which signify relationship between the Makkah sanctuaries and *hady* is a replica in other locations (Smith, 1992:94).

The origin of the *hady* can be attributed to either a prophetic plot to attract the Jews with an Ibrāhīmic festival or an attempt to conciliate the Makkans after Muḥammad's rupture with the Jews from Madīnah cannot be historically proven (Haarmann, 1975). It is likely that Prophet Ibrāhīm had functioned as a real 'hėros civilisateur' (Grandin 1978) in pre-Islamic Makkah. The connection between Prophet Ibrāhīm and the *hady* as well as the changing emphasis from Isḥāq to Ismā 'īl in the sacrificial myth, must be dated to Madīnan period (Platti, 1994:165).

The traditional account emphatically put the first *hady* to the one that took place on the 10th *dhul-ḥijjah* of the first or second year after the flight from Makkah to Madīnah, corresponding to 3rd June, 624 C.E. (Mittwoch 1971; Platti 1994; Brisebarre, 1999:96). However, the Ibrāhīmian model was placed on all of these distinctive rituals and gave them a meaningful purpose.

The *hady* on the 10th *dhul-ḥijjah* became known as *'Īd al-Aḍḥā* and that day's sacrifice as *uḍḥiyyah* from the root *ḍ-ḥ-y* which means to become (visible, to appear). The word *ḍaḥiyyah* is capable of giving a twofold meaning of forenoon and sacrifice. However, the Qur'ān does not mention this word, *'Īd al-Aḍḥā*, as Mittwoch (1971:65) rightly observed, has become the most common label for the hady in most parts of the Islamic world.

In fact, in order to give a separate entity to Ḥajj practices from unwanted pagan connotations of sun worship, the Muslim world wide made a necessary arrangement to perform the prayer and sacrifice after sunrise, as an indication of the new name (Hames, 1998:8-9). The same applicable to the prayer times culminate in absolute taboo on prayer during sunrise and sunset (Rubin, 1987:45).

In 628, Prophet Muḥammad decided to perform the *'umrah* that year, but he was not allowed by the Makkans at the place called Hudabiyyah. They had an agreement with him that he would be welcome to perform it the next year which he did. In 10 H.A./ 632 C.E., the Prophet performed his first and last pilgrimage accompanied by 90,000 believers (Rappaport, 1999:102). Prophet Muḥammad repeated the major points of the Islamic religion in his farewell sermon on the Day of 'Arafah. There he emphatically mentioned that all practices of the pre-Islamic era had been abolished, but that the sacredness of the spatial and temporal elements from the Ḥajj remained intact (Peters, 1994:7).

Collections of authoritative Prophetic sayings and customs were written down in the first three centuries of the Islamic community gave the strong juridical base for *hady* as it well known

today. The following example is from Bukhārī's collections:

I heard the Prophet (peace be upon him) delivering a sermon (*khuṭbah*) saying: The first thing to be done on this day (first day of *'īd al-Aḍḥā*) is to pray; and after returning from the prayer slaughter your sacrifice (in the name of Allāh) and whoever does so, he acted according to our *Sunnah* (tradition).

Another extract from the collections of Abū Dāwūd reads thus:

I witness sacrificing along with the Apostle of Allāh (peace be upon him) at a place of prayer. When he finished his sermon, he descended from his pulpit and a ram was brought to him. The Apostle of Allāh (peace be upon him) slaughtered it with his hand, and said: In the name of Allāh, Allāh is Most Great. This is from me and from those who did not sacrifice from my community.

Usually, the traditional collections make references to the *'īd al-Aḍḥā* under separate headings such as *kitāb al-ḍayāḥa'* (book on sacrifices) or *kitāb al-'īdayn* (book on the two festivals). They give detailed prescriptions on the qualification of the animal, time and place of slaughtering or the manner the Prophet held his foot while sacrificing. It is interesting to note that some Muslims used to defend animal sacrifice as part of Ḥajj rites while others take the same sources to claim that true Muslims are expected to be vegetarian (Foltz, 2006:105-127).

3. Research Methodology

The paper adopts a document review method as it focusses on authoritative texts in the performance and discourse on *hady* in Minā through the opinions of different Islamic schools of thought. It depends mainly on the major sources of Islamic heritage: the Glorious Qur'ān and the Ḥadīth (traditions) of the Prophet Muḥammad. Other sources include authoritative Islamic law books of the four schools in Arabic by scholars like al-Jazayrī, Ibn Rushd, al-Kahlānī and a host of others.

Descriptive method is employed for the ritual practice through series of questions such as when, who, what and how are answered by available information in the authoritative texts. On the time of *hady* with regards to the proper date of the festival, the discourse carefully mentions it.

The challenges faced the pilgrims on sacrificial animal are based on the analysis of primary materials and opinions of different Islamic schools of thought. Finally, in order to establish some factual depth to this study, archival sources on major Islamic heritage are strictly adhered to.

4. Findings

The Saudi Arabia Authorities have come up with the idea of the slaughter house for the slaughtering and butchering of the sacrificial animals. There are areas of agreement on issues relating to the *hady* among different Islamic schools of thought such as its actual commencement day, types of its animals, their ages, obligatory hady for a non-Makkan pilgrim, its compulsory for a Makkan pilgrim performing Ḥajj *al-Tamattu'* ; its kinds, its requirements, its time, its non-obligatory for Ḥajj *Ifrād* and fasting for Ḥajj pilgrim that cannot find the *hady* nor possess means to acquire one. They differed in its obligatory, its place, and the distribution of its flesh.

It is discovered that all technical, administrative and financial procedures necessary for ensuring that all animals meet all *Sharī'ah* and health requirements for their meats fit for human consumption. These meats have been utilized through the processes of hygiene, refrigeration, freezing, preservation, packaging and transportation to make sure that meats get to the poor and needy.

4.1 *Hady* (Sacrificial animal)

A pilgrim carries out the slaughtering of an animal in Minā as the second obligatory rite on the 10th of *dhul-ḥijjah*. There are five different ways in which hady is required. The first has to do with *tamattu'* and *qirān* Ḥajj in which a pilgrim must offer it if he can afford it, otherwise, he must fast instead (Q2:196). The second situation deals with sacrifice offered (as a penalty) for omitting an obligatory part of Ḥajj which has to be done in the *Ḥaram* and its meat must be distributed therein (Q5:95).

The third way is through a sacrifice offered as a result of the pilgrim doing one of the prohibited things while in *iḥrām* which attracts a sacrifice in compensation (Q2:196). The fourth mode has to do with a sacrifice offered due to prevention from completing one's Ḥajj which he should offer in the place where he was prevented from continuing. When the Prophet was prevented from entering Makkah at time of al-Hudaybiyyah, he offered his sacrifice outside of the *Ḥaram*. The fifth option is a sacrifice offered as compensation for hunting game. The meat of sacrifice must be distributed within the *Ḥaram* zone, and it is not valid if done outside the zone. Now let us look at the significance of *hady*.

4.2 Significance of *Hady*

Hady has provided significant effects on the people especially the pilgrims due to the fact that it reminds them of the remembrance of Prophet Ibrāhīm's willingness to sacrifice his son Ismā'īl at Allāh's command which has become ever green in their minds. It is expected that before the sacrifice during Ḥajj, prayer is performed which is stipulated in the following verse thus:

Therefore turn in prayer to your Lord and sacrifice
(to Him only) Q108:2

The noblest act to be carried out on the Day of *Naḥr* (slaughtering) is *hady* as the Prophet who is quoted to have said thus:

Āishah narrated that the Messenger of Allāh said: A human does no action from the actions on the day of Naḥr more beloved to Allāh than spilling blood. On the Day of Judgement, it will appear with its horns, and hair as well as hooves, and indeed the blood will be accepted by Allāh from where it is received before it even falls upon earth, so let your heart delight in it (Narrated in *Sunnah* al-Tirmidhī).

It doubles meaning of rituals in purification and empowerment as emphasized by the Prophet when he said:

The sacrifice will deliver the slaughterer from all evils in this world and the Hereafter. The animal will be resurrected on the Day of Judgement to testify for its owner's piety and that every one of its hairs will be rewarded as if it had been a good deed.

In line with the above excerpt, the meaning of empowerment through the sacrificial animal enables Muslims to fight injustice and political enemies that is more important than individual redemption and purification. It increases the social status of the believers as they obey their God during the time of trial. It is an avenue for the believers to be ready to sacrifice themselves in order to protect life. It also serves as gift-giving to the less privileged people in the society. It highlights the importance of building a personal relationship with the animals that are to be treated with kindness as they are creatures of God that must be treated with respect.

4.3 Kinds of *Hady*

The *hady* is of two types which comprise *wājib* (compulsory) and *mustaḥābb* (recommended). The one mentioned in the following verse of the Qur'ān is known as *mustaḥābb* sacrifice thus:

So pray to Your Lord and sacrifice (Q108:2)

It is interpreted as a commandment to Prophet Muḥammad (S) to sacrifice after the *'Īd al-Aḍḥā* prayer. According to the Mālikīs and the Ḥānafīs, the sacrifice is obligatory for every family once every year as it is similar to the *Zakāt al-Fiṭr*. The Shāfi'ī school is of the opinion that the *mustaḥābb* sacrifice can be carried out in Minā on any of the four days, the day of *'Īd al-Aḍḥā* and the two days following it (called *ayyām al-Tashrīq*). The opinion of the Ḥanbalīs, the Mālikīs and Ḥānafīs on its time is

three days whether in Minā or elsewhere. The best time for the sacrifice is after sunrise on the day of *'Īd al-Aḍḥā* after its prayer and deliverance of its two *khuṭbah*s (sermons).

In accordance with the Qur'ānic text, the obligatory sacrifices are four. They are:
The sacrifice related to Ḥajj *al-Tamattu'* is seen in the verse that says:
……if in peace time anyone of you combines the
'*Umrah* with the ḥajj, he must offer such sacrifice as he can …….. (Q2:196)

The sacrifice related to *ḥalq*, is a *wājib* open to choice in line with the verse that says:

But if any of you is ill or suffers from an ailment of the head, he must offer a fidyah either by fasting or by alms-giving or by offering a sacrifice (Q2:196)

The sacrifice related to the penalty (*jazā'*) for hunting, in line with the verse
That says:

He that kills game by design, shall present, as an
offering near the Ka'bah, a domestic beast equivalent to that which he has killed, to be determined by two honest men among you ……. (Q5:95)

The sacrifice related to *iḥṣār* (some hindrances which keep one from completing the rites of Ḥajj, such as illness or interruption due to an enemy), the verse says:

If you cannot, offer such sacrifice as you can afford
(Q2:196)
Aside from the above four, there are also obligatory sacrifices related to any of the following: *'ahd* (pledge), *nadhīr* (vow) and *yamīn* (oath).

4.4 Arrangement of *Hady*

The following options can be used for arranging *hady*:

Through a pilgrim's travel agent as most Ḥajj package prices cover the fees for hady.
Coupons can be purchased from al-Rajhī Bank, an Islamic bank which arranges the slaughtering of animals and distributes the meat to the poor. It is located in Makkah Hilton Towers.
Coupons can also be purchased from Kiosks in Makkah and Minā.

4.5 For whom is *Hady Wājib*?

By the consensus of all the Islamic schools of thought, the *hady* is not obligatory on one performing 'Umrah *mufradah* nor on one performing Ḥajj *al-Ifrād*. Similarly, there is consensus regarding its being obligatory upon the non-Makkah pilgrim on Ḥajj *al-Tamattu'*. The four Sunnī schools add that it is also obligatory upon the pilgrim on Ḥajj *al-Qirān*.
There is disagreement regarding whether the Makkan performing Ḥajj *al-Tamattu'* must offer a sacrifice or not. According to the four Sunnī schools, the *hady* is not *wājib* on him. Sābiq (1992:632-641) states that "there is no disagreement among scholars that the sacrifice of *Tamattu'* is not *wājib* on those living in the neighbourhood of *al-Masjid al-Ḥaram*." The legal schools agree, however, that the obligatory *hady* is not one of the *arkān* of Ḥajj.

4.6 Requirements of the *Hady*

The hady must meet the following requirements:
It must belong to cattle such as camel, cow, sheep, or goat, the four schools unanimously agree on this according to al-Jazayrī (n.d: 623-626). The Ḥānafī, the Mālikī, the Shāfi'ī and Ḥanbalī schools consider that if a sheep, it must be at least six months, if a goat, it must be of one year; if a cow, it must be of two years, and if a camel, it must be of five years. One can join up with six other pilgrims (making seven in total) and each buy a share in a camel or a cow. The Islamic Jurisprudence values bigger animals as better sacrifices, although differences exist between schools of Law. Within the range of permitted sacrifices, Shāfi'ī scholars prefer camels, cows, goats and sheep in that order (Siddioi, 2007:189).
The sacrificial animal must be free of any defect, and, by consensus, must not be one-eyed, lame,

sick or old and decrepit. There is agreement, however, regarding its acceptability in case of castration, being without horns or with broken ones, missing or mutilated ears or tail. According to al-Kahlānī (n.d:208), such are acceptable. The female camel and cow as well as male sheep and goats are to be preferred on the view of some scholars, although, the permissibility of the converse in the two cases is not disputed by any school. Sābiq says that the sex of the sacrificial animal is irrelevant.

4.7 The Time and the Place of the Sacrifice

Hady can take place in Minā or Makkah according to the following ḥadīth:

> It was narrated from Jābir that the Messenger of Allāh said: All of Minā is place of sacrifice. Every road of Makkah is thoroughfare and a place of sacrifice. All of ‘Arafah is the place of standing, and all of Muzdalifah is a place of standing (Narrated in Sunnah Abī Dawūd).

According to the Mālikī, the ḥānafī and the Ḥanbalī schools, on the occasion of the sacrifice, it is the day of *‘Īd al-Aḍḥā* and the two days follow it. Abū Ḥanīfah adds that this time is specific for the sacrificial rite of Ḥajj *al-Qirān* and *Tamattu‘* but for others, he sets no such time limit. The Mālikīs do not recognize any difference between various kinds of hady in line with *al-Fiqh ‘alā al-Madhāhib al-‘Arba‘ah*.

Hady may be carried out after performing Ramy of Jamrah al-‘Aqabah on the 10th of *dhul-ḥijjah* up until sunset on the 12th. According to all schools of thought, it must be performed before the hair is cut. If it is carried out before or after this time frame, a penalty will be due.

If a pilgrim has arranged for the hady to be carried out but unsure of the exact time it will be carried out, he should perform *ramy* of *Jamrah al-Aqabah* early as possible according to Mālikī and Ḥanbalī and cut his hair as late as possible before sunset on the 12th of *dhul-ḥijjah* to ensure the sacrifice takes place within the correct time (Wolfe, 1997:102). Any pilgrim performing Ḥajj *al-Ifrād* may carry out the *hady* after cutting the hair if he chooses to partake in the sacrifice but not necessarily immediate after *ramy* (Ibn Sirīn, 1982:176).

If the sacrifice is done before its time, according to the Ḥanbalīs, it must be made again. If after its time in case of *mustaḥābb*, the lapse of time cancels it; and in case of *wājib*, it must be fulfilled (Ibn Rushd, 1982:103). According to the Ḥānafīs, it is not sufficient slaughtering the sacrificial animal before the three days of *‘Īd al-Aḍḥā* but if it is done later though a *kaffārah* is required for the delay. According to Ibn Rushd, the consensus of the scholars is in favour of slaughtering the *hady* at Minā (1982:105).

4.8 The Flesh of the *Hady*

The flesh of the *hady* whose slaughtering inside the Ḥaram is *wājib*, according to the Ḥanbalīs and the Shāfi‘īs, is to be distributed among the poor inside it. It is permissible to distribute it inside or outside the Ḥaram on the opinion of the Ḥānafīs and the Mālikīs. The view of the Shāfi‘īs is that one may not (oneself) eat the flesh of a *wājib hady*, but that of a voluntary or *mustaḥābb hady* is permissible. With the exception of the sacrifice made as *fidyah* for hurting someone (*adhā*), hunting, or sacrifice for vow (*nadhr*) specifically for the poor, and the voluntary *hady* which dies before reaching its destination, the flesh of the *hady* may be eaten in all cases (Insoll, 2010:32).

4.9 The Substitute Duty (*al-Badal*)

When the Ḥajj pilgrim cannot find the *hady* nor possess means to acquire one, all the legal schools agree that its substitute is to keep fasts for ten days, three of which, for successive days, are to be kept during the Ḥajj days and the remaining seven on returning home (Doi, 1980:163). This is in accordance with the Qur’ānic injunction that says:

> ….. But if he lacks the means let him fast three days

during the pilgrimage and seven when he has returned

that is ten days in all (Q2:196).

The capacity to offer the *hady* is based on the ability to arrange one in the place, and when it cannot be done the duty of *hady* is changed into that of the fasts. This holds even if the pilgrim should be a man of means in his own homeland. This is because the obligation is specific to the occasion and the capacity to fulfill it (Wolfe, 1993:214).

4.10 Slaughter Houses

In Minā and Muzdalifah, there are a number of modern slaughter houses. It is a *Sunnah* to perform one sacrifice in Minā, although it is completely acceptable for it to take place in Muzdalifah and Makkah. After the performance of *ramy* (pelting of pebble), if one returns to his camp in Minā, he can go directly to the slaughter houses where the sacrifices are performed. There are kiosks outside the slaughter houses selling coupons which may be purchased if prior arrangement has not been made. One can either ask someone to carry out the sacrifice in front of one or one may perform the sacrifice by himself. It is to be remembered that millions of animals are being slaughtered in this area which is not meant for the faint-hearted (Wolfe, 1993:216).

When a pilgrim ventures into a slaughter house in Muzdalifah and sacrifices his *hady*, he returns to his camp in Minā to have his hair cut, it is a *Sunnah* to do so. If a pilgrim is not going to witness or perform the sacrifice by himself, he must make sure that someone reliable is present to ensure the sacrifice is done (Foltz, 2006:135).

4.11 Performance of *Hady* by Oneself

When a pilgrim intends to carry out the *hady* by himself, he must inform his tour operator in advance so that additional money would not have to be paid to have someone else perform the sacrifice on his behalf. Before the performance of the sacrifice, he should bear in mind that every care must be taken to slaughter the animal without subjecting it to unnecessary pain (Al-Jazayrī, n.d:629). The animal should be placed on its left side facing the *Qiblah* and the following supplication should be recited prior to the sacrifice:

Īnnī wajjahtu wajhiya lilladhī faṭara s-samāwāti wal arḍa

ḥanīfan wa mā anā mina l-mushrikīna. Inna ṣalātī wa

nusukī wa maḥyāyī wa mamātī lillāh rabbil-'ālamīna. La

sharīka lahu wa bidhālika umirtu wa anā awwalul-

Muslimīn (Narrated in *Sunnah* Ibn Majah).

I have turned my face towards Him who has created the

Heavens and the earth Ḥanīfah (Islamic Monotheism, i.e.

worshipping none but Allāh Alone), and I am not of

Al-Mushrikīn (Q6:79).

Verily, my prayer, my sacrifice, my living and my dying

are for Allāh, the Lord of the mankind, jinn and all that

exist (Q6:162).

He has no partner. And of this I have been commanded,

and I am the first of the Muslims (Q6:163).

While slaughtering, it is also recommended to recite: *Bismillāh wa llāhu Akbar* meaning in the name of Allāh, Allāh is the greatest. It is also expected to recite after the sacrifice the following:

Bismillāh allahumma taqabal min Muḥammad wa āli
Muḥammad, wa min ummati Muḥammad

In the name of Allāh, O Allāh! Accept (this sacrifice)
On behalf of Muḥammad, his family and his *ummah*.
(Narrated in *Ṣaḥīḥ* Muslim).

After the sacrifice, one can eat from it and distribute it in any way one wishes regardless of whether the one feeds is rich or poor. It is recommendable that one eats one-third, gives one-third in charity, and gives the remaining

one-third to family and neighbours (Al-Kahlānī, n.d: 260).

4.12 Dhabḥ by a *Wakīl*

The Ḥajj pilgrim is preferable to slaughter the *hady* himself, though it is permissible to ask someone else to do it because it is one of the rites in which delegation is possible. The one deputed (*wakīl*) makes the *niyyah* of slaughtering on behalf of the one who deputizes, and it is better that both of them should make the *niyyah* together. Darāmī (1985:48) opines that if the *wakīl* makes an error in mentioning the name of the one who appoints him, or forgets his name altogether, there is no harm in it.

4.13 *Qāni'* and *Mu'tarr*

Allāh says:

…….then, when they are down on their sides (after slaughter), eat thereof, feed the poor and the beggar…… (Q22:36)

The word *qāni'* refers to the contented poor man who does not show his displeasure and does not frown or twitch his mouth in irritation. The word *mu'tarr* connotes one who comes to people for charity and presents himself (Ibn Kathīr, 1981:224).

4.14 The Substitute for Camel Sacrifice

It is an obligatory duty upon someone to sacrifice a camel through *kaffārah* or *nadhr* and he cannot arrange it, he must sacrifice seven sheep one after another. If he cannot do that, he must fast for 18 days (Ibn Sirīn, 1982:183).

4.15 *Taqlīd* and *Ish'ār*

In this context, the word *taqlīd* means putting a shoe or the like in the neck of the sacrificial animal. While *ish'ār* means making an incision in the right side of the hump of a camel or cow and letting it be stained by blood. The Sunnī jurists regard *ish'ār* and *taqlīd* as *mustaḥābb* except Abū Ḥanīfah, who says that the *taqlīd* of the sheep and camel is *Sunnah*, but *ish'ār* is by no means permissible due to the pain it causes to the animal (Al-Kahlānī, n.d:241). Islam has permitted the slaughtering of animals with kind treatment.

4.16 Charity to Non-Muslims

It is expected of the Ḥajj pilgrim to give something in charity or gift of the meat of the slaughtered animal to anybody he wishes, even a non-Muslim. It is permissible that the giving of non-obligatory charity or making of endowment (*waqf*) in favour of a Muslim or a non-Muslim. According to al-Iṣfahānī (1983:423), "in giving a recommended charity, poverty or possession of *īmān* (belief) or Islam is not a condition for the recipient. He may be a well-to-do man, a *dhimmī*, and a total stranger (not a blood relation of the giver of charity)". The author of *al-'urwat al-wuthqā*, al-Kaẓīm (1984:342), permits that charity is to be given even to a warring infidel.

4.17 Burning or Burying of Slaughtered Animals

Nowadays, it is a custom among Ḥajj pilgrims that they offer money to whoever would accept the *hady* which he on receiving either buries or throws away because the number of the slaughtered animals is great and nobody around to make use of their meat (Nāṣif, 1986:141-152). It is considered obligatory to make the slaughter even if it should require burning or burial of the bodies of the slaughtered beasts.

The *hady* is obligatory only when one can find someone to eat it or where it is possible to preserve the meat through drying or canning (Delaney, 1990:513-30). But when the sacrifice is solely carried out for destruction through burning or burying, its permissibility in the present conditions seems doubtful and questionable. The Prophet is reported to have said:

This sacrifice has been instituted to feed the poor among you with meat. So feed them (Nāṣif, 1986:152).

Although, this tradition is related particularly to voluntary sacrifice, it also throws light on the purpose behind obligatory sacrifice. Some Muslims have raised the serious question that during the Ḥajj season so many animals are slaughtered in sacrifice that enormous quantities of meat are wasted. The heat, lack of refrigeration facilities, inadequate transportation,

and over supply of meat for few days leave most of the meat unused or unusable. In fact, Islam tolerates no waste of any kind or degree; it responds first to the greater need and allows resort to the lesser evil; it works with a system of priorities from the most important to the least important and from the least to the most undesirable; it is both resourceful and adaptive (Abdalati, n.d:103).

The problem can be solved easily based on the aforementioned principles through the implementation in stages and on various levels. The Muslims should provide adequate facilities for refrigeration so that the surplus meat may be conserved and used by the poor in and around the holy places throughout the year. Efforts should be made to transport the surplus meat to the needy Muslims wherever they may be. It is suggested that the sacrificial animals can be slaughtered in Makkah and the meat may be canned or frozen and then transported to any part of the world where there are needy Muslims (Davids, 2006:98).

The surplus meat can be sold and used the money for charitable purposes. A pilgrim may choose the proper time and place to avoid any waste or he could pay in charity to a legitimate cause the money value of the animal that was to have been sacrificed at Makkah during the days of Ḥajj (Shalṭūṭ, 1959:152-160). It is a wrong notion to conclude that the price of the sacrificial animal given as charity will stand for the sacrifice as no amount of money in whatever form it is disbursed can replace the offering of flowing blood which is made by the pilgrim as a completion of the ceremonies of the Ḥajj (Doi, 1980:163).

5. Challenges facing pilgrims on Sacrificial Animals

The first cultural challenge lies in the fact that given the large number of pilgrims performing the exercise, with most of them slaughtering the sacrificial animals, a large percentage of the slaughtered animals got wasted and eventually became pollutants to the environment. The stipulated boundary within Ḥaram zone is obligatory for the *hady* to be slaughtered especially in Minā which is not capable of accommodating the multitudes of pilgrims. If by delaying the sacrifice, it becomes possible for the pilgrim to offer the *hady* in Minā, he may delay it up to the 12th of *dhul-ḥijjah* (Ibn Sirīn, 1982:198). *Hady* is obligatory to be offered after pelting the pebbles which usually forgotten by many pilgrims.

Unacceptability of sacrificial animals that is lesser than the required age makes the pilgrim looks for another one for offering. All the parts of a sacrificial animal must be free from any defect which poses challenge to a pilgrim in getting an animal fulfilling all the outlined requirements during the days of *'Īd al-Aḍḥā*. He is expected resorting to fasting instead of *hady* (Ibn Rushd, 1982:199).

Lack of sufficient financial capacity to pay for a full-fledged sacrifice is another challenge. Should he afford to pay for a sound animal later in the month of *dhul-ḥijjah*, it is advisable to do it regardless of what he has already done. If a pilgrim entertains a doubt after the animal was slaughtered as to whether it was carried out in Minā or elsewhere. The doubt may revolve around whether he sacrificed an animal at all, if it arose after shaving the head or *taqṣīr*, the doubt should be ignored, otherwise, he needs to return to Minā and offer *hady* there (Hames, 1998:20).

The case of a pilgrim who purchases a sacrificial animal and later becomes sick or deformed, slaughtering of such animal is arguable, as a matter of precaution; he must sacrifice it as well. He may resort to selling it but the proceeds should be given in charity.

After the purchase of an animal for sacrifice, it gets lost, it may not be known that someone else had offered a sacrifice on behalf of the pilgrim, another one should be purchased. However, if before the second one is slaughtered, the first is found, it is sufficient to confine it to the first. The second remains the property of the pilgrim as he has the choice of slaughtering or sparing it. However, he should, as a matter of recommended precaution, offer it. If the lost animal is fond after the second one was

slaughtered, the first one must, as a matter of precaution, also be slaughtered.

If a person finds a stray animal, knowing that it was *hady* , he should, as a matter of precaution, look for its owner till the afternoon of the 12th day of *dhul-ḥijjah*, if he fails in his bid, he should slaughter it on behalf of the owner. If the owner comes to know about this, it would suffice. If an animal cannot be found in time, and the pilgrim has the cash ready, he should, as a matter of precaution, deposit it with a reliable person to purchase and slaughter an animal on his behalf before the end of *dhul-ḥijjah*. In the meantime, he should observe fasting.

The seven day fasting period must be observed consecutively. Observing succession in fasting the first three days is a must whereas it is not a condition for the seven days. Fasting the first three days has to be with the pilgrim wearing his *iḥrām* for *'umrah at-tamattu'* if he does so before that, it shall not be in order.
If a pilgrim deputizes the agent to carry out the sacrifice for him and subsequently entertains a doubt as whether or not the agent has sacrificed the animal, he must resolve the matter as though the job has not been done. However, if the agent is a reliable person and informs him that he has sacrificed the animal that would be sufficient. The agent must make the intention on behalf of the owner of the offering, and not himself. The recommended solutions for all these challenges are strictly based on proper orientation and adequate knowledge about this particular aspect for the pilgrim. These will go a long way in making assurance that *hady* is carefully and conductively carried out in line with the established rules and regulations.

6. Conclusion

The paper argued that the authorities in Saudi Arabia have started doing something in an attempt to meet up the present serious and sensitive challenges of *hady*. There is serious increase in Ḥajj pilgrims from Muslim world to Minā and there is relative improvement in the ways and manners they involve in the matter of *hady*. This uniformly indirect but persistent treatment of the issues and challenges of *hady* from different Islamic schools of thought suggests that there was full appreciation of the fact that the issues of *hady* are not run exactly with man's inclination, and that man might, when commanded to follow them, turn unreceptive ear to them. This indirect method was calculated to interest man in carrying out *hady* in order that he might ultimately recognize its great merits and practice it, thus avoiding as much as possible, in the interest of human society.

Against this background, it is noted that since the aim of *hady* is to expand the scope of beneficiaries' base to include the poor and needy in Makkah and other Muslim countries in order to achieve greater and wider solidarity among Muslims. Since the stand of Islam is to assist the less privileged people in the society through series of methods to make them better citizens and better friends to one another, the Ḥajj pilgrims should assist and extend hospitality to people so that enmity and hatred could be eradicated in the society.

It is discovered that the authorities of Saudi Arabia have taken all technical, administrative and financial procedures necessary to ensure that all animals for the exercise meet all *Sharī'ah* and health requirements for their meat to fit for human consumption. They have achieved full utilization of the meat through the processes of hygiene, refrigeration, freezing, preservation, packaging and transportation to ensure that meats reach the poor and needy while it is still fit for human consumption. Many Muslim pilgrims need proper orientation on how to properly carry out *hady* in accordance with Islamic injunctions. In some cases, Ḥajj agents should judiciously monitor the pilgrims within the framework of Islam and attach adequate interest to the categories of people taken to the Holy land. Strong determination to abide by its rules and regulations, good deeds to fellow human beings, absolute faith in Allāh and fervent prayers are the ingredients that Islam recommends for *hady*.

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The Confluence of Pornography, Peer Pressure, and Home Environment on Senior Secondary School Students Sexual Behaviour, Counselling Implications

HAMMED ADEOYE
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode, Nigeria

KAMILU MURAINA
Legacy University, The Gambia

Abstract. This study investigated confluence of pornography, peer pressure and home environment on senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria. The descriptive research design of ex-post-facto type was adopted for the study. Three hundred (300) participants randomly selected from five (5) Local Government Areas in Ibadan participated in the study. The study considered and answered three research questions. The results showed that senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour is significantly correlated with pornography ($r = .756$; $p<.05$); peer pressure ($r = .793$; $p<.05$) and home environment ($r = .819$; $p<.05$), the independent variables when pulled together have significant effect on sexual behaviour (R (adjusted) =.858 and R2 (adjusted) =.735) with 73.5% of independent variables accounted for adolescents' sexual behaviour. In term of magnitude of contribution home environment made the most significant contribution (Beta= 1.691; t= 15.341; $p<0.05$) to the prediction of senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour followed by pornography (Beta= 1.525; t= 13.649; $p<0.05$) and peer pressure (Beta= 1.423; t= 11.007; $p<0.05$) consecutively. This result has a lot of implications for counselling, It is therefore recommended that the parents/guardians should be trained in the need to monitor the adolescents and also on how to give adequate emotional care. School Counsellors should be made to intensify effort by organising seminars/workshop on the implications of these factors (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment among others) on the adolescents' sexual behaviour in the society.

Keywords: Confluence, Pornography, Peer Pressure, Home Environment, Adolescent, Sexual Behaviour.

1. Introduction

Bad sexual behaviour is listed among the rampant problem behaviours prevalent among Nigerian adolescents, especially in the senior secondary schools. The reasons for this are not far-fetched considering the earlier exposure to poverty, sexual initiations, bad learning from social media and continuing school drop out over the years as well as the changes taking place within the immediate family. Although it is apparent that sexual behaviour problems in adolescents exist among cultures and that these

behaviours are possibly associated with the development of offending behaviours later in adulthood, the impact of culture as it affects the home environment has not been given adequate recognition. Moreover, despite the recognition of the influence of cultural norms on adolescent sexual behaviours in most societies (Kaler 2003; 2004; Chege 2005), less attention has been paid to the link among sexual behaviour, pornography, peer group, and home environment to promote adolescent sexual and reproductive health. The behaviours and processes influence values regarding relationships, sexual ethics, sexual culture and psychology in relation to gender and sexual role; physical factors sexual characteristics, sexual drive, sexual intercourse, and sexual activities, and sexual orientation – heterosexual, homosexual and bisexual (Ng et al; 2000).

Bad sexual behaviour in Africa resulted from a sexual revolution and imitation that came with western culture. Sex in Nigeria before now was regarded as sacred and limited only to adult males and females within marriage (Adeoye, 2014). Early exposure to sexual activities is also known to increase the risks of adolescent pregnancy, maternal and perinatal mortality, and sexually transmitted infections (STIs). Besides the health concerns, adolescent sexual behaviour may interfere with school performance and those sexual activities are associated with less involvement in academic activities (Hindin & Michelle, 2009).

Most people are of the opinion that sex and sexual behaviour deal with sexual intercourse alone, According to Jaffray, (2006) when people talk about sex they think about male and female. Most people conceived it as penetration of (the) penis into the vagina. For instance, while other people particularly female participants in a study in South Africa acknowledged that sex can include other practices or activities such as; touching each other, kissing, massaging exciting each other by touching each other's genitals as well as oral sex, male participants do not understand sex as anything other than sexual intercourse involving penile penetration (Jaffray, 2006). In this study sexual behaviour is conceived to incorporate among others kissing, touching, hand holding, dating, petting, masturbation, breast/genital fondling, sexual intercourse among others (Adeoye, 2014). There are many factors that contribute to inadequate or bad sexual behaviour among adolescents, especially at the senior secondary school level. Pornography is seen to be one of them.

Pornography is sexually explicit websites that describe people having sex, show clear pictures of nudity or people having sex, or show a movie or audio that describes people having sex. With the advancement and development of technology, mass media gradually become one of the important sources on sex-related information for adolescents (Haggstrom-Nordin, Tyden, Hanson and Larsson, 2009; Lo and Wei, 2005). Statistically significant associations are found between pornography use and sexual behaviours (Seto, Maric & Barbaree, 2001). The rapid growth of pornography facilitates adolescents' early exposure to sexually explicit materials either intentionally or accidentally (Flood, 2007). A study found that one in three teenagers sends more than 100 text messages a day and 15% send more than 200 a day, or 6,000 a month (Lenhart, 2010). Four percent of teens have sent a sexually suggestive text message, which is often nude photographs, and 15% of this age group has received a sexually suggestive text (Lenhart, 2009). In fact, statistically significant associations are found between pornography use and sexual behaviours (Seto, Maric & Barbaree 2001). Moreover, as the internet gains increasing prominence in the lives of young people, researchers have begun investigating the influence that the internet environment on adolescent development and of particular interest is exposure to pornography.

Peer group influence is also another contributor to adolescent sexual behaviour and it becomes increasingly important during adolescence. Peer pressure is the influence in the behaviour of adolescents that were caused by the type of peers or friends the individual move with. Such behaviour could either be positive or negative. At times, adolescents sexual behaviour among may be due to the pressure exerted on them by their peers or adults, the examples set by the adults and the subjective norm in the society

(Steinberg, 1991). World Health Organisation (2004) reported that one of every six adolescents in Nigeria admitted to premarital sex as a result of what they see from their peers. Adebowale (2007) also observed substantial and steady increases in sexual behaviour mainly from the motive of the peer and friend in the environment. Adolescents' intentions to engage in sex are also believed to be strongly influenced by their social context. research on the effect of peer groups on adolescent sexual behaviour testified to this assertion. The result of a study on 1,046 African American adolescents found the influence of peer norms to shape both their sexual attitudes and behaviour to be positive (Wallace, 2008). A great deal of emphasis is placed on the importance of peer groups, and how they become more influential than parents at adolescence. While relationship among the peer is based on intimacy and equality, that of the parents is on power imbalance.

Studies have also identified the strong influence of home environment on adolescent sexual behaviour. This is based on the premise that adolescents whose basic needs are not met either by parents or guardians because of poverty or parental loss may engage in sexual activity for economic reasons. It was found out that young adolescents from well-off families may engage in sexual activity for want of disposable income and more material possessions a fact that agreed with Didi, (2004) assertions. Adolescents that reported satisfaction with the maternal relationship such as affection, emotional support and discipline tend to associate with the later sexual debut, while maternal reports of parental rejection are related to early-onset sexual intercourse of adolescents (Ochieng, Kakai and Abok, 2011). Instrumental factors such as permissiveness and monitoring are also related to adolescents' sexual experience. Sexual debut is also associated with more parental monitoring, less parental permissiveness, and the presence of household routines and rules (Ochieng, Kakai and Abok, 2011).

This study, therefore investigated the confluence of pornography, peer pressure and home environment on senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour in Ibadan metropolis with a view of professing solutions to the problem behaviour.

2. Research Questions

- What is the relationship between the independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) and the dependent variable (sexual behaviour)?
- What is the joint contribution of independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) to the dependent variable (prediction of sexual behaviour)?
- What is the relative contribution of independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) to the dependent variable (prediction of sexual behaviour)?

3. Method

This study adopted a descriptive survey design of ex-post facto research type. The design enabled the researchers to investigate the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable without necessarily manipulating any of the variables. The multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted in this study. The simple random sampling method was used to select the participants from the five local government of Ibadan metropolis. From each of the local government, two senior secondary schools were also randomly selected based on the study requirements; that the school must be a publicly owned and co-educational. Also, thirty students were also randomly selected from SSS 3 classes of each of the selected schools after their consents had been sought. In all, three hundred participants participated in the study. Four valid and reliable instruments were adopted and used in the study.

Sexual Behaviour Scale (SBS): The scale developed by Adeoye, (2013) was adopted to measure the sexual behaviour of the participants. SBS was originally developed to measure adolescent sexual behaviour. The instrument has five items with response format ranging from never to always and a Cronbach alpha of 0.72.

Pornography Scale (PS): The pornography scale of Lo and Wei (2005) was adopted to measure pornography viewing of participants. It is a ten (10) items scale with responses ranges from strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed and internal consistency of 0.89 using Cronbach alpha.

Peer Pressure Scale (PPS): The peer pressure scale constructed by Kimani (2005) was adopted to measure the level of peer pressure of participants. It is eleven (11) items scale with responses based on the four points Likert scale of strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed. The scale has 0.78 using Cronbach alpha.

Home Environment Scale (HES): Home environment scale developed by Ochieng, Kakai and Abok (2011) was adopted to measure the home environment of participants. It is fifteen (15) items scale with a response on the four Likert scales of strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed and strongly disagreed. The scale has Cronbach alpha of 0.77.

3.1 Procedure for Data Collection

The instruments were administered on the selected participants after their consents had been sought on the day approved by the school authorities for the exercise with the assistance of five trained research assistants concurrently. The administration and collection lasted two weeks. On the spot, assessment technique was adopted. Data collected were analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression statistical analysis.

4. Results

Research Question One: What is the relationship between the independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) and the dependent variable (sexual behaviour)?

Table 1: Table on descriptive statistics and Inter-correlations of variables

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Sexual Behaviour	Pornography	Peer Pressure	Home Environment
Sexual Behaviour	300	37.67	23.40	1.00			
Pornography	300	32.81	12.24	.756**	1.00		
Peer Pressure	300	40.16	12.41	.793**	.533	1.00	
Home Environment	300	40.27	15.07	.819**	.603	.702	1.00

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

As shown in table 1, senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour is significantly correlated with pornography ($r = .756$; $p<.05$); peer pressure ($r = .793$; $p<.05$) and home environment ($r = .819$; $p<.05$). There are also significant correlations among the independent variables. This result indicated that adolescents' sexual behaviour is significantly correlated with pornography, peer pressure, and home environment. In other words, it indicates that pornography, peer pressure, and home environment significantly relates to senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour. This confirmed the earlier finding of the World Health Organisation (2004) when they reported that one of every six students in Nigeria admitted to premarital sex as a result of what they see from their peers. Adebowale (2007) observed a substantial increase in sexual behaviour mainly from the motive of the peer and friend in the environment. The results of a study on 1,046 African American adolescents found the influence of peer significant in shaping both their sexual attitude and sexual behaviour (Kimani, 2005). Moreover, the advancement and development of technology and mass media also contributed immensely to the availability of sexually related information to the adolescents (Haggstrom-Nordin, Tyden, Hanson and Larsson, 2009; Lo and Wei, 2005). The result also confirmed the earlier finding of Kimani (2005) who found that adolescents' intentions to engage in sex are strongly influenced by their social context in which the peers play a major role. Flood (2007) discovered that the rapid growth of pornography facilitates adolescents' exposure to sexually explicit materials either intentionally or accidentally.

Research Question Two: What is the joint contribution of independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) to the dependent variable (prediction of sexual behaviour)?

Table 2: Multiple Regression Analysis on Secondary School Adolescents' Sexual Behaviour Data

Multiple R(adjusted)=.858
Multiple R^2(adjusted)=.735
Standard error of estimate= 12.05

Analysis of variance				
	Sum of square (SS)	DF	Mean square	F
Regression	120535.802	3	40178.601	462.067
Residual	43129.115	296	86.954	
Total	163664.917	299		

Table 2 shows that the independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) when pulled together have a significant effect on senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour. The value of R (adjusted) =.858 and R2 (adjusted) =.735. The analysis of variance performed on the multiple regressions yielded an F- ratio value of 462.067 with 73.5% of independent variables accounted for senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour. This means that there are other variables that account for sexual behaviour among adolescents apart from the ones identified in this study. Such variables account for 26.5% of this behaviour. The analysis of variance an F- ratio value that was found to be significant at 0.05 level. This also calls for further study on the problem behaviour and at the same time affirmed how important the variables of study are to the prediction.

Research Question Three: What is the relative contribution of independent variables (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment) to the dependent variable (prediction of sexual behaviour)?

Table 3: Relative Contribution of Independent Variables to the Prediction

	Unstandardized coefficients	Standardized coefficients		t	P
Model	B	Standard error	Beta		
Constant	-31.218	2.552		-12.556	.272
Peer Pressure	.809	.274	1.423	11.007	p<0.05
Pornography	.990	.073	1.525	13.649	p<0.05
Home Environment	.790	.373	1.691	15.341	p<0.05

Table 3 shows that the independent variables made significant contributions to the prediction of sexual behaviour. In term of magnitude of contribution home environment made the most significant contribution (Beta= 1.691; t= 15.341; p<0.05) to the prediction of adolescents' sexual behaviour follow by pornography (Beta= 1.525; t= 13.649; p<0.05) and peer pressure (Beta= 1.423; t= 11.007; p<0.05). This indicated that each of the independent variables made a significant contribution to the prediction. In term of the magnitude of contribution, home environment made the most significant contribution to the prediction of senior secondary school adolescents' sexual behaviour follow by pornography and peer pressure. This result is not surprising considering the importance of home to the development of an individual. The home environment is the first school of an individual with the parents as the first teachers. It was also discovered that the advancement of technology ushers higher exposure to pornography which gingers the use of alcohol (Godwin et al., 2012).

5. Conclusion

The results of this study have significantly shown that sexual behaviour of Nigerian adolescents is due to negative exposure to pornography, peer pressure and home environment. However, there is hope, with the introduction and improvement of sexuality education the situation can be changed for the better.

6. Recommendation

There is a need for the schools to develop enabling the environment to cater for the adolescents' needs and development. Parents and guardians also need to be trained on the need to monitor the adolescents and give them adequate emotional care. This will help in reducing the problems of being misguided by their peers. School counsellors should intensify their effort by organizing on regular basis seminars/workshop on the implications of these factors (pornography, peer pressure, and home environment among others) on the adolescents' sexual behaviours in the society.

7. Counselling Implications

The results of this study have a lot of counselling implications. Since it has been discovered that pornography, peer group, and home environment contributed immensely to the adolescent sexual behaviour, there is a need to develop adolescents' friendly technology that will give the parents the opportunities to monitor the activities of their wards, especially whenever they are with the peers. The result of this study also established the importance of home environment on the sexual behaviour of the adolescents, therefore the Counselling Psychologists in various schools should take it as a matter of responsibility to organize guidance and counselling based seminars and workshops for the parents on positive sexual development of the adolescents in their care. Moreover, the type of peers the adolescents move with should be thoroughly screened and monitored by the parents and teachers. They should also be encouraged to visit a counselling psychologist from time to time by developing a positive attitude toward guidance and counselling practices. All these will help to develop appropriate strategies and approaches in curbing the problem of negative sexual behaviours.

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Part Six

Education Technology

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The Impact of E-language learning on Academic Writing of University Undergraduate students in Nigeria

COMFORT ADEBOLA OYINLOYE
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Nigeria

FATOLA OLUGBENGA LASISI
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago Iwoye, Nigeria

Abstract. Language learning is an essential part of human communication and any educational system. In this process, technological tools and symbol systems help provide proper linguistic symbols. This study investigated the impacts of e-Language learning on the academic writing of undergraduate University students in Nigeria. This study also investigated the utilization of information and communication technologies (ICT) for Language teaching and learning. Three hundred (300) students were randomly selected from the population of 3,002 undergraduate Linguistic students (300 level) in the Federal Universities, Nigeria. A set of questionnaires was divided into the two main sections: (i) Impact of E-Language Learning on Academic Writing (IELLAW) and (ii) Utilization of Information Communication Technology Resources in the Language Teaching and Learning (UICTRLTL) was used to collect the data. The instrument was face validated and content validated by three experts in Linguistics. Cronbach's Alpha (α) was calculated to measure the overall internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire and 0.92 value of α suggested that the survey was a reliable instrument. The responses received from the students were categorized and the frequency counts, mean, standard deviation and pie chart were used to answer the research questions. The result of the study showed that e-language learning has positive impacts on the academic writing of Nigerian University students. The results of the study also revealed that the most utilized Information Communication and Technology (ICT) resources for teaching and learning language was Facebook. The study recommended amongst others that Language teachers should urge their learners to use technology in developing their language skills.

Keywords: Impacts, E-Language, Learning, Academic Writing, University

1. Introduction

Language is one of the significant elements that affects interaction and communication activities. Learning a language could be a difficult activity for success of speaking, listening and writing with especially, a foreign language. E-learning technologies and online contents facilitate this challenge. For anyone to communicate effectively, the language of communication must be applied correctly. Communication in English especially at written level poses problems to some universities' students. Despite the fact that, the students started learning English language from the primary schools, they still perform woefully in their examinations. It becomes worrisome to every education stakeholder as the students cannot excellently interact well without the use of English intelligently. For this reason,

this paper investigated if technology can impact their use of English in writing. Technology is one of the most significant drivers of both social and linguistic change. Technology lies at the heart of the globalization process; affecting education work and culture. With the rapid penetration of technology in the lives of students, it has become important for educators to look for opportunities to enhance students' engagement and achievement by integrating technology in education. In Nigeria, the use of ICT in the teaching and learning of language, especially English as a second language has become common place. Teachers of English as a second language in Nigeria have commenced the act of updating their knowledge in computer literacy. Coupled with the foregoing, the state governments in Nigeria, through their Ministries of Education have started organizing seminars and workshops for the English Language teachers in the way to employ the new digital technology in the teaching of English as a second language in Nigeria.

The importance of E-learning to education cannot be overemphasized. In their different observations as to the importance of E-learning to education, Salawudeen (2010), Ayandu, Eludiora, Amassoma & Ashiru (2011) state that electronic technology is fast to deliver education and training applications, monitor learners' performance and report their progress. It is an innovative approach for delivering electronically mediated, well-designed, learner-centered and interactive learning environment to anyone, anytime by utilizing the internet and digital technologies in relation to instructional design principles (Ayandu, Eludiora, Amassoma & Ashiru, 2011). Therefore, E- Language Learning can be defined as the application of electronic systems such as internet, computers, multimedia CDs (Mohammadi, Ghorbani & Hamidi, 2011) in teaching and learning Language. Moreover, Oblinger & Hawkins (2005) cited in Akorful & Abaidoo (2014) noted that e-language Learning has transformed from a fully-online course to using technology to deliver part or all of a course independent of permanent time and place. Also, the European Commission (2001) describes, e-Language learning as the use of new multimedia technologies and the Internet to increase Language learning quality by easing access to facilities and services as well as distant exchanges and collaboration. From general perspective, e-language learning is a network technology-based mode of instruction that uses computer and other ICTs, to deliver instruction and provide access to information resources (Organization for Economics Corporation and Development [OECD], 2005). Therefore, the use of e-language learning technologies gives lecturers the diversity of their lectures, displaying more information and enhancing students learning. E-language learning helps learners to take responsibility of their learning, becomes autonomous and self-confident. It enables introvert students to interact more freely, provides diversification of activities, fosters their intrinsic motivation and permits the acquisition of valuable study and time management skills.

Algahtani (2011) divided e-Language learning into two basic types, consisting of computer-based/ Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and the internet-based/ Technology Enhanced Language Learning (TELL). According to Algahtani (2011), the computer-based learning comprises the use of a full range of hardware and software generally that are available for the use of Information and Communication Technology and also each component can be used in either of two ways: computer managed instruction and computer-assisted-learning. At present, there are a variety of computer applications available including vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation tutors, spell checkers, electronic workbooks, word processors, desk-top publishers, writing and reading programs, as well as various authoring packages to allow instructors to create their own exercises to supplement existing language courses. In computer assisted- learning, computers are used instead of the traditional methods by providing interactive software as a support tool within the class or as a tool for self-learning outside the class. In the computer-managed instruction, however, computers are employed for the purpose of storing and retrieving information to aid in the management of education (Algahtani, 2011).

Ghasemi, Hashemi and Bardine (2011) point out that new computer-based instructional technologies were incorporated in order to accomplish the following:

- Provide more visually stimulating course material,
- Attempt to address a wider variety of learning styles,
- Incorporate authentic materials found on the World Wide Web,
- Promote on-line communication in the target language,
- Encourage cultural comparisons, and
- Provide students with more opportunities to achieve success in foreign language reading, writing, listening, and speaking as well as second-culture competency.

The internet-based language learning according to Almosa (2001) cited in Arkorful & Abaidoo (2014) is a further improvement of the computer-based learning, and it makes the content available on the internet, with the readiness of links to related knowledge sources, for examples e-mail services and references which could be used by learners at any time and place as well as the availability or absence of teachers or instructors. Zeitoun (2018) classified this by the extent of such features use in education, mixed or blended more, assistant mode, and completely online mode. The assistant mode supplements the traditional method as needed. Mixed or blended mode offers a short-term degree for a partly traditional method. The completely online mode, which is the most complete improvement, involves the exclusive use of the network for language learning (Zeitoun, 2018).

Algahtani (2011) described the completely online mode as "synchronous" or "asynchronous" by the application of applying optional timing of interaction. The synchronous timing comprises alternate on-line access between teachers or instructors and learners, or between leaners, and the asynchronous, to him allows all participants to post communications to any other participant over the internet (Algahtani, 2011). The synchronous type allows learners to discuss with the instructors and also among themselves via the internet at the same time with the use of tools such as the videoconference and chat rooms. This type according to Almosa & Almubarak (2005) cited in Arkorful & Abaidoo (2014) offers the advantage of instantaneous feedback. The asynchronous mode also allows learners to discuss with the instructors or teachers as well as among themselves over the internet at different times. It is therefore not interaction at the same moment but later, with the use of tools such as thread discussion and emails (Algahtani, 2011), with an advantage that learners are able to learn at a time that suits them whilst a disadvantage is that the learners will not be able to receive instant feedback from instructors as well as their colleague learners.

2. Problem of the Study

Learning English as a Second Language (ESL) has always been very challenging especially for low proficiency students since most of them are less motivated to learn the language. This is aggravated by the lack of interesting and interactive learning environment (Haron, Zaid & Ibrahim, 2015). Hence, the development of technology has enabled the setting up of a special environment which may influence the language learning environment. It is hoped that the interaction between students and the technology may minimize feelings of anxiety and insecurity towards learning the language. Kenning (2007: 267), as cited in Haron, Zaid & Ibrahim (2015), claimed that "If English is to be seen as a "killer" language, communication technology must be interpreted as one of its major weapons". Therefore, it is believed that with the usage of technology in language learning, it can help students to acquire English as their second language better rather than depending on the teachers' capability to engage them in traditional language classroom. In this era of modernization, teachers must diversify their methodology of instruction by implementing the wonders of technology in language learning so that students will effectively learn the language using fun and interactive activities. Moreover, research into the impact of the use of technology in Language teaching and learning on students' academic

writing is a neglected area in Nigeria. Hence, this study investigates the impact of e-language learning on the Nigerian University students' academic writing and also to find out the most utilized Information Communication Technology (ICT) in Language teaching and learning.

3. Research Questions

The following research questions were posed to guide the study:

- What are the impacts of e-language learning on academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria?
- What Information Communication Technology resources are utilized in the Language teaching and learning of university undergraduate students in Nigeria?

4. The Theoretical Framework

Information Communication Technology (ICT) supports the modern principles of learning and language acquisition. Individualisation, interaction and student motivation, often considered paramount in modern education theories, are necessarily a part of the process in ICT. As Theobald (2006) cited in Mullamaa (2010) points out, some students need extrinsic tools to increase their motivation. Intrinsic motivation, however, is the ultimate goal of educators for their students. Intrinsic motivation is often attributed to finding a value in what students do. Theobald (2006) cited in Mullamaa (2010) concludes: helping students find value in learning through the implementation of various instructional strategies and multiple alternative and authentic forms of assessments, while maintaining high standards of student performance in an environment which encourages students to do their best work by effective, nurturing teachers, will help increase the motivational levels of all students. Well-balanced ICT environment will enable students to feel the above and stay motivated throughout the learning process. This study investigates the utilization of information and communication technologies (ICT) for Language teaching and learning in Nigerian universities.

5. Empirical Studies on the Application of E-Language Learning

Ayesha (2016) evaluated the impact of synchronous and asynchronous E-Language Learning activities (ELL-tivities) in an E-Language Learning Environment (ELLE) at Virtual University of Pakistan. The purpose of the study was to assess e-language learning analytics based on the constructivist approach of collaborative construction of knowledge. The courses selected for random sampling were English Comprehension (Eng101), Business & Technical English (Eng201) and Business Communication (Eng301). Three methods were employed to collect the data: observation of the communication and performance on given channels, students' opinions on Graded Discussion Board (GDB), and a survey questionnaire. Out of a total population of 9919, 1025 responses were received for the survey questionnaire. The findings revealed that asynchronous e-language learning was quite beneficial for second language (L2) learners, but with some limitations which could be scaffolded by synchronous sessions. Alsaleem (2014) investigated on the WhatsApp's applications in English dialogue journals to improve learners' writing, vocabulary, word choice, and speaking ability. Based on the results of this study, it was concluded that WhatsApp showed improvement in learners' writing skills, speaking skill, vocabulary, and word choice.

Azman, Shuraimi & Yunus (2018) investigated on the enhancement of students' interests in English language teaching and learning by using Qgram that creates interactive, differentiated and feasible learning platform that fits different learners' learning styles. Hence, Qgram combines the use of Telegram and Quizlet which provides learners with a better and interesting learning platform precisely for English language learning. The sample of the study was fifty Form 5 students selected from two secondary schools in Kluang, Johor and Petaling Perdana, Selangor. An action research using McNiff model was conducted throughout a 4-week of

reading and grammar lessons. The students were exposed to having instructions and discussions in Telegram and doing exercises in Quizlet application. Interview and observations on the participations of students in both Telegram and Quizlet were conducted to view students' perceptions on this Qgram innovation. The finding echoed that learners enjoyed using Qgram innovation in English teaching and learning as they found Telegram and Qgram were interesting, feasible and interactive. Qgram offers a new dimension of English language learning that utilises both Telegram and Quizlet applications which create more interesting and fulfilling learning mediums that suit with the needs of 21st-century students.

Lin and Yang (2011) performed a study to investigate whether Wiki technology would improve learners' writing skills. Learners were invited to join a Wiki page where they would write passages and then read and answer the passages of their fellow classmates. Learners indicated that the immediate feedback they received was a benefit of using this kind of technology. Another finding was that learners learned vocabulary, spelling, and sentence structure by reading the work of their classmates. Xodabande (2017) investigated the effectiveness of Telegram in teaching pronunciation to 30 Iranian EFL learners. After four weeks of treatment by using Telegram, it was found that there was significant improvement on the pronunciation of experiment group compared to the control and after delayed test done, no significant improvement was detected. This shows that social networking application like Telegram also has its own positive impact on the enhancement of English language teaching and learning.

6. Methodology

Quantitative research methodology was employed. The quantitative method in this research uses the questionnaire constructed by the researcher to find out the impacts of e-language learning on the academic writing of University students. The population of the study comprised of 3,002 undergraduate 300Level Linguistic students from six Federal Universities in Nigeria. The sample of the study is 300 students who were randomly selected from the chosen six universities. A pilot study was carried out after which several items in the questionnaire were revised and changed. The instrument used to collect data is a cross-sectional survey which contains 16 questions. A cross-sectional survey is one survey in which the data are collected from selected individuals at a single point in time and is an effective design to provide a snapshot of the current behaviors and beliefs in a population. The set of questionnaires was divided into two main sections: (i) Impacts of E-Language Learning and (ii) Utilization of Information Communication Technology resources in the Language teaching and learning. The questions use a 4-point Likert scale which require the individual to respond to a series of statements by indicating whether he or she strongly agrees (SA), agrees (A), disagree (D) or strongly disagree (SD). The instrument was face validated and content validated by three experts in Linguistics. Cronbach's Alpha (α) was calculated to measure the overall internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire and 0.92 value of α suggested that the survey was a reliable instrument. Each response was assigned a point value in which the individual's score is determined by adding the point value of all the statements. The responses received were categorized and the frequency counts, mean, standard deviation and pie chart were used to answer the research questions.

7. Results

Research Question One: What are the impacts of e-language learning on academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria?

Table 1: Perception of students on the impacts of e-language learning on academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria

S/N	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Decision
1	E-language learning enhances learners' interest in language teaching and learning	2.59	1.24	Accepted
2	E-language learning provides personalized mediums to grasp the knowledge without having to worry on making mistakes.	2.56	1.25	Accepted
3	E-language learning allows better and larger grasp of the information	2.65	1.26	Accepted
4	The use of internet increases learners' motivation.	2.67	1.2	Accepted
5	The use of film in teaching helps learners to realize the topic with enthusiasm and develop their knowledge.	2.6	1.23	Accepted
6	When learners learn with technology, it assists them in developing their higher order thinking skills.	2.71	1.24	Accepted
7	Combination of multimedia and teaching methodology attract learners' attention towards language learning.	2.53	1.25	Accepted
8	E-learning enhances the importance of interaction between teachers and students.	2.5	1.201	Accepted
9	Use of internet and e-mail urges learner-centered learning	2.64	1.235	Accepted
10	Technology helps learners to improve their language learning skills.	2.54	1.26	Accepted
	GRAND MEAN	**2.60**	**1.24**	**Accepted**

Table 1 shows the perception of students on the impacts of E-language learning on academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria. All the items in table 1 are accepted by the respondents to be the impacts of E-language learning on academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria.

Research Question Two: What Information Communication Technology resources are utilized in the Language teaching and learning of university undergraduate students in Nigeria?

Table 2: Utilized Information Communication Technology resources in the Language teaching and learning of university undergraduate students in Nigeria

S/N	Item	Frequency (%)
1	Electronic Dictionaries	79 (26%)
2	Spell Checkers	22 (8%)
3	E-mail services	85 (28%)
4	Facebook	92 (31%)
5	Video Conferencing	13 (4%)
6	Skype	9 (3%)
	Total	**300 (100%)**

The table 2 shows various Information Communication Technology Resources used in teaching and learning Language in Nigerian Universities. Table 2 also shows the number and percentage of students that agreed to the utilization of the ICT resources in the teaching and learning of Language. The ICT resources ranges from Facebook with 92 students (31%), followed by E-mail services 85 (28%), followed by Electronic Dictionaries 79 (26%), followed by Spell Checkers 22 (8%), followed by Video Conferencing 13 (4%), followed by Skype 9 (3%). This shows that Facebook is the most utilized Information Communication Technology (ICT) Resources used in teaching and learning Language in Nigerian Universities. The data is represented in the graph below:

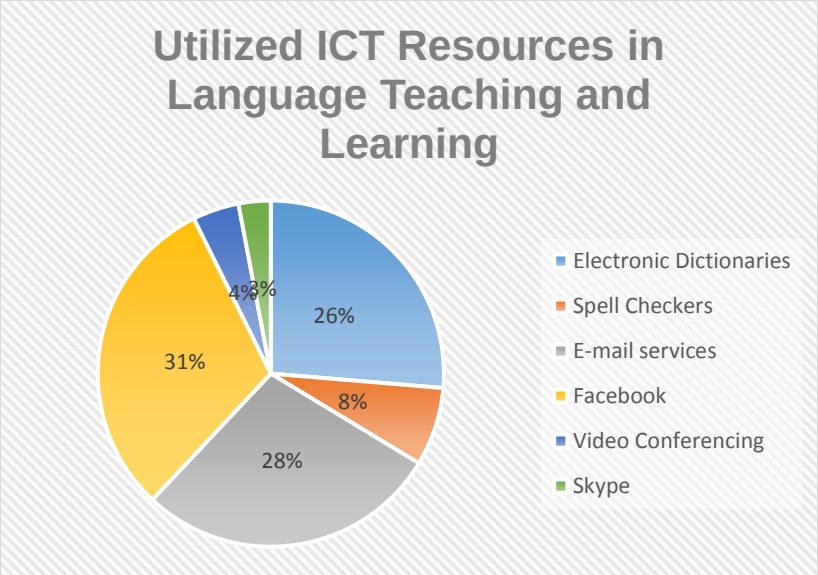

Figure 1: Utilized ICT Resources in Language Teaching and Learning in Nigerian Universities

8. Discussion of Findings

The result from research question one revealed that E-Language learning has impacts on the academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria. The result of this study also revealed that E-language learning enhances learners' interest, provides personalized mediums to grasp the knowledge without having to worry on making mistakes, increases learners' motivation, assists students in developing their higher order thinking skills, urges learner-centered learning and improves their language learning skills. The findings of this study is in line with the findings of Baytak, Tarman & Ayas (2011) who carried out a research on the role of technology in language learning. The results revealed that learners' learning was improved by integrating technology into the classroom. Learners stated that the use of technology in school makes learning enjoyable and helps them learn more. Learners also said that technology makes learning interesting, enjoyable, and interactive. The other outcome of this research was that the use of technology increases learners' motivation, social interactions, learning and engagement. Hennessy (2005) stated the use of ICT acts as a catalyst in motivating teachers and learners to work in new ways. The researcher understood that as learners become more autonomous, teachers feel that they should urge and support their learners to act and think independently. The application of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) changes learners' learning attitudes and enhances their self-confidence (Lee, 2001). The results yielded from this study was also supported by a study done by Yagmur & Zynep (2017). In his study, Yagmur & Zynep (2017) stated that using Quizlet as a platform to learn vocabulary lead to a better retention and learning outcomes. Zaki and Yunus (2015) mentioned that mobile learning promotes interactivity as it provides learners with medium of interaction with each other without perturbing of the distance by using different applications.

Moreover, Sabzian, Pourhossein and Sodouri (2013) asserted that one of the impacts of using technology in the language classes is the increase in cooperation among teachers and learners. When teachers allow learners to become assistants in the teaching process, this can increase learners' confidence. Learners are granted the chance to reinforce opinions and abilities already learnt. Learners can help teachers in technology integration because learners have had abundant time to master technology while teachers work on directing the instruction. Drayton, Falk, Hobbs, Hammerman & Stroud (2010) also emphasized that the use of computer-based classroom shows a real learning experience that increases learners'

responsibility. Teachers said that the use of Internet and e-mail urges learner-centered learning. Peregoy and Boyle (2012) carried a study on using technology in improving learners' reading and writing skills. The results of this study indicated that technology tools enhanced learners' reading and writing skills because they are user-friendly, and learners can learn at a faster and more effective way. The other finding of this study was that leaners learn more effectively when they use technology tools instead of traditional teaching method because the Internet provided a favorable learning environment for learners' learning, facilitated a new platform for learners who can have a convenient access to learning lessons.

The findings from research question two revealed that Facebook is the most utilized Information Communication Technology (ICT) Resources used in teaching and learning Language in Nigerian Universities. The study also revealed that the ICT resources ranges from Facebook with 92 students (31%), followed by E-mail services 85 (28%), followed by Electronic Dictionaries 79 (26%), followed by Spell Checkers 22 (8%), followed by Video Conferencing 13 (4%), followed by Skype 9 (3%). The result of this study is in agreement with the findings of Rashid, Cunningham, Watson & Howard (2018) who investigated the current use of technologies to communicate with university of Pakistan teachers. The study revealed that the students' use of technology to communicate with university teachers occurred more frequently on a weekly rather than a daily basis. This was most apparent with email use, with 45% of students using email for this purpose weekly compared with 10% using them daily. Similarly, 31% of students were making phone calls to their teachers weekly compared to 17% of the students contacting their teachers daily through phone calls.

9. Conclusion

From the findings of this study, it is concluded that E-Language learning has impacts on the academic writing of university undergraduate students in Nigeria and Facebook is the most utilized Information Communication Technology (ICT) Resources used in teaching and learning Language in Nigerian Universities.

10. Recommendations

- Professional development should be specifically considered in order to assure learners' learning and to change the attitudes of unfamiliar with the advantages that technology provides.
- Language teachers should urge their learners to use technology in developing their language skills.
- Universities should regard technology as a significant part of teaching and learning Language.
- Technology experts should provide extra assistance for teachers who use it in teaching their Linguistic/ English courses.
- Website administrators should vigorously promote the services that they offer in E-Language Learning which can help the students in improving their English language.

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Exploring the Perceived Influence of Mobile Learning on Environmental Awareness and Literacy among Students of Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Nigeria

ADEKUNLE OLATUMILE
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-Akoko, Nigeria

Abstract. One of the wonders of the twenty-first century is the revolution of Information Communication Technologies (ICTs), The mobile device which is used among people has the potential to support learning. Mobile learning is creating more and more space for informal learning; it becomes important to understand how the boundaries are shifting and what the implications are. The use of mobile phones in creating environmental awareness and inculcating pro-environmental behaviour have not received the necessary and adequate attention in the quest of global effort geared towards solving the myriad and life threatening environmental problems facing humanity in the 21st century. The paper ascertains students usage of mobile phone for learning; opportunities that mobile phone provide in environmental awareness and learning; the effectiveness of mobile phone on environmental awareness and learning; the usefulness of mobile phone for environmental awareness and learning; how mobile phone enhances environmental awareness and learning. Two hundred copies of questionnaire were administered and sorted; one hundred and forty six that were deemed to have been well filled were used for the study. Findings of the study revealed that students use mobile phones to perform a variety of educational tasks, are useful for creating environmental awareness, are effective learning aid for students with regard to environmental issues and are easy for creating environmental awareness. The study comes up with a framework for designing mobile learning for environmental literacy.

Keywords: Information Communication Technologies; Environmental awareness; mobile phones; Learning; Environmental literacy.

1. Introduction

One of the wonders of the twenty-first century is the revolution of (ICT) and the consequent revolution the way teaching and learning processes are being carried out. Among the ICT tools mostly owned and used among people are the mobile devices with their potential suitable learning platforms that have a lot of applications tutors and learners may use in their academic activities.

The integration of mobile phones into education carries a potential to alter traditional paradigms because they are different from traditional educational tools such as books, chalk and pencil because they enable instantaneous access to vast and growing reservoirs of information, and because they provide a growing array of permutations to communicate and share knowledge between individuals and groups independent of time and physical location (UNESCO 2012).

Mobile phone is invaluable in Adult Education as it is used to create identities, ideas and content. Massive social networking is possible via mobile phones, information is accessible and in abundance (not scarce), it modifies the role of the teacher from bank of knowledge to facilitator of learning hence the lines between formal and informal learning are being blurred (UNESCO, 2012).

Mobile learning involves the use of mobile technology, either alone or in combination with other Information Communication Technology (ICT), to enable learning anytime anywhere. Learning can unfold in a variety of ways: people can use mobile devices to access educational resources, connect with others, or create content, both inside and outside classrooms (UNESCO 2013). Mobile learning is creating more and more space for informal learning and challenging formal learning, It becomes important to understand how the boundaries are shifting and what the implications are, as well as to clarify assumptions about 21st century learning

- Devices are not procured and distributed by government (the usual top-down-elearning ICT in education approach)

-There are low levels of mobile learning initiatives in education, but outside the school walls there is massive and ever increasing uptake of the use of mobile phone in acquisition of knowledge and skills (UNESCO, 2010)

UNESCO (2013) identified the following benefits of mobile learning:

- Expand the reach and equity of education
- Mobile technologies are common even in areas where schools, books and computers are scarce. As the price of mobile phone ownership continues to decline, more and more people, including those in extremely impoverished areas are likely to own and know how to use a mobile device
- Facilitate personalised learning

Because mobile devices are generally owned by their users, highly customised and carried throughout the day, they lend themselves to personalisation in a way that shared and tethered technologies do not. Applications on mobile phones and tablets can, for example select among harder or easier texts for reading assignments depending on the skills and background knowledge of an individual user.

2. Statement of the Problem

The comprehensive plan of action endorsed by world leaders to be taken globally, nationally and locally by organisations of the United Nations system, governments and major groups in every area in which human impacts on the environment; popularly known as Agenda 21, recommended that "countries in cooperation with the scientific community, should establish ways of employing modern communication technologies for effective public outreach". It stressed the need to "use audio-visual methods especially in rural areas in mobile units", this chapter emphasised radio and television but made no reference to the ubiquitous mobile phone which has the strength of overcoming the limitations of these media. This may be as a result of the fact that the mobile phone technology had not gained prominence when the document was being packaged. This notwithstanding, the invaluable role mobile phone medium portend to play in creating environmental awareness has not been adequately harnessed. The use of mobile phones in creating environmental awareness and inculcating pro-environmental behaviour have not received the necessary and adequate attention in the quest of global effort geared towards solving the myriad and life threatening environmental problems facing humanity in the 21st century.

3. Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of the study is to explore the perceived influence of mobile learning on environmental awareness and literacy among students of Adekunle Ajasin University.

Specifically the purpose of the study is to:

- Ascertain opportunities that mobile phone provide in environmental awareness and learning
- Ascertain the effectiveness of mobile phone on environmental awareness and learning
- Ascertain the usefulness of mobile phone for environmental awareness and learning
- Ascertain how mobile phone enhances environmental awareness and learning

4. **Research Questions**

- What opportunities does mobile phone provide in environmental awareness and learning?
- What is the effectiveness of mobile phone on environmental awareness and learning?
- What is the usefulness of mobile phone for environmental awareness and learning?
- How does mobile phone enhance environmental awareness and learning?

5. Research Method

The population of the study is made up of students of Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba-akoko. They are targeted because students are potential environmental extension agents, as they are availed opportunities of serving as environmental change agents in almost every endeavour they find themselves in future. The instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire adapted from Motiwalla (2007), tagged "Perceived influence of mobile learning on environmental awareness and literacy questionnaire" (QPIMLEAL). Two hundred copies of the questionnaire were administered and sorted; one hundred and forty six that were deemed to have been well filled were used for the study.

5.1 Validity of the Instrument

The instrument was subjected to face validity by giving it to experts in the Faculty of Education and Department of psychology who vetted it and the corrections were effected.

5.2 Reliability

The reliability of the instrument was ascertained using split half method. The questionnaires were administered on forty students who did not form part of the sample, the questionnaires were divided into two equal half and were correlated using pearson product moment correlation. The reliability co-efficient was 0.73.

Research Question 1: What opportunities does mobile phone provide in environmental awareness and learning?

Table 1: Summary on statement regarding opportunities provided by mobile phone in environmental awareness and learning

Questions	Response					Mean Rank	df	X^2	p
		SA	A	D	SD				
Mobile phone has the capability of enhancing environmental awareness and learning	Freq.	49	73	12	12	3.48			
	%	33.6	50.0	8.2	8.2				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones add value to e-learning environmental issues.	Freq.	92	43	3	8	4.63			
	%	63.0	29.5	2.0	5.5				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone allows converting idle time into productive ones with regards to environmental issues.	Freq.	62	64	10	10	3.99			
	%	42.6	43.8	6.8	6.8				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone allows convenience in discussions related to environmental issues anywhere and anytime.	Freq.	70	54	13	9	3.98			
	%	47.9	37.0	8.9	6.2				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones allows access to information	Freq.	68	63	5	10	4.16			

on the internet about environmental issues	%	46.6	43.2	3.4	6.8		6	43.77	< .05
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones can be used as a supplement tool for any existing course.	Freq.	47	72	21	6	3.58			
	%	32.2	49.3	14.4	4.1				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Using mobile phones with message gives users opportunity to join discussion about environmental issues without the limitation of time and space.	Freq.	72	56	10	8	4.18			
	%	49.3	38.4	6.8	5.5				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
		Agree		**Disagree**					
Averaged Total	**N**	126		20			1	76.95	< .05
	%	86.3		13.7					

From the findings, it was noted that 86.3% of the respondents indicated that mobile phone provided opportunities for environmental awareness and learning, while just 13.7% indicated otherwise. Chi square result (df=1, X^2=76.959, $p < 0.05$) confirming the findings shows that the identified opportunities were highly rated with perceived 86.3% opportunities for environmental awareness and learning. Using the Friedman test (df=6, X^2=43.779, $p < 0.05$), it was further noted based on ranking that adding value to e-learning environmental issues was the greatest opportunity, while the least was the that mobile phone has the capability of enhancing environmental awareness and learning.

The result revealed that overall, satisfaction with mobile phones with regards to environmental issues is acceptable (83.6%). 92.5% concur that mobile phones add value to e-learning environmental issues. 86.3% agreed that mobile phone allows converting idle time into productive ones with regards to environmental issues. 84.9% agreed that mobile phones allows convenience in discussions related to environmental issues anywhere and anytime. 89.9% concur that it allows access to information from the website about environmental issues. 81.5 agreed that it could be used as a supplement tool for any existing course. In same vain, 87.7% agreed that using mobile phones with message gives users opportunity to join discussion about environmental issues without the limitation of time and space.

This is in consonance with the findings of Uzunboylu, et al. (2009) among other things that mobile learning is useful for creating environmental awareness (M = 4.00), it adds values to e-learning environmental issues (M = 4.02), it allows converting idle time into productive with regard to environmental issues (M = 4.04), it is a convenient platform to access discussions about environmental issues (M = 3.87), it allows access to information from the website about environmental issues (M = 3.87), it can be used as a supplemental tool for any existing course (M = 4.02), and it gives users the opportunity to join discussions about environmental issues without the limitation of time and space (M = 4.12). The findings of Motiwalla (2007) went along this direction. A study carried out by Vyas and Nirban (2014) 81% responded that it is possible to use mobile learning for mainstreaming education. Zengning (2011) in his study found that most students (M = 4.46) responded positively to "accessibility of mobile phones", they can employ the convenience of mobile phone for learning when they fail to use computers or textbooks, out of their homes. They also alluded to the fact that mobile phone helps in exploiting the "fragmented time" (M = 4.48) It affords adult learners who hardly find intact learning time a great advantage of learning. The opportunities provided by mobile learning, if properly harnessed, present effective method to disseminate environmental information that can help in enhancing positive environmental attitude and behaviour as well as engendering environmental literacy among people. Considering the reality that environmental education is majorly lifelong and goes beyond the formal classroom setting; the ubiquitous nature of mobile phone is a powerful channel for providing this education.

Research Question 2: What is the effectiveness of mobile phone on environmental awareness and learning?

Table 2: Summary on statement regarding effectiveness of mobile phones in environment awareness and leaning.

Questions	Response					Mean	df	X^2	p
		SA	A	D	SD				
Mobile phones are effective learning aid for students with regards to environmental issues.	Freq.	73	66	3	4	3.28	4	26.78	< .05
	%	50.0	45.2	2.1	2.7				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone is an effective method for providing personalized information with regards to environmental issues.	Freq.	72	64	6	4	3.26			
	%	49.3	43.8	4.1	2.7				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Information sent by mobile phones via messages are more effective	Freq.	55	63	20	8	2.90			
	%	37.7	43.2	13.7	5.5				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Information regarding environmental issues set by mobile phones with MMS is more effective.	Freq.	54	58	17	17	2.73			
	%	37.0	39.7	11.6	11.6				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Information regarding environmental issues shared via chatting with mobile phones is more effective	Freq.	55	65	11	15	2.82			
	%	37.7	44.5	7.5	10.3				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
		Agree		**Disagree**					
Averaged Total	**N**	125		21			1	74.08	< .05
	%	85.6		14.4					

From the result in Table 2, it was noted that 85.6% of the respondents indicated that mobile phone had effectiveness on environmental awareness and learning, while just 14.4% indicated otherwise. Chi square result (df=1, X^2=74.082, $p < 0.05$) confirming the findings showed that the identified areas of effectiveness at which mobile phone affect environmental awareness were about 85.6%. Using the Friedman test (df=4, X^2=26.784, $p < 0.05$), it was further noted based on ranking that the use of mobile phone as effective learning aid or assistant for students with regards to environmental issues was the highest rated , while the least was effectiveness of the use of information regarding environmental issues with MMS.

On the effectiveness of mobile phone on environmental awareness and literacy the result shows that majority of the respondents agreed that mobile phones are effective learning aid or assistant for students with regards to environmental issues. 93.1% concur that it is an effective method for providing personalized information with regards to environmental issues. 80.9% concur that information sent by mobile phones via message are effective, 76.7% says that information regarding environmental issue sent by mobile phones with MMS are effective. Lastly, 82.2% agreed that information regarding environmental issues shared via chatting with mobile phones is more effective. This confirms the findings of Uzunboylu, et al. (2009) that mobile phone is an effective learning aid or assistant for student on environmental issues (M = 3.78), mobile learning is an effective method for providing personalised information with regard to environmental issues (M = 3.80), information sent MLS via messages is more effective (M = 3.70), information regarding environmental issues shared via chatting with MLS is more effective (M = 4.07). These findings were also in consonance with those of Motiwalla (2007). Zengning (2011) along the same direction found that majority of respondents in his study (M = 4.00) opined that "instant vocabulary text messages can remind the adult learners of vocabulary tasks when they lack the initiative to learn new concepts or ideas. Environmental information, messages and directives are not in most cases general, as they differ from individual to individual, community to community and nation to nation. Mobile phone constitutes an effective channel of reaching these different groups with information that suit their unique purpose.

Research Question 3: What is the usefulness of mobile phone for environmental awareness and learning?

Table 3: Summary on statement regarding usefulness of mobile phone in environmental awareness and learning.

Questions	Response					Mean	df	X^2	p
		SA	A	D	SD				
Mobile phones are useful for creating environmental awareness.	Freq.	105	38	-	3	3.46	4	53.23	< .05
	%	71.9	26.0	-	2.1				
	Ex. N	48.7	48.7		48.7				
Mobile phones is a good discussion tool for creating environmental awareness	Freq.	78	62	4	2	3.00			
	%	53.4	42.5	2.7	1.4				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones makes a good forum for information	Freq.	92	50	1	3	3.24			
	%	63.0	34.2	.7	2.1				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones has the potentials to become a good learning tool with regard to environmental issues	Freq.	68	64	7	7	2.74			
	%	46.6	43.8	4.8	4.8				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone is useful as a supplement to environmental issues.	Freq.	61	64	13	8	2.57			
	%	41.8	43.8	8.9	5.5				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
		Agree		**Disagree**					
Averaged Total	**N**	136		10			1	108.74	< .05
	%	93.2		6.8					

From the result in Table 3, it was noted that mobile phone is useful for environmental awareness (df=1, X^2=108.740, $p < 0.05$). This was with 93.2% indicating its usefulness on environmental awareness, while 6.8% indicated that it was not useful. Thus it could be concluded that mobile phone has 93.2% usefulness on environmental awareness. Using the Friedman test (df=4, X^2=53.234, $p < 0.05$), it was further noted based on ranking that the usefulness of mobile phone for creating environmental awareness was the highest rated , while the least was its usefulness as a supplement to environmental issues.

97.9% respondents agreed that mobile phones useful for creating environmental awareness. 95.9% agreed that mobile phone is a good discussion tool for creating environmental awareness. Also 97. 2% agreed that mobile phones make a good forum for information. 90.4% concur that mobile phone has the potentials to become a good learning tool with regard to environmental issues. 85.6% concur that mobile phone is useful as supplement to environmental issues. The responses were all significantly confirmed by the chi square analysis. Uzunboylu, et al. (2009) confirmed that mobile learning is useful for creating environmental awareness (M = 4.00), mobile learning is a good discussion tool for creating environmental awareness (M = 3.92), mobile learning is useful as a supplement to environmental issues (M = 3.78). The findings also corroborated that of Motiwalla (2007). Zhang, et al. (2006) further lend credence when they found that 65% of their respondents opined that they record environmental information better when they use mobile devices. Effective environmental literacy and awareness creation require interaction among different stakeholders and call for dishing out varying and diverse information targeted at diverse targets. An effective medium for carrying out these tasks is the mobile phone, with its capability of disseminating a wide array of information that it can deliver to varying segment of the society. For example environmental NGOs, Government agencies, International organisations and activists can send out environmental information to the public and the public can send feedback to them for the purpose of protecting the environment or enhance environmental awareness.

Research Question 4: How does mobile phone enhance environmental awareness and learning?

Table 4: Summary on statement regarding how mobile phone enhances environmental awareness and learning.

Questions	Response					Mean	df	X^2	p
		SA	A	D	SD				
Mobile phones is easy to use for creating environmental awareness and literacy	Freq.	69	63	10	4	3.63			
	%	47.3	43.2	6.8	2.7				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones made it easy to understand environmental literacy	Freq.	76	59	6	5	3.70			
	%	52.1	40.4	4.1	3.4				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone makes it easier to discuss environmental issues with other learners.	Freq.	66	66	8	6	3.54			
	%	45.2	45.2	5.5	4.1				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phone makes it easier to discuss environmental issues with other stakeholders.	Freq.	64	50	21	11	3.32			
	%	43.8	34.2	14.4	7.5				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5		5	25.45	< .05
Mobile phone is a convenient plat form to access discussions about environmental issues.	Freq.	50	73	10	13	3.07			
	%	34.2	50.0	6.8	8.9				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
Mobile phones allow instant access to environmental issues regardless of your location.	Freq.	82	45	9	10	3.74			
	%	56.2	30.8	6.2	6.8				
	Ex. N	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.5				
		Agree		**Disagree**					
Averaged Total	**N**	127		19			1	79.89	< .05
	%	87.0		13.0					

Table 4 shows that majority of the respondents affirmed that mobile phone enhanced environmental awareness and learning (df=1, X^2=79.890, $p < 0.05$). This was such that 87% of the respondents indicated how mobile phone enhanced environmental awareness and literacy, while 13% said otherwise. From the Friedman test (df=5, X^2=25.450, $p < 0.05$), it was further noted based on ranking that the highest rated on the usefulness of mobile phone was that it allow instant access to environmental issues regardless of their location. The least was the usefulness of mobile phone as a convenient platform to access discussions about environmental issues.

It was noted that 90.5% agreed that mobile phones is easy to use for creating environmental awareness. 92.55% agreed that mobile phones made it easy to understand environmental awareness. Majority greed that mobile phone makes it easier to discuss environmental issues with other students (90.4%), and the distributor (78%). It was also confirmed by majority (84.2%) opined that mobile phone is a convenient platform to access discussion about environmental issues. Lastly, 87% concur that mobile phones allow instant access to environmental issues regardless of your location. The results were all significantly confirmed by the chi square result. This lend credence to Uzunboylu, Cavus & Ercag (2009) who found that mobile learning is easy to use for creating environmental awareness (M = 3.75), it makes it easy to understand environmental awareness (M = 3.90), it makes it easier to discuss environmental issues with other students (M = 3.80), it is a convenient platform to access discussion about environmental issues (M = 3.87), it allows instant access to environmental issues regardless of location (M = 3.850). The findings did not depart from those of Motiwalla (2007). Environmental issues are somehow complex and confusing, understanding them for the purpose of exhibiting pro-environmental behaviour requires reducing them to the level of the least knowledgeable in the society; those who can read and write and those who cannot, those who are exposed and those limited in learning and knowledge, the old and young including children. There is therefore the need to

disseminate environmental awareness and literacy in such a manner that the simplicity it requires is taken into consideration. Mobile phone can be used to achieve this, as it avails learners the opportunity to access, discover, discuss and share environmental issues through multimedia messaging services (MMS), short message services (SMS), electronic mail, whatsapp, video calls, voice calls and online social media (facebook, likendin, etc) .

6. Conclusion and Implication.

The challenge of environmental degradation to human survival is enormous and complex. This calls for concern and requires devising means by which every individual will be mobilised to take action geared towards saving the planet. Mobile learning promises to help in this direction; as it is readily accessible, easy to use, flexible, simplifies learning and removes the impediment to learning and more so people see it as an effective device for learning and are willing to use it for learning. Environmental education goes beyond learning in the formal sector, it is more pronounced in the non-formal sector because environmental problems are occurring on daily basis and take new dimensions over time, therefore effective environmental education is the one that individuals can be exposed to throughout their lifetime and can be accessed anytime, anywhere. Environmental issues and problems like flooding, desertification, ocean encroachment, deforestation, pollution, waste disposal, ozone depletion and others can be packaged through mobile learning to promote reflection levels for environmental degradation and the need to protect the environment. It will also go a long way to resolve the inadequacies and problems arising from the use of the common didactic approach to environmental education and education for sustainable development.

7. Recommendations

- Given the educative potentials of mobile phone in environmental education, government and other stakeholders should come up with policies that will ensure the availability of phones to all the citizens of Nigeria.
- International organisations concerned with environmental issues and education should give recognition to mobile phone as a channel for disseminating environmental education.
- Government should partner with phone manufacturing industries on mass production through recycling and reuse of mobile phones.
- Communication service providers should design applications environmental issues and problems like early warning signals, environmental feedback mechanisms, coping with environmental disasters, mitigating environmental problems like climate change and so on.
- Efforts should be coordinated for further development of mobile pedagogies that are targeted toward environmental education.
- Researches should be endowed on long term and large scale research on environmental mobile learning; this should focus on out of school environmental learning.
- Government should work in collaboration with educational institutions to develop environmental mobile learning policies.
- Government should collaborate with communication service providers on the possibility of coming up with more flexible or lower cost or free access.
- A mobile learning professional development programme should be set up which according to Ferry (2009) includes –a technological aspect and a pedagogy aspect. The technology aspect includes a basic understanding of telecommunication networks and providers, sufficient for participants to know to know the cost implications of approaches they may adopt, an understanding of the mobile phone functionality and ability to send, receive and manage messages using a SMS. The pedagogy aspect includes some understanding of the mobile phone

communication culture of young and elderly people, and some understanding of the learning of these segments of people. This needs to be supported by a professional learning framework, such as action learning in order for teachers and facilitators to develop the skills and knowledge needed to successfully integrate mobile learning into teaching and training programmes.

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A Residue Number System Based Data Hiding Using Steganography and Cryptography

JOSEPH B. ESEYIN
University of Jos, Nigeria

KAZEEM A. GBOLAGADE
Kwara State University, Malete, Nigeria

Abstract. Cryptography and Steganography are two distinct approaches for protected data hiding and diffusion that are widely obtainable. One hides the presence of the message and the other garbles the message. The practices made use of information to cipher or cover their existence correspondingly. Cryptography is the science of using mathematics to encrypt and decrypt data; the data are transformed into some other gibberish form, and then the encrypted data are diffused. While Steganography is the art and science of hiding messages, steganography embeds hidden content in an unexceptional cover media to avoid spy's suspicion. In steganography the clandestine message embeds in an undisruptive looking cover such as a digital image file and the image file is transmitted. In our proposed method, we use Steganography procedure where secret message is implanted within a hauler image file and the existence of message is hidden from the prowler. To prevent disclosure of contents of the covered file RSA algorithm is used with Steganography to enhance the sturdiness of the system. Usually in practice RSA public and private exponents are chosen to be very large this makes the decryption process slow. And to speed it up we employ the use of Chinese Remainder Theorem which concentrates on modulus calculation. This paper proposes a faster RSA-CRT algorithm for decryption of data. And by employing this technique on RSA algorithm by matching data to an image, there is less chance of an attacker being able to use steganalysis to recover data. Before hiding the data in an image, the application first encrypts it.

Keywords: RSA algorithm, cryptography, steganography, LSB method, Chinese Remainder Theorem

1. Introduction

The increasing usage of the Internet and availability of public and private digital data and its distribution has motivated industry professionals and researchers to pay a serious attention to information security. Internet users regularly need to store, send and receive private information and this private information needs to be protected against unauthorized access and attacks. Presently, three main methods of information security being used: watermarking, cryptography and steganography. In watermarking, data are hidden to convey some information about the cover medium such as ownership and copyright. Cryptography techniques are based on rendering the content of

a message garbled to unauthorized people. Steganography techniques are based on hiding the existence of information by embedding the secret message in another cover medium. While all three are information security techniques cryptography and steganography are having wide application as watermarking is limited to having information particularly about the cover medium. With the growth of computer network, security of data has become a major concern and thus data hiding technique has attracted people around the globe. Steganography techniques are used to address digital copyrights management, protect information, and conceal secrets.

As digital information and data are transferred over the internet and securing sensitive messages need to discover and developed more often than ever before, new technologies for protecting and securing the sensitive messages needs to realize and develop. Because cryptography and steganography methods always exposed to attacks by Steganalysis, so we constantly need to develop and look for new modes. Cryptography and Steganography are well-known and widely used techniques that handle information in order to cipher or hide their existence respectively. Steganography is the art and science of communicating in a way, which hides the existence of communication. On the other hand, cryptography is the enciphering and deciphering of data and information with a secret code so it cannot be understood. The Steganography hides the message so it cannot be seen. But, cryptography systems can be broadly classified into symmetric-key systems that use a single key, both the sender and the receiver have, and public-key systems that use two keys, a public key known to everyone and a private key that only the recipient of messages uses. In Cryptography, a cipher message, for instance, might provoke. Suspicion on the part of the recipient while an invisible message created with steganographic methods will not. However, steganography can be useful when the use of cryptography is illegal. Where cryptography and strong encryption are barred, steganography can avoid such policies to pass the message secretly. However, steganography and cryptography differ in the way they are judged. Cryptography fails when the "enemy" is able to access the content of the cipher message, while steganography fails when the "enemy" detects that there is a secret message present in the steganographic medium. The combination of these two methods will enhance the security of the data embedded. This combination will satisfy the requirements such as capacity, security, and robustness for secure data transmission over an open channel. Thus, to speed up the encryption and decryption process we employ the use of Chinese Remainder Theorem which concentrate on moduli calculation and proposes a faster RSA-CRT algorithm for decryption of data.

2. Literature Review

With the high awareness and the rapid growth of communications and the use of internet services there is a great security and threat of a snooper gaining access to secret information. This has prone a strenuous concern for data communication experts. Cryptography and steganography are the most commonly used techniques to overcome this threat. These techniques received more attention from the research community. The reason for this growing interest is due to the combination of these two techniques together which can often achieve a higher level of security.

Ushl et al. proposed an encrypting system, by combining the techniques of cryptography and steganography with data hiding. Instead of using a single level of data encryption, the message is encrypted twice. Conventional techniques have been used for this purpose. Then the cipher is hiding inside the image in the encrypted format for further use. It uses a reference matrix for the selection of passwords depending on the properties of the image.

Bharti and Soni proposed a novel scheme based on steganography and cryptography to embed data in color images. This method shows its larger capacity for hiding data than other methods without loss of indistinctness integer wavelet transform and Genetic algorithm. The method is very efficient, especially when applied to those images whose pixels are scattered homogeneously and for small data. Marwaha and Paresh used traditional cryptographic techniques to achieve data encryption and visual

steganography algorithms have been used to hide the encrypted data. Multiple cryptography proposed where the data was encrypted into a cipher and the cipher will be hidden into a multimedia image file in the encrypted format.
Umamaheswari compress the secret message, encrypt it by the receiver's public key along with the stego key, and embed both messages in a carrier using an embedding algorithm.
Kandar, and Maiti proposed a technique of well-known k-n secret sharing for color images using a variable length key with share division using random numbers.
Bairagi describes how such an even-odd encryption based on ASCII value is applied and how encrypted message converting by using Gray code and embedding of picture that can secure the message and thus makes cryptanalyst's job difficult.
The aim of this proposed scheme is to make a more secure and robust method of information exchange so that confidential and private data must be protected against attacks and illegal access. In order to achieve the required robustness and security cryptography and steganography is combined. Image is taken as a cover medium for steganography and RSA algorithm is used for encryption. However, RSA cryptosystem is known to be slower than symmetric key alternative in the area of cryptographic algorithms due to their basis in modular arithmetic. Therefore, how to enhance the speed of RSA algorithm has been our main focus in enhancing computer security. The encryption operation given by $c = m^e \bmod n$ requires an expensive computing procedure. As a result, we need to first provide optimizations to simplify the RSA cryptosystem. In this proposed method the advanced LSB bit manipulation method is used for embedding the message in the image file and the message is itself encrypted using the existing RSA encryption method. For embedding the text in image file firstly both the text and image file are converted into binary equivalent and then text is encrypted using RSA. The encrypted text is then embedded into the image file using the advanced LSB algorithm. Thus, we proposed a faster RSA-CRT algorithm for decryption of data. Contrary to other methodologies which try to detect embedded data or accomplish a time-consuming computation as part of their processes we focused on an all-inclusive Steganographic prevention which works in real time on any image data.

3. Steganography

Steganography is a longstanding technique of information hiding. Steganography refers to the science of invisible communication. Unlike cryptography, where the goal is to secure communications from an eavesdropper, steganographic techniques strive to hide the very presence of the message itself from an observer. The term Steganography is bifurcated from the Greek words "stegano"s meaning "cover" and "graphia" meaning "writing" defining it as covered writing. Before performing steganography, we need three primary frills which are Secret message, cover medium and one or more embedding algorithm(s). Besides these,` we can also use secret key for better security purpose. In the process of steganography, the cover medium can be a text file, an image, an audio file or it can be a video file but among these the most popular is the image steganography.

3.1 Combination of cryptography & steganography

Steganography must not be confused with cryptography that involves transforming the message so as to make its meaning obscure to malicious people who intercept it. In this context, the definition of breaking the system is different. In cryptography, the system is broken when the attacker can read the secret message. Breaking a steganographic system needs the attacker to detect that steganography has been used and he is able to read the embedded message. Steganography provides a means of secret communication, which cannot be removed without significantly altering the data in which it is embedded. In addition, the security of classical steganography system relies on secrecy of the data encoding system. Once the encoding system is known, the steganography system is defeated.

However, it is advisable to use Cryptography and Steganography together for adding multiple layers of security. By combining, the data encryption which can be done by a software and then embed the cipher text in an image or any other media with the help of steganographic key. The combination of these two methods will enhance the security of the data embedded. This combined chemistry will satisfy the requirements such as the size, security and sturdiness for secure data transmission over an open channel. The figure below depicts the combination of cryptography and steganography.

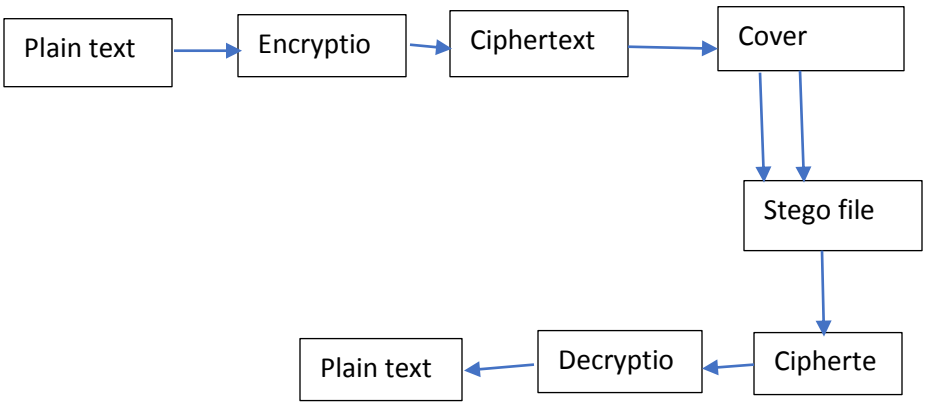

Fig 1: Combination of Cryptography and Steganography

4. The Proposed RSA – CRT Based Data Hiding Using Steganography and Cryptography

The two algorithm LSB (Least Significant Bit) and RSA (Rivest Shamir Adleman) are joint together to offer more level of protection. The message is first encrypted using cryptography to a cipher text. This cipher text is then embedded in a cover media using Steganography. This combined approach will satisfy the three goals of data hiding, security, capacity and robustness. The Least significant bit (LSB) coding is used to embed the information in a digital image file by substituting the least significant bit of each sampling point with a binary message. The LSB data hiding technique is one of the methods used for injecting data into digital signals in noise free environments, which embeds secret message-bits in a subset of the LSB planes of the image.

RSA is one of the first practicable public-private key cryptosystems and is widely used for secure data transmission. In RSA, this asymmetry is based on the practical difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers. A user of RSA creates and then publishes a public key based on the two large prime numbers, along with an auxiliary value. The prime numbers must be kept secret. Anyone can use the public key to encrypt a message, but with currently published methods, if the public key is large enough, only someone with knowledge of the prime factors can feasibly decode the message.

Both RSA and LSB algorithm are implemented together. Steganography is responsible for data hiding and cryptography does the scramble of the data sequences, these dual approaches will enhance the data security.

To extract a secret message from a LSB encoded image file, the receiver needs access to the sequence of sample indices used in the embedding process. Normally, the length of the secret message to be encoded is smaller than the total number of samples in an image file. Extraction process is exactly reverse of the embedding process. The secret message embedded in the image file is given as the input which is called the stego image file. In the extraction process data is extracted from the embedded file.

The security of the RSA cryptosystem is based on two mathematical problems: the problem of factoring large numbers and the RSA problem. Full decryption of an RSA cipher text is thought to be infeasible on the assumption that both of these problems are hard. The RSA problem is defined as the task of taking e^{th} roots modulo a composite n: recovering a value M such that $C \equiv M^e \pmod{n}$, where (n, e) is an RSA public key and C is an RSA cipher text.

CRT decryption is much more effective than RSA decryption.CRT guarantees that there is a solution because in this case all moduli are pairwise relatively prime. When the numbers are much larger, using CRT is much more efficient than directly performing the calculation. Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) speeds up the private key operations. The CRT remainder techniques are useful in developing code that detects errors. In cryptography, the CRT is used in secret sharing through error-correcting code. The CRT is itself a secret-sharing scheme without any need for modification.

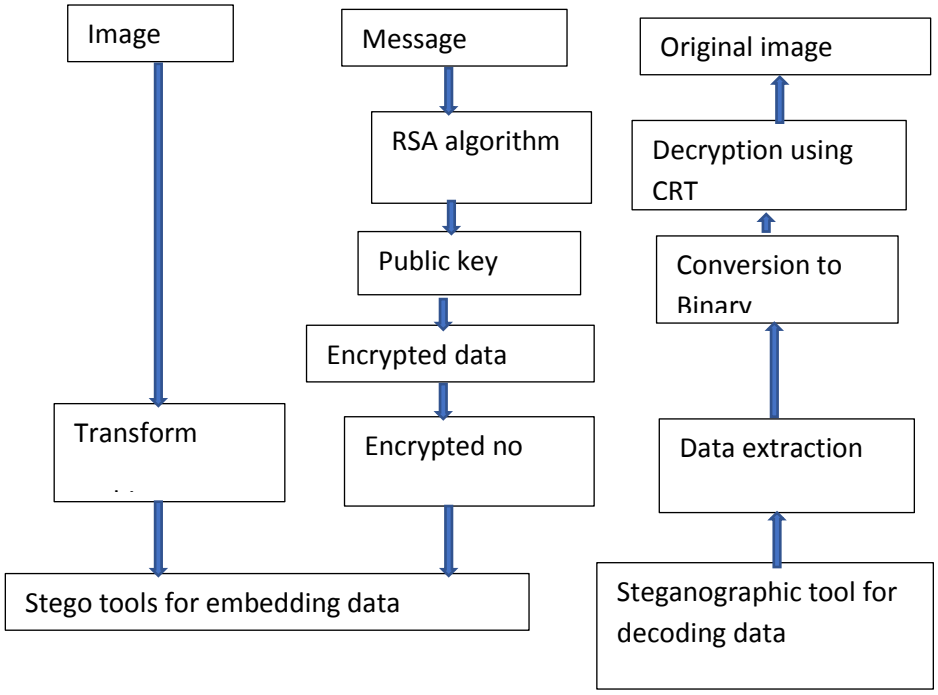

Fig. 2 Block diagram of the proposed system

Chinese Remainder Theorem, CRT, is one of the main theorems of mathematics. The RSA-CRT is employed during decryption process. It enhanced a faster decryption than modular exponentiation. RSA-CRT differs from the standard RSA in key generation and decryption.

When destination node receives the encrypted message, it decrypts this encrypted message using CRT in the following manner:

dp=d mod(p-1).
dq=d mod(q-1).
qinv =q-1 mod p.
m1 = C^{dp} mod p.
m2 = C^{dq} mod q.
h = (qinv * (m1- m2)) mod p.
M = m2 + h*q

Where,
p, q = Two prime numbers such that
N = p.q.
d, N= private key of destination node

5. Experimental Process, Results and Discussions

The proposed method is designed for bmp images. It first compares the length of the message to be concealed with the size of the image to ensure that the image can hold the

secret file. If the size of secret file is more, then a new image is selected. When using a 24-bit color image, a bit of each of the red, green and blue color components can be used, so a total of 3 bits can be stored in each pixel. So, one layer between R, G, B is selected and message is inserted in the selected layer. Thus, an 800 × 600-pixel image can contain a total amount of 800x600x1=480.000 bits (60.000 bytes) of secret data. It has three levels of security as follows:

Level I-The message is inserted at a random pixel value of the image as inserted by the sender. It can be any row and column of the image matrix. But precaution must be taken such that message length should not exceed matrix size.
Level 2-The message to be sent is encrypted using an RSA encryption
Level 3-The encrypted message is inserted to image using LSB technique. In LSB technique encrypted message is converted to binary form and inserted in the least significant bit of pixel value as inserted before.

These are the three levels of security that enable the process to be highly secured. If anyone try to break into the system then he has to know the starting position of the message then encryption method used and method of insertion. This made it difficult and most discouraging for the infiltrators.

5.1 Algorithm for Concealing messages (Sender Side)

Input: message, cover image

Output: stego image (containing message)

store location of image where message is to be hidden

Insert the message

Encrypt the entered message

Convert the encrypted message to unsigned integer form

Find the length of the message inserted

Now convert it in to binary form

Transform the binary number to its residue number system

Store the message in a one row matrix

Store the message length in a predefined position of image

Now insert the binary format message in to image

Save the image

End

5.2 Algorithm Extraction message (Receiver side)

Input: stego image(containing message)

Output: hidden message

Enter location to start (Stego key)

Retrieve the size of the hidden message

Retrieve the message by same insertion method

Decrypt the retrieved message

Convert the residue number system to the conventional number system

Display the message

End

The same stego key is used for decoding of secret message from the stego image. The stego key is used to generate the same random number with which selection of the pixels is done and the order of block.

6. Conclusion

In this paper a new way of hiding information in an image with less variation in image bits have

been proposed which makes our technique secure and more efficient than LSB? In our proposed method, we use Steganography procedure where secret message is implanted within a hauler image file and the existence of message is hidden from the prowler. To prevent disclosure of contents of the covered file RSA algorithm is used with Steganography to enhance the sturdiness of the system. Usually in practice RSA public and private exponents are chosen to be very large this makes the decryption process slow. And to speed it up we employ the use of Chinese Remainder Theorem which concentrates on modulus calculation. This paper proposes a faster RSA-CRT algorithm for decryption of data. And by employing this technique on RSA algorithm by matching data to an image, there is less chance of an attacker being able to use steganalysis to recover data. Before hiding the data in an image, the application first encrypts it. This technique also applies a cryptographic method. RSA algorithm to secure the secret message so that it is not easy to break the encryption without the key. RSA algorithm itself is very secure that's why we choose the technique to increase the security of the secret message. The results obtained showed that CRT is better to deal with RSA cryptosystem complexity. Experimental results indicate that our schemes substantially outperform the related state-of-art RSA cryptosystem in terms of computational cost, speed and security.

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