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Editorial

Although education goes on in all aspect of human living, but many societies deem it fit to set up specific institutions for the purpose of education. Such all-purpose institutions use a variety of methods to promote what is considered desirable learning. In these institutions, the major concern of learners is the acquisition of approved knowledge, while the responsibility for imparting it devolves on the teacher. Thus, over the years, Department of Education, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria has addressed itself to the task of evolving new approaches to the process of teaching and learning; thus, the bold attempt of publishing the maiden edition of BUJED. It is therefore please to note that in this edition of this Journal, 25 articles relevant to the various aspects of education have been published. These articles focus attention on the relationship between the agents involved in the learning process for the effectiveness of education.

Ruth A. Aderanti; Ph.D
Associate Professor in Counselling Psychology
Managing Editor

Editorial Note

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The Mediating Impact of Emotional Intelligence and Brainwriting Creativity Skill Training Programmes in Enhancing Peacebuilding Skills among Secondary School Students

Azeez, Razaq Olugbenga, Ph.D
Faculty of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University,
Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria.
+2348028551344

Abstract
The study investigated the emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity skill training programmes act as strategies for enhancing peacebuilding skills among secondary school students in Ogun East Senatorial District of Ogun State, Nigeria. The study adopted a 3 x 2 pre-test, post-test, factorial matrix model to investigate the effects of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on peace-building skills of participants. There are three rows consisting of two treatment strategies of emotional intelligence, creativity training and the control. There are also two columns consisting of gender delineation and control group. The study participants were two hundred and sixteen (216) Senior Secondary students randomly selected from 2 chosen public secondary schools in Ogun East Senatorial District of Ogun State. One standardized instrument was used in collecting data while analysis of covariance and t-test statistical methods were used to analyze the generated data. The results revealed that participants in the treatment groups demonstrated enhanced capacity in peacebuilding than their counterparts in the control group. Also, there was no significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and gender on students’ peacebuilding skills. Based on the findings, this study, therefore, stress the need for schools, corporate organisations, government institutions, especially policy makers to include creativity and emotional learning contents in the curriculum of our educational system in order to achieve purposeful education and development. The teaching and learning of creativity, emotional and peacebuilding skills should be encouraged as early as elementary school stage and be seen as a developmental programme though all phases of education and up to work life.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence training, peacebuilding skills, secondary schools students, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Introduction
The dynamic and complex nature of human interaction, no doubt, has shown that people need to be creative and emotionally intelligent enough to cope with the new challenges facing them and in managing one another. Emotional intelligence and creativity skills are important people’s social-related competencies that impact on peacebuilding in public and private lives. Emotional intelligence and creativity have become the order of the day in homes, schools and organisations. Emotional intelligence, as well as creativity, is now being recognised to be important for individual and community survival.

Lederach, (2005) one of the leading scholars of peacebuilding, does an excellent job of capturing its spirit and nature. Through four features – relationship, curiosity, creativity and risk - Lederach identifies the moral imagination he sees as the essence of peacebuilding. In this vision, peacebuilding is identified with the human capacities to envision new and dynamic patterns of relationships and engagement, as well as the courage to pursue the concretization of that vision in the world. In pursuit of wide-ranging social change, peacebuilding draws primarily upon human creativity, to transform the largely unfamiliar – entrenched patterns of peace – into the norm. Peacebuilding is therefore reconstructing an environment with significantly reduced violence and where things start functioning again so that people’s life becomes once more ‘normal’. If the starting point is the destruction and disarray caused by the violence, then peacebuilding becomes very much a ‘post-conflict’ (or rather ‘post-large scale violence’) undertaking. Recovery and development here, certainly in terms of basic services, livelihoods and economic opportunities, are then highly relevant for two reasons: they enable people again to have some control over their lives and hence contribute to that ‘normalisation’, and
also create disincentives for violence as people now have greater ‘economic wellbeing’ to lose. Hein (2004) defines emotional intelligence as the mental ability we are born with which gives us our emotional sensitivity and our potential for emotional learning management skills which can help us maximize our long term health, happiness and survival. Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios, (2000) define emotional intelligence as the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves the perception, assimilation, understanding and management of emotion. However, there seems to be a consensus from a plethora of literature of the construct, that is Emotional Intelligence is the ability to accurately identify, use, understand and regulate one’s emotional reactions and of other people (Cherniss & Adler, 2000). It involves the ability to organize emotion driven perception, intuition, creativity and thought processes plus the ability to express such emotion-laden behaviour interpersonally as well as intra-personally to build trust, honesty, integrity, fairness, human dignity, and integrity in life (Akinboye, 2003).

Fostering creativity has become a major focus in success-bound programmes in every organisation in this new millennium. Towards this end, a lot of empirical research work and clinical experiments have been reported in the areas of creativity using various methods. Creativity is a difficult discipline to define due to the fact that it is a complex behaviour that is multi-factorial determined. According to Akinboye (2003), creativity has been variously described as an intra-psychic phenomenon, a cognitive operation, an affect, an attitude and even life-style. Qureshi and Qureshi (1990) defined creativity as the capacity of an individual to avoid conventional and routine and produce ideas which are original, novel and uncommon. Brainstorming is a tool used by teams for creative exploration of options in an environment free of criticism (Wikipedia, 2006). It is a creativity technique of generating ideas to solve a problem. The main result of a brainstorm session may be a complete solution to the problem, a list of ideas for an approach to a subsequent solution or a list of ideas resulting in a plan to find solution. Brainstorming had been widely used as a tool for creativity (Birdi, 2007; Brockling, 2006; Putman & Paulus, 2009). Gender as a moderating variable in this study, has become a recurrent variable in recent times. Studies (Ayodele, 2014, Baer, 2005; Brody & Hall, 2000) have been conducted to establish the influence of gender on behaviour and performance. Some research findings showed influence of gender on accomplishment, for instance, Misra, (2003) found higher openness scores in female among Indian students. Other studies found no gender differences scores in their study outcomes (Chan, 2005; Harris, 2004; Hastian & Farrel, 2001; Henderson, 2003; Ogunyemi, 2010). Other studies have reported mixed findings (Averill, 2000; Costa, Terraciano & McCrae, 2001; Jordan, McRorie & Ewing, 2010).

There have been previous studies on conflict resolution processes. However, one of the weaknesses in those studies is that the dependent variable (peacebuilding) is usually studied independently and none that integrate creativity and emotional intelligence specifically for the purpose of peace education. Hence, embarking on empirical study on peacebuilding skills of students in Nigeria would be of immense benefits to students, parents and school administrators as most available studies on the focal variables usually involve foreign participants. One probable way of solving the problem of conflict among students, to ease their psychological pressure, is to train them on emotional intelligence and creativity skills. This has however not yet been explored adequately within contemporary peace educational programmes in Nigeria, at least to the best of knowledge of this researcher. This study, therefore, is interested in how emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity skill training programmes act as strategies for enhancing peacebuilding skills among secondary school students.

**Gender, Creativity and Emotional intelligence and peacebuilding**

Creativity and innovation have been linked to gender in some studies. However, studies have reported mixed findings on innovation and gender. While some studies found male to be predominantly more creative and innovative (Baer, 1998; Kaufman and Baer, 2005), other studies have found women showing more innovative tendencies in some specific tasks (Tegano & Moran, 1989; Torrance, 1983). Kaufman and Baer (2005) also noted that men and women view their creativity very differently. Men self-reported higher levels of creativity in such areas of mechanical abilities, physics, and sports strategy (and many other stereotypically male activities) and women self-reported higher levels of creativity in such domains as interacting/communicating with children, interior design/decorating (any many other stereotypically feminine interest). Simonton (1994) questioned the active discrimination against women as the bane of creativity and innovation among the womenfolk. This has made it difficult for women access to the resources necessary for achievement in some fields. Torrance (1983) reported that gender differences in divergent thinking ability have changed over time.
In the 50’s and 60’s boys outperformed girls on measures of originality, whereas girls surpassed boys on elaboration and most measures of verbal originality, Torrance report that the gender gap in differences in creativity began to diminish in the 60’s and 70’s. Tegano and Moran (1989) found a tendency for girls to score higher than boys with younger students prior to grade three. According to Baer & Kaufman (2006) no simple conclusions can be drawn from the empirical evidence on gender differences in creativity test scores; there are studies that report that girls and women score higher than boys and men, and there are studies that report the opposite. There appears to be a consistent lack of gender differences both in creativity test scores and in creative accomplishments of boys and girls (which if anything tend to favour girls).

Vianello and Moore (2004) cited by Ogunkola (2005) studied gender inequality among four countries Canada, Italy, Poland and Romania. The results of the study highlight an emerging reality – “that today, it is possible in several respect to speak of gender equality and not inequality while important disparities still survive, the world of women and the world of men are much less separate and distinct realities than before”. Chan (2005) asked 212 gifted Chinese students to self-assess their creativity, family hardiness and emotional intelligence, and found no significant gender differences for all constructs. Henderson (2003) also found no gender differences in self-reported creative achievement of 247 inventors working in multinational firms who responded to a 90-question on-line survey.

**Hypotheses**
1. There is no significant effect of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on participants’ peace-building skills.
2. There is no significant gender difference in effects of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on participants’ peace-building skills.

**Methodology**
The study adopted a 3 x 2 pre-test, post-test, factorial matrix model to investigate the effects of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on peace-building skills of participants. The researcher adopted a factorial design because of the fact that the design accomplishes in one experiment what otherwise might require two or more separate studies. The design also provides opportunity to study the interacting effect of the moderating variables. There are three rows consisting of two treatment strategies of emotional intelligence, creativity training and the control. There are also two columns consisting of gender delineation and control group.

**Population:** The population of the study consisted of the entire senior secondary school students in the public secondary schools in Ogun East Senatorial District of Ogun State, Nigeria. The Senatorial district has nine Local Government Areas. These are: Ijebu East, Ijebu North, Ijebu North East, Ijebu-Ode, Ikenne, Odogbolu, Ogun Waterside, Remo North and Sagamu Local Government Areas.

**Sample and Sampling Techniques:** The sample for the study comprised two hundred and sixteen participants. The multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted for this study. First, three local government areas were randomly selected from the nine Local Government Areas in Ogun East Senatorial District. Second, one school was selected from the public Senior Secondary Schools in each of the three selected Local Government Areas making a total of three participating schools. Third, seventy-two (72) students (36 males and 36 females) were randomly selected in each school to participate in the study making a total of 216 in all. Sampling was done through a simple random procedure.

**Instrumentation:** This study made use of one major instrument. This instrument was used to obtain information concerning the dependent variable (peace-building skills) while the demographic section of the scales was used for gender identification.

**Peace-building Scale** – Peacebuilding was measured with a 23-item self-designed peacebuilding scale. The scale measured the three factors of: reconstruction, reconciliation and rehabilitation. Each of the twenty-three items was rated on a 4-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 4 (agree strongly). Estimation of the test–retest reliability for the Peacebuilding Scale, with four weeks interval, yielded an index of .76.
Procedure for Data Collection

The study was simultaneously carried out in three phases at the three locations of the participants – Ijebu North, Sagamu and Ijebu East Local Government Areas of Ogun State.

Phase One: During this phase of the work, an introductory meeting was arranged with the would-be participants from each of the three schools to familiarize them with objectives and mission of the researcher and the derivable benefits for the individual participants and the schools at large. Days and time of meeting were agreed upon. Participants were assigned to treatment and control groups at this phase. This was done through simple random sampling technique, specifically the random-alphabet. The pre-test was carried out at this phase. The pre-treatment test was administered, using the two scales (peacebuilding and personality scales) for data collection. Scores obtained served as the pre-treatment scores.

Phase Two: The treatment packages were employed during this phase of the study. Participants assigned to the treatment groups were exposed to the intervention programmes, while the control group received placebo treatment. The researcher had eight sessions with each experimental group, where the treatment packages were taught; also, eights sessions were held with the control group where the participants were taught Microsoft words.

Phase Three: This phase concentrated on the evaluation of the effects of the intervention packages and the outcome of the study generally. A post-test was carried out to determine the results. After the completion of the programme at the eighth week, the peacebuilding scale was re-administered on participants in the two treatment groups and the control group to determine the effectiveness of the treatment packages.

Experimental Group I: Emotional Intelligence Group

**Session 1:** Selection process, general orientation for the participants and administration of pre-test to collect the baseline data against which the post-treatment data would be compared.

**Session 2:** Introduction of basic terms and concepts of programme.

**Session 3:** Identification of participants’ problems.

**Session 4:** Maintenance of problems or disturbed condition.

**Session 5:** Application of Treatment.

**Session 6:** Application of Treatment.

**Session 7:** Concretization of the benefits of the Emotional Intelligence programme for enhanced peacebuilding skills.

**Session 8:** Wrap-up and post-test administration.

Experimental Group II: Creativity (Brainwriting) Training Group

**Session 1:** Selection process, general orientation for the participants and administration of pre-test to collect the baseline data against which the post-treatment data would be compared.

**Session 2:** Introduction of basic terms and concepts of programme.

**Session 3:** Identification of participants’ problems.

**Session 4:** Maintenance of problems or disturbed condition.

**Session 5:** Application of Treatment.

**Session 6:** Application of Treatment.

**Session 7:** Concretization of the benefits of creativity training (brainwriting) programme for enhanced peacebuilding skills.

**Session 8:** Wrap-up and post-test administration.

Control Group

**Session 1:** Selection process, general orientation for the participants and administration of pre-test to collect the baseline data against which the post-treatment data would be compared.

**Session 2:** Introduction of basic terms and concepts of programme.

**Session 3:** Identification of participants’ problems areas.

**Session 4:** Introduction of basic terms and concepts of Microsoft word.

**Session 5:** Teaching the Microsoft words to participants.

**Session 6:** Teaching the Microsoft words to participants.
Session 7: Concretization of the benefits of Microsoft words.
Session 8: Wrap-up and post-test administration.

It should be noted that while the experimental groups were subjected to the treatment packages, the control group received placebo treatment (Microsoft words) for the same duration as the treatment groups.

Data Analysis: The Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to analyze the main and interactive effects of the criterion variable, the independent variable and as well as the moderating variable. The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Table 2: Estimates of effect of emotional intelligence and brainwriting training programmes in enhancing participants’ peacebuilding skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
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<td>65.486</td>
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<td>1.057</td>
<td>66.303</td>
<td>70.470</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest Peace Building = 66.3102.

Table 2 revealed that participants in brainwriting group had a mean score of 71.113 and standard error of 1.042. Participants in the emotional intelligence group had a mean score of 68.386 and a standard error of 1.057. Participants in the control group had a mean score of 65.486 and a standard error of 1.357. This finding implies that the creativity group had the highest mean followed by emotional intelligence group and the least mean was obtained by the control group.

Table 3: Univariate test of effect of emotional intelligence and brainwriting training programmes in enhancing participants’ peacebuilding skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>816.633</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>408.316</td>
<td>5.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>15028.990</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>74.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The F tests the effect of Treatment Group. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

Table 3 revealed that there was significant effect of brainwriting and emotional intelligence training programmes on students’ peacebuilding skills ($F(2,203) = 5.515; p < 0.05$). The null hypothesis was therefore rejected by this finding. The implication of this finding is that students’ peacebuilding skills differed with regards to the treatment given to them. This result is graphically presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Treatment effects on participants’ peacebuilding skills.
Figure 1 indicates that participants in the brainwriting group had the highest gain in peacebuilding skills (71.113), followed by participants in the emotional intelligence group (68.386) while participants in the control group had the least mean score (65.486). While the difference in the mean scores of brainwriting and emotional intelligence groups (treatment) was not statistically significant; the means scores of the treatment groups and the control group were however statistically significant.

Table 4: Estimates of the interaction effect of treatment and gender on participants’ peacebuilding skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment Group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63.300</td>
<td>2.282</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 58.801, Upper Bound: 67.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67.672</td>
<td>1.471</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 64.772, Upper Bound: 70.573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brainwriting</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67.537</td>
<td>1.443</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 64.691, Upper Bound: 70.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>74.689</td>
<td>1.499</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 71.734, Upper Bound: 77.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>67.537</td>
<td>1.496</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 64.587, Upper Bound: 70.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>69.236</td>
<td>1.507</td>
<td>Lower Bound: 66.265, Upper Bound: 72.206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest Peace Building = 66.3102.

The results in Table 4 revealed that there was no significant two-way interaction effects of treatment and gender (F(2,203) = 1.666; p > 0.05) on students’ peacebuilding skills. Therefore, the null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the effect of gender on the effectiveness of the two treatments in enhancing students’ peacebuilding skills was accepted by this finding. The implication of the results is that gender would not interact significantly with treatment to affect the peacebuilding skills of participants. The results in Table 4.6 showed that female participants in the two treatment groups and the control group had higher peacebuilding mean scores (brainwriting = MD 74.689; Standard error 1.499), (emotional intelligence = MD 69.537; Standard error 1.507) and (control = MD 67.672; Standard error 1.471) respectively. Their male counterparts however had lower mean scores in the peacebuilding skills. Thus is recorded as follows: (brainwriting = MD 67.537; Standard error 1.443), (emotional intelligence = MD 67.537; Standard error 1.496) and (control = MD 63.300; Standard error 2.282). The differences in mean scores did not translate to any significant effects of the interaction between treatment and gender.

Figure 2: Interaction effects of treatment and gender on participants’ peacebuilding skills

Figure 2 showed that there is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on male and female participants exposed to brainwriting, emotional intelligence training packages and control. However, female participants in the two treatment groups and the control group had higher peacebuilding skills mean scores than their male counterparts in the three groups.
Discussion of the Findings
The first hypothesis stated that there is no significant effect of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on participants’ peace-building skills. The findings of this study did not support this hypothesis. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected. The results revealed that participants in the treatment groups demonstrated enhanced capacity in peacebuilding than their counterparts in the control group. This was reflected in the increase in the post-test peacebuilding scores of the participants. The superior capacity displayed by the treated participants over the control could be attributed to the eight-week treatments they were exposed to. It was not surprising however that emotional intelligence and brainwriting made this fruitful impact on participants’ level of peacebuilding as previous investigations have reported their potency. The findings of this study gave credence to earlier studies that found that trained participants were superior in their competencies than their untrained counterparts (Abar, Carter & Winsler, 2008; Animashaun, 2002; Ogunyemi, 2010; Orija, 2014). Alves, Marques, Saur and Marques (2007), Orija, (2014), Owodunni, (2002) and Paulus, (2010) have established that brainwriting creativity technique allowed brainstormers to generate as many solutions as they could from a specific train of thought – in business, civil service and of course peacebuilding.

The results was also consistent with the findings of previous studies (Azeez, 2012; Bailey, Murphy & Porock, 2011; Iro-Iddo, 2014; Ogunyemi & Mabekoje, 2007; Olaseinde-Williams, 2010) which established that human behaviour, achievement, caring and performance at the workplace and academics could be fostered through emotional intelligence training. While each of the treatment packages has been individually applied in previous studies and result showing their effectiveness in enhancing human accomplishment, the present study combined their use and has established their effects on the peacebuilding skills of the participants. The second hypothesis stated that there is no significant gender difference in the effects of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training on participants’ peace-building skills. The result revealed that there was no significant two-way interaction effect of treatment and gender on students’ peacebuilding skills; therefore the null hypothesis was accepted. The finding agreed with ample research evidence (Akpocho, 2011; Aremu & Tejumola, 2008) that has shown gender would not interact with treatment to influence behaviour, particularly in emotional intelligence.

In fact, a substantial body of evidence indicated that males and females perform at similar levels of tests designed to measure creative and innovative potentials and emotional competencies (Adekola, 2012; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Callahan & McCollum, 2002; Ogunyemi, 2010).

Conclusion
This study has provided meaningful insight into the effectiveness of emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity training programmes in enhancing peacebuilding skills of secondary schools students in Ogun East Senatorial District of Ogun State, Nigeria. It also showed the potency of the two techniques in enhancing students’ peacebuilding skills. However, brainwriting creativity technique showed better outcome than emotional intelligence as indicated by the mean scores of the two techniques. Based on the outcome of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

Participants’ peacebuilding skills improved significantly as a result of the treatment. The two treatments used in this study, individually boosted students’ peacebuilding skills. It was also observed that gender had significant effect on students’ peacebuilding skills. Gender and treatment did not interact to create a significant effect on participants’ peacebuilding skills.

Recommendations
Based on the findings of the study, it is advocated that the emotional intelligence and brainwriting creativity technique be mainstreamed into peace education. The findings of this study, therefore, stress the need for schools, corporate organisations, government institutions, especially policy makers to include creativity and emotional learning contents in the curriculum of our educational system in order to achieve purposeful education and development. The teaching and learning of creativity, emotional and peacebuilding skills should be encouraged as early as elementary school stage and be seen as a developmental programme though all phases of education and up to work life. It is also worthwhile to include creativity and emotional intelligence skills in training courses for peace educators. It is also important that academics intensify research activities in the area of peacebuilding as there is dearth of work in that field in Nigeria.
Lastly, awareness of and access to peacebuilding programmes and mechanisms like local peace committees are clearly needed to improve the effectiveness of peacebuilding initiatives.

References


Employee’s Salary, Gender, Length of Service and Job Involvement as Determinants of Employees’ Performance in Nigerian Breweries Plc.

Olusegun Adeleke Adenuga; Ph.D
School of Management Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN), Victoria Island, Lagos, Nigeria.
e-mail: obaadenuga@yahoo.com +23480-338-797-89/ +23480-234-409-26

Abstract
The study focused on employee’s salary, gender, length of service and job involvement as determinants of employees’ performance in Nigerian Breweries Plc. The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of these demographic variables on employees’ performance in the Nigerian Brewing Plc. Two hypotheses were raised to guide the study while survey design was adopted. A total of 120 respondents were drawn from the target population using simple random sampling technique. The study made use of Researcher’s self-designed questionnaire titled “Demographic Variables On Employees’ Performance (DVOMP)” to collect data from the samples. Data collected was analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANOVA) tested at 0.05 level of significance. The result of the study reveals that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will jointly determine employees’ performance. Recommended made.

Key Words: Employee’s Salary, Length of Service, Job Involvement, Employees’ Performance

Introduction
Employees’ performance is everything about performance of employees as a result of many work related variables. It involves all aspects which directly or indirectly affect and relate to the work of employees in an organisation. It is presumed that employee performance will ultimately affect the organizational effectiveness. Therefore, it is important for the organisation to make effort to ensure employees’ high performers. Elnaga and Imran (2013) established that this could be achieved through planning, mentoring, developing, rating and rewarding them in order to improve any poor performance that has been seen during the day-to-day activities.

Employees’ performance can be described as the record of employees’ behaviours and results in the organisation. The improvement of employees’ performance is the fundament aspect of the how well employees are treated in their organizations. Elnaga and Imran (2013) further illustrated the classified performance into five elements: Planning, monitoring, developing, rating and rewarding. In the planning stage, Planning means setting goals, developing strategies, and outlining tasks and schedules to accomplish the goals. Monitoring is the phase in which the goals are looked at to see how well one is doing to meet them. Monitoring basically means continuously measuring performance and providing ongoing feedback to employees and work groups on their progress toward reaching their goals. Ongoing monitoring provides the opportunity to check how well employees are meeting predetermined standards and to make changes to unrealistic or problematic standards. During the developing stage an employee is supposed to improve any poor performance that has been seen during the time frame one has been working at the company. During planning and monitoring of work, deficiencies in performance become evident and can be addressed.

One of the variables of interest in this study is employees’ salary; Healthfield (2014) defined salary as a fixed amount of money or compensation paid to an employee by an employer in return for work performed. According to Rizwan, Khan and Saboor (2011) salary is one of the financial benefits provided by the employers to enhance the employees’ performance. Salary is also considered as an important tool to motivate the employees and consequently the employees’ involvement with their work. Agburu (2012) opines that organisations that seek to attract and retain highly productive and efficient employees need to pay salary adequately in a competitive environment aimed at improving performance. Hence, Woods (2014) stated that employees are more likely to perform to their potentials if they are happy with their earning salary. Also, Sturman (2014) emphasized that one of many salary plans is to improve employees’ performance. Agburu (2012) also found that employees who manifest outstanding performance receive extra salary as direct
financial rewards, and this has a positive and significant impact on the employees’ performance. There is renewing interest in gender and job performance. The concept of gender differences in job performance is a complex, controversial, and contentious issue. It is far less clear; however, what has caused those differences, but they are usually subjects for discussion. According to Adenuga (2011), gender in job performance exists in many domains, especially if one focuses on the different levels of creative accomplishment. In addition, Green, Jegadeesh and Tang (2007) studied the relation between gender and job performance among brokerage firm equity analysts found that women significantly outperformed men at other aspects of the job such as client service. Furthermore, Azmat and Ferrer (2014) in their study of gender gaps in performance of American young lawyers; it was found that clear evidence of a gender gap exist in annual performance of American lawyers. According to them, male lawyers bill ten percent more hours and bring in more than twice the new client revenue than female lawyers. Yahaya (2000) found that male and female Federal civil servants were not significantly different in their job performance. However, Onyene (1997) cited in Adenuga (2011) reported that gender does not directly differentiate between male and female managers’ work orientations; and that significant difference exists in the degree of observed job involvement and leadership effectiveness of male and female managers.

Length of service is defined as the number of year by which a person has been employed by a given employer. Length of service is the total number of years an individual has served in any particular organization or industry, in relation to that individual’s dedication to duty and clean record – according to the rules and regulations guiding the particular organization or industry. According to Initial Report on Public Health (2008), length of staff service is a commonly used measure of staff retention and turnover. High staff turnover rates affect organizational stability and capacity thereby, lead to employees’ performance. Length of service could enhance job performance; employees’ long experiences on the job bring specialization and improved job performance. Employees’ job involvement is another important variable that enhances employees’ performance at the workplace. This is series of process that happen when the employees give a lot of time or attention to work for which they are paid to do. Armstrong (2012) recognises that the right mix of knowledge, skills and attitudes are required to help employees to perform their jobs successfully. Ashe-Edmunds (2014) refers job involvement as the psychological and emotional extent to which employees participate in their jobs, professions, and organisations beyond simply clocking in; performing their jobs and clocking out. Ashe-Edmund concluded that when employer increases employees’ job involvement, it will enhance their job performance.

Ashe-Edmunds (2014) further stated that job involvement plays a very important role for increasing the performance of the employees. If the employees are involved in their work they can work more effectively and efficiently. The involved employees put extra efforts for the completion of their task. These employees become involved in the work not only physically but also emotionally and cognitively. Rizwan, Khan and Saboor (2011) examined the relationship of job involvement with employees’ performance and found that positive relationship exists between these two variables. Ashe-Edmunds (2014) states that increasing employees’ job involvement is the best way to enhance employees’ performance at work place; employees who are more involved in their jobs will put extra efforts for the achievement of the organisational objectives and therefore, highly productive and produce better results as compared to the employees who are not involved with their job. Based on the foregoing, the employee’s salary, gender, length of service and job involvement as determinants of employees’ performance in Nigerian Breweries Plc.

Brief History of Nigerian Breweries Plc.

Nigerian Breweries Plc, incorporated in 1946, is the pioneer and largest brewing company in Nigeria. It has its headquarters in Iganmu House, Abebe Village Road, Iganmu, Lagos State, Nigeria. the company has over 10,000 workers nationwide, the chairman is Chief Kolawole B. Jamodu, OFR. Its first bottle of beer, STAR Lager, rolled off the bottling lines of its Lagos brewery in June 1949. Other breweries were subsequently commissioned by the company, including Aba Brewery in 1957, Kaduna Brewery in 1963, and Ibadan Brewery in 1982. In September 1993, the company acquired its fifth brewery in Enugu state, and in October 2003, its sixth brewery, sited at Ameke in Enugu. Ama Brewery is the largest brewery in Nigeria and one of the most modern worldwide. Operations at Enugu brewery were discontinued in 2004, while the company acquired a malting Plant in Aba in 2008.
The company has a portfolio of high-quality brands, including:


Source: http://www.nbplc.com

Statement of the Problem

The challenges associated with the changing nature of work and the workplace environment has is impact on the employees in every organisation. The rapid change requires skilled, knowledgeable employees who are adaptive, flexible, and focused on the growth of the organisation. Nwachukwu (2012) opined that an organisation may have employees of ability and determination with appropriate equipment and managerial support yet productivity can fall below expected standards. The missing factor in many cases is the skill gap between current performance and expected future performance of the employees. lack of interest in one’s job, negative attitude to work, insubordination to supervisors/managers, lack of skills, lack of confidence, lack of motivation, lack of time, high incidence of accidents, low labour productivity, excessive complaint, higher rejects or low quality output, tardiness and excessive rate of absenteeism were many numbers of reasons researchers/academia opined as responsible for employees underperform. Many studies focused on training and development on employees’ performance in order to boost employees’ performance but there were dearth of literature on demographic variables on employees’ performance. Hence, this study focused on the employee’s salary, gender, length of service and job involvement as determinants of employees’ performance in Nigerian Breweries Plc.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to examine the impact of training and development on employees’ performance with a particular reference to the brewery industry in Nigeria. Also, to find out how effectively the brewery industry utilizes employees’ demographic variables as strategies in achieving employees’ performance.

Hypothesis

In view of the above, the following hypotheses were generated and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H₀₁: Employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not jointly determine employees’ performance.

H₀₂: Employees salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not relatively determine employees’ performance.

Method

The design used for this study was survey design method. The population for the study comprised all senior and the junior employees of Nigerian Breweries Plc Headquartered at Abebe Road, Iganmu, Lagos State, Nigeria. A simple random sampling technique was used to select 120 respondents from the Human Resource, Finance/Accounts, Corporate Affairs, Marketing/Sales, and Production departments respectively, thus ensuring all employees of Nigerian Breweries Plc were given an equal chance of being selected into the study sample. The instrument used for data collection was a Researcher’s self-designed questionnaire titled “Demographic Variables On Employees’ Performance (DVOMP)”. The instrument comprised of Sections A and B. Section A contains the bio-data of the respondents, while Section B comprised of items drawn from the variables of the hypotheses based on 4-point Likert’s scales ranging from Strongly Agreed to Strongly Disagree. The instrument was face validated by two experts from the School of Management Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria Headquarters, Lagos, Nigeria. The reliability of the instrument was tested by test-retest method. The instrument was administered on other samples that did not form part of the main study. A reliable estimate of 0.78 was established using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (r). Scoring of the items; positive items were allotted SA=4 marks, A=3 marks, D=2 and SD=1 mark respectively.
while reverse scores were allocated to negative items. Research assistants visited the Brewery headquarters in Lagos and administered the questionnaire; however, 120 questionnaires were filled. Data generated from the questionnaire was analyzed using Analysis of Covariance (ANOVA) tested at the 0.05 level of significance.

**Results**

**Hypothesis one:** Employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not jointly determine employees’ performance.

Table 1: *Multiple Regression Table of the Combined Effect of the Predictor Variables on employees’ performance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2825.435</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2825.435</td>
<td>81.67</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R square</td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>3390.325</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>34.595</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R square</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6215.760</td>
<td>99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will determine employees performance a coefficient of multiple regressions (R) of .674 with corresponding R² of .455 indicating dependent variables for 44.9% of the total variance in employee performance. The ANOVA table shows that F value of 81.671 is significant at 0.05 levels. The results further reveal that the predictor variables were good predictors of employee’s performance. This implies that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement are essential tools in determining employee’s performance. Therefore, H₀ is rejected while H₁ is accepted. That is, employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement jointly determined employees’ performance.

**Hypothesis Two:** Employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not relatively determine employees’ performance.

Table 2: *Relative Effect of Employees’ Salary, Gender, Length of Service and Job Involvement on Employees’ Performance*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(constant)</td>
<td>1.819</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>7.010</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.311</td>
<td>3.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.244</td>
<td>1.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.263</td>
<td>2.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Involvement</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.307</td>
<td>2.998</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. **Dependent variable:** Employee’s performance; *Significant at <.05

Table 2 shows the relative contribution of each predictor variable to the variance in employees’ performance. Salary has the highest beta value (.311) significant at less than .05 alpha level with t value of 3.213; followed by job involvement with beta value .307 with t value of 2.998, and, length of service (beta value = .263, t value = 2.726); and lastly by gender (beta value = .244, t value = 1.798). Therefore, all the predictor variables (employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement) were potent factors to the variance in employees’ performance.

**Discussion of Findings**

The hypothesis that states that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not jointly determine employees’ performance was rejected by the study and therefore, upheld the alternate hypothesis. That is, employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement jointly determined employees’ performance. The results indicate that length of service has significant effect on continuance involvement and salary increase which therefore enhance employees’ job performance of the Nigerian Brewery. This result correlates the findings of Initial Report on Public Health (2008) which observed that
length of staff service is a commonly used measure of staff retention and turnover; it enhances employees’
capacity and performance. High staff turnover rates affect organizational stability and capacity thereby, lead
to employees’ performance. Length of service could enhance job performance; employees’ long experiences
on the job bring specialization and improved job performance. Also, Rizwan, Khan and Saboor (2011) found
that salary is one of the financial benefits provided by the employers to enhance the employees’ performance.
The study equally agrees with Woods (2014) who states that employees are more likely to perform to their
potentials if they are happy with their earning salary. In addition, Sturman (2014) emphasized that one of
many salary plans is to improve employees’ performance. Furthermore, Ashe-Edmunds (2014) further stated
that employees’ job involvement plays a very important role for increasing the performance of the employees.
Also, Rizwan, Khan and Saboor (2011) asserted that job involvement is considered very important for
increasing the performance of the employees. However, Jegadeesh and Tang (2007) studied the relation
between gender and job performance among brokerage firm equity analysts and found that women
significantly outperformed men at other aspects of the job such as client service. Furthermore, Azmat and

Hypothesis two states employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement will not relatively
determine employees’ performance. The result of the study rejected the hypothesis and upheld the alternate
hypothesis which states that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job involvement relatively
determined employees’ performance. This finding support the finding of Rizwan, Khan & Saboor (2011) as
well as Woods (2014) who posits that employees’ salary serves as a means for attracting and retaining
committed employees so as to enhance their performance in the organisation. Also, the result of the findings
agreed the finding of Balle (2014) who found that salary for performance is a way to provide employees with
compensation or an increase in compensation based on how they perform at work.

Conclusion
From the findings of this study, it was concluded that employees’ salary, gender, length of service and job
involvement jointly determined employees’ performance. The study also revealed that employees’ salary,
gender, length of service and job involvement relatively determined employees’ performance.

Recommendations
Based on the results of the finding, the study recommended that:
• The management of the Nigerian Breweries should ensure that employees are well remunerated and
  paid as when due.
• Employees should be well motivated by rewarding annual based on job performance and length of
  service as this will encourage job commitment and loyalty to the company.
• Management should ensure employees’ participation in decision making and also enhances accurate
  communication flows.

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Students’ English Language Proficiency and Class Participation as Predictors of Students’ Attitude towards Literature-in-English in Southwestern Nigeria

Princess Omovrigho Idialu; Ph.D
Principal, Remo Methodist High School, Sagamu, Ogun State
Tel: 08083542941

Abstract
Literature-in-English is a pre-requisite subject for entry into law, arts and humanities courses at tertiary institutions. However, records from public examination bodies reveal that students’ performance in Literature-in-English has not been satisfactory despite various effective instructional strategies employed to improve achievement in and attitude to the subject. Hence, this study investigated the extent to which these student-related variables would predict students’ achievement in and attitude to Literature-in-English in Southwest Nigeria. The study adopted the survey research design. Participants were 1,486 senior secondary two Literature-in-English students from 30 selected public secondary schools using stratified random sampling. Three instruments were used for the data collection, three research questions were raised at 0.05 level of significance, while data was analysed using Multiple Regression Analysis. Results revealed significant positive relationship between students’ English Language Proficiency (r = .474) and Students’ Attitude to Literature in English, while a low significant relationship was found between students’ attitude to English language proficiency (.018) and class Participation (r = .025). Also, 22% of the variation in Students Attitude to Literature in English was accounted for by Class Participation and English Language Proficiency. The study concluded that student-related variables are as important as teacher-related and pedagogical variables when trying to solve the problem of poor performance in teaching and learning of Literature in English in general, as students are important stakeholders in the teaching and learning process. Stakeholders should therefore take cognisance of student-related variables in this study.

Key words: English language proficiency, Class participation, Literature-in-English, Attitude.

Introduction
Literature-in-English is one of the subjects stated in the 2004 edition of the National Policy on Education, which may be offered especially by the Arts students. This is because some tertiary institutions require that students get a credit pass in Literature-in-English to gain admission to study courses like Law, English, Theatre Arts, Mass Communication, Linguistics, Classics and other arts courses. The Ministry of Education is proposing that as from 2013, all students, irrespective of their area of specialisation (Arts, Science or Commercial) should now offer Literature-in-English. This is because it has been perceived that reading culture is waning among students and they find it difficult to express themselves fluently in English, which is the language of instruction in institutions of learning in Nigeria. It is hoped that Literature-in-English texts will afford the students the opportunity to experience the use of the English Language in its varied forms, which may positively influence their expression.

Literature-in-English is one of the subjects that could help in the actualisation of the Nigerian philosophy on education as stated in the National Policy on Education as follows: (a) To live in unity and harmony as one indivisible, indissoluble, democratic and sovereign nation founded on the principles of freedom and justice; and, (b) To promote inter-African solidarity and world peace through understanding. To clarify the point that Literature-in-English is a subject that could help in the actualisation of the stated aspects of the Nigerian philosophy on education; it is obvious that literature not only helps us to know more about a diversity of human cultures, it also helps us to understand human nature itself. According to Obichukwu (2009), we see different human beings acting to show their true picture or nature in literary works. Fatokun (2008) contends that Nigeria and Africa being multi-lingual and multi-cultural, and the fact that the world is fast becoming a global village, a subject like literature with its scope covering works of art from different parts of Nigeria,
Africa, Europe and other parts of the world, will build students to get acquainted with the lifestyle of a wide spectrum of societies. This will make them develop more understanding and be tolerant of people of different tribes, tongues and nationalities, leading to better world peace according to the second part of the Nigerian philosophy of education. Again, Osisanlu (2012) points out that literature enables students to have an insight into human behaviour, and therefore helps them to become well adjusted people who are able to interact freely with different manners of people, thus enabling good social interaction. This will lead to the actualisation of the Nigerian philosophy of education which is for citizens to live in unity and harmony as one indivisible, indissoluble, democratic and sovereign nation founded on the principles of freedom and justice. Attitude is an important construct that influences learning outcomes. Students’ attitude towards Literature-in-English is crucial to learning and their academic achievement in the subject. Learners’ attitude towards a subject has to do with emotional reactions, behavioural tendencies and beliefs about that particular subject. Attitudes could be positive or negative and according to Ghazali (2008), negative attitude towards a subject could be changed or corrected if the sources of those negative attitudes could be identified. Realising the relationship between attitude and learning, various scholars have determined the relationship between students’ attitude to academic achievement, but have not specifically determined English Language proficiency, Locus of Control, class participation, study habits and textbook utilisation as predictors of students’ achievement in and attitude towards Literature-in-English in a single study, hence the necessity for this research.

Adegoke (2005) finds that students have negative attitude towards Literature-in-English. Expressing concern about students’ negative attitude towards literature, Adegoke stresses that some students do not bother to find out the current recommended texts, while many who are aware of current texts do not have personal copies of these texts, making personal study of the texts and class participation impossible. Adedokun (2001), reports that some Literature-in-English students see the subject as tasking because they lack good reading skills that will help them to comprehend the prescribed texts easily, and this difficulty in comprehension, especially of poetry and Literature-in-English texts puts many students off the subject. Oprah (2007), reiterating the poor attitude of students towards literature and recreational reading in general, states that many students do not maximise the benefit of literature reading for the improvement of their language skills. Some scholars see literature as an artistic use of words in the selecting, ordering and interpreting of life experiences, because of the value attached to the aesthetic use of words and presentation of facts in literature. For this reason, Wallace (2003) is of the view that students should see Literature-in-English as fun, but this is unfortunately not the case. Umoru-Onuka (2002), stressing students’ general poor attitude towards reading, suggests that developing good reading skills will help students absorb a lot of ideas from whatever materials they read, and this will encourage a possible transfer of ability in acquiring knowledge from materials in other subjects and their being able to express themselves well in other subjects. This will help students grasp more easily new concepts they come across, evaluate them and state their critical opinions about what they learn. Proficiency in English has been strongly associated with students’ success in Literature-in-English. There seems to be a general consensus among educationists that the deteriorating standard of English Language in schools has an adverse effect on students’ performance in other subjects, Literature-in-English inclusive. The importance of language proficiency is emphasised by Fakeye and Ogunsiji (2009), who report that English Language proficiency is strongly linked with students’ achievement in academic subjects. This may be as a result of the fact that students are taught the contents of school subjects at all levels in Nigeria via the English Language. Another scholar, Iroegbu (2002), commenting on chief examiners’ reports on students’ academic performance, also expresses the view that candidates’ deficiency in English is the problem of most students in their academics. With particular reference to Literature-in-English, English Language proficiency may be an important facilitator of students’ academic achievement because language is literature and literature is language.

Class participation, which is another variable of interest in this study, is the involvement of students in teaching/learning process. Scholars have noted that students’ class participation positively influences their learning outcomes. Sesan (2011), for instance, declares that classroom management is one of the factors that influence students’ attitude, toward Literature-in-English. Ziaping, (2003), argues that three factors – engaging students in meaningful class activity, making learners enjoy the lesson and effectiveness in explaining facts to learners help to boost their grades and improves attitude towards a subject. Green (2008), in his study, points out that class participation has a number of benefits which include helping students to develop: language skills, contribute to the texts being used, get feedback and lose their inhibitions about the
subject being learnt. He reports that learners who raise their hands and respond to the teacher’s promptings do better than others who do not overtly participate in classroom activities. Oyewale (2004) opines that students’ class participation should be encouraged especially in the language classroom instead of maintaining a teacher-fronted class; that students’ participation could be spontaneous, giving opinions, making comments or asking and answering questions. These activities are noted to promote language learning as they help students to get interested in and follow the topic being taught.

It has been observed that literature exposes students to good moral values that could help in making them well adjusted citizens. As valuable as the subject is, however, the performance of students in Literature-in-English at public examinations is not encouraging. Though some Literature-in-English scholars have introduced different methods of teaching and learning Literature-in-English, results from these findings have not translated to significant improvement in students’ performance in or attitude towards the subject. Effort to address this problem has made researchers to shift attention to student-related variables. Such variables are Language proficiency and class participation. Although studies involving these variables report them as significant predictors of academic achievement and attitude towards school subjects, the variables have not been combined in a study for predicting students’ attitude to Literature-in-English. Again, the few researches on each of the mentioned variables have been inconclusive as to their influence on students’ attitude towards academic subjects. Therefore, this study determined to what extent language proficiency and class participation predict students’ attitude towards Literature-in-English.

Research Questions
In order to achieve the objectives of this study, the following research questions were raised:
1. What type of relationship exists among the independent (students’ English Language proficiency and class participation) and dependent variables (attitude towards Literature-in-English)?
2. What is the composite contribution of students’ English Language proficiency and class participation to the prediction of students’ attitude towards Literature-in-English?
3. What are the relative contributions of each of the independent variables to the prediction of the dependent variable?

Methodology
The study adopted the descriptive research survey design of correlational study as it determined the relationships among the different variables in the study.

Population: The population of the study comprised all senior secondary school SSII students offering Literature-in-English in Southwestern Nigeria (Oyo, Ogun, Ekiti, Osun, Ondo and Lagos) states.

Sample and Sampling Procedure: The participants for this research were drawn among public senior secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria. Three states were randomly selected. These states were Ogun, Ekiti and Osun. Each of the three states was stratified into senatorial districts and a senatorial district was picked from each of the states. Ten schools were selected from each of the senatorial districts. The researcher used intact classes (SSII) of Literature-in-English students from each of the selected schools. The schools used were those who had produced at least five sets of Literature-in-English WASSCE graduates to ensure that such schools had produced a reasonable number of Literature-in-English graduates that will make them willing to cooperate with researchers who want to determine what could be responsible for students’ failure in the subject.

Research Instruments: Three research instruments were used in the collection of data. These are:

English Language Proficiency Test – (ELPT): The English Language Proficiency Test is adopted from Fakeye and Ogunsiji (2009). The English language proficiency test is a standardised TOEFL paper test, designed to evaluate students’ Proficiency in English Language.

Observation Scale Measuring Students’ Participation in Literature-in-English Classes- (OSMSPLC): The Observation Schedule is adapted from Amokeodo (2012). The observation scale measuring students’ participation in Literature-in-English classes was used to collect information on how students participate in Literature-in-English Classes.
Questionnaire on Students’ Attitude towards Literature-in-English – (QSATL): The questionnaire on students’ attitude towards Literature-in-English is adapted from Osikomaya (2012) and it is designed to measure the disposition of the learners towards Literature-in-English. It consists of 31 items placed on a four-point modified likert-scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) where students indicated their general attitudes towards Literature-in-English.

Methods of Data Analysis: Data collected was analysed using Multiple Regression Analysis.

Results

Table 1: Correlation matrix showing the relationship between English Language Proficiency, Class Participation and Students’ Attitude to Literature in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Students’ Attitude to Literature in English</th>
<th>Proficiency</th>
<th>Class Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Attitude to Language in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.474*</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Proficiency</td>
<td>.474*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ Class Participation</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>41.3486</td>
<td>40.7443</td>
<td>63.7409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>23.6258</td>
<td>8.7135</td>
<td>4.6039</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level

Table 1 shows that there is positive relationship between students’ English Language Proficiency (r = .474) and Students’ Attitude to Literature in English. There is also a low significant relationship between students’ attitude to English language proficiency (.018) and class Participation (r = .025). This result is in tandem with Adedokun (2001) who reported that some Literature-in-English students see the subject as tasking because they lack good reading skills that will help them to comprehend the prescribed texts easily, and this difficulty in comprehension, especially of poetry and Literature-in-English texts puts many students off the subject. Also, Ophrah (2007) reiterating the poor attitude of students towards literature and recreational reading in general, states that many students do not maximise the benefit of literature reading for the improvement of their language skills.

Table 2: Table showing the composite contributions of each of the independent variables to the prediction of students’ attitude to Literature in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>1841.872</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>920.936</td>
<td>35.460</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>38514.760</td>
<td>1483</td>
<td>25.971</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40356.632</td>
<td>1485</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R = .473
R² = .224
Adj R² = .218

It is shown in the table 2 that the composite contribution of the independent variables (Class Participation and English Language Proficiency) on Students’ Attitude towards Literature in English is significant (F(2,1483) = 35.460; R = .473, R² = .224, Adj. R² = .218; P < .05). About 22% of the variation in Students Attitude to Literature in English was accounted for by the independent variables. The result shows that Class Participation and English Language Proficiency are good predictors of Students’ Attitude to Literature in English. This study corroborates with Siregar (2010) that language attitude studies contribute to an understanding of socio-linguistic phenomenon in the sense that social status and language proficiency of learners could determine their feelings and attitude towards a target language and the level of dexterity in their use of it. These studies however, do not combine language proficiency with the other variables in this study to predict students’ achievement in and attitude towards Literature-in-English. Also, this result is in line with
Amokeodo (2012) who reported a positive influence of classroom participation on students’ achievement in Literature-in-English.

Table 3: Table showing the relative contributions of each of the independent variables to the prediction of students’ attitude to Literature in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficient</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficient</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.531</td>
<td>8.976</td>
<td>.505</td>
<td>.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Proficiency</td>
<td>1.224</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>20.013</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Participation</td>
<td>-.300</td>
<td>.312</td>
<td>-.961</td>
<td>.337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 3 the result shows the relative contribution of each of the independent variables on students’ attitude: English Language Proficiency ($\beta = .451$, $P < .05$) and Class Participation ($\beta = -.058$, $P < .05$). The result shows that while English Language Proficiency was significant, class participation was not. The outcome of this study lend credence from the earlier studies Ellis (1993) and John (2006) who have shown that language proficiency has a strong link with students’ achievement in or attitude towards academics. They report that sometimes, students’ ability to comprehend questions determines how they tackle them and that learners’ ability to understand what is required in a question depends on whether or not they comprehend the language with which the questions are couched. Suleiman (2011), reports a positive relationship between students’ proficiency in reading comprehension and their achievement in Literature-in-English.

Conclusion and Recommendations
The study was conceived out of the need to provide better understanding of some of the variables that are responsible for students’ attitude to Literature in English. The independent variables (English Language proficiency, and class participation) were found to have significant relationship with the dependent variables (students’ achievement in and attitude to Literature in English). Therefore, it could be concluded from the study that student-related variables are as important as teacher-related and pedagogical variables when trying to solve the problem of poor performance in teaching and learning of Literature in English in general, as students are important stakeholders in the teaching and learning process. Stakeholders should therefore take cognisance of student-related variables in this study. It is therefore recommended that students should be made to be adequately engaged with the prescribed Literature in English texts and not just teachers’ notes or commentaries on the texts that will not give the students a first hand knowledge of what is in the recommended texts.

Lessons should not be teacher-dominated, but students should be made to participate in the teaching-learning process in order that learning is made easier and more permanent. To this end, teachers should devise strategies that will get students involved in active participation in the Literature in English class.

References


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Fostering Positive Sexual Attitude among Nigerian Adolescents through Life Skills Training

Ayodele, Kolawole Olanrewaju, Ph.D
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo Ogun State, Nigeria
E-mail: ayodelewole@gmail.com

Olanipekun, Oladele Kehinde
Ikenne Community High School, Ikenne-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria

&

Akinlana, Temidayo
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria

Abstract
In Nigeria today, people worry that if we teach young people about sexuality, it will encourage them to start having sex early. The evidence shows sex education either has no effect or young people delay sex for longer and when they do start, they are more likely to protect themselves from pregnancy, STIs and HIV. Therefore, this study examined the extent at which positive sexual behaviour will be fostered through life skills training among Nigerian adolescents. The study adopted pretest-posttest, control group experimental design with a 3x2 factorial matrix. Simple random sampling technique was used to select 120 participants from three secondary schools in Remo Educational Block in Ogun State. The participants were randomly assigned to two treatments and control group. Participants in the treatment groups were exposed to 9 weeks of life skills training. Socio-sexuality Orientation Inventory (EMSOI; Jackson & Kirkpatrick, 2007) was the only instrument used for data collection. Two hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. Data were analysed using Univariate Analysis of Variance. The result shows that there was a significant main effect of treatment in the pre-post scores of adolescents' sexual behaviour in the experimental and control groups (F = 9.009, df = 2/118, P < .011). There was no significant gender difference in the posttest scores of the dependent variable. The experimental treatment was considered as being responsible for the significant difference in the posttest scores. Therefore, the findings of the study suggest that life skills training should be integrated into the secondary school curricular to foster adolescents' psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills.

Key words: Life skills, sexual behaviour, adolescents, secondary school, gender.

Introduction
Attitudes toward premarital sex among adolescents have become increasingly more permissive in the last three decades (Akindele-Oscar & Ayodele, 2004; Olusakin, & Parmer, 2007; Ogunsanya, 2007; Ayodele, 2011). Research documenting the propensity of sexual permissiveness is well documented in previous research (Meier 2007; Manning, Giordano & Longmore 2006). In a meta-analysis study by Oladeji (2013), he the findings of Grunbaum, Lowry, Kann, & Pateman, (2000) that 34% of early adolescents and 61% late adolescents reported they have had sexual intercourse, and 7% of high school students said they first had intercourse before age 13 (Grunbaum, Lowry, Kann, & Pateman, 2000). Every year, approximately 900,000 females aged 15-19 become pregnant (Henshaw, 2001), and three million adolescents (one in four sexually active teenagers) acquire an Sexually Transmitted Disease (STD) (AGI, 1994). Additionally, Ayodele (2011) found out in his study that 89.3% male and 91.2% female have once had sexual intercourse in the last six month. Out of these, 6.1% male and 28.8% female had experienced attempted forced sex or forced sex. Ogunsanya (2007) in her study of adolescents’ perception of sex symbol, values, risks and misconceptions reported that 77% of girls from co-educational school see abstinences as a forced value and that having sex early makes them discover their identity. 37% of the boys on the other hand perceived sex as love while 40%
of boys believe that a relationship without sex cannot last. Additionally, between 14% and 50% of adolescents had oral sex prior to vaginal sex, and both sexual behaviors are more prevalent than anal sex.

However, various orientations, guidance and counseling services must have existed in one form or another to reduce the rate at which young adults engaged themselves in sexual risk behaviours. Many African countries have also embraced the need for a more formal education process type of guidance and counseling to help adolescents on sexuality issues as a tool of fighting STIs, HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, early marriages and school dropout cases (Songok, Yungungu, & Mulinge, 2013). Teachers thus, play an even more critical role of being sources of accurate information and persons with whom young people can raise sensitive and complicated issues about sexuality. Even after the establishment of the guidance and counselling unit in schools, the wastage of youth as potential resources of our countries is still deeply lamented as majority of them turn to self-destruction through decadent acts. The wastage of youth as potential resources is deeply lamented as majority of them are turning to self-destruction through immoral acts. For example 40 million people in the world are already infected with HIV/AIDS, of this figure 28 million are found in Africa, out of these 60% are within the age range of 16-24 years which is youthful, productive and expected to provide future leaders (Kafu, 2004). Further, some researchers found that increased incidence of adolescents’ sexual behavior as well as the decreased age of sexual debut is a function of several variables such as parents’ socio-economic background and poverty (Ayoodele, Iro-Idoro, & Bello, 2008), adoption of western culture (Ikp 2004; Akinwale 2009), bringing about a change in societal values (Ariyo, 2004); developmental increase in height, size and weight to the high libido (McDowell, 2002; Akindele-oscar & Ayodele, 2004; Ogunsanya, 2007); adolescents’ perception of sex symbol, values, risks and misconceptions (Ogunsanya, 2007).

There is an urgent need, therefore, for life skills training to enhance the physical and mental well-being of young people, especially those that are sexually active. Life skills are abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life. In particular, life skills are a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathize with others, and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner (WHO, 2003). Life skills may be directed toward personal actions or actions toward others, as well as toward actions to change the surrounding environment to make it conducive to health. Life skills are an effective tool for empowering young people to make informed and responsible decisions about their own well-being. Specifically, life skills include cognitive, emotional, interpersonal and social skills to foster.

i. **Self-Awareness**: self-esteem and confidence building, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, goal setting, etc.;

ii. **Self-Management**: anger and stress management, time management, coping skills, controlling

iii. **Social Awareness**: empathy, active listening, coping with stress, recognizing and appreciating individual and group

iv. **Relationships**: negotiation, conflict management, resisting peer pressure, networking, motivation,

v. **Responsible Decision-Making**: Information gathering, critical thinking, evaluating consequences of actions, etc.

Life skills training not only helps minimize high-risk behaviour, it also builds young people’s confidence for engaging in creative problem-solving to overcome the social and economic barriers to self-development.

**Research Rationale**

For more than three decades now, diverse educational programmes/training and series of efforts have been put in place to manage the sexual explosion among Nigerian teenagers, which has also resulted in sporadic increase of sexual transmitted infections (such as HIV/AIDS), unwanted pregnancy, serial abortions and many more. These seem not to have yielded the expected results probably because essential psychological principles of human behavior are not fully fused into the skill training programs for our youths. However, school and guidance counsellors recognize the fact that more creative strategies such as life skill education could be helpful in influencing children value choices. These reasons inspired the idea of this research, that youth may be exposed to life skills education which should assist them to respond constructively in life situations.
Hypotheses
The following hypotheses were raised to guide the study:
1. There is no significant difference in the posttest scores of participants who are exposed to treatments and those who are not (control group)
2. There is no significant gender difference in the posttest scores of participants who are exposed to treatments and those who are not.

Methodology
Research Design: This study adopted a quasi-experimental pretest, posttest, control group research design of 3x2 factorial matrix; this involved three experimental levels (two experimental groups and one control group), and gender (male and female).

Population of the Study: The target population of this study comprises all SS2 students in Remo educational block of Ogun State. This is because they are adolescents and may likely be sexually active or in heterosexual relationships either with their peers or other adults such as their teachers.

Sample and Sampling Procedure: Three coeducational secondary schools were selected through simple random sampling from three different Local Government Areas in the educational block. This was done to cater for the three experimental groups needed. 40 participants consisting of 20 males and 20 females were randomly selected from each of the schools given a total of 120 participants within the age bracket of 14-19 years. The participants who were selected were randomly assigned to three groups (two experimental and one control group). Three experiment groups were formed thus:
1. Life skills training to influence individual participants’ sexual behaviour
2. Life skills training to influence participants’ perception of sexual behaviour in relation to others
3. The control group (discussion on communication skills).

Table 1(a): Treatment Procedure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>X1</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>X2</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>X3</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where 01, 03, 05, are pretests; 02, 04, 06, are posttests, X1 is a Life skills training (self), X2 is Life skills training (others), X3 has no treatment.

Instrumentation: The only instrument for this study was Socio-sexuality Orientation Inventory (EMSOI; Jackson & Kirkpatrick, 2007), comprises 20 self-report items. The EMSOI is composed of three factors; short-term mating orientations (STMO), long-term mating orientations (LTMO), and Previous Sexual Behavior. The STMO scale contains 3 items from the SOI (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991), 4 items from the Interest in Uncommitted Sex Scale (Bailey, Gaulin, Ageyi, & Gladue, 1994), and 3 items created for the purpose of this study specific to LTMO. The STMO scale has a total of 10 items. The LTMO scale contains 7 items created by Jackson and Kirkpatrick (2007) specific to long-term mating. The Previous Sexual Behavior scale contains two items from the SOI and the question regarding lifetime number of sexual partners, known to correlate with the SOI (Ostovich & Sabini, 2004; Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). Internal consistencies of the three scales were evaluated with Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The alphas were as follows: STMO, 95; LTMO, .88; and Previous Sexual Behavior, .83. Participants were asked to respond to attitudinal items using a Likert-type scale (i.e. 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Method of Data Analysis: The statements on the instrument were scored. Participants’ pretest and posttest scores were analyzed using the Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The ANOVA was used to test for any significant difference in the posttest scores of experimental groups when compared with the control group.

Results
The result in Table 2 overleaf presents the mean and standard deviations of participants’ posttest scores of male and female participants based experimental conditions. The post-test mean scores of the students’ socio-
sexuality orientation inventory scores in all the treatment groups except the control group. This result shows that there is a difference in the level of students’ sexual behaviour after they have received life skill education.

Table 1(b) The 9 weeks Treatment Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Content of program in each session</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>Familiarization with life skill program and goal Pre-test using Socio-sexuality Orientation Inventory (EMSOI; Jackson &amp; Kirkpatrick, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Self-development</td>
<td>Identify positive characteristics of participants about sexual self-monitoring, self-evaluation, goal setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>Identify desirable sexual coping skills and change perception in the span life through self-esteem and confidence building,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>Rejected perception and loneliness on others, effective methods of coping with rejection and loneliness, role of self in sensation assertion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Identify unfavorable emotions, effective methods of adjustment with emotions, tolerance of rejection and loneliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Developing and maintaining healthy relationships, effective interpersonal interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Effective skills in handling rejection and loneliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Information gathering, responsible decision-making, evaluating consequences of actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Coping with demands and challenges of everyday life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Development</td>
<td>Review of programs Pre-test using Socio-sexuality Orientation Inventory (EMSOI; Jackson &amp; Kirkpatrick, 2007)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Participants’ pre-test and post-test scores based on gender and experimental condition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Pre-test Mean</th>
<th>Post-test Mean</th>
<th>Post-test Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Grand Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30.288</td>
<td>76.103</td>
<td>76.27</td>
<td>2.359</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29.162</td>
<td>76.444</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.945</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30.505</td>
<td>73.987</td>
<td>74.148</td>
<td>2.881</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31.419</td>
<td>74.308</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.843</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30.003</td>
<td>29.914</td>
<td>29.832</td>
<td>5.562</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29.871</td>
<td>29.750</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.897</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30.265</td>
<td>59.668</td>
<td>60.085</td>
<td>4.447</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30.151</td>
<td>60.501</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.098</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For further analysis of the effect of the treatment (Table 3) showed that the effect of training on the mean score of participants was significant (F = 9.009, df = 2/118, P < 0.011). The hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference in the posttest scores of participants in the treatment groups compared with those in the control group is hereby rejected. This means that the sexual behaviour of participants in the experimental group was improved compared to those in the control group. This implies that the life skills education/training was effective in improving the sexual behaviour of the participants.

Table 3: Summary Table of ANOVA on Dependent Variable (Sexual Behaviour) Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>f-cal</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>13897.919</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2779.584</td>
<td>597.503*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exp. Condition</td>
<td>83.820</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>41.910</td>
<td>9.009*</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>3.765</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.765</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>534.987</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>4.652</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14432.906</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the results further revealed that there was no significant difference in the posttest scores of the experimental groups due to gender disparity. The f-calculated value of .216 obtained was not significant. The
result obtained shows that both male and female participants were both influenced positively with their sexual behaviour through socio-sexual re-orientation of the life skills training. Thus, the hypothesis of no significant gender difference in the posttest scores of participants who are exposed to treatments and those who are not was sustained.

Table 4: Pairwise Comparison of the Differences in Sexual Behaviour Scores of Participants in Treatment Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Group</th>
<th>Exp. Group</th>
<th>(J) Group</th>
<th>Exp. Group</th>
<th>Mean diff. (i-j)</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>Sig (a)</th>
<th>95% confidence interval</th>
<th>Lower bound</th>
<th>Upper bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Treatment 1</td>
<td>Treatment 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.126**</td>
<td>1.001</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>2.055-2.307</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment 2</td>
<td>Treatment 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>44.316*</td>
<td>3.115</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>43.801-44.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment 3</td>
<td>Treatment 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-46.442*</td>
<td>2.897</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>-46.309-46.805</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on estimated marginal means
*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level
** The mean difference is significant at the .01 level
a Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

In order to check for the significant differences among the groups, the Sheffe’s pair wise comparison was carried out. Table 4 shows that all the pair wise comparisons were statistically significant. The experimental group 1 and group 3 evidenced the greatest between-group difference of 46.442, the experimental group 2 and group 3 with a mean difference of 44.316, while experimental group 1 and group 2 show the least between-group difference of 2.126. The greatest improvement, at posttest was recorded by participants in group 1.

Discussion
Results of this study indicated that life skills training had significant impact on participants’ sexual behaviour. This was reflected in the increase in the post-test socio-sexuality orientation inventory scores of participants under the two experimental groups (i.e. Life skills training on self-sexual behaviour, and that of others). The research outcome here is a clear indication that the effectiveness of the training programmes at fostering participants’ positive sexual behaviour could not have occurred by chance; rather due to the teaching of specific skills. The results established the importance of the independent variable in exerting influence on the criterion variable. The finding further confirmed that positive change in behaviour requires a set of skill purposely directed toward such behaviour. Further, the results was consistent with the findings of Botvin, Baker, Dusenbury, Tortu, and Botvin (1990); Botvin and Kantor (2000); Botvin, Griffin, Paul, and Macaulay (2003) who established that life skills program suggests that there are some abilities which help adolescents or children for the promotion of well-being and health.

Also, the results revealed that irrespective of sex, individual participants in the training groups were able to translate the knowledge into action, behave in healthy ways, and given the desire to do so. Both the male and female participants show great improvement in their perception of appropriate values in relation to self and to others as revealed through the posttest scores. This result is in line with Ekanem-Epiken, Ekanem, Okon, and Ategbuu (2004), Dansen (2000), Omoegun, Longe, Ahimie and Agbogidi (2009) that awareness is the first step to changing one’s value system. The finding also supports the previous findings of Adeyemo (1999), Salami (1999), Abosede (2007), and Ayodele (2010) which claimed that gender does not consistently have direct impact on outcome variables such as behavioural change. The pearl of the findings of the present study however, is that life skill education/training is an educational innovation that can help to promote competence, mental wellbeing and moral virtues in young people as they face the realities of life. Thus, the findings add to the literature on life skills education and training.

Implications of the Study
This study has several implications which includes among others the fact that the study have proved that life skills training are effective intervention mechanism in orientating and re-orientating the adolescents on healthy sexual behaviour and not necessarily abstinence. Also, the study has revealed the fact that life skills will equip the youths with adaptive and positive behaviour, which could help individual to adjust and be
productive with the use of appropriate intervention programmes that could help develop their competence skills in dealing effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.

Conclusion and Recommendations
The important point we should take into consideration in the description of the results of this study is that there is a mutual causal relationship between life skills education and adolescents’ sexual behaviour. Therefore, the outcome of the present study calls attention of all and sundry, especially government and policy makers to the need of life skills approach that can potentially change the way youth health promotion is addressed in the country right from primary school. In most Nigerian schools today, much emphasis is often placed on rote and repetitive learning with little attention is on cognitive, emotional, interpersonal and social skills that can foster self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship and responsible decision making.

Since life skills are a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathize with others, and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner, there is need therefore, to integrate in the secondary school curricular.

References


Onabamiro, Ade Adegbenga, Ph.D
Department of Counselling Psychology, Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu Ode, Ogun State, Nigeria.
gonabamiro64@gmail.com Tel: 08032535260

&

Anatsui, Tina C.
Babcock University, Ilishan, Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract
The study analysed five factors as they influence socio-reactivity of adolescents using path model analysis from Regression. The variables include Neuroticism, openness, Agreeableness, conscientiousness and Social Reaction. It made use of two hundred adolescents from four Secondary Schools from two states of the federation namely: Oyo and Ogun States. The subjects responded to NEO five factor inventories to generate the raw data that were subjected to Path-analysis from Regression. The result shows that the model which described the causal effects among the variables are consistent with the observed correlation among the variables. Based on the findings, it was recommended that measures directed at helping the youths should involve the active participation of the family. The implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: Path-Analysis, Openness, Social reaction, Aggressive children, restlessness, adolescents' behaviour, personality, individual

Introduction
Personality research in the past five decades had established that there are five basic dimensions that can be used to describe differences in individual cognitive, affective, and social behaviour; this is the base for the five factor model of personality (Revelle and Lothus, 1992). Costa & McCrae (1992) described the five dimensions in the following order of decreasing robustness based on Neuroticism, extraversion; Openness to experience; agreeableness and conscientiousness. The five-factor model evolved from an analysis of the terms used to describe personality. The lexical hypothesis state that there is enough information in natural language to describe differences in personality, as natural basic characteristic are reflected into language (Goldbery, 1990) The analysis of personality question today measure one or more of the factors (McCrae and John, 1992).

Neuroticism is a measure of affection and emotional control. It explains the tendency to experience negative emotions such as anger, anxiety or depression. It is sometimes referred to as emotional instability. Low levels of neuroticism may indicate emotional stability, but high level of neuroticism increases the likelihood of experiencing negative emotions. Adolescents with high level of neuroticism are reactive and more easily bothered by environmental stimuli. They frequently become unstable, worried, temperamental and sad. Resistant individual however, needs strong stimuli to be provoked (Howard and Howard, 1995). McCrae and John (1992) indicated that the term "neuroticism" does not necessarily refer to any psychiatric defect but a negative affectivity or nervousness. Roberts and Hogan (2001) identified neuroticism along with extraversion/introversion. They explained that individual on the high end of the trait tend to be anxious, become depressed, have poor self concept and experience negative emotions. Lowman (1989) observed that activities can be adversely affected by neuroticism; except to some extent, in certain creative occupations, in which neuroticism may be both expected and, within limits, even enhance performance (Lowman, 1993).
Hudge, Heller, Mount (2002) stated that neuroticism should be conceptualized even more broadly also in cooperating emotional stability and negative emotionality along with other tendencies related to core self-evaluation and such as self esteem generalized self efficacy and locus of control. Norris, Larsen and Cacioppo (2007) noted that neurotism is interlinked with low tolerance for stress or aversive stimuli. Extraversion is another variable considered in this study. It is characterized by positive emotions, surgency and the tendency to seek out stimulations and the company of others, the extraversion-introversion dimension contracts the outgoing character. Howard and Howard (1995) noted that extraverts tend to be more physically and verbally active where as introverts are independent, reserved, steady and like being alone an individual active whereas introverts are independent, reserved steady and like being alone. The middle of the dimension, likes a mix between social situations and solitude. Adolescent who are extraverts are adventurous assertive, frank, sociable and talkative; introverts may be described as quiet, reserved, shy and unsociable (Costa and McCrae 1992). Many authors describe this trait as being important to adjustment and for influencing how one tries to accomplish any task. Caldwell and Birger (1997), Costa and McCrae (1992) reports that facets include warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity excitement seeking and positive emotion. Extraverts enjoy interacting with people and are often perceived as full if energy.

Openness to experience is also considered in this study. It is a measure of depth breath and variability in a person's imaginations and urge for experience. The factor relates to intellect, openness to new ideas, cultural interests, educational aptitude and creativity as well as sensory and cognitive experiences. Adolescents with a high openness to experience have broad interests, they are liberal and like conventional, conservative and prefer familiarity (Howard and Howard, 1995). Adolescents with this trait are likely to focus on practical and avoid imagination. This trait positively correlated with measures of intelligence (Kline, 2000). Costa and McCrae (1992) described the facet of this trait as fantasy; aesthetics feelings, actions, ideas and values. Agreeableness is another variable in this study. This is a tendency to be compationate and cooperative rather than suspicious and support versus competitiveness, hostility, indifference, self-centeredness, spitefulness and jealousy. Costa and McCrae (1995) stressed that agreeable people can be described as altruistic gentle kind, sympathetic and warmth. Adolescents who are high in this fruit are easy to go along with while adolescents low in the trait leave others on edge and wary of direct contact. Agreeable individuals value getting along with others. They are generally considerate, friendly, generous, helpful and willing to compromise their interest with others.

Conscientiousness is a measure of goal directed behaviour and amount of control over impulses. Conscientiousness has been linked to educational achievement and particularly to the will to achieve. The focus adolescent concentrates on a limited number of goals but strives hard to reach them, while the flexible person is more impulsive and easier to persuade from one task to another (Howard and Howard, 1995). The more conscientious a person is, the more competent, (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Of the big five traits, conscientiousness may be regarded as the most important in terms of its influence on the performance and adjustment (Barrick, Mount and Judge, 2001). Conscientiousness influences the way in which we control, regulate, and direct our impulses (1992).

Methodology
The methods used in the study are as highlighted below:

Population and Sample
The sample for the study consisted of 200 adolescents drawn from four Secondary Schools in Oyo and Ogun States of Nigeria. The participants were students in each school studied both males and female. Their age range was 15-20 years.

Instrumentation
The data collection involved the use of NEO five factor inventories by Paul et al. The inventory is a 60-item likert scale format. The researcher administered the instruments to the respondents with the assistance of the class teachers of the schools used for the study. The students were assured of confidentiality of their responses. Two hundred copies of the instrument issued out were returned.
Data Analysis
Data collected were analyzed using Path Analysis from, Regression to answer the research question.

Research Questions
Is the model which describe the casual effects among the variables “the five factors” consistent with the observed correlations among these variables?

Discussions
Table 2 shows the values of the entire hypothesized path coefficients with their corresponding Zero order correlation coefficient found to be meaningful that is greater or equal to 0.05 with its corresponding zero order correlation coefficient significant at 0.05 was retained. Pe2-sig but the path coefficient less than 0.05 P63 and P64 were found not to be significant. The hypothesis causal model five factor variable system showing path and zero order correlation coefficient is presented below. The hypothesized model shown in Fig. 1 is reproduced as Fig 2 with the path and zero-order correlation coefficients written on each paths way (the correlation coefficient in parenthesis) in trimming the path in the model, paths were considered significant at 0.05 alpha level and considered meaningful if the absolute value of the path coefficient is at least 0.05 as recommended by Land (1969). Based on these criteria, the new path model (fig 3) is obtained. 9 out of the 111 paths survived the trimming exercise.
No single factor can explain why an organism behave in certain ways but parents, families and schools are recognized by research to have very significant roles to play in moulding adolescent experiences (Costa and McCrae, 1992; Roberts and Hogan, 2001).

The hypothesized causal model to the five factor variable system showing oath zero order correlation coefficients.

![Figure 2](image1)

Z1 - Extraversion  
Z2 - Neuroticism  
Z3 - Agreeableness  
Z4 - Openness  
Z5 - Conscientiousness  
Z6 - Social reaction

The validated causal Model of the five-factor-variable system showing path and zero order correlation coefficients is presented below

![Figure 3](image2)
Conclusion

There are many reasons other than family, why youths may react in certain and specific ways. Certainly, most adolescents with serious drug use problems have multiple risk factors and few protective factors at work in their lives. Successful intervention programs must recognize this fact, and address all the domains - individual family, school, and community that help to ameliorate risk factors and accentuate the resiliency factors for each individual.

Implications for Counselling and Recommendations

Though no single factor can explain why an individual behave in certain ways but parents, families and schools are recognized by research to have very significant roles to play in moulding adolescent experiences. Young adolescents recognize the family as a very powerful influence on their lives. If family is this powerful an influence, then it follows that measures directed to youth must involve active participation of the family. Many parents are unaware of how their parenting styles and their behaviour influence the adolescents. They need to be counselled in this regard. Using alcohol and other drugs can cause serious health problems. These substances affect the way we think, they slow down reaction time, and they slow down memory recording selection and retrieval. Drugs affect the decisions we make and they disable our capacity to make judgements. Adolescent copy or imitate the parents, they act the way they act, the fewer substances parents use, the fewer the children will use, and the more love and attention and care you give, the stronger the resiliency factors being built in the children. So, family counselling services should focus on these issues.
References


Self-Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence and Achievement Motivation as Predictors of Impulsive Behaviour among Secondary School Students

Agbeniga, Joshua; Ayodele, Kolawole O. Ph.D; Adeoye, Ayodele O. Ph.D & Oyerinde, O. Ph.D
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract
This study investigated the interactive influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation as predictors of impulsive behaviour among secondary school students in Nigeria. This study employed the descriptive research design of ex-post facto type. Three hundred participants selected through the multi-stage stratified random sampling technique, were used for the study. Four main instruments were used in collecting data, they are: General Self-efficacy Scale (GSES), Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), Academic Achievement Motivation Scale (AAMS), and Impulsive Behaviour Scale (IBS). The data collected were analyzed using Multiple Regression Analysis statistical tool. The results indicated that all the predictor variables (self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation) in the regression model, jointly predicted secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour ($R = .487; R^2 = .237; \text{Adj. } R^2 = .233; F_{(3, 271)} = 31.876; p < .05$). This showed that all the predictor variables accounted for 23.3% of the variance in the secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. Also, the most potent predictor of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour among the predictor variables of the study is emotional intelligence ($\beta = .351; t = 7.914; p < .05$). Self-efficacy is the next potent factor ($\beta = .284; t = 5.353; p < .05$), and lastly by achievement motivation ($\beta = .246; t = 3.645; p < .05$) in the prediction of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. Based on the findings, it was recommended among others that appropriate intervention strategies must be designed by the school through the help of school counsellor to enhance emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and academic motivation factors related to students’ behaviours and attitudes.

Keywords: Self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation as predictors of impulsive behaviour

Introduction
Impulsive behaviours can manifest at any stage of human’s life, but adolescent stage is a particular period when volatility and impulsiveness is of the increase. Interestingly, not all teenagers are equally caught up in the tumult of the stormy teens with all the risk taking and apparent dysfunctional and self-destructive behaviour. Not all teens smoke, drink, and use drugs. Not all teen girls get pregnant, and not all teen boys set out on a life of violent criminal behaviour. In Nigeria today, impulsivity is a wide-ranging trait, affecting multiple areas of life, including education (Spinella, 2003). Educational activities which are consequent on academic performance of students should be tailored in a sound personality. In the teenage years, impulsivity can lead adolescent to drive while drunk, get angry, fight, have unprotected sex, or abuse drugs and alcohol. Impulsive adolescent can seem out of control. The teenage brain may be more responsive to environmental stimuli and facilitate impulsivity. According to (Schmitz, & Swann, 2001; Potenza, 2007), they defined Impulsivity as “a predisposition toward rapid, unplanned reactions to internal or external stimuli with diminished regard to the negative consequences of these reactions to the impulsive individual or others”.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has in recent times attracted a lot of significance in the academic literature (Charbonneau & Nicol, 2002; Mabekoje & Ogunyemi, 2008). Emotional intelligence as a form of intelligence has its distal roots traced back to the concept of social intelligence coined by Thorndike (1920). Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, or skill to perceive, assess, and manage the emotions of oneself, those of others and of groups (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The construct has also been described as the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions, relationships, to reason and solve problems (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2002). Emotional Intelligence (EI) have been found to be associated with outcomes such as life satisfaction and social network size and quality (Austin, & Minski, 2003, Fernandez-Berrocal & Ruiz, 2008.). Emotional
intelligence has furthermore been shown by research to predict academic performance and other cognitive outcomes (Berenson, Boyles & Weaver, 2008; Deniz, Tras & Aydogan, 2009).

Another variable that has direct influence on impulsive behaviour is self-efficacy, it is within the field of the social learning theory (Bandura, 2001). Self-efficacy refers to the beliefs people hold about their abilities to perform certain tasks and accomplish specific goals (Bandura, 1986). It is one's self-judgments of personal capabilities to initiate and successfully perform specified tasks at designated levels, expend greater effort, and persevere in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1986), Bandura (1997) presented self-efficacy as a mechanism of behavioural change and self-regulation in his social cognitive theory. It was proposed that efficacy beliefs are powerful predictors of behaviour because they are ultimately self-referent in nature and directed toward specific tasks. The predictive power of efficacy beliefs has been borne out in the research ( Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 1998). From the social-cognitive view, self-efficacy is an important factor that resides within the learner and mediates between cognition, affect, results, and bring out change in academic performance (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992). It is contended that learners who possess high levels of self-efficacy are not intimidated and are challenged by complex assignments and projects, which they see as an opportunity for growth and mastery (Bandura, 1994).

Also, Achievement motivation is seen as a social form of motivation involving a competitive desire to meet standards of excellence (Colman, 2001). Thus, the basis of achievement motivation is achievement motive, i.e. motive to achieve. Achievement motivation is expectancy of finding satisfaction in mastery of difficult and challenging performances where as in the field of education in particular it stands for the pursuit of excellence. Since need for achievement vary from one student to another, it may help in planning activities to know where students stands which students, for instance, have high achievement needs which are low in achievement and which seems primarily motivated by a need to avoid failure. Those who are more highly motivated to achieve are likely to respond well to challenging assignments, strict grading, corrective feedback, new or unusual problems and the chance to try again. The study aims at establishing the predictive influence of the independent variables (self efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on the dependent variable (secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour).

Methodology
This study adopted a descriptive survey design of ex-post-facto type. This survey design was preferred since the researcher cannot control the conditions experienced by the participants. This is so, because the researcher is only interested in determining the influence of the independent variables (self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation) on the dependent variable (secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour).

Population
The target population for this study comprised of all the students in public secondary schools in Ikorodu Local Government Area of Lagos State. There are 56 secondary schools in the local government area comprising of 28 Junior and Senior Secondary Schools respectively

Sample Technique
The sample was selected using multi-stage sampling technique. First, the local government was stratified into 4 educational administrative zones. Secondly, from each of the educational administrative zones, 3 co-educational secondary schools were randomly selected through balloting method in which all the names of all the secondary schools in the selected local government areas were written based on the strata (educational administrative zone) on separate sheet of paper of equal size. These sheets were folded and put into four (4) plastic bowls. After thorough reshuffling, and without looking into the plastic bowls, the researcher picked up three (3) slips each from each of the 4 bowls to get out the twelve (12) participating schools for the study. Third, from each of the 12 participating secondary schools, 25 students each were randomly selected from JS3 and SS3 classes. In all, 300 students participated in this study.
Instrumentation
Four major instruments were used for this study. These were used for obtaining information concerning the variables of the study, which are self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, achievement motivation and students’ impulsive behaviour. Demographic variables measures were taken to determine the participants’ gender, class, and age.

The instruments used to collect data for this study include:

- General Self-efficacy Scale (GSES)
- Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)
- Academic Achievement Motivation Scale (AAMS)
- Impulsive Behaviour Scale (IBS)

General Self-efficacy Scale (GSES): Self-efficacy was measured using the General Self-efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The scale is a 10-item scale that assesses self-efficacy based on personality disposition. Examples of items of the scale include “It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals” and “If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.” The scale was measured on a 4-point Likert scaling model with options ranging from 1= Not at all true, to 4 = Exactly true. The original version of this scale which has been used in numerous research projects yielded internal consistencies ranging between alpha = .75 and .90 (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). The scale is parsimonious, reliable and culture fair. It has also proven valid in terms of convergent and discriminant validity. For example, it correlates positively with self-esteem and optimism and negatively with anxiety, depression and physical symptoms. Higher scores on the self-efficacy scale indicate high self-efficacy. In Nigeria, the instrument has also been used by Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2010), Mabekoje (2010), Ayodele and Iro-Idoro (2012); Adenuga and Ayodele (2012).

Achievement Motivation Scale (AAMS): Achievement Motivation is measured by the Ray Achievement Motivation scale was developed. The scale would appear to be unlike previous scales in that it was developed on general population rather than student samples. Schmalt & Sokolowski (2000) discuss the quality of the different techniques to measure the achievement motive and conclude that all available instruments work reliably. TAT and the grid technique have comparable and widely diversified validity ranges that are related to respondent and operant behaviour. Questionnaires used to diagnose motives seem to be specialized to predict respondent behaviour and conscious experiences (Stein, 2009). Measuring the achievement motive and the (Breaugh & Colihan, 1994; Kleinbeck & Fuhrmann, 2000). These components of achievement motivation measured by the mentioned questionnaires affect the motivation to translate goals into action and as a consequence performance outcome. The items are rated on a scale, ranging from one (does not correspond at all) to seven (corresponds exactly). A high score on the scale indicates high endorsement of academic motivation. AMS has been used among Nigerian subjects and reported valid and not culturally biased (Ayodele, 2008).

Impulsive Behaviour Scale (IBS): Barratt's Impulsiveness Scale (BIS) was used to measure impulsive behaviour. It is a 20-item scale measured on a 4-point likert form. The responses range from rarely never (1) to almost always (4). The extensive use of the BIS is reflected in the more than 500 citations of the 11th revision reported in the literature (Stanford et al., 2009). The BIS has been used in multiple neuropsychiatric populations and Scores on the BIS and neuropsychological tests have also been shown to be more predictive of Borderline Personality disorder and Bulimia Nervosa (Black et al., 2009; Kemps & Wilsdon, 2010). Interestingly, BIS scores were able to add unique predictive variance to psychological tests in the prediction of borderline personality disorders and problem gambling. The reliability index of the questionnaire was a value of .81 Cronbach's Alpha.

Procedure
The respondents were informed that the data collected would be used for research purpose. Out of 300 instruments that were distributed, the researcher was able to collect 281 out of which 275 were adequately filled for data analysis.
Method of Data Analysis
The hypotheses generated to guide the study were tested by the use of Multiple Regression Analysis (to explain the contribution, joint and relative of the independent variables) to the dependent variable at the 0.5 level of significance.

Results
Table 1: Model Summary of the Regression Analysis for the combined influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation to the prediction of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adj. R²</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Change Statistics</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>R² Change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Predictor Variables</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>17.019</td>
<td>.233</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictions: (Constant), Self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, achievement motivation
b. Dependent Variable: Students’ impulsive behaviour

The results in Table 1 indicated that with all the predictor variables (self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation) in the regression model, they jointly predicted secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour (R = .487; R² = .237; Adj. R² = .233; F (3, 271) = 31.876; p < .05). This showed that all the predictor variables accounted for 23.3% of the variance in the secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. This implies that there is a significant joint influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour.

Table 2: Beta coefficients and t ratio for relative contributions of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation to the prediction of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t-ratio</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta (β)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>43.709</td>
<td>8.002</td>
<td>12.312*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-efficacy</td>
<td>.211</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>.041</td>
<td>.246</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at 0.05 level
a. Dependent Variable: Students’ impulsive behaviour

The results in Table 2 revealed the strength of causation of the predictor variable on the criterion variable. The most potent predictor of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour among the predictor variables of the study is emotional intelligence (β = .351; t = 7.914; p < .05). Self-efficacy is the next potent factor (β = .284; t = 5.353; p < .05), and lastly by achievement motivation (β = .246; t = 3.645; p < .05) in the prediction of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. The question of whether or not a significant relative influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour cannot be sustained by this finding. This implies that there is a significant relative contribution of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour, while emotional intelligence was observed as the most potent predictor among the three.

Discussion
The first question stated that “Would there be a significant joint influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour”? The outcome of the analysis indicated that a significant joint influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. This showed that all the predictor
variables accounted for 23.3% of the variance in the secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. The empirical result presented in chapter 4 above, revealed that self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation had significant influence on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. Studies have shown that personal estimates of self-efficacy are really a form of meta-cognition or self-awareness (Wysocki, 2006) and self-efficacy is closely bound up with an individual’s capacity to identify the causes of his or her successes and failure (attribution style) (Tabassam & Grainger, 2002). This finding is well expected as the self-efficacy level of individuals had been found to have positive influence on their behaviour especially in accomplishing a task (Ogunyemi, 2005; Akindele-Oscar, 2006).

This finding confirms the earlier findings which have shown that human behaviour can be influenced by self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Ayodele & Iro-Idoro, 2010). It can be deduced that self-efficacy beliefs play a key role in setting the course of intellectual development and operate as an important contributor of behaviour change, which influence individuals’ thinking faculty. These judgments influence how individual think, motivate themselves and act (Adenuga & Ayodele, 2009). Also, this finding lent credence to past findings which established that emotional intelligence will predict students’ behaviours and attitudes (intrinsic motivation, self discipline and respect for lecturers) was supported by data from this study. Findings from this study reinforce prior evidence linking emotional intelligence with students’ behaviours and attitudes (Salami, 2004; Salami & Ogundokun, 2009; ) by showing the salutary effects of emotional intelligence on students’ attitudes. The second question stated that “Would there be a significant relative influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour”? The results revealed the strength of causation of the predictor variables on the criterion variable. The most potent predictor of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour among the predictor variables of the study was emotional intelligence, followed by self-efficacy, and lastly by achievement motivation. Therefore, the question of no relative influence of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and achievement motivation on secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour was rejected by this finding.

Interestingly, findings indicated that emotional intelligence was the most potent predictor of secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. The reason for this outcome might be as a result of the fact that emotional intelligence is the ability to motivate oneself, to persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one’s moods, to keep distress from interfering with the ability to think, to empathise, to hope, to perform, to be creative. This finding supported the work of emotional intelligence as predictor of violent behaviour among students, the study is in acquiescence to the discovery of Punia and Sangwan (2011) and Bracket et al (2004) who found that people with lower emotional intelligence have the potential of demonstrating violent behaviour, illegal use of drug and alcohol and participation in delinquents behaviour. It therefore follows that students who could not regulate their emotion would react violently to every event of provocation.

Conclusions
Based on the findings of this study, it was found that emotional intelligence is the most potent factor in determining secondary school students’ impulsive behaviour. The finding of this research has also proved the relevance of emotional intelligence in enhancing positive behaviour of individual and among individuals. Emotional intelligence has reported from previous study have shown that the ability, capacity, or skill to perceive, assess, and manage the emotions of oneself, those of others and of groups (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The construct has also been described as the ability to recognize the meanings of emotions, relationships, to reason and solve problems.

Recommendations
Results from this study have implications for counselling practice and assessment. That emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and achievement motivation predicted students’ behaviours and attitudes-intrinsic motivation, self-discipline and respect for lecturers demands that counselling psychologists and lecturers should focus on teaching emotional intelligence as a strategy to develop academic behaviours and attitudes of students in tertiary educational institutions. When students are educated to be emotionally and socially intelligent, their general performance can be improved, while impulsivity could be tamed.
References


Mabekoje, S.O. (2010), EmotionalIntelligence and self regulation among school-going adolescent-self-efficacy as a mediator contemporary humanities 4 (2) 209-222


Social Media Contents and Sexual Attitudinal Dispositions among In-School Adolescents in Ikenne Local Government, Nigeria

Omozusi, Mercy O; MSW & Opadeji, Mariam O; BSW
Department of Social Work, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.
obamercy001@yahoo.com, Tel: +234805129057

Abstract
Of the many forces shaping adolescents, the media is the most underrated. In response to tragedies such as social problems like rising teenage pregnancy rates, murders committed by teenagers the media aren’t often blamed as the source. It is the vicious videos that have drastically increased the sexual desire of adolescents. Sexuality involves complex behaviors determined by multiple factors, among which social media exposure plays a prominent role. Adolescents are active consumers of social media. Social media use has been climbing sharply in recent years, especially in younger populations such as secondary school students. A study of this magnitude is relevant in this era where the media in this digital age seems to put social media in a very influential spot which has the power to increase geometrically as one of the key forces contributing to increasing sexual attitudes of adolescents. The use of descriptive study design was employed, and a self-developed questionnaire titled ‘social media contents and sexual attitudinal disposition (SMCSAD)’ questionnaire was used for data collection. A total number of 300 subjects participated in this research. Result showed that (65.0%) of the total respondents agreed to the statement that the easy access to internet and huge amount of time spent on social media influenced the sexual attitude of adolescents, (82.0%) agreed that adolescents enjoy visiting their social media pages regularly, (58.0%) agreed that messages from various blogs stimulate adolescents to enter into a relationship, (75.0%) agreed that social media (YouTube, Twitter, Instagram, Facebook, etc.) exposes adolescents to sexual contents online and that (62.0%) agreed that sexual attitudes are promoted via the use of pictures posted on blogs to adolescents, also (70.0%) agreed that Facebook has a significant effect on the sexual behaviour of adolescents, (70.0%) agreed that being able to share pictures and videos online instigates sexual attitude in adolescents. It was recommended that adolescent educators and their parents are expected to increase their knowledge of digital technology so that they can have a more educated frame of reference for the tools their parents/clients and families are using.

Key words: Adolescent, Social Media, Social Networking, Microblog, Sexual Attitudes

Introduction
Bridging childhood and adulthood, adolescent is a fundamental and exciting time of life. It describes a colourful and unique spectrum of development that is marked by rapid and extreme biological, social, cognitive and emotional changes. One of the hall marks of adolescent development is the sexual maturation, as pubertal development and hormonal changes result in the development of secondary sexual characteristics. New developments in the technological world have made the internet an innovative way for individuals and families to communicate. Many countries gained open access to the Internet due to rapid advances in information technology within last twenty years (Lenhart, et al 2010). One of the most popular and recognized platforms used on the Internet are social media networking sites such as MySpace and Facebook. Social media can be defined as web-based services that allow individuals to construct a public or semi-public profile within a bounded system, articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system (Boyd and Ellyson, 2007). The quick rise in popularity of social media began in the second half of the last decade partly because of their extensive usage by school and university students (Dwyer et al 2007). Social media are designed to rely on the participation of mass groups of users rather than centrally controlled content providers, aggregate and remix content from multiple sources, and more intensely network users and content together (Berglas, et al, 2011). The first decade of the twenty-first century saw the rapid spread of internet use, and internet use keeps growing by the day. The internet has become an integral component of life for most people in the
industrialized countries, serving all ages for learning, communication, information gathering and entertainment (Lim, Khoo and William, 2003).

Since the launching of Facebook in 2004, internet use has increased, especially among children and adolescents (Bonnie, 2010), and researchers are now turning their attention to the large number of children who have free access to the internet, and to the long hours they spend on it. Does internet use have long-term effects on the development of children and adolescents? On the one hand, the internet affords many opportunities for learning, entertainment; enrichment, and personal growth. Therefore parents have a positive view of its use, and encourage children and adolescent to do so. On the other hand, parents are ambivalent to the internet, as they are aware of the potential risks it carries by exposing uses to negative content such as pornography, violence, commercialism, cyber bullying, unsupervised social relations and privacy and security issues (Mesch, 2003). Parents are concerned about their children's social, cognitive, and psychological development, and worry about possible effects such as increased aggression, anti-social behavior, addiction problems, poor school performance, low self-esteem, and identity confusion. Livingstone (2008) asserted that adolescents are often exposed to sexual scripts and value systems in media that may be contrary to the values and beliefs of their parents. The specific way in which media influences adolescent cognition and development has been theorized to be through identity-based needs which determine which messages are selected for attention, how the information is interactively interpreted and processed, and how the messages are incorporated or omitted in application in daily life. The current tools of teenage communication go by a peculiar set of names. Wall Posts, Status Updates, Activity Feeds, Thumbs Ups, and Profiles are some of the ways that adolescents today communicate with one another. These tools are features of Social Network Sites (SNS), such as Facebook and Myspace. SNS are part of a suite of Web applications, also called social media, which utilize Web 2.0 principles.

The term Web 2.0 defines websites that are designed to rely on the participation of mass groups of users rather than centrally controlled content providers, aggregate and remix content from multiple sources, and more intensely network users and content together. Adolescents use social media in large numbers. That adolescents are connected to these global online communities is both a frightening prospect for parents and educators and an intriguing area for social science research. Educators and parents face difficult quandaries concerning students and social media. Many scholars suggest that students learn in new ways using social media and that educators should embrace these new platforms (Kling 2007). Nevertheless, most school districts block access to social media, while parents remain fearful about safety and effects on their children’s social development (Lemke, et al., 2009). Adolescents are a unique population of social media users. They are among the first to have grown up entirely surrounded by communication technologies. Adolescents are also in a period of rapid development, growth, and maturation. Adolescents use social media in large numbers; for adolescents to be connected to these global online communities is both a frightening prospect for parents and educators and an intriguing area for social science research.

**Research Questions**

These questions below will aid in the analyzing the relationship between exposure to uncensored social media contents and sexual attitudinal disposition of in-school adolescent in a rural community of Ikenne LG Nigeria.

1. What is the relationship between exposure to unrestricted blogging and sexual attitudes of in-school adolescent in Ikenne LG Nigeria?

2. What are the factors contributing to the exposure to unrestricted social media contents among in-school adolescent in Ikenne LG Nigeria.

3. What is the significant influence of exposure to uncensored social media pictures and videos on sexual attitudinal disposition of in-school adolescent in Ikenne LG Nigeria?

**Research Hypotheses**

The research hypotheses of this study would stand to be a tentative explanation or assumption for a phenomenon, used as a basis for further investigation or account for a set of facts, taken for the purpose of investigation and testing. For the reason of this work the research hypotheses attached to it looking at its significance and the objective of the research work are stated.

1. Adolescent exposed to uncensored social media contents are most likely to develop sexual attitudinal disposition that puts them at risk of sexual risky behavior.
2. Sexual attitudes of in-school adolescent in Ikenne LG Nigeria can be related to exposure to unrestricted blogging.
3. Exposure to uncensored social media pictures and videos can influence sexual attitudinal disposition of in-school adolescent in Ikenne LG Nigeria.

Scope of Study
This research work was centered on investigating the relationship between social media contents and sexual attitudinal disposition among school adolescent in a rural community of Ikenne L.G. Ogun State. The object of this study was two selected secondary schools (Babcock University High School and Mayflower Secondary School).

Research Design
The research design is the framework of research plan of action; it is an outline that serves as a guide to the researcher in generating data for his study (Obadiah, 2007). A survey research design seeks to obtain information that describes existing phenomenon by asking individual about their perceptions, attitudes and values (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). This design was adopted for this study because it intensively described and analyzed the effect of social media on adolescent sexual attitudes. The survey research design was employed in this research work to collate the data required for analysis while the descriptive statistics was used to present the data obtained through the use of frequency tables and percentages. The survey research design and descriptive statistics were employed in this study to analyze the responses and draw conclusions on the perceptions of valid respondents.

Population
The students of selected secondary schools in Ikenne Local Government constituted the population of this study. The population of study were the students of Babcock University High school, Mayflower Secondary School respectively. Students were selected from JSS1 to SS3.

Sample and Sampling Technique
Stratified random sampling techniques was used for this research work, (A stratified random sample is a random sample in which members of the population are first divided into strata, and then are randomly selected to be a part of the sample), (Baridam, 2008). It is a method of sampling that involves the division of a population into smaller groups known as strata. In stratified random sampling, the strata are formed based on members’ shared attributes or characteristics. The respondent of the study was categorized into senior classes and junior classes. Through the aid Yamane formula, a total of three hundred and fifty eight (358) students from the selected schools were selected as the sample size as stated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Babcock Junior</td>
<td>n₁</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babcock Senior</td>
<td>n₂</td>
<td>656</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayflower Junior</td>
<td>n₃</td>
<td>1,045</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayflower Senior</td>
<td>n₄</td>
<td>1,372</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,718</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Schools’ register

Procedure: The primary source of data was employed as the main mode of collating relevant data needed for the research work the sample size. Data collection method took place in only one step which involved filling out the questionnaire. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to J.S.S1 -S.S3 Babcock University High School Students and Mayflower Secondary School Student. The researcher was present after the students finished a specific class and was introduced to the students by the teacher and the questionnaire was further explained and was distributed and the researcher was available to guild the students in order to fill the questionnaire, it was totally voluntary and the information gotten was treated with utmost confidentiality. 300 (83.8%) respondents returned the questionnaires while 58 (16.2%) questionnaires were unreturned.

Data analysis
After the collection of filled questionnaires from the respondents, coding will be done and code manual will be generated from this to attach quantity to the various ticked options. The data generated from the code manual will then be analyzed through the frequency and simple percent analysis method. Frequency and
simple percent was chosen as analysis method because we were trying to measure the impact of one variable on the other. For easy analysis, a computer software known as SPSS (Statistical packages for Social Sciences) was applied for standard calculation.

Results

Table 1: Personal Information of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15-16yrs</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>12-14yrs</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>9-11yrs</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Moslem</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>SS1-SS3</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>JSS1-JSS3</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the gender classification of respondents, 180 (60.0) were male respondents, while 120 (40.0) depicts female respondents involved in the study, from the above table, 45 (15.0%) are between ages 15 - 16 years, 171 (57.0%) are between ages 12-14 years, while 84 respondents representing 28.0% are between ages 9 - 11years. The above table depicts that 219 (73.0%) were Christians, 81 (27.0%) are Muslims. The above table shows that 45 (15.0%) respondents are inSS3, 24(8.0%) SS2, 99 (33.3%) SS1, 48 (16.0%) JSS3, 33 (11.0%) JSS2 while 51 (17.0%) JSS1.

Research Question 1: Adolescent exposed to uncensored social media contents are most likely to develop sexual attitudinal disposition that puts them at risk of sexual risky behaviour.

Table 2: Adolescent are prone to learn sexual risky behaviours on the social media.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above 96 respondents (32.0%) strongly agreed that adolescent are prone to learn sexual risky behaviours on the social media, 129 (43.0%) agreed, 36 (12.0%) disagreed and 39 (13.0%) strongly disagreed.

Table 3: Facebook has a significant effect on the sexual behaviour of adolescents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above 78 respondents (26.0%) strongly agreed that Facebooks has a significant effect on the sexual behaviour of adolescents, 132 (44.0%) agreed, 60 (20.0%) disagreed and 30 (10.0%) strongly disagreed.

From the table 4 overleaf, 90 respondents (30.0%) strongly agreed that most subjects or topics on social media are always related to sexual behaviours, 57 (19.0%) agreed, 102 (34.0%) disagreed and 51 (17.1%) strongly disagreed.
Table 4: Most subjects or topics on social media are always related to sexual behaviours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Question 2:** Sexual attitudes of in-school adolescent can be related to exposure to unrestricted blogging

Table 5: Sexual attitudes are promoted via the use of pictures posted on blogs to adolescents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above 54 respondents (18.0%) strongly agreed that sexual attitudes are promoted via the use of pictures posted on blogs to adolescents, 132 (44.0%) agreed, 69 (23.0%) disagreed and 45 (15.0%) strongly disagreed.

**Research Question 3:** Exposure to uncensored social media pictures and videos can influence sexual attitudinal disposition of in-school adolescent

Table 6: Being able to share pictures and videos online instigates sexual attitude in adolescents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above 72 respondents (24.0%) strongly agreed that being able to share pictures and videos online instigates sexual attitude in adolescents, 138 (46.0%) agreed, 42 (14.0%) disagreed and 48 (16.0%) strongly disagreed.

**Data analysis**

This section is devoted to empirical statistical analysis and test of research hypothesis. In testing the hypothesis, a model depicting the functional link between social media and adolescent sexual attitudes is specified. The postulated model is embedded on the assumption that social media exerts a relationship and significant impact on adolescent sexual attitudes. Thus, a functional relationship between social media and adolescent sexual attitudes is hypothesized. Adolescent sexual attitudes (Y) serves as the explained variables, and social media (X) is used as the explanatory variable.

The estimated model of the hypothesized functional relationship between social media and adolescent sexual attitudes is:

\[ Y = 5.738 + 0.552X \]

The intercept of our regression result portraits a positive sign which can be deduced that adolescent will be having a positive sexual attitudes of 573.8%, if the social media is not available or widely used. From the result, it will be asserted that if adolescent embarked on 1% increase in social media, it will bring about an increase of 55.2% in their sexual attitudes.

The correlation matrix shows that the correlation coefficient is (R) 0.861. This implies that, on the average, a strong positive correlation (relationship) exists between the social media and adolescent sexual attitudes.

Testing at 5% level of significant and 299 degree of freedom i.e. \( t_{299,0.05} \)
Model 1

Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.861</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td>.524</td>
<td>.20582</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model R = .861

R Square = .753

Adjusted R Square = .524

Std. Error of the Estimate = .20582

a. Predictors: (Constant), X

Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>5.738</td>
<td>.622</td>
<td>8.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>.552</td>
<td>.281</td>
<td>.707</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Y

Source: SPSS

Decision rule

With respect to the explanatory variable, if:
- \( T_{cal} > T_{tab} \), it is statistically significant, thus, \( H_1 \) should be accepted, and \( H_0 \) should be rejected.
- \( T_{cal} < T_{tab} \), it is statistically not significant, thus, \( H_1 \) should be rejected and \( H_0 \) should be accepted.

The evaluation of the t-stat is shown in the table below:

T-statistics evaluation

Coefficient: \( \beta_1 \)

\[ \frac{t_{cal}}{t_{tab}} < \text{ or } > \]

T_{299} \text{ 0.05} = 1.665

7.242 < 1.665

Sources:
Regression output and T distribution table.

Decision

From the above, based on the data used, it is clearly shown that social media (\( \beta_1 \)) individually exert a statistical significant impact on the adolescent sexual attitudes. Based on the above explanatory variables and their slope coefficient, we therefore conclude that adolescents exposed to uncensored social media contents are most likely to develop sexual attitudinal disposition that puts them at risk, with this, we accept the alternative hypothesis (\( H_1 \)), and reject the null hypothesis (\( H_0 \)).

The Model Explanatory Power

The coefficient of multiple determination (\( R^2 = 0.753 \)) implies that the model exhibited moderate explanatory power, and is partially of a good fit. That is, within the context of the model, only 75.3% of total variations in the adolescent sexual attitudes are explained by the social media, and about 24.7% unexplained by the social media, and about 24.7% unexplained variations can be attributed to other factors outside our model which may include the baseness of the respondent.

Discussion of Findings

Lenhart et al (2010) presented that many countries gained open access to the Internet due to rapid advances in information technology within the last twenty years and thus this is in line with my findings that 195 respondents representing (65.0%) of the total respondents agreed to the statement that the easy access to internet and huge amount of time spent on social media influenced the sexual attitude of adolescents. Pempek, Yermolayeva, and Calvert (2009) asserted that the amount of time spent daily on social network sites varied greatly this correlates with my result of the descriptive statistics employed in the study which presented that 246 respondents (82.0%) agreed that adolescents enjoy visiting their social media pages regularly. Baker and
Oswald (2010) in a study looking at the association between online social media and friendship quality of shy individuals, results indicated that online social networks provided a comfortable environment in which individuals could interact with others; this supports my findings that 174 respondents (58.0%) agreed that messages from various blogs stimulate adolescents to enter into a relationship. Tufekci (2008) asserted that using social media becomes a risk to adolescents more often than adults realize and the risks are peer to peer, inappropriate content, lack of understanding of online-privacy issues and outside influence of third party, it correlates which my findings of this study that 201 respondents (67.0%) agreed that peer pressure contributes to the use of social media, 225 respondents (75.0%) agreed that social media (You tube, Twitter, Instagram, Facebook etc.) exposes adolescents to sexual contents online and that 186 respondents (62.0%) agreed that sexual attitudes are promoted via the use of pictures posted on blogs to adolescents. News1 (2012) stated that Facebook is the world’s largest, with more than a billion users and Baker and Oswald (2010) also noted that Facebook usage can be viewed as a comfortable environmental tool which strengthens social relations which correlates to the findings that 210 respondents (70.0%) agreed that Facebooks has a significant effect on the sexual behaviour of adolescents. A recent survey by American Academy of Pediatrics (2009) revealed that 20% of teens have sent or posted nude or seminude photographs or video of themselves, this supports the findings that 210 respondents (70.0%) agreed that being able to share pictures and videos online instigates sexual attitude in adolescents.

**Conclusion and recommendations**

This study makes an important contribution in understanding students’ use of social media its effect to adolescent sexual attitudes. Increased access to the Internet by adolescents has created unprecedented opportunities for sexual education, learning, and growth. Conversely, the risk of harm that is evident in the literature has led researchers to investigate adolescent exposure to online pornography in an effort to elucidate these relationships. Higher levels of permissive sexual attitudes, sexual preoccupation, and earlier sexual experimentation have been correlated with more frequent consumption of sex videos or pictures via social media. This research work concluded that strong positive relationship exists between the social media and adolescent sexual attitudes.

Centered on the result of this study that examines how adolescent sexual attitudes are affected by social media, the following recommendations have been made:

- Adolescent educators should assist parents in child internet access through these discussing with parents the importance of supervising online activities via active participation and communication as opposed to remote monitoring with a “net-nanny” programme to monitor the internet in the absence of parents.
- Teachers should discuss with parent the need for a family online-use plan that involves regular family meetings to discuss online topics and checks of privacy settings and online profiles for inappropriate posts. The emphasis should be on citizenship and healthy behaviour and not punitive action unless truly warranted.
- Parents should talk to their children and adolescents about their online use and the specific issues that today’s online kids face and on their own participation gap in their homes by becoming better educated about the many technologies youngsters are using.
- Adolescent educators are expected to increase their knowledge of digital technology so that they can have a more educated frame of reference for the tools their parents/clients and families are using.

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Alienation and Loneliness in Ayi Kwei Armah’s Why are we so blest?

Olu-Osayomi Olusegun; Ph.D
Department of Languages and Literary Studies, Babcock University,
Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State
Email: segunoosa@gmail.com Tel: 08034550610

Abstract
Post colonial literature focuses on the experience and literary production of a people whose history has been characterized by extreme political, social and psychological oppression. The entire corpus of African literature one way or the other addresses various problems that have arisen due to the subjection to political domination by another or other populations. Consequently, post colonial disillusionment and frustrations are subjects that have preoccupied many African writers and are thus extended in Ayi Kwei Armah’s Why Are We So Blest? The paper uses the tool of post colonial discourse to examine Why Are We So Blest? With the purpose of revealing that the behaviour of Modin, in the United States, which is often cautious, indifferent, fanatical or perverse, is mainly conditioned by the pressure exerted on him by outside society. In this paper we examine Ayi Kwei Armah’s Why Are We So Blest? With the purpose of revealing the predicaments of the central character in the Western world, which stultifies the quest for the dignity and success of the expatriate character. The paper purports the existence of this type of situation the African expatriate characters experience in several foreign cultures as a consequence of alienation and loneliness. It proceeds to demonstrate how Why Are We So Blest? Correctly encapsulates this disgraceful situation in the white man’s world, but advocates for a change in all ramifications of individual and corporate life of Africans in foreign societies.

Introduction
I shall be concerned in this essay with identifying what I may describe as the alienation and loneliness in Why Are We So Blest? Written by Ayi Kwei Armah, a novel that deal with the post-colonial experience. The present contribution is not a technical or an out – and – out theoretical analysis of the novel on which the study is based, but an attempt to point out the loneliness of the central character in Western world that I believe will appear to the general reader as interesting. My preoccupation here differs not only from those earlier scholars but also of those of more recent writers respectively, even though the “political” dimension of many of these studies also recurs in my analysis. It must be remarked in this regard that since “politics”, colonialism and political development in Africa has been a potent factor in or an important determinant of African creative writing, reference to it in literary works and therefore in my analysis seems inevitable.

Some readers will probably question the basis of my choice of novel. I have many reasons, but the two most important are: (i) the immediate availability of the novel (ii) the novel is a “classic” and is invariably mentioned in anthologies or in one or another of the many courses on Negro – African English or English literature of African universities, or features in academic research.

The Analysis: Alienation and Loneliness
The complex nature of problems or tensions involved in cultural contacts is cogently expressed for example, by Aime Cesaire:

They demand of us: “choose”... choose between loyalty and with it backwardness or progress and rupture”. Our reply is that there is no alternative. That life does not accept this alternative... for our part and for that of our particular societies we believe that in the African culture to come or in the para-African culture to come, there will be many new elements, modern elements, elements if you like borrowed from Europe. But we believe also that there will survive in that culture many traditional elements (quoted in Jahn, 1961: 227).
Many expatriate characters such as Obi Okonkwo (Achebe, No Longer at Ease), Dele (Omotoso, The Edifice), Samba Diallo (Kane, Ambiguous Adventure), or Baako (Armah, Fragments) according to Losambe (1987:2) do show admiration and enthusiasm for the Western world before their journey into its heart. However, their shocks at the outset of their sojourn there tend to show that their early enthusiasm (mainly conditioned by the physical or technological aspect of the Western civilization rather than its spiritual, social, human values) is a result of their immaturity.

In Why Are We So Blest? the pressure exerted by the outside society on Modin is made by (1) the Western educational system which aims at training the African elite, “factors or worms and slugs,” that are to help promote the white men’s destruction of Africans; (2) the alien social structure based on individualistic families as opposed to the African communal life and especially the system of extended family; (3) the alien capitalist economic structure with emphasis on maximizing profit at the expense of the badly exploited working class; (4) the sterile love between black and white; and (5) the inevitable isolation to which Africans are liable in the white man’s world. On his arrival in the United States, Modin Dofu’s imagination is alert on the same problems. His thought is still tied with what the whites did to his people. The memories of Christiansborg castle and the black “factors” who sent their brothers for destruction in the hands of the whites are still fresh in his mind and seem to condition his behaviour. As he says:

_I imagined going away would make me think of things to come in my future, but it is the past that fills my mind ... The sights of the past come under their own power before me ... Every journey in this way becomes a return, another visit into myself (Why Are We So Blest, 1974:75)._

Moreover, Modin’s contact with Naita, a black American woman, at the outset serves as a catharsis or a strong reminder of these memories; and it must be regarded as a warning signal appealing to him to be careful in his relationship with the whites during his stay in America. And the sexual intercourse he has with Naita, Modin’s first and only pure sexual contact in America, is like a prophetic message predicting that it is by sex that Modin will betray his people and be destroyed. If he is to remain strong, uncorrupted and loyal to his people, Modin must preserve this pure love and sexual relationship with Naita, as he must also resist attempts by the American bourgeoisie and imperialism to maliciously prepare him to become their “factor” on his return home. Naita warns him:

_You have no business trusting any one of them (whites). Listen, if you can use them, good luck to you, but don’t get involved. There’s nothing like friendship possible between us and them. You get involved with them, you’re just dumb, that’s all. They’ll mess you up (Why Are We So Blest?, 1974:123)_

In fact, from the beginning Naita appears as a good refuge, a source of wisdom and comfort to Modin in the U.S.A. For example, after he has been shaken by the loneliness which he has experienced at a meeting with Mr. Oppenhardt and Professor Jefferson who have tried to convince him that he is “unique”, the only intelligent person among his friends back home, he finds happiness and joy as he comes to see Naita in New York. He says to Naita: “I cannot feel lonely any more.”

Modin’s resistance in the beginning, however, is only an ephemeral thing. Now he can refuse to receive Mr Oppenhardt’s scholarship which, in Modin’s mind, represents the money paid to slave “Factors”; he can realize that the western education is nothing but a malicious attempt by the white imperialists to kill him spiritually, separate him from his people, and make him take part in the “ritual of celebrating a tradition called great because it is European, western, white”: and he can feel that:

_Participation in this kind of ritual made me not just lonely, not just one person unsupported by a larger whole, but less than one person: a person split, fractured because of my participation in alien communal rituals designed to break me and my kind (Why Are We So Blest?, 1974:31-32)._

However, Modin appears unable to resist the temptations of the sexual intercourse with the white women, the act regarded as fatal by Armah. In his subsequent moments of loneliness according to Losambe (1987) Modin literally ignores Naita’s warning and gets himself involved in dangerous relationships with white women. He is seen, for instance, being easily seduced and carried away by Mrs. Jefferson, who is dissatisfied with her
husband’s sexual performance and who has found in Modin an easy means of satisfying her sexual appetite. This relationship between Modin and Mrs Jefferson constitutes the first step in the destructive process which he goes through in the hands of the white men in their own world. Modin is partially destroyed physically by Professor Jefferson who almost stabs him to death when he catches Modin on his wife. However, this partial destruction he undergoes after his love affairs with Mrs Jefferson is not an effective lesson for Modin, because he soon goes around with other white women such as Sandra. But after his ephemeral relationship with the latter, Modin seems to become conscious of his responsibility vis-à-vis his people and himself, as he promises to heed Naita’s advice: “I must contain my loneliness while I’m here” (Why Are We So Blest?, 1974:157).

However, Modin’s pledge to contain loneliness is only illusory as he soon gets involved with Almee Reitsch, the American girl he meets in a Psychology laboratory at Harvard University. This girl who has never reached orgasm before her sexual-intercourse with Modin, will escort him to his final destruction at the hands of the white men (French soldiers) when both fly away to Africa in search of the Congherian revolutionary movement in exile in Afresia. As the love between Aimee and Modin is comparable in nature to that between him and Mrs. Jefferson (both get tired of Modin because of his ability to satisfy their sexual needs), one virtually sees in Aimee the germ of Modin’s final destruction as Mrs. Jefferson was the germ that led to Modin’s first step towards destruction. Indeed, as Robert Fraser has maintained: “The Dofu we meet in the American sequences seems … a vain, vacillating youth playing out extravagant adventures because they are there, rather than in any joyful sense of self-discovery” (1978:41). Thus, Modin’s trauma in America and Afresia seems to stem from his strong ties with his people’s tradition and his inability to endure loneliness in a world which he believes cannot love him genuinely. Although Solo, another black character in the novel gets involved with a white girl, Sylvia in Portugal, he does not lose his ties with his people at home. As he says: “I was not among these countrymen of mine who had found in Portugal and in Europe a final home to their spirits” (Why Are We So Blest?, 1974:68). Like Dele in The Edifice, Solo also experiences racial discrimination in Portugal. Sylvia’s countrymen are, for example, seen to be strongly opposing her involvement with Solo on racial grounds. However, though painful on Solo’s part, the breakdown of his love affair with Sylvia saves him from undergoing Modin’s ordeal and tragedy. Thus if the motive of their separation is bad in essence, the separation itself is salutary as it preserves Solo’s life and his ties with his African people.

Just as Britain has been the “locus of many anglo-phone African novels of expatriation, so has France also been the western setting of many francophone African novels of expatriation. And just as Britain and America have repulsed Africans from their societies with their excessive individualism, materialism, racism, cold weather and decaying morality, so has France also been very un-accommodating to Africans. This can be seen in Ambiguous Adventure and A Few Nights and Days. Coming open-mindedly to the western world, most of the African expatriates get disillusioned as they are at the outset hit by its nasty weather, negative racistist attitude, declining morality and rigid social structure. Unlike the African society which, after the first resistance, has mostly shown itself accommodating to the white men, the western society has remained in general conservative, intolerant, and malicious to African. Whereas Clarence in The Radiance of the King, for example, is well helped and accepted in the African society, almost all the black characters in the African novels of expatriation are helplessly abandoned in the western world.

Thus, to conclude, the literary text demonstrates and portrays alienation and loneliness of these African characters in the western world which reflects the realities of the continent in our time. However, most of these African characters find their way out of these frustrations by turning their loneliness into a valuable occasion for pondering on social, political and economic conditions of their countries. Their loneliness in the West thus ironically becomes the source of nationalism, and is therefore beneficial to Africa, though most of their ideals end in failure when they return home. This is in fact the reason why most of them quickly revise their attitude towards Europe, and resort to a psychological reunion with their people at home as they ponder on how to solve their people’s problems, how to get them out of the mess in which the West has put them (Losambe, 1987:6). To Soyinka, African literature should continue to be:

Engaged in what should be the simultaneous act of eliciting from history, mythology and literature, for the benefit of both genuine aliens and alienated Africans, a continuing process of self-apprehension whose temporary dislocation appears to have persuaded many of its non-existence or its relevance. (quoted in Nnolim, 2010:180).
References

Peer, Parental and Pro-Tobacco Advertisement Influences as Correlates of Cigarette Use Among Secondary School Adolescents in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Yomi Akindele-Oscar; Ph.D
Faculty of Education
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria
e-mail: yommyoscar@gmail.com

Abstract
This study examined the combine and relative effects of Peers, Parental and Pro-tobacco advertisement on secondary school adolescents’ cigarette use. It made use of simple random sampling technique in selecting 500 secondary school adolescents for the study. The ex-post-facto research design was employed. A 15-item self-developed questionnaire with three subscales on peers, parental and pro-tobacco advertisement, and cigarette smoking rate questionnaire were used in generating data for the study. Data analysis involved the use of multiple regression procedure. The results indicated that the three independent variables were jointly effective in predicting adolescent cigarette use. Each of the variables also contributed significantly to the prediction of adolescent cigarette use. Based on the findings, it was suggested that adolescents should be exposed to intervention programmes that would enable them withstand Peer, Parental and Pro-tobacco advertisement pressure that predispose them to cigarette use.

Keywords: Peers, Parental, Pro-tobacco Advertisement, Cigarette Use, Adolescents.

Introduction
The adolescent years have been a documented topic of societal concern for centuries. Plato characterized the adolescent of his era as argumentative and easily excitable, while Aristotle found them impulsive, prone to excess and exaggeration, and lacking self restraint. For centuries, the case of adolescence from puberty to early adulthood has been viewed as risky and problematic. Globally, cigarette smoking among adolescents is one of the major issues in Public health discourse (Abdullah & Husten (2004); Reda, Moges, Yazew & Biadgilign, 2012). The World Health Organization (WHO) attributes more than 4 millions death a year to tobacco and this figure is expected to increase to 10 million deaths a year by 2020. Moreover, it is a growing public health concern in the developing world. In India, tobacco use by adolescents is estimated to cause 800,000 deaths annually (Gupta, 1999; Gupta, Gupta, & Khedar, 2013). In Egypt and Nigeria, it is not illegal to use and purchase tobacco products regardless of age. This makes the study very contemporary because secondary school students constitute more than one third of the population in Nigeria (Action Health Incorporated, 2003). The secondary school adolescents are the potential leaders of tomorrow and the nation’s human capital, their well being (health) will necessarily affect their ability to produce the manpower Nigeria as a nation can boast of in the future. Unfortunately, substantial and steady increases in cigarette smoking have been observed among adolescents in Nigeria (Adebowale, 2007).

When secondary school adolescents use cigarettes, the costs to society and individual can be extremely high economically, health wise and socially. For example, the increase risk of dying of cardiovascular disease; nicotine addiction; many types of cancer; and Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary disease (Gupta, etal, 2013; Tosh & Simons, 2007). Also, previous researches has linked tobacco use to :other health related risky behavior; motor vehicle accidents; dental problems; alcohol consumption; asthma; chronic cough; illicit drug use; pre-marital sex; and truancy in school (Centre for Disease Control, 2013; Gaziano, Button, Ann & Abraham - Gessels, 2010; Gilliland, etal 2006; Myers & Kelly, 2006; Tosh & Simmons, 2007). In the developed world like Japan, Canada, Australia, and the USA conventional cigarettes smoking by adolescents decreased substantially between 2000-2011 perhaps due to ban on the selling of all tobacco products to people under the age of 18 (US Department of Health, 2012). However, recent researches have indicated upward
cigarette usage by adolescents. For example in 2012, 6.7% of middle school and 23.3% high school students used tobacco products including cigarettes. From 2011-2012, electronic cigarette use doubled among middle and high school students (CDC, 2013). In South and Southeast Asia, cigarette smoking among adolescents is increasing (Gaziano, eal, 2010). By 2015, tobacco use is projected to cause 50% more deaths than AIDS (Peto & Lopez, 2001). By 2030, the World Health Organisation (WHO) forecasts that 10 million people a year will die of smoking related illness, making it the single biggest cause of death worldwide, with the largest increase to be among women. WHO forecasts the 21st Century's death rate from smoking to be ten times the 20th century's rate ("Washingtonian" Magazine, December, 2007). Therefore, knowledge of smoking among secondary school adolescents is important in estimating the enormity of the problem and facilitates evaluation of public health interventions, as change in prevalence over time can be assessed. However, prevalence alone without information on the predictors of cigarette smoking will fail to provide further indicators that may be useful in targeted-interventions given the scarcity of public health resources. This study thus aimed to identify some of these factors that are associated with cigarette smoking.

The pertinent issue therefore is what is it that is sustaining or reinforcing the use of cigarette among secondary school adolescents despite the awareness of the potential dangers it constitutes to healthy living? The purpose of the present study was to look at the role factors such as peer influence, parental influence, and pro-tobacco advertisement, play in the use of cigarettes among secondary school adolescents. Adolescents use cigarette because their friends smoke (Slziya, Jamilson, Muila Graham & Rudatsikira, 2010). Similar finding was made by Kritjanson, et al (2008) when they confirmed that perceived peer support is positively correlated with adolescent smoking. However, one study found that direct pressure to smoke cigarettes did not play a significant part in adolescent smoking. In that study, adolescents also reported low level of both normative and direct pressure to smoke cigarettes (Urberg, Shyu, & Liang, 1990). Also, findings suggest a greater complexity in the peer context of smoking than previously recognized (Ennet, et al, 2008). The impacts of parent on the lives of their children cannot be under estimated, while some are good models for their children, the reverse is the case in some instances. Aldridge, et al (2008) and Sarah, et al (2007) confirmed that mother cigarette smoking was more strongly associated with cigarette smoking by daughters. In a study done by Kristjansson, Sigfusdottir, James, Allegrante & Helgason (2010), perceived parental reaction to use may be important contributor to adolescent cigarette smoking.

Children of smoking parents are more likely to smoke than children with non-smoking parents. Chassin, Presson, Rose, Sherman & Prost (2002) found that parental smoking cessation was associated with less adolescent smoking except when the other parent currently smoked. A study tested the relation of adolescent smoking to rules regulating where adults are allowed to smoke in the home. Results showed that restrictive home smoking policies were associated with lower likelihood of trying smoking for both middle and high school students. Also, parents who are permissive about discipline and who do not enforce a standard or any rules are even more likely to end up with children who smoke regularly.

Another variable whose impact on adolescent smoking behavior is investigated is pro-tobacco and cigarette advertisement. Cigarettes are marketed via advertisements, product placement in movies and other media, sporting events, cigar-friendly magazines, and cigar dinners. Advertisements often include depictions of affluence, sexual imagery and explicit or implied celebrity endorsement. Weiss, et al (2006) confirmed that recall of people smoking in television programmes and pro-tobacco advertisement in stores was associated with adolescent smoking susceptibility. Also, longitudinal studies consistently suggest that exposure to tobacco advertising and promotion is associated with the likelihood that adolescent will start to smoke (Lovato, Watts, & Stead, 2011).

The purpose of the present study is to examine the combine and relative effect of peers, parents and pro-tobacco advertisements influences on secondary school adolescents’ tobacco use. To achieve these objectives, the following research questions have been posed and answered in the study.

1. What was the joint effect of peer, parental, and pro-tobacco advertisement on secondary school adolescent tobacco use?
2. What was the relative effect of peer, parental and pro-tobacco advertisement influences on secondary school adolescent tobacco use?
Methodology

Research Design
The study is an ex-post-facto research design. It is an after fact study which does not involve the manipulation of any variable. The important thing was to ascertain the effect of the independent variables (peers, parental, and pro-tobacco advertisement) on the dependent variable (secondary school adolescent tobacco use) without manipulating either of them.

Participants
The participants in the study were five hundred secondary school adolescents, randomly selected from twenty secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria. They were all in senior secondary school classes and their age ranged between thirteen and twenty years with a calculated mean age of 14.7 years and S.D of 22. Of the total sample, three hundred and twenty of them were boys while the remaining one hundred and eighty were girls.

Instrumentation
A questionnaire tagged "Predictors of Secondary School Adolescent Tobacco Use (PSSATU), self-developed by the researcher was used to collect data for the study. The 15-item survey instrument has three sections, namely: peers influence, parental influence and pro-tobacco advertisement influence. The peers influence sub-scale has five items. An example of the items included here reads: "I Smoke Cigarettes because my friends smoke". The parental influence sub-scale has five items. An example of the item of the sub-scale reads as follow: "I Smoke Cigarettes because my father smokes cigarettes". The pro-tobacco advertisement also has five items. A typical item of the subscale reads as follows: "I smoke tobacco because I see rich, handsome and beautiful people smoke in movies/television". The response formats for the items ranges from least like me (1) to most like me (5). The initial version of the questionnaire consisted of 27 items on peers, parental and pro-tobacco advertisement. The test items were given to a colleague psychometrician and a sociologist to evaluate with respect to adequacy, language, structure, and relevance to content coverage. Thus the content validity was established. A pilot testing of questionnaire was carried out using 60 secondary school students in a secondary school in Lagos State. These students were neither part of the sample used, nor in the secondary schools used for the study. The trial tested results provided the basis of determining the discrimination and difficulty index of the items. Only items of moderate difficulty levels that discriminated positively were selected to make up the 15 items used in the study. The final 15-item questionnaire was re-administered on 60 secondary school students (not part of the study sample). The peer influence subscale produced a reliability index of 0.85, the parental influence subscale has a reliability coefficient of 0.81 and the pro-tobacco advertisement has a reliability index of 0.79.

Cigarette Smoking Rate Questionnaire (CSRQ)
This instrument was developed by the researcher. It was designed to measure the rate and extent of adolescent cigarette smoking. The questionnaire had two sections. Section A explored the demographic information of the participants. However, the names of respondents were not required to ensure confidentiality of respondents. Section B contains twenty items on Adolescent Smoking behavior with response format ranging from highly correct (1) to highly incorrect (5). A typical item on the scale reads as follows: "I Smoke Cigarette Everyday". The initial twenty-eight items on the CSRQ were administered to forty-five secondary school adolescents in Epe, Lagos State who were not part of the study sample. The items were subjected to computerized item analysis, and items that recorded low reliability were eliminated remaining twenty items with internal consistency coefficient of 0.91 (r = 0.91). The content validity was determined by the choice of items, and subsequent item selection procedure ensures that the items actually described Adolescents' Smoking Rate.

Procedure
The instrument were administered on the participants in their various schools by the researcher with the support of the school Guidance-Counsellor and this facilitated easier administration and retrieval of the instruments. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the joint and relative effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables.
Results

Two issues were addressed in this study. One of the issues of concern was the extent to which the independent variables (peers influence, parental influence and pro-tobacco advertisement influence) predict cigarette smoking among secondary school adolescents. The second issue, which was of interest of this study, was to find out the relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction of cigarette use among secondary school students. The results of the data analysis that provide answers to the research questions raise are presented.

Table 1: Summary of the Regression Analysis of Peers Influence, Parental Influence and Pro-Tobacco Advertisement Influence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis of Variance</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F-Radio</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>14365.264</td>
<td>4121.754</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>261503.310</td>
<td>527.224496</td>
<td>496</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>273868.574</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Multiple R = .316
Multiple R² = .157
Adjusted R² = .143
Standard error of the estimate = 5.82

The result presented in Table 1 provided answer to the first research question which is interested in knowing the combined effect of the independent variables on the dependent. The result shows that the three independent variables when put together account for 14.3% of the variance in cigarette use among adolescents. The produced an f-ratio of 7.81 and found to be significant at 0.05 alpha levels.

Table 2: Relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction of cigarette use among participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable Description</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. error</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer influence</td>
<td>.332101</td>
<td>.091260</td>
<td>.28521</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental influence</td>
<td>207626</td>
<td>.078411</td>
<td>.163241</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro-tobacco</td>
<td>.177545</td>
<td>.091820</td>
<td>.247599</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result on Table 2 show that all three independent variables (Peers influence, Parental influence, and Pro-tobacco advertisement) relatively made significant contribution to the prediction of adolescents cigarette use. The t-observed for each of the variables are significant.

Discussion

The result of the present study showed that Peers, parental and Pro-tobacco Advertisement Influences are effective in predicting academic performance of Secondary School adolescents. The analysis showed that Peers, Parental and Pro-tobacco advertisement contributed 14.3% to the variance of cigarette use of Secondary School Adolescents. Each of the independent variables also made significant contribution to the prediction of cigarette use. The present finding has the support of those of Kristjanson, et al 2010; Chassin, et al (2002); Siziya, et al (2010); Ennet et al (2008); and Wise, et al (2006). These researches have provided evidences that Peers, Parental and Pro-tobacco influences are critical antecedent of cigarette use among adolescents. The explanation for the present finding could be attributed to the fact that the independent variables in the study are proximal predictors of cigarette use among the participants.

The finding that peers influence is the most potent predictor of cigarette use could be understood from the fact that adolescents are easily susceptible to peer pressure, peer encouragement and attitude (Ennet et al, 2008; Kristjansson, et al, 2010). Parent should have enormous influence on their children, so when parent are permissive about discipline and do not enforce a standard or any rules are likely to end up with children who smoke regularly, (Kritjanson, et al. 2008). Since Parents’ lifestyles have various effects on their children, it is not unlikely that adolescent cigarette use can be a product of parental modeling.
Another variable that made significant contribution to the prediction of cigarette use was pro-tobacco and cigarette advertisement influence. This finding has the support of Weiss, et al; (2006). Lovato, et al, (2011). The predictive effect of pro-tobacco influence may have been brought about through what the adolescents views or see about smoking in television programme, and pro-cigarette billboards advertisement that depicts smokers as superstars and successful individuals or role models.

Implication of the Findings
Adolescents needed to be assisted if they are to overcome their cigarette use, Counselling intervention such as self-monitoring, peer pressure management, self-regulation, values clarification and assertiveness could help adolescents to withstand peer, parental and pro-tobacco and cigarette advertisement all of which are implicated in this study as causative factors in adolescent cigarette use. The primary focus of intervention has to be the adolescents since it might not be possible to extend intervention to those agents that predispose such adolescents to cigarette use. Also, since the majority of adolescents are in schools, there is a need to strengthen the provision of counseling services in secondary schools. School Counsellors need to be encouraged to acquire contemporary smoking cessation skills available. Also, teachers and parents should redouble their efforts to help adolescents smokers develop positive peer relation and improved their self concept. Parents need to also show good behaviours by quitting smoking and be good role models for their adolescents.

References


An Empirical Assessment of the Utilization of Voluntary Counselling and Testing Services among University Students

Ezeokoli, Rita Nkiruka; Ph.D
Social Work Department, Babcock University Ilishan,
Ogun State, Nigeria.
ezeokoliritta@gmail.com

Abstract
This study investigated the willingness to seek voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) among undergraduate students at Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria. The study employed a descriptive survey design to assess the willingness to use voluntary counselling and testing. A total of 1200 participants stratified based on their course of study (science-oriented and non-science oriented) were involved. A self-developed instrument tagged “Willingness to Seek VCT and VCT Knowledge Questionnaire (WSVCTKQ)” was used for data collection. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression statistical analyses were used to analyze the data collected. The results showed the participants’ awareness of VCT was on the average, while they do not want to go for VCT. Also, it was found that willingness to seek VCT services has nothing to do with the undergraduates’ gender. The findings concluded that more awareness should be created, while both sexes should be empowered to accept VCT for HIV screening through peer initiated VCT services.

Keywords: Undergraduates, Voluntary Counselling and Testing, awareness, willingness

Introduction
All over the world today, HIV testing is an important aspect in a person’s life since it enables one to live with a clear conscience. When one is aware of his status, he can go about his daily activities with a clear mind. This will further help him to be health conscious of his life activities such as sexual life. Voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) is regarded as an important strategy in the management of the HIV/AIDS pandemic worldwide (van Dyk and van Dyk, 2003). The U.S. President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) (2009) estimated that about 37 million people worldwide living with HIV do not know that they are carrying the virus and the proportion is higher in countries worthy affected by the epidemic. The first pillar of HIV prevention is voluntary counseling and testing (VCT). Counselling and testing centres are places where people get to know more about HIV and AIDS and / or to check their sero-status so as to make informed decisions about their health and behaviour (GHS, 2009). VCT is necessary to direct HIV infected people to antiretroviral therapy which is becoming increasing available. Research indicates that even though there is a high level (over 95%) of awareness of existence of HIV/AIDS, there is a lower level of in-depth knowledge especially on modes of transmission (NACP/GHS, 2010). This makes VCT services an important avenue to receive important information.

According to van Dyk (2001), testing for HIV is very personal and individual decision because it is usually followed by major life changing consequences. Different studies have shown the effects of VCT including a decrease in unprotected sexual intercourse, a reduction in multiple partners, an increase in condom use, and more clients choosing abstinence (FMoH/HAPCO, 2005; Koulmazarian, 2007; Alemayehu, 2010; Ilesanmi, et. al, 2015). Therefore, voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) for HIV is acknowledged globally as an effective strategy for HIV/AIDS’ prevention and care. Various studies (Alemayehu, 2010; Ilesanmi, et. al, 2015) have shown that VCT is an important entry point for care and support. VCT is more than drawing and testing blood and offering a few counselling sessions. It is a vital point of entry to other HIV/AIDS services, including preventing mother- to- child transmission; preventing and clinically managing HIV-related illnesses, tuberculosis control, psychosocial and legal support (MOH, 2000, 2002). VCT provides benefits for those who test positive as well as those tests negative. VCT alleviates anxiety, increases client’s perception of their vulnerability to HIV, promotes behavioral change, facilitates early referral for care and support, including
access to antiretroviral therapy and helps reduce stigma in the community. It offers holistic approach that addresses HIV in the broader context of people’s lives, including poverty and its relationship to risky practices (UNAIDS 2000). Despite the high number of people already living with HIV/AIDS, it is estimated that less than 10% are aware they are infected, mainly because of the limited availability, access, and use of VCT (FMoH/HAPCO, 2010). This fact greatly hinders efforts to respond to the AIDS epidemic, as people have to know if they are infected in order to access services (FMoH/HAPCO, 2007). Voluntary counseling and testing is also an effective strategy for facilitating behaviour change for both clients, whose test result is either negative or positive (FMoH/HAPCO, 2005).

Charles et al (2009) noted that only 35% of their participants had undergone VCT. On the part of adolescents, it has been established that they would often delay in seeking VCT until they found a family member or friend who supported the idea of testing (Denison et al, 2006). In a study conducted among Mckelle University students, the majority preferred the VCT service to be provided in youth clubs, followed by Government Institutions (Alemayehu, 2010). The author was of the view that this could be due to the free service given at the youth club and the cheap payment in Government hospitals, as well as fear of stigma and discrimination. Interestingly, studying peoples’ willingness to seek VCT has increased in the last decade in Nigeria as indicated by the large body of research concerned with attitude of Nigerians towards VCT and HIV. Willingness to utilize VCT services in Africa especially Nigeria is complex and characterized by efforts that unfold in socio-cultural contexts. In such contexts, help seeking is influenced by multiple factors. It has been reported that the attitude towards seeking help is a key factor affecting an individual’s decision to accept professional assistance medically (Ayodele & Bello, 2011) and psychologically (Atik & Yalcin, 2011). This attitude is influenced by personal, social, demographic, and other such factors (Atik & Yalcin, 2011).

According to UNAIDS (2010:16), nearly 12 million young people, aged 15 to 24 in the world are living with HIV and AIDS, and more than 7,000 young people become infected with HIV every day (Boswell & Baggaley 2002). Young people have limited access to information and services. In 2008, an estimated 45% of new infections occurred globally among young people aged between 15 and 24 years (UNAIDS 2008). In 2010, young girls and young women aged 15-24 years were more vulnerable to HIV infection than older men and women (UNAIDS 2010). According to Lyons (2005), 60% of these young people are adolescents between 14 and 19 years of age. The majority of adolescents are at risk of HIV infection due to their involvement in unsafe sex (Boswell & Baggaley 2002). HIV infection from the unsafe injection of drugs, exposure to contaminated blood products or unsterilised skin-piercing procedures also put young people at risk (Boswell & Baggaley 2002). In 2007, sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) alone had an estimated 1.7 million people who were newly infected with HIV (UNAIDS/WHO 2007). Therefore, there is a need to understudy the willingness of undergraduate students’ utilization of VCT services.

Research Questions
The following questions were raised to guide this study, and were tested at 0.05 level of significance:
1. What is the awareness level of undergraduate students on VCT utilizations?
2. Will the undergraduate students be willing to utilize VCT services?
3. To what extent will gender moderate the willingness of undergraduate students’ utilization of VCT services?

Research Method

Research Design: This study adopted a descriptive survey design in order to assess the attitudes and use of voluntary counselling and testing among the university undergraduates in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Population: The population of the study is the entire undergraduate students of Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State.

Sample: A total of one thousand two hundred (1200) respondents were selected for the study, using multi-stage random sampling technique. First, the stratified sampling technique was used to select respondents to reflect strata of the disciplines (course of study), which include the science based and non-science based courses. The simple random sampling technique was adopted to select respondents from each of the strata (science based and non-science). However, 600 undergraduates were selected from each of the strata for the
The purpose of this study. The age range of the respondents is between 17-25 years with mean age of 21.2 and standard deviation of 9.37. The respondents consist of 712 (59.3%) females and 488 (40.7%) males. Also, 600 (50%) of the respondents were offering science oriented courses non-science oriented courses respectively.

**Measures:** The name of the tool is “Willingness to Seek VCT and VCT Knowledge Questionnaire (WSVCTKQ)” which was developed by the investigator. The scale reflected the participants’ willingness to seek counselling and testing on HIV/AIDS. It is a twenty item scale. The items were with four options ranging from ‘not likely at all’ to ‘very likely’. It was found that the total item correlations of the scale changed between .67 and .73. The inner consistency coefficient of the scale is .80. The consistency coefficient attained by the test-retest technique is .71.

**Administration of the Instruments:** The researchers and three (3) other colleagues administered the measuring scales, which guarantee confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents. The researchers explained all aspects of the questionnaire to the respondents. However, it took the researcher a period of two weeks to administer the measuring scales. Meanwhile, out of 1200 copies of questionnaire administered in the selected tertiary institution, all were returned and adequately filled, and thus, valid for the purpose of the study. It could then be said that 100% success of questionnaire administration and retrieval was achieved.

**Ethical considerations:** For ethical considerations, the principle of voluntary participation which requires that people should be not be coerced into participating in research was employed by explaining the purpose of the study to each individual participant. Thereafter, the participants signed a consent form, while the participants were assured of confidentiality.

**Data Analysis:** The data collected through the questionnaires was analyzed using simple percentages and frequency counts for demographic information about the respondents, while research questions were tested using independent t-test and Multiple Regression. However, all the research questions generated for the study were tested at 0.05 alpha levels.

**Results and Discussion**

Table 1: Undergraduates’ VCT awareness level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>No of Items</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduates’ awareness level VCT</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>39.654</td>
<td>15.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 reveals that the undergraduates’ awareness of VCT has a mean score of 39.654 (49.57%), which is an average score. It could be said that the undergraduates’ awareness of VCT is not too encouraging and satisfactory. The only reason for this awareness level may be as a result of some factors inherent in the individuals (e.g fear of HIV/AIDS) or cultural bias and community reactions to HIV/AIDS victims and families (e.g lack of social support). The implication of this result is that awareness level of any life phenomenon such as HIV/AIDS has a direct relationship with a positive attitude toward VCT usability. This result thus lend credence from previous studies that knowledge about HIV and ill health are important reasons for getting an HIV test (Ezeokoli et al. 2015; Ilasanmi, et. al. 2015; Iliyasu et al 2006; Jereni & Muula 2008).

Table 2: Model summary of the analysis of variance the willingness of the undergraduate students to go for VCT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Means of Square</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>19.011</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19.011</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>1192.705</td>
<td>1198</td>
<td>8.876</td>
<td>2.142</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1214.659</td>
<td>1199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second research question which stated that “Will the undergraduate students be willing to utilize VCT services?” showed that undergraduate students were not willing to utilize any VCT services (F(1,1199) = 2.142; P < .05). The implication of this result may be as a result that an average undergraduate student is sexually active and always open to unprotected sex. The outcome of this research question was corroborated by the findings of Denison, Lungu, Dunnett-Dagg, McCauley, and Sweat (2006). Denison et al’s (2006) study where adolescents would often delay seeking even VCT until they found a family member or a friend who supported the notion of testing. However, it was revealed that once a person was tested HIV positive, there could be a break in relationship, friendship and discrimination might be encountered. These reactions may not encourage people from accessing VCT services despite their positive attributes and readiness to undergo the test.

Table 3: Model summary of the multiple regression analysis between the predictor variable (awareness and utilization of VCT services) and the outcome measure (gender)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Means of Square</th>
<th>f-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>19.800</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19.800</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>9546.862</td>
<td>1198</td>
<td>7.969</td>
<td>2.485</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>9566.662</td>
<td>1199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjusted R Square = .053, Std. Error of the Estimate = .685

The research question which stated that “To what extent will gender moderate the willingness of undergraduate students’ utilization of VCT services?” The outcome of the research question showed that gender (F(1,1199) = 2.485; P < .05) did not statistically (significantly) moderate the willingness of undergraduate students’ utilization of VCT services. The results further revealed that 5.3% of the variance in the willingness to seek VCT services among the undergraduates was accounted for by gender. The implication of this result revealed that willingness to seek VCT services has nothing to do with gender rather the choice to seek and utilize VCT services is a thing of the mind.

Conclusion
In this study, it was found that the undergraduate students were averagely aware of VCT services but not willing to go for voluntary counselling and testing. The reason for this may be as a result that an average undergraduate student is sexually active and open to unprotected sex. Neither male nor female undergraduates were more willing to go for VCT for HIV. This indicated that more awareness should be created, while both sexes should be empowered to accept VCT for HIV through peer initiated VCT services at all levels of care including in Universities. Governmental and Non-governmental institutions should have to work on providing the VCT service for the youth in a very cheap and extensive manner so as to increase the uptake of the VCT for HIV. Governments should therefore establish more VCT centres in both rural and urban areas to bring VCT service to the door step of the citizens.

References


Contributions of Organisational Transparency, Communication Flow and Teachers’ Intrinsic Motivation to Teachers’ Job Performance in Secondary Schools in Ogun State, Nigeria

Adebola Oladiji Alaba Ph.D; Margaret Funke Faremi; Ph.D
Osun State University, Osogbo, Faculty of education, Ipetu-Ijesa Campus
Email: alabaadebola10@yahoo.com Tel: 08055218260
Email: margfunke@gmail.com 08039324751; 08070501742S

&

Professor Lasun Gbadamosi
Department of Education, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria
lasungbadamosi2014@gmail.com 08033452551

Abstract
This study investigated organisational transparency, principal communication flow and intrinsic motivation with respect to how the variables individually affect teachers’ job performance in public secondary schools in Ogun State Nigeria. A total of 1037 teachers selected through multistage sampling procedure throughout 20 educational zones in the state participated in the study. Data were collected with three instruments which were adapted, pilot tested and found to be reliable and valid. Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the data collected. The results showed that organisational transparency principal communication flow and intrinsic motivation; all individually determine teachers’ job performance to a large extent. All were significant in the determination of teachers’ job performance as revealed by the analysis. All variables were significant (P<0.05). The study therefore recommended that the government as an employer of teachers should do all she could do to motivate teachers, show considerable care for their welfare, provide an enabling environment for teaching/learning to sustain and build intrinsic motivation in them. Principals must continuously be transparent to build and enhance trust in his/her teachers. This can be done by using proper communication. The flow of communication should not be disturbed and principals must encourage feedback. The need for transparency, accountability, openness and proper communication flow in the schools is also stressed.

Key Words: Organisational transparency, Principal communication flow, Intrinsic motivation, teachers’ job performance, secondary school.

Introduction
Teachers’ job performance has always been a subject for discussion. The quality of students being turned out by our institutions in recent times have necessitated public debate on whether the teacher is still doing what the teacher is supposed to do. Ashby (1960) as cited in Oni (1995) states that “an educational system cannot be better than the quality of the teachers in that system”. Also, according to the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013), “no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers”. No matter how well defined an education system may be, the teacher will be responsible for its successes in the final analysis as the implementation lies with them. Whatever happens to the implementers will eventually reflect in the output of the educational system. Teachers are the eventual, on the spot, implementers of the education system of any nation, Nigeria inclusive. For instance, Ogumbame (2004) asserts that students’ academic achievement has a direct link with teachers’ job performance. Also, Darling-Hammond (2000), found that teacher characteristics have a lot of influence on students’ learning and academic achievement. Results and output from secondary schools nowadays are making the society to cast doubts on the kind of interests teachers have in their work. Intrinsic motivation of teachers is seriously under doubt. It is no longer secret that basically potential students of higher institution are no longer interested in education courses. Hence education courses are only accepted
when other areas of study are not available or when such students do not meet up with the cut off points of preferred courses.

Communication flow is about how education managers actually use communication in their day to day administration. The whole business of school is about communication and also, for effective administration of any organisation to be seen as being honest, the administrator must be open. Except the administrators communication flow is adequate, he/she cannot be seen to be open and honest. The provision of resources in institutions is hinged on availability of funds. At the secondary schools level, in addition to funds from the government, various fees are also collected, such as development levies, PTA levies, examination fees, furniture levies, building levies among others. Still, the problem of lack of resources persists. This is making stakeholders to wonder how transparent the system is. For example, worried by incessant crisis generated by anti-transparent administrators in the administration of funds generated by schools from coaching classes and extra mural activities, the government of Ogun State through the Ministry of Education has banned the school-organised coaching classes since 2007/2008 session throughout secondary schools in the state.

In the actualisation of any pre-designed actions, men, money and materials will be involved. There is also the question of procedure for the actualization of the objectives. There are other concepts such as the norms, the societal values, and ethics. The human factor has always been said to be of significant value as human beings are the executors of programmes. They occupy the driver’s seat in any organisation and so will determine the use of money (fund) and other resources Alaba (2011). The achievement of organisational goal will depend much on how transparent the organisation is run. Organisational transparency can be explained as how honest, dependable, open and reliable a system is. These qualities are expected to be possessed and exhibited by the management of institutions and, in the case of secondary schools, the principal. Without doubt, when principals are open, honest, reliable, dependable, benevolent and competent, they will enjoy the trust of their teachers and other workers. In discussing transparency, issues like corruption, ethics and moral justification always come to the forefront. The management of an organisation may be honest in their dealings but if the administrator is not open and accessible to all, misconceptions may come in about the management’s dealings and this may lead to distrust by workers. Transparency will automatically bring about mutual trust among workers and management. This study therefore is to determine empirically the individual contributions of organisational transparency, communication flow and teachers’ intrinsic motivation to teachers’ job performance in secondary schools in Ogun State, Nigeria.

**Review of Related Literature**

It is obvious that all acts perpetuated with the aim of unduly benefiting from a situation or all gains made from position in an irregular manner at public expense will prevent an officer from being transparent. Transparency has become a major issue in the management of public affairs in Nigeria. Transparency International (TI) have continuously rate Nigeria in unit positions on corruption up to date.

Hallack and Poisson (2005) point out that corruption would mostly affect the resources allocated to schools; the way they are managed will have effects on school results. Indra (2005) opines that corruption causes more harm to the future since it encourages the young ones to believe that they can succeed in life without hard work, but rather through bribery, personal contacts and fraud. At the post primary school level, areas where corruption could be noticed are almost innumerable. They include illegal collection of fees, exchange of money for marks, forcing students to arrange for extra classes with teachers, examination malpractices, among others. With the foregoing, therefore, it may not be completely out of place to conclude that transparency would affect the teachers work vis-à-vis the teachers’ job performance and productivity in schools. However, no matter how we argue, one thing is sure: the future outcome will definitely not be favourable to the society.

Begley (1996) writes “A commitment to organisational transparency is an attempt to create a high level of trust among stakeholders through insistence on open access to information, participation and decision-making. In both public and private sectors, openness about intentions and the formulation and implementation of initiatives is increasingly recognised as a key element of good governance. Babajide (2006) opines that principals must possess readiness to explain actions, willingness to listen to subordinates and allow teachers participate in decision making. He goes further to say that the principal must be transformational in nature by being tolerant, fair, sensitive available and giving respect to individual teachers and must be pragmatic. This
will enhance teachers’ job performance and boost transparency. Writing on effective organisational transparency, Lawrence and Desmond (2006) opined that organisational achievement of two-way symmetric communications offers the ideal societal mechanism for achieving corporate accountability and organisational transparency. They advocate the effective use of public relations to wipe out misinformation on matters of the state. They point out that flawed communication perpetuates misunderstanding that undermines accountability measures as well as risk assessment. Overall, they suggest the use of public relations to promote transparency and strengthen democratic institutions. William (2006) points out that trust, when not abused, enhances organisational transparency. In a study to support this assertion, five corporate bodies were involved. The finding suggests that functional elements and informal network position contributed to the ability to establish positive trust climates, which positively correlated to the degree of organisational transparency.

Various authors and scholars have defined communication. American Association of School Administrators (2006) defined communication as the transfer of information from a sender to a receiver. Ajayi and Oni (1992) defines communication as involving the conveying of something e.g. message from one place to another or the transmission of information from one person or group to another through some selected channels. Succinctly put, communication means conveying message through a channel to a destination where it is interpreted for a particular use. The issue of knowing that the message has been discerned necessitates the process to involve feedback. In any organisation, decision must be taken about all processes and the only way to pass this from the managerial level to the other areas where such decision will be utilized lies with the communication flow in the organisation. In the common parlance, justice must not only be done but must be seen to have been done. This emphasises the fact that the process of managing an organisation must not only be done in a correct manner but must be clearly seen by all concerned that proper processes are used in achieving ends. In any organisation, communication occupies a paramount position if any success is needed. At all levels, decisions have to be made; such decisions must be passed down to those who will implement it. The place of proper communication channels and processes in ensuring and enforcing transparency cannot be overemphasized. Organisations, in their bid to ensure transparency, will make rules on certain processes and issues; it is communication that will see to the wide publicity of such rules. In short, communication enhances transparency.

In the achievement of organisational goals, certain important points come into play, one of which is the willingness of the employees to ensure the achievements of the set goals. For this to happen, scholars agree that there has to be a push or something that can ensure and sustain the employees’ interest in his/her job. Scholars have variously defined this as motivation. A number of definitions given by Educational Psychology Interactive (2006) will suffice:

- Internal state or condition that activates behaviour and gives direction;
- Desire or want that energizes and directs goal oriented behaviour;
- Influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behaviour;

Motivation can either be extrinsic or intrinsic. It is extrinsic if the drive is from external source such as reward, prize, salary or other external inducement. Intrinsic motivation is the push that comes from within a person such as when a worker works because he likes what he/she is doing. Put in another form, intrinsic motivation is what a person will do without coercion. Malone and Lepper (1987), as cited in Peretomode (1991), define intrinsic motivation as what people will do without external inducement. The basic force behind intrinsic motivation is the internal joy that comes with doing what a person likes to do. The question of intrinsic motivation cannot be waved away when discussing teacher’s job performance as several studies have shown that the Nigerian teachers are not socially, economically and psychologically well treated, (Oni, 1995; Fagbamiye, 2000). Yet the teacher’s job must be done and is still being done.

**Research Hypotheses**

For the purpose of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

**HO₁** There will be no significant contribution of organisational transparency to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.

**HO₂** There will be no significant contribution of principals’ communication flow to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.
There will be no significant contribution of teachers’ intrinsic motivation to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.

**Methodology**
A descriptive survey of ex post-facto method was used in the research. A sample of 1037 respondents made up of 521 males and 516 females selected throughout 20 education zones in the state through multistage sampling procedures.

**Instrumentation**
Three instruments were used to collect data for the teachers:
1. Transparency Factor Questionnaire (TFQ) has validity of Cronbach alpha value of 0.8650 and split half reliability value of .8844.
2. Principal Communication Flow Questionnaire (PCFQ) validity. Cronbach alpha value of 0.8746, and split half reliability index value of 0.7841.
3. Teachers’ Intrinsic Motivation Scale (TIMS) has split half reliability value 0.7557 and validity Cronbach alpha value of 0.8876.
4. Teacher job performance rating scale (TJPRS) has split half reliability value 0.8577 and validity Cronbach alpha value of 0.7877.

**Data Collection and Analysis**
The questionnaires were administered to 1,037 teachers from a total of 468 schools made up of 172 junior secondary schools, 172 senior secondary schools and 124 combined secondary schools. While teachers responded to PCFQ and TTPS, the participating teachers’ job performances were rated by the Head of his/her Department or the Principal. The ratings were done independent of each other and appeal was made for the ratings to be as objective as possible.

In analyzing the result, Multiple Regression Analysis was used.

**Results**

**Hypothesis 1:** There will be no significant contribution of organisational transparency to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public schools.

Table 1: Model summary of the contribution of organisation transparency to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public sec schools (N=1037)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R = 0.176</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R² = 0.031</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>12089.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12089.755</td>
<td>32.988</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R² = 0.030</td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>379320.78</td>
<td>1035</td>
<td>366.494</td>
<td>32.988</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std Error of estimate = 199.14402</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>391410.56</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td>366.494</td>
<td>32.988</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* F is significant of 0.05 level
Predictor variable: Organisational transparency score.
Dependent variable: Teachers’ job performance score.

The result in Table 1 shows a significant outcome ($F_{(1,1035)} = 32.988$ $P<0.05$). The result of the regression analysis reveals that the predictor variable (organisational transparency) contributed significantly to the teachers’ job performance. The result of the analysis further shows that organisational transparency contributed 3.1% ($R = 0.176$, $R² = 0.031$) to the variance in the dependent variable (teachers’ job performance score). As a result, the null hypothesis of no significant contribution of organisational transparency to teachers’ job performance is hereby rejected. The implication of this finding therefore is that the predictive variable contributed about 3.1% the variance in the teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.

**Hypothesis 2:** There will be no significant contribution of principals’ communication flow to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.
Table 2: Model summary of the contribution of principals’ communication flow to teachers’ job performance scores (N = 1037).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>52480.358</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>52480.358</td>
<td>160.261</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R² = 0.133</td>
<td>338930.20</td>
<td>1035</td>
<td>327.469</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std Error of estimate = 18.096</td>
<td>391410.56</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* F is significant of 0.05 level

**Predictor variable:** Teachers’ intrinsic motivation score

**Dependent variable:** Teachers’ job performance score.

The result in table 4.2.3 reveals significant outcome ($F_{(3,1035)} = 160.261, P< 0.05$). The result of the regression analysis revealed that principals’ communication flow is a significant predictor of teacher’s job performance. The table further reveals that principals’ communication flow alone contributed 13.4% ($R= 0.366, R^2 = 0.134$) to the variance in the dependent variable. As a result, the null hypothesis of no significant contribution is hereby rejected. The implication of this finding therefore is that principals’ communication flow significantly contributed and explained about 13% of the variance in the teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools.

**Hypothesis 3:** There will be no significant contribution of teachers’ intrinsic motivation to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary school.

Table 3: Model summary of contribution of teachers’ intrinsic motivation to teachers’ job performance scores (N= 1037)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>12559.998</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12559.998</td>
<td>34.313</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R² = 0.031</td>
<td>378850.56</td>
<td>1035</td>
<td>366.039</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std Error of estimate = 19.132</td>
<td>391410.56</td>
<td>1036</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* F is significant at 0.05 level

**Predictor variable:** Teachers’ intrinsic motivation

**Dependent variable:** Teachers’ job performance score

Table 3 reveals a significant outcome ($F_{(1,1035)}= 34.313, P< 0.05$); the regression analysis reveals that teachers’ intrinsic motivation significantly predicts teachers’ job performance. The table further reveal that teachers’ intrinsic motivation alone contributed about 3.2% ($R= 0.179, R^2 = .032$) to the variance in the dependent variable. As a result, the null hypothesis of no significant contribution of teachers’ intrinsic motivation is hereby rejected. The implication of this finding therefore is that teachers’ intrinsic motivation significantly contributed and explained about 3.1% of the variance in the teachers’ job performance in Ogun state public secondary school.

**Discussion**

Findings from the analysis indicated that organisational transparency contributes 3.1% to teachers’ job performance and that it is significant. This result aligns with the findings of Kratzer (1997), Lein, Johnson and Ragland (1997), Tschanen-Moran and Hoy (1998) and the opinions of Blake and Macneil (1998), Dacosta and Riordan (1996) and Kratzer (1997) who found that school improvement is contingent on teachers trust while Lein at al (1997), discovered in their studies that students in Texas are successful in mathematics and that one of the conditions that brought the success is collaboration and trust earned through openness of the school administration and colleagues. Blake and Macneil (1998) opined that when the Principal is approachable, uses powers effectively, is flexible, and creates useful staff development opportunities, he will enjoy his/her staff trust. This is bound to affect job performance positively.
Findings also showed the contribution of principals’ communication flow to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State public secondary schools. With a contribution of 13.4%, principals’ communication flow contributed more than the other variables. Definitely communication flow contributes significantly to teachers’ job performance. This finding corroborates that of Munchinsky (2000), who found that nearly all processes in an organisation correlate well with the communication style in that organisation. Planty and Machaver (1996) also suggested that workers must be allowed participatory decision making through upward communication. The findings also confirmed the result of Eweje (2005), that principals’ communication style has a lot of impact on teachers’ job effectiveness. The opinion of Peretomode (1991), Ajayi and Oni (1992), Weirich and Koontz (1994), and Horace (2006) among others who opined that communication enhances job performance is also corroborated by the result of this study.

The analysis showed that teachers’ intrinsic motivation contributed 3.2% to teachers’ job performance. This result shows that teachers’ intrinsic motivation is important in job performance of teachers. However, it should be noticed that if weighed against communication, there exist a wide gap. Several studies have also shown that motivation is important in the job performance of teachers. This result corroborates the findings of the studies of Oluchucku (2000), Udensi (2000), Fabiyi (2000), Okorie and Uche (2001), Salami (2001), and Adeniji (2001). Ofoegbu (2004) found in a study that teachers who are intrinsically motivated are able to undertake a task for its own sake. In other words, intrinsically motivated teacher have a higher job performance. Oluchucku (2000) found that organisation climate enhances teachers’ job performance as teachers are motivated to work. Adeniji (2001) also found that intrinsically motivated teachers assisted by good qualification perform better on the job. Udensi, (2000), Salami (2001), Okorie and Uche (2001), in separate studies discovered that factors that affect motivation of teachers when looked into also tend to enhance teachers’ job performance. This result also aligned with the opinion of Ofoegbu (2004), who asserted that activities which eventually culminate in self esteem of teachers enhance intrinsic motivation and hence aid teachers’ job performance. It further corroborates the discovery of Osokoya (2005), that the absence of motivational factors such as allowances and programmes that add value to teachers’ esteem negatively affects the job performance of teachers. However, one should note that, intrinsic motivation in this study, though, significant in its contribution to teachers’ job performance, did not contribute much to teachers job performance. This means that intrinsic motivation is at the lowest acceptable level among teachers in Ogun State public secondary schools.

The result of this study has far reaching implications for principals, teachers, educational administrators and government among others. First, principal should be conscious in their doings where activities that can be interpreted either positively or otherwise is involved. The principal must ensure that he is transparent in all his/her doings. He/she must ensure that he/she carries along his/her staff. The independent variables affect female teachers’ reactions with respect to their job performance. This group of teachers are quite a number in the area under study. So in order not to jeopardise teacher’s job performance, the principal must communicate more effectively with them to ensure transparency in the dealings and facilitate a congenial working environment. The Principal must communicate effectively, and be reliable.

Government must ensure that teaching personnel are well taken care of to enhance the interest of teachers in the job. Intrinsic motivation of the teachers can be enhanced by making available needed resources and motivation as external motivation enhances teachers’ intrinsic motivation.

**Recommendations**

The result of this study necessitates that the three independent variables should be encouraged to enhance teachers’ job performance. The three variables of organisational transparency, principals’ communication flow and teachers’ intrinsic motivational contributed significantly to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State secondary schools. It is therefore recommended that the principals of secondary schools in Ogun State should encourage activities that would build mutual trust between teachers and Principals. Principals must not only be transparent but must be seen carrying all concerned about an issue along. This recommendation is in line with Indra (2005), and Elegbeleye (2005), who both recommended more transparent processes for schools to enhance job performance of teachers.
The fact that communication flow contributes substantially to teachers’ job performance in Ogun State secondary schools suggests that the downward flow of information must be frequent, concise and free of ambiguity for teachers to implement. It also necessitates an adequate process of feedback or upward flow of communication. This is in line with the recommendations of Horace (2006), that message must be given accurate interpretation for the message to be useful. Also Horace (2006), opines that talking openly about what we intend to do or what we are trying to do and achieve and being open to constructive feedback about how well or otherwise we are achieving it enables learning to take place for all involved. The contribution of intrinsic motivation to teachers’ job as shown in the findings suggests that a teacher has to be intrinsically motivated to do a thorough job. It has always been argued that extrinsic motivation gets a worker to a job but intrinsic motivation keeps him/her there. However, no matter how strong intrinsic motivation is, certain happenings and occurrences can reduce it to the barest minimum. This presupposes that teachers’ intrinsic motivation must be sustained and a very big factor in its sustenance is extrinsic motivation in various forms. This is in line with the recommendation of Udensi (2000), that improved welfare services should be offered to lecturers in federal colleges of education to enhance positive job attitude. Fabiyi (2000) also recommended improved welfare package to further motivate workers.

This study also showed that the composite contribution of the three variables of organisational transparency, teachers’ intrinsic motivation and principals’ communication flow contributed significantly to female teacher’s job performance. It is therefore recommended that where female teachers are concerned, administrators should handle them with extreme care so as to get the best out of them. Management should be transparent, keep them well informed of what goes on in the school and create situations that would motivate them. Females are generally sensitive. This is in line with the position of Salami (2001), who recommended that nurses be treated in a special way as his study showed that they suffer mostly from role conflict prestige, leadership, team work etc. This is also in line with the work of Opeke (2001), who found that female workers are more sensitive to what goes on in their environment. This shows that female teachers will react more to what goes on in their work place. It is therefore recommended that female teachers be carried along in decision making through proper communication flow and activities that could enhance intrinsic motivation. The variables contributed very significantly to the female teacher’s job performance and so cannot be waved away. Principals should be more transparent in their dealings. It is therefore recommended that proper procedure that can enhance organisational transparency be put in place in schools. This is in line with the recommendations of Onabanjo (2006), who suggested that proper channels be put in place in schools so as to alleviate malice and indiscipline currently observed in the schools.

The result of the study also showed that organisational transparency, principals’ communication flow and teachers’ intrinsic motivation contributed significantly to male teachers’ job performance. The implication of this is that principals must as a matter of policy be transparent in their dealings. Again, the need for good principals’ communication flow in the system comes to the forefront. The process of engaging in activities that will enhance the intrinsic motivation of teachers is also recommended.

All teachers in one way or the other are affected by organisational transparency, principals’ communication flow and teachers’ intrinsic motivation. It should be noticed that all of them have their job performance jointly and significantly determined by the independent variable to a large extent (between 13.1% and 20.1%). These percentages are too high to be waved aside, so all concerned must sit up and do the right and correct things to encourage teachers’ job performance.

**Conclusion**

Principals must not only be transparent but must be seen carrying all concerned about an issue along. This recommendation is in line with Indra (2005), and Elegbeleye (2005), who both recommended more transparent processes for schools to enhance job performance of teachers.

Government as a major employer of teachers and other employers, would have done a lot in improving teaching and learning by enhancing the organisational transparency in secondary schools, improving communication flow within the school system and enhancing the intrinsic motivation of teachers through programmes and incentives that could uplift the teachers’ state of mind. It is therefore recommended that the government as an employer of teachers should do all she could do to motivate teachers, show considerable care for their welfare, provide an enabling environment for teaching/learning to sustain and build intrinsic
motivation in them. Principals must continuously be transparent to build and enhance trust in his/her teachers. This can be done by using proper communication. The flow of communication should not be disturbed and principals must encourage feedback. This will allow teachers to see themselves as part of decision making and so work for the achievement of school goals. The need for regular workshop and seminars to drive home the need for proper transparency, accountability, openness and proper communication flow in the schools is also stressed.

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Okorie, N.C. and Uche, C.M.(2001). Gender job conditions and job behaviour; Implications for The implementation of the Universal Basic Education Scheme in the Niger Delta; *Journal of Advanced studies in Educational Management* 1(2) 161-170.


Opinion of Working and Non-Working Mothers on Breastfeeding in the Hospital Setting: An Empirical Assessment

Adenike Olusola Lawal
Department of Home & Hotel Management, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria. +23481-719-977-73

Abstract
The study focused on the opinion of working and non-working mothers on breastfeeding in the hospital settings using Ifako-ijaye, General Hospital, Lagos as a case study. The objectives of this study was to find out the opinion of nursing mothers towards breastfeeding and also, to identify the problem facing working class mother in exclusive breastfeeding. Three hypotheses were postulated to guide the study: the study made use of descriptive research design. The instrument used for data collection was a self-structured questionnaire titled "Breastfeeding Questionnaire Inventory (BQI)" Data generated from the study was analyzed using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (r) and t-test statistical tools. The result of the study shows that working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on their babies. Also, the result shows that non-working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies. And finally, the result reveals that there is significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies. Based on the result from the study, the study therefore recommended that mothers should be encouraged and advised to attend antenatal and postnatal clinic for them to get information on breastfeeding correctly, also, incentives should also be provided for nursing mothers to encourage breastfeeding their babies.

Key words: Breast feeding, working mothers, non-working mothers, hospital settings

Introduction
Breastfeeding is life to babies; the longer mothers breastfeed their babies the fewer the illness such babies encountered. Breastfeeding reduces the risk of babies developing obesity, diabetes and other conditions which can negatively affect the health of babies. As a matter of fact, breast milk is not just food; it is protection (A Breastfeeding Guide, 2014). Breastfeeding is the act of giving natural milk from the breast to the human babies. It is an acceptable source of keeping a baby healthy by providing him with all proteins, vitamins and minerals necessary for growth. Duncombe, and Weller, (2008) state that breastfeeding is nature’s way of establishing close physical and emotional contact between mother and baby as well as for growth and development. The opinion of working mothers towards breastfeeding is that breast milk is widely acknowledged to provide the best and most benefits to growth, immunity, development and health (United State Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), Healthy People 2020 (2011). The working mothers believe that infants who were breastfed are less likely to experience obesity, respiratory illness and a myriad of other diseases. HHS Healthy People 2020 (2011); Kronbory and Vaeth, (2009), Ryan, (2002); Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) 2010, Witters-Green (2003).

The working mothers agree that breastfeeding is beneficial and have concerns about the effects of artificial formula (Purdy, 2010). According to Purdy (2010), working mothers believe that artificial formula is associated with more deaths from diarrhea in infants both in developing and developed countries. Breastfeeding also increases boundary between mothers and infants and the likelihood of material breast and ovarian cancer later in life. Furthermore, Purdy, (2010) made a distinct economic advantage to breastfeeding compare to purchasing formula. As a result, initiation of breastfeeding increased from 60% in 1993 to 77% in 2006 (CDC, 2010). However, the number of women who continue to breastfeed drops off rapidly with only 33% of infant being exclusively breastfed at 3 months (CDC, 2010).

The study further stressed the fact that working mothers have sufficient knowledge about breastfeeding which includes benefit and advantage to the mother and babies; for example mothers knows that first milk
(colostrums) is important for babies to protect them from infection and diseases, this saves money for mothers, makes baby feel grateful and good for the mothers health (CDC, 2010). Majority of non-working mothers also have sufficient knowledge of breastfeeding, especially awareness on exclusive breastfeeding, duration of breastfeeding before the first pregnancy and antenatal visit (Personal Knowledge; Lawal, 2014). Furthermore, non-working mothers have knowledge about the advantages of breastfeeding. They know important of first milk (colostrums) that this milk is very rich in nutrients, anti-biotic to protect baby, economically and when an emergency occurs such as diarrhea, respiratory illness, and when temperature drops too low breastfeeding can save lives. The non-working mothers have more time to breastfeed than working mothers; they are not stress, comfortable and give at demand time (World Health Organization, 2002).

From the foregoing, breastfeeding is very important for the survival of babies and mothers’ health; however, not many mothers may not have time to breast babies as a result of job demand, hence the study focused on the opinion of working and non-working mothers towards breastfeeding in hospital setting using General Hospital Ifako/Ijaye, Lagos, Nigeria as a case study.

Statement of the Problem
Breastfeeding has significant effect in both the mothers and the children; it promotes the health of both mother and infant. Longer breastfeeding has also been associated with better mental health through childhood and into adolescent. It is a cost-effective way of feeding an infant, providing nourishment for a child at a small cost to the mother. Many studies confirm that many nursing mothers do not breastfeed their babies for a recommended period of six exclusive months of breastfeeding. Studies further confirm that babies that are not well breastfed are prone to diseases and infections. Based on the fact that many women are not keyed into the awareness and knowledge of breastfeeding, working mothers and non-working mothers should be adequately educated on the need to regularly breastfeed their babies; therefore, the study sought the opinion of working and non-working mothers on breastfeeding using General Hospital Ifako/Ijaye Lagos, Nigeria as a case study.

The objectives of this study were to find out the opinion of working mothers towards breastfeeding, why working mothers do not feed their babies with natural milk (breast milk) but artificial milk and also, to identify the problem facing working class mother in exclusive breastfeeding.

Hypotheses
The following hypotheses were stated to guide the study and tests at 0.05 level of significance.

Ho1: Working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies.
Ho2: Non-working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies.
Ho3: There is no significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

Method
The research made use of descriptive research method. One hundred and twenty women, aged between 18-35years were selected for the study.

Area of Study
The area of the study was the Post-Natal Clinic General Hospital, Ifako Ijaiye Lagos, Nigeria was used for the study. General Hospital Ifako-Ijaye is one of the Lagos State Ministry of Health parastatals reformed Hospital under Health Service Commission in Lagos State in Ifako-Ijaiye Local Government Area of Lagos State, Nigeria. The hospital was established in 2006 and comprises of different units such as maternal child and Health care, Medical and surgical unit with 130 bedded ward.

Maternal, Child and Healthcare Ward include Antenatal, clinic, Post Natal clinic, Gynecology clinic. Delivery suite, Theatre, Special Care Baby Unit, Prenatal ward, Post Natal Ward, Pediatrics ward from 0-12 years old age, MCC Accident and Emergency ward, pregnant women and children under 0-12rs. Medical ward for male
and female patient from 12yrs and above surgical ward for male and female general outpatient clinic, surgical outpatient clinic and Accident and Emergency department.

Post Nata Clinic is carried out everyday under different professor and consultant.

Population
The population of the study comprised working class nursing mothers who delivered their babies in Ifako-Ijaiye General Hospital and attended post natal clinics in Ifako-Ijaye hospital.

Sampling Method and Sample Size
Minimum of 20 nursing mothers attended Post-natal clinics Ifako-Ijaiye General Hospital, Lagos, everyday of the week except on Thursday. Out of these attendees, randomly sampling method was used to select 50 working class nursing mothers (which comprised civil servants and those working with private enterprises) and 50 non-working class nursing mothers. In all, 100 nursing mothers were randomly selected for the study.

Questionnaire Design
The instrument used for data collection was a self-structured questionnaire titled “Breastfeeding Questionnaire Inventory (BFI)” The questionnaire consists of sections A and B. Section A consist the bio-data of the respondents while section B was consists of items developed on the variables of the hypotheses to solicit respondents’ responses on their knowledge and opinion towards breastfeeding. Section B was structured in a 4-Likert structured of strongly agree (SA), agree (A), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). Scoring of the instrument was SA = 4, A = 3, D = 2 and SD = 1, for positive statement items while negative item were scored reversely of AS = 1. A=2, D= 3 and SD= 4. To ascertain the reliability of the instrument, pilot study was carried out using other samples outside the samples used for the study. After 3 weeks, the same instrument was administered on same set of samples. A reliable estimate of 0.73 was established using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (r). Scoring of the items; positive items were allotted SA=4 marks, A=3 marks, D=2 marks and SD=1 mark respectively while reverse scores were allocated to negative items. Data generated from the study was analyzed using Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation (r) and t-test.

Procedure for Data Collection
Permission to carry out the study was obtained from the authority of General Hospital Ifako-Ijaiye Post-Natal Clinic. On the clinic day, the researcher visited the Hospital and administered the instrument on random selected nursing mother whose consent to participate in the study were given a questionnaire prior to the commencement of the clinics. The completed questionnaires were collected at the end of the each clinic day.

Data Analysis
Data generated for the study was analyzed using Pearson Product correlation and T-Test statistical tools tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Results
Table 1: Pearson Correlation showing relationship between working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>r-cal</th>
<th>r-ab</th>
<th>Decisions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working mothers</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>26.15</td>
<td>3.944</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast feeding</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>22.81</td>
<td>2.064</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig. 0.05

From table 1 above, the results of the findings showed that r-calculated of .941 is greater than r-table of 0.79 given 98 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance, the result shows significant. Therefore, the hypothesis which states that working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies was rejected and uphold the alternative hypothesis which states that there working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies.

Hypothesis 2
Ho2: Non-working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies.
Table 2: Pearson Correlation showing relationship between non-working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>r-cal</th>
<th>r-tab</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-working mothers</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breast feeding</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>31.32</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig. 0.05

From table 2 above, the results of the findings showed that r-calculated of 0.799 is greater than r-table of 13.94 given 98 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance, the result shows significant. Therefore, the hypothesis which states that non-working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies was rejected and upholds the alternative hypothesis which states that non-working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies.

Hypothesis 3

Ho3: There is no significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

Table 3: T-test showing differences between working mothers and non-working mothers recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t-cal</th>
<th>t-tab</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working mothers and Breast feeding</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>26.15</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>1.600</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-working mothers and Breast feeding</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig. 0.05

From table 3 above, the results of the findings showed that t-calculated of 1.600 is lesser than t-table of 1.77 given 98 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance, the result shows not significant. Therefore, the hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies was accepted and upheld the alternate hypothesis which states that there is significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies.

Discussion of the Findings

Following the result of this study, the following discussions were made:

Hypothesis one says, working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies. Result from the study rejected the hypothesis; therefore, we upheld the alternate hypothesis which states that working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies. The results of the finding agrees with the findings of United State Department of Health and Human Services (HHS), Healthy People 2020 (2011) which stated that the opinion of working mothers towards breastfeeding is that breast milk is widely acknowledged to provide the best and most benefits to growth, immunity, development and health of their babies. Also, the result corroborate the findings of Kronbory and Vaeth (2009); Centre for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) (2010); and Witters-Green, (2003) which found that working mothers beliefs that infants who are breastfed are less likely to experience obesity, respiratory illness and a myriad of other diseases.

Furthermore, Purdy, (2010), found that working mothers agreed that breastfeeding is beneficial and have concerns about the effects of artificial formulars, according to working mothers; artificial formulars is associated with more deaths from diarrhea in infants in both developing and developed countries. Hypothesis two says that non-working mothers will not recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies. The results from the study rejected the stated hypothesis. Therefore, we held the alternate hypothesis which states that non-working mothers recognize the importance of breastfeeding on babies. The results support the finding of Purdy, (2010) who found that the non-working mothers also have knowledge about the benefits advantages of breastfeeding. Purdy, (2010) says further that the non-working-mothers know important of first milk...
(colostrums) that this milk is very rich in nutrients, anti-biotic to protect baby, economically and when an emergency occurs such as diarrhoea, respiratory illness, and when temperature drops too low breastfeeding can save lives.

Hypothesis three states that there is no significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies. The result from the study accepted and upheld the alternate hypothesis which states that there is significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers and recognizing the importance of breast feeding on their babies. The result corroborated the study of Johnson and Esposito (2007); Rojjanasrirat and Sousa (2010) who found that the non-working mothers have more time to breastfeed than working mothers, non-working mothers are not stress; they are comfortable and breastfeed at the demand time. They also found out that a woman’s particular job can hinder her ability to use a breast pump at work and make more difficult to continue breastfeeding long term (Johnson and Eposito, 2007) found that working mothers are just as likely to initiate breastfeeding, but have a lower rate of exclusive long-term breastfeeding. Also, Ryan (2002), a non-working woman is more likely to breastfeed than a woman who works full-time.

Conclusion
The rate of any breastfeeding and exclusive breastfeeding during the six months of the life of babies are very important. Programs to support breastfeeding are necessary and should encourage women to feel positive to breastfeeding, focusing particularly on non-working mothers, mothers with a maternity entitlement less than 6 months and mothers who lack previous breastfeeding experience.

Recommendations
Via the broad spectrum of result obtained so far the following were recommended.

- Creation of daycare centres in each work place to encourage breastfeeding
- Provision of written educational materials such as posters, handbills, film show, story-telling and seminars on the importance of breastfeeding.
- Government should encourage breastfeeding by extension of maternity leave to 6months.
- Preparation of mothers during antenatal towards breastfeeding i.e. breastfeeding should commence within 30mins – 1hr of birth
- Educating husbands on the need to support mothers during breastfeeding period.
- Importance of the first milk (colostrums) given to the baby should be stressed to pregnant women during antenatal visit.
- The teaching about breastfeeding should be integrated into the school curriculum at all levels as young people tend to practice what they learn at the younger ages.
- Mothers should be encouraged and advised to attend antenatal and postnatal clinic for them to get this information correctly.
- Incentives should also be provided for nursing mothers to encourage breastfeeding their babies.

References


E-Learning as an Effective Tool in Teaching General Education Courses in Nigerian Universities

Williams, Taiwo Motolani, Ph.D; Aderanti, Ruth A, Ph.D
& Oyinloye, Comfort A, Ph.D
Department of Education, Babcock University, Ilisan Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract
General education courses in the Nigerian Universities cut across various discipline ranging from politics, ethics, literature, language, culture, science, technology and mathematics. General education courses are aimed at producing graduates who can make their professions relevant to contemporary problems and needs of the Nigerian society. Each student in the University is therefore, required to have a general knowledge of each of these fields. Consequently, this brings about the inclusion of a large number of students together in one classroom, thereby leading to overcrowding. This becomes stressful to both the students as well as the teacher. This paper therefore discusses challenges faced in teaching the general education courses and also examines if e-learning can aid the effective teaching of general education courses in Nigerian universities.

Keywords: E-learning, General Education Courses, Nigerian Universities

Introduction
Learning delivery is the most often cited advantage of E-learning and includes increased accessibility to information, ease in updating content, personalized instruction, ease of distribution, standardization of content, and accountability (Rosenberg, 2001; Wentling, Waight, Gallaher, La Fleur, Wang, Kanfer, 2000). The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2002) World Education Forum emphasized the essential role of teachers in achieving the goals of Education for all. This is in response to the exponential growth in knowledge and technology that is transforming all aspects of global society and economy and an increase in shortage of teachers in both developing and developed nations. UNESCO (2002) estimated that 15-35 million new teachers are needed to achieve UNESCO's goal of Education for all. The teachers have so many expectations to meet which include, learning new teaching methods, improving their knowledge on the content of their subjects and application of new technologies as tools for learning. There it is paramount that new means of imparting knowledge and reaching out to the overwhelming population of students be developed urgently to meet these challenges.

Many students view the general education courses as a waste of time and most often very inconvenient. The feelings of these students may not be completely out of place considering the fact that tertiary institutions are expected to focus on training and equipping the students in their career choice. Bastedo (2002) noted that general education is rooted in educators’ belief that its courses should teach students knowledge for life and should develop skills that foster students’ achievement in their academic pursuits and beyond (Glynn, Aultman, & Owens, 2005). This, Benander, Denton, Page & Skinner (2000) viewed in a broader sense as capable offering a variety of learning experiences to educate students on how to be responsible, caring members of the society. Further, general education should better assist the students in understanding diverse cultures, lifestyles, and backgrounds from objective and informed perspectives (Glynn et al., 2005). Perhaps, this is why most tertiary institutions in Nigeria have and insist that general education be included in their curriculum in order to assist the students have a wider view of the society rather than just being limited to their career choice alone. General education can span many areas which may include the arts and humanities, social sciences, natural sciences and foreign languages like French for instance. A general education course may be described as a curriculum intended to pass on general knowledge and develop an individual’s general mental processes as against the curriculum set out for their area of specialization or career choice.

E-Learning
The importance and relevance of Information and communication technologies (ICT) in education cannot be overemphasized, especially in the 21st century. It has brought so much revolution to the way of life of people.
all over the globe. It affects virtually the entire life of people, their work, education and their day-to-day activities. E-Learning has become increasingly important in higher education institutions especially in the developing countries. It has become an important instrument which creates student-centered learning and educational practice, thus, offering new and more flexible learning methods. It has not only assist the students in acquiring skills and work habits to meet the ever growing volume information but also helps in possessing the right ability to get new knowledge independently and improve their cognitive processes especially in the Information Technology world. E-learning refers to the use of information and communication technologies (ICT) in different processes of education to support and enhance learning in higher education institutions (Al-awad & Smedley, 2012). This includes the use of ICT technology as a supplement to traditional classrooms, online learning or mixing the both modes (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2005). Continuing professional development practices in today’s fast moving work place environment increasingly involve the use of modern technologies as part of the quest to provide a flexible and responsive learning experience (Smedley, 2010). In an e-learning environment, a variety of tools and technologies are employed, for example, internet mediated teaching, web-based education, TV and radio broadcast, virtual classrooms and distributed learning (Rosenblit, 2009). Online learning can be more flexible and often involves more technologies, for example, audio chatting, video conferencing and online discussion (Hrastinski, 2008). E-learning offers additional opportunities for interactivity between students and tutors during content delivery (Wagner, Hassanein, & Head, 2008). However, we need to understand the fact that e-learning is not the same as distant learning. Distant learning involves distance teaching which universities adopt which involves reaching out to students wherever they live or wish to study instead of assembling students from dispersed locations in one place (Guri-Rosenblit, 1999). Whereas, E-learning, relates to the use of electronic media for a variety of learning purposes that range from add-on functions in conventional classrooms to full substitution for the face-to-face meetings by online encounters (Guri-Rosenblit, 2005).

E-Learning and General Education Courses
E-learning has been seen as a way to solve the pedagogical challenges in teaching and learning. Perhaps, this is the reason why many universities are increasingly investigating and adopting e-learning as a way to engage and motivate students (Johnson, Cowie, De Lange, Falloon, Hight and Khoo, 2011). E-learning can be a useful tool in teaching general education courses, especially because it involves the teaching of a large number of students in one classroom which is usually overcrowded. This has the support of Dede, Brown-L’Bahy, Ketelhut, and Whitehouse (2004) recognized E-Learning as an increasingly prevalent and viable method for teaching and learning, which especially reduces the stress experienced by teachers and students in the large classes. Again, several researchers have seen e-learning to be more effective in providing access to pedagogical skills (NRC, 1996); giving teachers the opportunities to experience the appropriate use of technology in teaching and learning, and also increase their confidence in using these tools in their own practice. NSTA (2008) also observed that e-learning engages a greater number of teachers in ongoing, high quality professional development. Based on the effectiveness of e-learning in teaching and learning as noticed from several literature this paper therefore suggests that if e-learning is used to teach the general education courses in the universities, the stress of teaching large number of students at a time will be reduced.

Challenges to e-learning
The rapid growth of e-learning courses at academic institutions has brought about a big change for students and tutors with various levels of academic experience (Eduscouse, 2003). These according to Selander, 2008 may include political, technological, financial, workload and student learning implications. Some of the obvious challenges are addressed below.

Infrastructure
There is the challenge of availability and access to infrastructure for many institutions contemplating e-learning. Most institutions find it very difficult as a result of low funding to equip their institutions with infrastructure which is germane to the effective use of e-learning.

Fares (2007) remarked that appropriate infrastructure for ICT development, (that is, internet, extranet, intranet and LAN networks) is considered one of the biggest challenges in the implementation of e-learning in higher education institutions, particularly in developing countries. This challenge may even be greater for institutions
that use e-learning to teach general education courses considering the enormous number of students participating in general education courses. Again, Salmon (2004) argues that an e-learning environment must provide students and teachers with a high degree of reliability and accessibility.

**Cultural beliefs and Skill development**

It is not every student who has the experience and confidence in using this technology, thus making participation and success rate very low. In fact, Arabasz, Pirani & Fawcett (2003) assert that a student’s technical limitations including hardware and bandwidth issues must be considered by instructors when designing online courses. This is perhaps, because most students would prefer the traditional method of “face to face” contact and avoid the e-learning process, especially if they find the contents expressed in complex language, thus making it very difficult for them to comprehend. Edmundson (2007) stresses that one of the features of a successful e-learning system is the involvement of users’ cultural characteristics in its design.

**Time Expended by Instructors**

One of the biggest challenges for instructors according to Smith & Taveras (2005) is the amount of time needed to deal with e-learning requirements. Instructors need to develop and restructure their courses in a way that suits online requirements and all of these activities often require more time and increase workload (Al-adwan & Smedley, 2012). The expectations of students desiring prompt responses to comments, assignments and questions may also be an additional burden on the tutor which also requires time and planning. Unfortunately, most instructors do not have the knowledge and training required in the use of this technology to design online courses while some may not have the confidence to use this technology in education (Educause, 2003). Moreover, some instructors still remain unconvinced about the integration of this technology into their learning (Ishtaiwa, 2006).

**Finance/ Funding**

The cost of incorporating e-learning into the teaching process of most institutions is usually very high. Funding is required in equipping the computer laboratories, obtaining adequate and efficient bandwidth for effective use, designing and administering online courses as well as the training of personnel in accepting the use of e-learning in their teaching.

**Suggestions for Effective Use of E-Learning Approach to General Education Studies in Nigeria**

Based on the identified challenges that may face the adoption of e-learning in teaching the general studies in the higher institutions, the following suggestions have been made:

* Provision should be made in the university’s budget to fund the e-learning programme.
* The provision of wireless and wired networks with high connectivity bandwidth by tertiary institutions is of great importance to the success of e-learning. Investing in the right ICT infrastructure will give easy access to students and teachers.
* Design and develop a range of interactive online workshops within Moodle to help students learn and practice using technology to learn (e-learning) replacing the traditional method of sitting and learning in classroom. Synchronizing physical and virtual environments is helpful student learning (Johnson, Haines & Strang, 2009).
* Design and develop a range of interactive online workshops within Moodle to help teacher learn and practice using technology to teach students effectively.

**References**


Comparative Analysis of Academic Field Trips in Nigeria and the Gambia

Ugwukah C. Alexander, Ph.D
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract
The main objective of this cross-national study is to present inferences drawn from the experiences of both students and lecturers (who as team leaders) produced a critical mass of comparative policy-oriented benchmarks for academic improvement and excellence. Many researchers who commence work in this area feel that designing and administering data collection instruments only may not satisfactorily practically fulfill the objectives of such studies, and as such preferring students observing and embarking on an academic trip aimed at personal justification. Thus, the justification of the work ultimately is to influence policy need to integrate strategies for the wide dissemination of research results into knowledge based acquisition in History and International studies. The cross-cultural aspects of the comparative work are established through the under study of those traits, which correspond or otherwise differ from the two states – Nigeria and Gambia. On the international plane and realm, studies in diplomatic relations (bilateral and multilateral) was fulfilled through field experience as students witnessed on first hand basis how foreign policies are translated into reality by interacting with diplomats, visits to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Gambia and the Nigerian High Commission in Gambia. Utilizing the Adventist education ideal as the framework of Analysis, effort has been made to ascertain how the elements of the mental, spiritual and physical attributes are manifested in the form of education acquired by both students and staff. The results and findings of this study invariably should serve as a benchmark to optimize the impact of such field trips on education and cross-cultural relations between both countries. Also, the study has successfully measured to a reasonable extent, the policy implication to further motivate the university administration on the justification and usefulness of such trips on education generally. Finally, the study concludes that in order to strengthen the research results of the international trips in the future, there is a need to sustain such studies on a regular basis and transferring them into grade points inculcated into courses designed to fulfill such academic need, to make it more impactful. While encouraging such studies in the future, this work recommends that the two countries agricultural sectors and skilled manpower should be further enhanced and diversified from their mono-cultural outlook.

Background to the Study
Since the 20th Century, Comparative Education has increasingly assumed the form of a distinct academic specialization engaging ever more scholars and practicing educators from various academic background (Murray, 1994:1). At once, it is easily realizable from the title of the work, the present is not far-fetched but from the realm of History and International Studies. No doubt, the ultimate aim of any disciplinary study is to ensure its functionality and accessibility by not only those in that area of specialization but to all and sundry as education is a universal instrumentality which engenders the wheel of progress either in the sciences, social sciences, the Humanities and Education generally.

Historically, as Murray Thomas has noted from ancient times, travelers to foreign lands have always shown interest in how the people they visited taught their students, the methodologies of the teaching and the nature of assessment by the teachers and ultimately the expected results from such exercises (Murray, 1994). In practical terms, students were carried along by educators to gain practically from these international exchange experiences to discover what made the standard of education better in one country than the other. The aim of such exercises which involved field experiences were to ultimately encourage cross-cultural studies, adapting new values from one country to the other and generally standardizing education to be more results-oriented. The history of formal comparisons of education however goes back in time to less than 200 years (Murray, 1994). He also asserts that “a foreign society often appears illogical, even ridiculous and it is essential that students understand the rationality of other cultural systems.” (Murray, 1994).

Ross and Jurgens (1998) note ‘with the establishment of nationwide schooling structures in Europe during the 19th century, educators intentionally went abroad to examine schooling in other hands to discover practices
they might profitably adapt at home.’ For example, by the end of the 1800s, German universities had provided a model emulated in North America, while the Japanese joined sent by adapting a pattern of education found in the United States and parts of Europe (Shurma, 1990).

The current work is not an exception to such previous studies only because it involves two African countries, rather it engenders the horizons of international comparative education of the African model. The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as from the 1920s, encouraged International Comparative Education through publication of journals reflecting those details in such journals as Comparative Education Review (USA) and International Review of Education amongst others.

One of the objectives of these comparative studies is that a school environment education should be complemented by a readiness to invest effort in outdoor educative programmes to enhance good teacher-student relations and motivate to bring about better learning outcomes. Ultimately, central examination and assessments of such results are important elements in such strategies to develop the overall learning integration for the students and promotion of education generally.

**Conceptual Framework of Analysis**

The conceptual framework of analysis relevant to this study is the Harmonious Development model developed by Seventh-day Adventist educators which is comprised of three elements – physical, mental and spiritual development, often depicted as an equilateral triangle.

![Fig. 1: The Harmonious-Development Model](image1)

![Fig. 2: The Four Dimensional Model](image2)

**Source:** Taylor, J. W. V. (2013). *Service: The Fourth Dimension in Adventist Education: Journal of Adventist Education*

As noted in 1903, Ellen White wrote,

> Our ideas of education take too narrow and too low a range. There is need of a broader scope, a higher aim. True education...has to do with the whole being and with the whole period of existence possible to man. It is the harmonious development of the physical, the mental and the spiritual powers (Ellen, 1903).

Based in part on this statement, Adventist Education Systems have endeavoured to implement this balanced, whole-person perspective.

A fourth aspect crucial to this harmonious education model is the social dimension, in which service is a key component (Taylor, 2003:4). Explaining further this next step, John Wesley Taylor asserts that the very next sentence in the 1903 passage holds the answer.

> True education prepares the student for the joy of service in this world and for the higher joy of wider service in the world to come (Taylor, 2003).

This fourth element was clearly exemplified by Jesus Christ in His ministry which emphasized teaching, preaching the gospel, reaching and associating with others. Jesus’ life and ministry therefore is our model, and Adventist Education and any adventure to acquire and expand education could only but be based on this important role to play in producing Christians whose lives illustrates integration of faith, learning and practice.
Intersecting components in service-learning which is incorporated in this model is reflected below in this diagram.

![Diagram of Intersecting Components in Service Learning]

**Fig 3:** Intersecting Components in Service Learning  

The study genuinely adopted these benchmarks for the assessment of the international field trip to Gambia by Nigerian Students of Babcock University. It ensured that all these elements above were carefully measured and articulated in order to produce the expected results from both the students and staff that embarked on this excursion. In essence, the element of academic study, practical experiences of what has been studied by the students in classrooms, civic education, awareness and understanding were subjected to critical reasoning and assessment through question and answer sessions and also civic engagements through interactions with people in another country. On the long run, the spiritual, the mental and physical components of service learning were witnessed in the work aspect of the students and this was thereafter harmonized through impacting qualitative education to the students.

**Statement of the problem**

One major problem confronting objective education is that of subjectivity and restriction to external exposure of students to other cultural heritage and practices. It has been asserted that students could benefit immensely in terms of physical and mental upgrading from cross-national studies, especially in terms of making up for deficiencies not found within their system that might be garnered from such trips. The task which the work has attempted to resolve is to measure the extent to which physical and mental exposure could improve the students general knowledge, not only from international field trips but equally from the cultural divergences of the two countries understudied.

The study hopes to provide solution to this problem by attempting a comparative analysis of the academic field trips embarked by students of Babcock University to Gambia and to ascertain that the experience is value laden and result oriented.

**Research Questions**

This study asks the following research questions:

i. Could international field trips improve the knowledge of students?

ii. What are the students likely to benefit from such trips?

iii. How could international trips be improved upon to ensure continuity?

**Methodology**

The approach adopted for the study is the qualitative historical method. Therefore, the study relied mainly on primary sources including interviews with the Nigerian High Commissioner to The Gambia and the Gambian Foreign Affairs Ministry provided vast knowledge on the Comparative Analysis. It also made use of secondary data sourced from journals, books and interviews from students and all others in The Gambia and Nigeria during the field experience.
The Academic Field Trip Report
If as Hanson and Bremback (1966) have defined education as the means through which men and women acquire the civilization of the past and are enabled to take part in the civilization of the present in order to polish and advance it for the future, then the purpose of the recent international trip of the Babcock University, Department of History and International Studies may have been fulfilled in all ramifications (Hanson and Bremback, 1966). No doubt, the educational trip was meant to develop the students’ intellectual and physical understanding of peoples of other cultures of Africa. The trip to the smiling coast city of Banjul, the capital city of Gambia was an experience that every first visitor to this quiet Atlantic Ocean resort would ever live to remember. Apart from the reception given at the Banjul International Airport, the air of aura that enveloped one was such attractive scenery which is quite full of vibrancy and beckons to revealing a world on the other side of unknown African cultural qualities. The first impression that adorned the major city right from the airport were the picture posters of the re-elected president of the “small but mighty” country, Alhaji (Dr.) Yahaya Jammeh. At the time of the visit, it was not too long the President celebrated his birthday and this was noticeable through the various posters congratulating him for a longer life and more years of leadership. President Jammeh is highly respected or more appropriately revered by his citizens who are quite obedient law-abiding and hardworking Africans who live in their own world and with their challenges. Unlike most capital cities, there is hardly any traffic build-up in Banjul at any period, except at the early hours of work, the nature of which is hardly anything to be compared with the build-up in Lagos or even the capital city of Abuja and other state capitals in Nigeria.

With a population of less than 1.6million, it is hardly expected that any serious congestion is expected in the capital city of Banjul. Although there are federal ministries and parastatals, the bulk of the populace are businessmen and who engage in various trading activities which include food items trading, clothing, transportation and fishing and boat services. The major produce of Gambia is groundnut and palm oil which could be compared to Nigeria’s produce too in the North and South. One would wonder how Gambians do cope with their use of Mercedes Benz 190 as their taxi cabs, a practice scarcely practicable in Nigeria, where Mercedes Benz cars are deemed as high consumers of fuel and not economically profitable for transportation purposes. Although, Gambia is largely an Islamic state with over 95% of its population as Muslims, yet the country is reputed to be highly religiously tolerant of the other 5% who are Christians and other traditional religions worshippers.

No doubt, Gambia is a very peaceful country, with about 12,000sq. Kilometers, boasting of its stretch of beaches which attracts tourists from Europe, Asia and even as far-away America. The cultural values of its people and their respect for visitors, tourists and peoples from other countries is immediately discernible from their attachment of brotherhood and brother keeper in all they do and in their relationship with each other and others. Obviously, the pervading peace and serenity in this city, no doubt, must be one of the strong points which have established Banjul as one of the busiest attractive tourism center in Africa.

This is quite confirmed from a tour of the major hospitality points and hotels in the city which clearly reflects that over 90% of all hotel patronage are white men and women who are on their vacation. Some do not just come with their families, but are ready to make more friends before they leave the coastal city of Banjul. Two of the major hotels, the Hilton Hotel and the Laico Atlantic Hotels which are five/four-star hotels give the hospitality industry the needed coverage for most of the foreign tourists, a greater extent to which the economy of Gambia rely and gets constant boost in terms of foreign currencies – the dollars and pounds sterling. The Gambians spend Dallasi as their currency and Banjul is not the only attraction of the Gambia, there are many other fun spots in Senegambia. Al Breda and Juffreh and the James Island, the home town of the famous African-American, Alex Haley who not only wrote the novel – “The Roots” but equally traced his roots to Gambia, was eventually transformed into a movie in the 1980s celebrating Africans in diaspora.

Cultural Relics and Expose
Al Breda, like Badagry in Nigeria, the Goree Island, in the Coast of Senegal and El Mina Fort in Ghana is notable for the role these fortresses played in the over four hundred years of slavery across the Atlantic Ocean to the New World and West Indies. The Slave Camps and the various relics used in this destructive profitable human trafficking are still kept for visitors attestations. After the outlawing of slave trade in 1807 by the British parliament and its ultimate stoppage in 1833, the legitimate trade that replaced the slave trade inherited
some of their fortresses. Some of these warehouses were converted to other uses such as depots for palm oil, palm kernels for export to British manufacturing firms as the slave trade was halted. More so, a tourist zoo with the Crocodile habitat was intriguing with various animal species including reptiles which were cultured to gently allow visitors scratch their thorny backs without much ado.

**Diplomatic Exchanges and Experience**

Perhaps, a journey to the Gambia especially by Nigerian diplomatic students would also hardly be complete without a visit to the Nigerian High Commission which is headed by Ambassador (Mrs.) Esther John Audu who highlighted Nigeria’s close ties with the Gambia. With full understanding of the cultural, political and economic history of existence with the diverse ethnic groups of the country, Audu noted that despite the fact that Gambia is a smaller country with a population of about 1.6million and with about minor ethnic tribes and which over the years have leaned on Nigeria in form of assistance, upbringing and in the process of its development, yet the country (Gambia) has carved a niche for itself in harmonizing the diverse cultures and peoples of various religious background. She further asserted that despite the fact that Gambia is predominantly a Muslim state, yet its tolerant level with other religious groups leaves no room for negative development such as the Boko Haram sect and the acts against Christian brothers quite existent in the Nigerian polity. “There is hardly any form of protests in Gambia as all rally round the President while there is hardly any incidence of robbery as experienced in Banks in Nigeria.” (Ambassador Audu, 2012). A major experience acquired by the students at this level was their practical interaction with Diplomatic personnels and those who actually carry out the tasks and responsibilities of Nigeria’s Foreign Service to Gambia. With questions fielded to the various officers on what they actually did in their daily activities, students were able to picture what would likely be their own positions as future diplomats representing their countries elsewhere (Audu, 2012).

The High Commissioner however observed that in terms of its diplomatic relationship, the Gambia has cooperated with Nigeria in the area of military strategy, the police, and cooperation in developing the criminal and justice system to the extent that a Nigerian was once the Chief Justice of the Gambia. Also, there are a lot of Nigerian businessmen and women cooperating in various projects there, while a lot of women engage in trading, managing restaurants and men in construction companies with good contracts in Gambia. A lot of Nigerians are also in their secondary and tertiary institutions teaching and lecturing. Currently, Audu stated that there was about 95 technical corps from Nigeria to the Gambia spread in the teaching and agricultural sectors.

**University Exchange: Cross-National Exposure**

A visit to the University of the Gambia provided another ample opportunity for the students of Babcock University, History and International Relations department to interact with the students of University of Gambia. The President of the University of the Students Union of the Gambia University, Alkali M. Dibba expressed utmost happiness at the cross-cultural relations between Nigeria and Gambia as members of the ECOWAS and the Commonwealth of Nations having been both colonized by the British government.

Dibba’s speech was followed by that of the President of the Babcock University History and International Studies Association; Mr. Nunu Michael who gave a speech to the counterpart students to continue strong cultural cooperation and research between the two citadels of higher learning. A visit to the National Museum of the Gambia was another journey into the historical circumstances of the country from pre-colonial to its colony days when the capital city was Bathurst named after the most prominent British overlord of the time. The city’s name Bathurst was changed to Banjul after the country’s independence in 1965.

The trip to the Gambia would not have been complete by the Historians et diplomats from Babcock University without the visit to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Gambia where students were received by the Foreign Affairs Permanent Secretary, Mawdo Juwara. Juwara was full of praise for Nigerian Students whose interests for education have seen them into many foreign lands. He also acknowledged the deep relationship shared by Nigeria with Gambia in several areas, highlighting that the Gambian Head of State and Commander in Chief of Armed Forces, President Yahya Jammeh has encouraged the close ties with Nigeria, and cooperation in even academic and research (Juwara, 2012). Juwara also expressed Gambia’s commitment to cooperation with Nigerian Students who wish to work in Gambia after their graduation. He noted that Nigeria-
Gambian Commonwealth relations are fast-spreading through trade imports and exports, including the residency of many Nigerian investors in Gambia.

After the one week tour of several parts of Gambia, commended the good leadership quality of the administration of Babcock University which made the venture worth the while and without regret, adding that they were highly enriched culturally and diplomatically as initially conceived before the trip was embarked upon. They also thanked God for its ultimate success. There was so much to verify, learn in cultural life of the people that the one week trip between 19th February and 24th April, 2012 was hardly enough. However, with planned and scheduled visits tailored according to the days of the trip, much was achieved. After the excursion, the following comparative educative and historical analysis was drawn from the two countries – Nigeria and the Gambia.

Substantive Comparative Study of the Political History of Gambia and Nigeria

Gambia is a strip of land wide on either side of the Gambia River and extends almost 480km into the interior and a short coastline along the Atlantic Ocean. It is surrounded extremely by Senegal. Gambia River is the country’s dominant feature which flows across a plateau of Miocene – Pliocene sandstone consisting of compacted sediments composed predominantly of quartz grains formed from about 23.7 to 1.6 million years ago (Dale & Levy, 2011:6291). The Gambia has a wet and dry tropical climate characterized by an intense rainy season occurring generally between June and October and by a longer dry season. However, the rainfall is heavier near the cast and lasts longer there too, diminishing towards the East.

The Gambian river basin was a focal point for migrating groups of people escaping the turmoil of Western Sudanic wars daily from the 12th century AD (Dale & Levy, 2011). The Diola (jola) are the people longest resident in the country. They are located mostly in Western Gambia. However, the largest groups are the Malinke people who comprise about two-fifth of the population. In Banjul, the capital city, because of proximity to Senegal, the Wolofs also predominate and sizably populated. The next important ethnic group is the Fulanis, an ethnic group also found in Nigeria. In fact, it is to be noted that Fulanis of Nigeria historically migrated from the Futa Djallon Mountains in Guinea to Northern Nigeria. The Fulanis are also cattle rearers and have a sedentary life style, even though modernity has transformed a greater lot. The Fulani settled in the upper river regions and the name of their kingdom Faladu became a major power in the 19th century. After that, are the Soninke, an admixture of the Malinke and Fulani who also are concentrated in the upper river areas.

In contrast, Nigeria is traversed by the two major Rivers, the Niger and Benue and divides the country into three major parts the North, West and the East. However, on the basis of language-culture groups, Nigerian peoples number about two hundred and fifty ethnic groups (Omoniyi, as cited in Adeyemi, 2010:1). The major ones include the Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo which are the major ethnic groups. Other major groups include the Edo, Efik, Fulani, Igala, Nupe, Kanuri, Tiv, Urhobo and Ijaw. Other numerous smaller ones include the Botewa Kakendan, Kunbu, Nungu, Eko, Kalabar, Isekeri, Tangle and Yungu. Gambia and Nigeria were once part of the British West African countries colonized by Britain. Therefore, the official of the two countries is English language. However, the most frequently spoken languages in Gambia are of the Niger-Congo family – Mandinka and Wolof, which form the lingua-franca of the people. Other languages spoken are Pular (Fable) also spoken in Nigeria, Serer, Diola and Soninke. Some Muslims clerics are literate in Arabic. Given their colonial background, Gambia and Nigeria passed through similar paths to their independence, although, at different times. While Nigeria secured its independence on October 1, 1960, Gambia got its independence from Britain in February 1965.

Acquisition of territories preceded formal colonialism which in Gambia could be dated to 1889, when in a conference in Paris, France ceded control of the Gambia River and the present-day boundaries of the Gambia were drawn, (Adigwe, 1974). By 1900, Britain had imposed indirectly on the interior or protectorate which had been established since 1894 at Bathurst (as Banjul), the capital was then called. Indirect rule system established 35 chieftdoms and had the real power concentrated in the British governor and his staff at Bathurst (Adigwe, 1974). Except for some trouble with slave raiding chiefs, the Gambia enjoyed peace after its separation from Sierra Leone (Aderibigbe, 2000). Slavery was abolished throughout the protectorate in 1906.
Gambia contributed its own quota of soldiers to the war effort and particularly for the Burmese (Burma) campaign and was used as an air-staging post.

On the contrary, colonization in Nigeria may be dated to the 1861 ceding of Lagos to become a crown colony of Britain. By 1906, the colony was merged with the Southern protectorate which altogether was consolidated with the Northern and Southern protectorate in 1914 under the colonial governor of Nigeria, Lord Frederick Lugard. Whereas nationalism and the struggle for independence in Nigeria was stiff with the emergence of three major (later) ethnic based political parties – the National Council of Nigerians and the Cameroons (NCNC), the Action Group (AG) and the Northern People’s Congress, political parties were late in coming in the Gambia. Until 1960, Gambian politics was dominated by the Creoles. But in 1951, Rev. J.C. Faye organized the Democratic Party while Garba-Jahumpa organized the Muslim Congress Party. These two political parties which were basically religious parties and were united to the British Crown Colony were defeated in the 1960 election when the United Party (UP) of Pierre Njie won five of the seven colony seats.

In the protectorate of the Gambia, political awakening took a longer time to develop. The protectorate people came under the mainstream of Gambian political life through the formulation of People Progressive Party (PPP) which won the election of 1962 led by Dauda Jawara. He concluded the good work started by Njie P.S and attempted to unite all the ethnic tribes in the Gambia. He further confronted the colonial authorities with demands for constitutional development and it was through his efforts that independence was achieved in 1968. Upon the attainment of Independence, the structure of local government was reformed. The Bathurst City Council continued to be responsible for the local government of Bathurst. In the rural areas, the 35 traditional districts were divided into the following Area Councils: Bri Kama, Mansa, Koriko, Kerewan, Kuntaur, George Town and Bassa Area Councils. The constitution recognized the status of chiefs who had long been important instruments of the indirect Rule System of administration. Four members of the House of Representatives were to be elected by the Head Chiefs from amongst themselves. In addition, chiefs played an important role in the running of the local government of the state.

**Political History of the Two Countries**

It must be noted that as in most British colonies, in the Gambia, it was the two world wars, particularly the second – which helped the people to attainment of independence. The agitation which followed the end of the Second World War led to the setting up of a Consultative Committee in 1953. In 1954, both the Executive and Legislative councils established in the Gambia were made more fully representative of the people. The members were freely elected. Not until 1960, though was a political party established, the Peoples Progressive Party led by Sir. Dauda Jawara. After the general election of May 1960, a coalition government was formed between Jawara’s Peoples Progressive Party and the United Party of Pierre N’jie. Another election was held in May 1962; the Peoples Progressive Party won the majority seats and Jawara became the first Premier of the Gambia. Full internal self-government followed in October, 1963 and in February 1965, Gambia, the last of the British possessions in West Africa was granted independence.

Nigeria’s strategy for independence on the other hand, was not as radical as that of Ghana or the French West African countries. As Omoni has noted, Nigeria’s independence movement was spearheaded by the NCNC founded in 1944 and led by Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe. Although, a group of young radicals – the Zikists – attained temporary prominence in the late 1940s, the main leadership of the party adopted moderate methods to press its demands for self-government on the colonial administration (Omoni. 1982). Other political parties later emerged, within the regional framework of the federal constitution; it was perhaps natural as well as unfortunate that these parties should have been largely based on ethnic support. Between 1951 and 1958, political activities became intensified with the emergence of three major political parties now based on the regional arrangement. The NCNC and the Action Group in the South East and South West and the Northern Peoples’ Congress (NPC) dominating in the North. The strains and disunity caused by rivalries between these political parties were exacerbated by the agitations and emergence of a fourth factor – the ethnic minorities. So serious were these vocal minority groups that the issue formed an important, though, unresolved, item for discussion during one of the constitutional conferences held on the future of Nigeria’s administration.21

By and large, both North and South of Nigeria readjusted their position to ensure independence in 1960. While Nigeria’s republic status was granted in 1963, Gambia became a republic on April 24, 1970. The first
Prime Minister, Sir Tafawa Balewa assumed leadership of government from 1960 up till 1966 when the military intervention launched the Khaki boys into power in the same 1966 with a succession of military leaders from Major Gen. Aguiyi Ironsi till the last vestiges of the military headed by Gen. Abdusalam Abduallahi Abubakar who handed over power to a democratically elected government led by President Olusegun Obasanjo in 1999.

The case of Gambia was no too different from the circumstance of Nigeria. With Sir Dauda Jawara emerging the first President with his party – Peoples Progressive Party (PPP), the party was returned in all elections after 1972, while the first military attempt (coup d’état) was made in 1981. The attempt to overthrow was put down with the aid of Senegambia troops after heavy fighting in Banjul. In the aftermath of the coup attempt, the two leaders created a confederation of the Senegambia. This plan called for each state to retain independence of action in most areas, but military and economic resources were to be integrated.

Following serious economic problems from the early 80s through to the 1990s in July 1994, another group of young army officers led by Capt. (later Col.) Yahya Jammeh staged a bloodless coup d’état which finally launched military rule into Gambia while Jawara fled into exile, Jammeh consolidated his own power after retirement from the military and formed a political party, Alliance for Patriotic Reorientation and Construction in 1996. He has held on to power since then with two other coup attempts in 2000 and 2006. Yet, he was reelected since then with the opposition which has been repressed accusing him of same corruption he pledged to eliminate. Although, other parties such as Gambia Peoples Party, Peoples Democratic Organization for Independence and Socialism and the United Democratic Party exist and participate in the political affairs of the country, they are with little or no impact in the political calculations. Nigeria’s democracy since 1999 has continued to march on with President Obasanjo two-term tenure ending in 2007 when Yar’Adua took over and was caught short with his untimely death in 2007 which brought in President Goodluck Jonathan who has been Nigeria’s Head of State till date.

On the economy of both countries which can best be described as mono-cultural, Nigeria with its petroleum resources, Gambia major earner has been agriculture represented by the groundnut pyramids. To diversify its economy, Gambia engage in cultivation of cassava, yams and citrus orchards, cotton, rice and cattle as is done in Northern Nigeria. On international relations, Gambia’s is Nigeria’s trading partner as they cooperate on several imports and exports of goods. However, its other trading partners are from the European Union, China, and Japan. Gambia is highly dependent on foreign aid from these countries. Tourism is an important aspect of Gambia’s foreign exchange earner. It used to be one of the vibrant sectors before the 1994 coup by the military. The International Roots Festival, an annual heritage celebrations created in 1996 attracts members of the African Diaspora from around the world. Jufureh is another tourist attraction with relics of slave trade. It’s a village up river from Banjul made famous by the American writer, Alex Haley in Roots (1976).

The University of the Gambia was established in 1999 and is still the only university in the country. While, Nigeria’s premier University of Ibadan was established in 1948, there are over 50 other federal, states and private universities. The University Students Union met with the visiting Babcock University and exchanged views on collaborative matters after the exchange visit to the universities in Nigeria.

**Conclusion and Lessons Drawn from the Experience**

In this study, an attempt has been made to compare and contrast the bi-lateral relations between Nigeria and the Gambia. In the process, cross-cultural and political developments of the two countries has been highlighted through the essence of the excursion made by Nigerian Students of Babcock University to government and other tourists apparatus in Gambia. From the experiences garnered, it was obvious that the faith based learning of the students’ previous intellectual acquisition were integrated into their overall acquisition in life. Drawn from the framework of analysis, it could be discovered that civic education, awareness and understanding were achieved through the experiences gained in this trip. At once, it was deductible that the academic study earlier gained in classroom before the trip was practiced through the internship and fieldwork. At various points, it was clearly evident that student leaders who were not appointed by any qualification or through gender emerged as they volunteered to manage time, health and even in their hotel rooms cleanliness, orderliness and even financial management of scarce resources in a foreign country.
For the accompanying lecturers or teachers as the case may appropriately be, it can be ascertained that they were able to inject new ideas from the group work and challenges arising from the field trip. The trip enabled their teaching experience to become process-oriented, enhancing further the students understanding of issues raised through the question and answer sessions in each of the facilities visited. The Gambia National/Museum was a lecture session on the British Colonial government in Gambia and the cultural ways of life. Academic exchange increased as Babcock students mingled with the students of Gambia University at a special session with the Students Executives of Gambia. More importantly, these practical experiences proved to be an authentic assessment of the exposure levels of the students while a lot of curtailing and checking were made to ensure the students comported to true moral values. The interactive sessions further created new areas of research and scholarship especially, bordering on international comparative education on the cultures of the two countries and authority, the experience was duly a proof reinforcing the value of the scholarship of engagement and more importantly provided opportunities for institutional recognition in far-away Gambia. The high commendation received by Babcock History and International Relations from the Ministry of foreign Affairs Minister, who described them as “highly cerebral students” was evident enough to portray that the whole experience was a success and a testimony supporting the academic excellence mission of the university as a whole. After a thorough assessment of the educational field trip and a detailed historical background of the two countries in their economic cultural, education and political experience, it is important to make some observations on how the total experience has been beneficial to staff, students and the two countries in question.

According to the reports filed in by the students after the one-week trip, most of them noted the trip enriched their academic acquisition and understanding, igniting vital awareness on not only diplomatic relations of the two countries but also of their cultural relevance and background. Also, they noted that the experience allowed them to develop a habit of critical reasoning since they were encouraged to ask questions on a variety of matters on the two countries. Apart from these factors, the students accepted that the experience enabled them foster the spirit of teamwork and that they were able to integrate theory with practice especially with the visits to the Foreign Affairs Ministry of Gambia and Nigeria’s High Commission in the Gambia.

Spiritually, the students were able to reflect on their spiritual life on campus and ensured that was reflected in their everyday activities which were started by prayer sessions and ending with prayer sessions. The fact that they were used to these religious and moral ideals while in school made it mandatory through their self-biddings to put into practice what they often went through in their assemblies in school.

Problems Identified from the Study
Generally, like most African countries, both Nigeria and Gambia are significantly dependent on subsistence agriculture and primary product exports. The average income is very low compared to other countries of the North. Productivity in agriculture, as well as in industries, is significantly low compared to productivity in the developed countries. Also, the level of technology is very low in both countries, even though, Nigeria has an edge over that of Gambia. Yet, encouragement is being given by the governments of the two countries for modern farming methods.

Significantly, there is a large scale of underutilized human resources, while unemployment and underdevelopment of both material and human resources in almost all the sectors of their economies. There is still a very low level of industrial development despite ambitious development plans formulated by the government of the two countries. International trade is the engine of growth of both countries should divest into other productive resources of the countries as distinct from Gambia’s groundnut and Nigeria’s petroleum resources.

Recommendations
By way of recommendations, one would like to prescribe some measures which could serve as a modus Vivendi between the two countries – Nigeria and the Gambia.

Expectedly, effort should be put into the developing of the agricultural sectors of the two countries economy. Soil fertility enhancement should be encouraged while more agrarian products as distinct from groundnut in Gambia and petroleum in Nigeria and some basic substance crops such as cereals, corn, yams and even
cassava. Training of skilled manpower should be encouraged for the survival of industrialization for the two countries. No doubt, this will involve some foreign interaction, much of which can be tapped from the booming tourism industry in Gambia. On the diplomatic front, both countries have no cause for alarm as there is conducive environment for trade exchanges, educational and other cultural exchanges, a manifestation of the variation exhibited by the Babcock students’ visit.

References


Joseph Nwabueze Amaefule
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.
E-mail- josephamaefule@gmail.com

Abstract
This study examined the analysis of J-Curve on the Nigeria economy, using econometric analysis. The study used time-series data covering the range of 1981 to 2014. Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test, developed by Dickey and Fuller (1981), was used to test the level of stationarity behavior of the variables’ time series. The study showed that there is a negative relationship between exchange rate and trade balance which is not in conformity with the apriori expectation; it also showed that export and import have positive relationship with trade balance which conformed with the aproiri expectations. The negative relationship existed among inflation rate and this result do not conform with the aproiri expectations. The core finding of this study showed that exchange rate has a negative long-run impact on the trade balance, it means that the J-curve is not supported by the empirical study and this implies that the J-curve cannot be applicable to the Nigeria economy. However, it is revealed that the applicability of the J-curve favors economy that does not depend mostly on importation, because the J-Curve hypothesis will make exportation more attractive and make importation very expensive. This justifies the need for the Nigeria economy to increase exportation by diversifying her economy in addition to the crude oil.

Keywords: J-Curve, Unit Root Analysis, Exchange rate, Trade balance, Devaluation and Nigeria

Background to the Study
Exchange rate experts have posited that depreciation in the real exchange rate brings about competitive advantage in international trade. This is because, when a country devalues her currency, its entire domestic exportable become cheaper relative to its trading partners and this increases the quantity demanded of such exports. Thus, exchange rate depreciation as a policy prescription is mainly aimed at improving the international trade balance. Exchange rate as a variable plays an important role in an open economy. Using Nigeria as a case study, a country with population of above 170 million people, Nigeria has the largest domestic market in sub-Saharan Africa. The domestic market is large and potentially attractive to domestic and foreign investors, as attested to by portfolio investment inflow of over N1.2 billion (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2010). Hence, the country with an enormous base of crude oil export is often being dominated by international activities like other economies of the world. It is based on this background that we analyze the J-curve hypothesis of exchange rate effect on the trade balance using Nigeria as a case study.

The J-curve hypothesis has been empirically investigated in several studies. Some of these studies introduce adjustment lags to explain the phenomenon; and precisely by distinguishing various stages that underline the devaluation. According to Magee (1973) (cited in Douglasson, 2009) who first introduced the J-curve concept, these stages could be referred to as the currency-contract period, the pass through period, and the quantity-adjustment period. The currency-contract period is the short period of time which follows ostensibly after the devaluation exercise. This short period of time has immediate effect on the current transaction before the devaluation. The pass through period effect is felt immediately after the exchange rate variation, which implies that prices of contracts made will not change immediately because of the unchanged quantities due to rigidities of demand and supply of exports and imports, (Ziramba, & Chifamba, 2014). The quantity-adjustment period is the era long enough by which both prices and quantities can change.

Devaluation as a policy prescription is mainly aimed at improving the trade balance. However, there is a time lag before the trade balance improves following a real depreciation. The short run and long run effects of depreciation on the trade balance are different. Theoretically, the trade balance deteriorates initially after depreciation and some time along the way it starts to improve until it reaches its long-run equilibrium. The time path through which the trade balance follows generates a J-curve. The time lag comes about as an impact of several lags such as recognition, decision, delivery, replacement and production (Junz and Romberg,
1973), and these are the periods referred as currency-contract period, the pass through period, and the quantity-adjustment period. Following a real depreciation, traders take time to recognize the changes in market competitiveness, and this may take longer in international markets than in domestic markets before information is passed on the stakeholders because of distance and language problems. Some time is spent on deciding on what business relationships to venture into and for the placement of new orders. There is a delivery lag that explains the time taken before new payments are made for orders that were placed soon after the price shocks. Procurement of new materials may be delayed to allow inventories of materials to be used up, this is a replacement lag. Finally, there is a production lag before which producers become certain that the existing market condition will provide a profitable opportunity. Given that there are previously made contracts before the variation occurs. The “perverse valuation” worsens the initial trade balance as domestic currency prices of imports rise.

However, the Nigerian economy is observed to be highly vulnerable to oil price shocks and fluctuation in international markets. The international oil price collapse affected series of economic developments in the country. Budget deficits became huge. According to the IMF (2010) the persistent economic crises led to a drop in the growth rate of real GDP in 1999 as it grew at an average rate of 2.6% from 1992 to 1999. Indeed, the 6.8% growth rate in real GDP recorded in 2008 from 6.2% in 2007 has been attributed to non-oil export. While GDP in absolute terms stood at an estimated US$ 179.7 billion in 2008, GDP per capita was US$ 1228 (Ziramba, & Chifamba, 2014).

Nigeria, though the second largest economy in sub-Saharan Africa, is one of the world’s poorest countries, with more than 70% of its population (that is, over 100 million people) living on less than a dollar per day (OPEC, 2010). It was also recorded in OPEC (2010) that Nigeria is the second biggest oil exporter, before Iran, with oil export of 2,464 million barrels per day (bpd) in 2010, representing a significant increase of 14.1% from 2,160 million bpd in 2009. As at December 31, 2014 Iran occupies the third position with 3,375 million bpd and United States of America maintains the lead with 13,973,000bpd (USA, 2015). Nigeria suffers from a mono cultural economy with huge export and a somewhat inflexible import. Imports consist of a wide range of goods including manufactured and capital goods. The inflexibility of the import stems from the fact that Nigeria lacks a manufacturing sector and thus has to import almost all of its non-agricultural consumables. This is in addition to the fact that the oil producing sector requires a steady inflow of capital goods.

What characterized the Nigeria’s external sector has remained basically the same since independence. The external sector is dominated by a single export commodity, the crude oil. Between 1960 and 1970, the economy was dominated by agricultural commodity exports. Such commodities included cocoa, groundnut, cotton and palm produce. Beginning from the mid-1970s however, crude oil became the major export commodity and major source of foreign reserves in Nigeria (Onwe, 2013). Export of crude oil constitutes over 90 percent of the Nigerian total exports. The major question concerns the extent to which export of crude oil has contributed to development, growth, and progress of the Nigerian economy. Another issue of economic concern is on the Nigerian shift emphasis from the non-oil sub-sector to that of the oil sub-sector.

Authorities in economics have observed that the performance of the non-oil export sector leaves little or nothing to be desired. This explains why in recent times, the major policy concern of the Federal government focused on expansion of non-oil exports in a bid to diversify Nigeria’s export base. This diversification became necessary for some important reasons. First is that the volatility of the international oil market, with the attendant volatility of government revenues give credence to arguments for the diversification of exports. Secondly, the fact that crude oil is an exhaustible asset makes it unreliable for sustainable development of the Nigerian economy (Onwe, 2013).

In view of the research objective, we hypothesized that the relationship between the trade balance of the Nigeria economy and the depreciation of the real effective exchange rate is such that revealed the J-curve hypothesis. Hence, the research question will then be, “is there any relationship between depreciation of real effective exchange rate and the Nigeria balance of trade?” The J-curve hypothesis suggests a specific pattern for the response of trade balance to real exchange rate changes. The rest of the paper is structured as follows, section two reviews the related literature, as well as the structure of oil and non-oil exports in Nigeria; in section three, present the methodology; section four concentrates on the relevant empirical model; section five
presents the empirical results and discussions; and, in section six the paper concludes with some policy recommendation.

**Devaluation of the Naira and Economic Development**

For devaluation to succeed in sustaining its impact on domestic prices and investment decisions, exchange rate adjustments after the initial devaluation should reflect changes in domestic and international inflation. Since 1986, the average annual rate of naira depreciation has generally kept pace with the net movement of internal and external prices of goods and of dollar, but without producing the same level of response in the Nigerian economy. Among the reasons is Nigeria’s worsening terms of trade alongside internal constraints linked to the other adjustments policies. Fifteen years of devaluation and adjustment policies have failed to promote a major shift to production for the local market. While the share of manufacture in GDP may have risen to slightly over 10 percent by 1992, this was still below its 1973 level, according to the World Bank Report. By 1998 it had actually fallen to 7 percent.

Two facets of adjustment policy have played a part in this. One is the combination of tight credit limits and high interest rates used for curbing demand and other is import liberalization. The government’s pursuit of positive real interest rates had pushed the cost of commercial loans beyond 26 percent by 1992, even as credit availability has shrunk. This made borrowing to do business expensive. While local costs rose, trade liberalization opened the door to more imports, thereby eroding the competiveness of the domestic sector. This, no doubt, sounds like a roller-coaster of economic woes. No wonder some commentators have observed that the “the Nigerian economy defies all economic theories”. This is bound to be so because none of the policies have actually addressed Nigeria’s fundamental problems. Solutions to Nigeria’s problems require setting our priorities right, since this constitutes the only firm base for the strategy for sustainable development.

**Structure of the Nigerian Exports**

It is theoretically out of balance to discuss economic development or progress without defining it. Economists look at economic development as a process associated with steady increases in output of goods and services, followed by improvements in the quality and variety of the available goods and services, growth in per capita income, and improvement in the distribution of wealth among the citizenry. Recent scholars, including Misra and Puri (2003) who defined economic development to imply growth accompanied with progressive changes in certain critical variables that determine the well-being of the people, including employment and income, which may be missing in the development and growth of an economy, expressed in terms of an increase in income per capita. Mahbub (1971) noted that solutions to the problem of development must be seen as a selective attack on the worst forms of poverty. Development goals must therefore, be set in terms of progressive reduction and eventual elimination of malnutrition, disease, illiteracy, squalor, unemployment, and inequalities.

In line to discussions on economic development is that of growth. An in-depth analysis of economic growth is normally associated with the neoclassical growth model. This model argues that economic growth is functionally determined by growth of factor inputs, generally defined within a growth accounting framework in which Cobb-Douglas, constant returns production function is assumed, so that if capital and labour grow at a certain rate, and there is absence of technological change, then output will grow at the same rate. Here, output is view in the Cobb-Douglas model in terms of national income or real Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Relaxing the assumptions of constant returns and absence of technological change, Kaldor (1970) proposes a growth model that assumes increasing returns to the manufacturing sector and the possibility that new investments encourage new technology. Kaldor’s model is an export-led growth model because it considers exports as the main component of aggregate demand.

With these basic backgrounds, we examine the structure of the Nigerian oil and non-oil exports, with a view to establishing the practical trends in the oil and non-oil sub-sectors’ balance of trade in Nigeria. In the 1960’s, Nigeria’s export trade was largely dominated by Agricultural products constitute the bulk of Nigeria’s non-oil exports. Their share in total value of non-oil exports is as high as 70 per cent. The agricultural products include cocoa, groundnut, palm produce, rubber (natural), cotton and yarn, fish and shrimps. Other components of the non-oil exports include manufactured products and solid minerals, such as processed
agricultural products, textiles, tin metal, beer, cocoa butter, plastic products, processed timber, tyres, natural spring water, soap, tin ore, columbite, hides, skin and cattle, detergent and fabricated iron rods. The effects of devaluation in the exchange rate on the trade balance are related to the determinants of the demand and supply elasticities of exports and imports. In the short run, the elasticities are relatively smaller (inelastic demand and supply), than in the long run (elastic) hence the trade balance may deteriorate in the short run. Bahmani-Oskooee and Gelan (2012). Due to currency contracts, initially, the trade balance worsens as a result of a real depreciation since prices and trade volumes are not allowed to change.

This situation assumes that exports are invoiced in domestic currency and imports in foreign currency. The degree of foreign and domestic producer’s price pass-through to consumers and the scale of supply and demand elasticities of exports and imports, determine the value of the effect (Hsing, 2003). The J-curve effect can be explained by both a perfect pass-through and a zero pass-through. Under a perfect pass-through domestic import price increases while domestic export price remains unchanged. The resulting effect is deterioration in the trade balance. In zero pass-through situation, domestic export price increases and domestic import prices remain constant hence the real trade balance improves following devaluation. According to Bahmani-Oskooee and Hosny (2013), the Marshall-Lerner condition is the necessary and sufficient condition for an improvement in the trade balance following devaluation. For a currency devaluation to have a positive impact on the trade balance, the sum of import and export demand elasticities should be greater than one. The Marshall-Lerner condition is a long-run condition because exporters and importers have enough time to adjust to changes in the exchange rate by coming up with alternative choices in demand and supply.

Most studies on the J-curve effect have come up with mixed results. Some results are consistent with the J-curve phenomenon while others depict non existence or new evolution of the J-curve effect. Gupta-Kapoor and Ramakrishnan (1999) used the error correction model and the impulse response function to determine the J-curve effect on Japan using quarterly data from 1975-1996:4. Their analysis showed the existence of the J-curve on the Japanese trade balance. Tihomir (2004) found evidence of J-curve on trade balance for Croatia. His study employed a reduced form model to estimate the impact of a permanent shock on the merchandise trade balance. It was found that 1 percent depreciation in the exchange rate improves the equilibrium trade balance by the range of 0.94 percent-1.3 percent and it took 2.5 years for equilibrium to be established. Petrovic and Grigoric, (2010) studied the dynamics between the dollar and components of U. S. trade. They employed time series specification tests and Granger tests of causal priority to identify the J-curve phenomenon. Two of the four components portrayed dynamic relationships that are weaker and more delayed than the standard J-curve.

In the conventional J-curve, the theory asserts a strong and rapid dependency of imports prices on the currency. Grigoryan (2015) found empirical evidence indicating the existence of the first segment of the J-curve on the U.S. Agricultural trade balance. The results exhibited deterioration in the trade balance that lasted for about 9 months following a 10 percent depreciation in the U.S. dollar. Using the generalized impulse response function from the vector error correction model to examine the existence of J-curve for Japan, Korea and Taiwan, Hsing (2003) found that Japan’s aggregate trade provided evidence of the phenomenon while Korea and Taiwan did not show any presence of the J-curve effect. He argues that this may be attributed to a small open economy effect. In small open economies like Korea and Taiwan, both imports and exports are invoiced in foreign currency as a result the short run effect of real devaluation is hedged and the trade balance remains unaffected.

Haynes and Stone (1982) estimated the impact of terms of trade on the U.S trade balance. Their results showed no improvement in the trade balance following a deterioration of the terms of trade for the period between 1947 and 1974. This was a reexamination of Onwe (2013) who concluded that there was a lag of about 2 years before the U.S. trade balance could improve following changes in the prices giving evidence of J-curve. Miles (1979) found that devaluations do not improve the trade balance but do improve the balance of payments. He suggests that devaluation results in a readjustment in investment portfolio resulting in an excess in the capital account. The data used was from 14 countries for the period ranging from 1956 to 1972. These results were reexamined by Tarlok Singh (2004) and some evidence of a J-curve was found. He critiqued Miles’ results as to be sensitive to units of measurements, and argued that the real exchange rate is the one that affect the trade flow and not the nominal exchange rate. He went further to state that examining what is
Nadenichek (2010) used bilateral trade data to estimate the short and long-run effect of exchange rate changes on the trade balance in the transitional Central European economies of Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland against their trade with Germany. Nadenichek (2010) study employed export to import ratio as the measure of trade balance. Other variables included the industrial production index (as a proxy for foreign and domestic income) and the exchange rate. The use of the industrial production index, allowed them to estimate the statistical parameters using monthly data and there were no reliable and consistent data on GDP. Ng Y, Har, & Tan (2008) findings suggest that in all the three cases, there were some evidence of the J-curve effect after real depreciation of the currencies in question. They also investigated the J-curve effect replacing the real exchange rate with the nominal exchange rate and the relative German price level. The argument for introducing these variables is that real exchange rate changes are either a result of shocks in the nominal exchange rate or general domestic price changes. In some case it’s a combination of both variables. Nominal exchange rate changes are much more observable than real exchange rate changes. Besides, it is easily controlled by authorities. They found weak forms of the J-curve effect where the trade balance deteriorates and improves later after the shock but the process was not instantaneous as predicted in the conventional theory. Grigoryan, (2015) investigated the J-curve effect on the trade balance for New Zealand. He found no cointegrating relationship between the trade balance and real effective exchange rate, domestic income and the foreign income during the period of 1970-2000. However, the New Zealand trade balance exhibited a J-curve pattern. Following a real depreciation of the New Zealand dollar, the trade balance worsens for the first three years and improves thereafter. Similar study on the Singapore’s trade relations with the U.S. found no significant impact of the Singapore’s real exchange rate on the trade balance and little evidence of the J-curve hypothesis. This study was conducted by Wilison and Choon (2001), using the partial reduced form model of Rose and Yellen (1989) derived from two-country imperfect substitute model.

Bahmani-Oskooee et al. (2003) conducted a study on India’s trade balance following up on previous studies which did not find any significant results on the subject. Researchers argued that the problem could probably be the use of aggregated data. As a result they employed disaggregated data to investigate the J-curve hypothesis against India’s trading partners. The empirical results of the study did not support the J-curve pattern but the long-run real depreciation of India’s rupee had significant effect on the improvement of the trade balance. The Turkish trade balance reflected the Marshal-Lerner condition where there was evidence of the long-run relationship following real depreciation. However, the results did not support the short-run effect of currency depreciation. This clearly suggests that in studying the J-curve phenomenon, it is crucial to separate and identify both the short and long-run implication of devaluation on the trade balance. In estimating the J-curve, researchers either use aggregated or bilateral trade data. Rose and Yellen (1989) argue that the use of bilateral data is useful because you do not require a proxy for the world income variable as in the aggregate analysis which reduces aggregation bias. Dougason (2009) tested J-curve hypothesis in Nigeria using data on the Nigerian agricultural sector. He used an Almon lag structure on the exchange rate regimes for the study and the study indicated that the J-curve does not exist in Nigerian agricultural sector precisely in the long-run since the pattern of lag between the exchange rate depreciation and the trade balance resembles more of an asymmetric S-shape of a horizontal S. Umoru and Ebereime (2013) in their study on ‘The J-curve hypothesis and the Nigerian oil sector’ were of the opinion that the present empirical evidence could not establish the classic J-curve exchange rate effect on the trade balance of the Nigerian oil sector. Hence they concluded that the standard J-curve hypothesis cannot be validated for the Nigerian oil sector. That Nigerian exports and imports are frequently denominated in foreign currency; the US dollar is a possible explanation for the contradicted J-curve effect. K'àmoto (2006) in his study on ‘the J-curve effect on the trade balance in Malawi and South Africa’ investigated the effects of devaluation on the trade balance in Malawi and South Africa using a vector error correction model (VECM). His findings revealed that the vector error correction model suggests the existence of a long-run equilibrium relationship among the variables for both Malawi and South Africa. Hence, there is a positive relationship between the trade balance and the real effective exchange rate indicating that a real depreciation will improve the trade balance in the long run. The study finds evidence of the J-curve on the South African trade balance. He concluded that following a real depreciation the South African trade balance will initially deteriorate but improve in the long run. However, Malawi does not exhibit a statistically significant J-curve phenomenon.
From the empirical literature it was observed that none of the researchers included inflation in their studies and this is very important in the sense that its relationship with exchange rate and also based on the fact that, Nigeria being one of the developing countries depends mostly on one particular source of foreign income, crude oil, and also has a fluctuating inflationary rate. Hence, that gap this research work will fill up. Having discussed the expected effects of exchange rate devaluations on the Trade balance, we construct the following hypothesis for this study and will be tested.

Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the trade balance and real effective exchange rate

Theoretical Framework
The theoretical framework of the study was based on the the empirical works of Goldstein and Khan (1985) and Rose and Yellen (1989). The classical model for the J-curve theory explains the trade balance as a function of exchange rate, domestic income and foreign income. Theoretically, the J-Curve hypothesis suggests that the partial derivative will be negative in the short-run and positive in the long-run. By theoretical expectations, the trade ratio is positively related to foreign income. Hence, an increase in foreign income increases demand for domestic goods this implies that foreign income is positively related to trade balance while domestic income has a negative relationship with trade balance. Since domestic exports are imports from other countries, hence domestic import demand is equivalent to foreign export supply and domestic export supply is equivalent to foreign import demand. Therefore, the trade balance is the difference between the value of exports and imports. A negative value in the trade balance implies a trade deficit and is associated with an increase in the value of imports relative to exports and vice-versa.

Methodology
The methodology deals with model specification, data requirement and source of data. This model comprises a number of variables of interest. Primarily, the data were sourced from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and National Bureau of Statistics (NBS). However, the empirical implementation of the model makes use of Ordinary Least Squared (OLS) econometric technique on data covering 33 years (1981-2014) in Nigeria.

Model Specification
The trade balance fluctuation of a country can be modeled as a function real effective exchange rate and the real domestic and foreign incomes. The model specifications starts with export and import demand function as adopted from Ziraramba and Chifamba (2014). Exports are a positive function of foreign income and exchange rate while imports are a negative function of the exchange rate and a positive function of domestic income. To the economy and the fluctuation of the trade balance is a function of the following economic variables: Export, Import, Real Effective Exchange Rate and Inflation. Hence, for this analysis we are adopting multiple regression econometric models.

Arising from the above, the functional relationship between the dependent

\[ TB = f (Exp, Imp, REER, Inf) \]

Where: \( TB \) = Trade Balance,
\( Exp = Export \)
\( Imp = Import \)
\( REER = Real \text{ } Effective \text{ } Exchange \text{ } Rate \)
\( Inf = Inflation \text{ } Rate \)

A close look at equation 1 points to the fact that not all the determinants of trade balance were captured. This observation is in line with conventional economic reasoning. However, econometricians have resort to giving allowance for stochastic random disturbance variables. This is usually called the error term. It is thus also necessary to incorporate stochastic elements. Incorporating the stochastic elements, the econometric form of the model will be:

\[ \log TB = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log Exp + \beta_2 \log Imp + \beta_3 \log REER + \beta_4 \log Inf + \mu \]

Where \( \beta_0 = \text{Constant, } \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3 \text{ and } \beta_4 \text{ are parameter estimate, while } \mu \text{ is the stochastic error term, representing other factors that can influence the TB but are not within the scope of the study, hence, are invariably held constant.} \]
A Priori Expectation for the Model
From apriori expectations, there are no apriori expectation for the $\beta_1$ and $\beta_2$, however $\beta_3$ and $\beta_4$ are expected to be positive, from this study. The $\beta_3$ is expected to be positive if the real depreciation is to improve the trade balance at the long.

Results and Discussion
Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test, developed by Dickey and Fuller (1981), was used to test the level of stationarity behavior of the macroeconomic times series. This is very necessary because often time most of the macroeconomic time series exhibit non-stationarity behaviour in their level form, and this develops serious problem to econometric analysis, leading to wrong result if appropriate measures are not taken. To guide against spurious result, this study took caution by checking the properties of the variables via the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test. The result is presented in table 1 below.

### Table 1: Unit Root Test on Variables with Intercept

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) Test</th>
<th>Test Critical values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGTB</td>
<td>-0.906613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(EXC)</td>
<td>-0.757026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(EXP)</td>
<td>5.016963**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(IMP)</td>
<td>3.604648**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(INF)</td>
<td>-0.711666</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ Computation, 2014

A critical inspection of the ADF test on Table 1 for the estimating variables, revealed that trade balance, exchange rate, and inflation rate were found to be I(1) series, implying that these variables were non stationary at level but became stationary at first difference while export and import were found to be I(0), implying that these variables were stationary at level. Hence, the null hypothesis of non-stationarity was rejected in all the series.

### Table 2: Short-run Regression Results (Static Regression Analysis)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOG(EXC)</td>
<td>-0.006476</td>
<td>0.100897</td>
<td>-0.064181</td>
<td>0.9493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(EXP)</td>
<td>0.984756</td>
<td>0.164135</td>
<td>5.999677</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(IMP)</td>
<td>0.073439</td>
<td>0.167687</td>
<td>0.437954</td>
<td>0.6650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOG(INF)</td>
<td>-0.168936</td>
<td>0.128927</td>
<td>-1.310322</td>
<td>0.2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>-1.232672</td>
<td>0.804425</td>
<td>-1.532363</td>
<td>0.1375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s Computation, 2014

TB = -1.232672 -0.006476EXC + 0.984756EXP + 0.073439IMP -0.168936INF
S.E = (86639.16) (0.100897) (0.164135) (0.167687) (0.128927)

Interpretation of Result
The coefficient of exchange rate is a negative value of -0.0064 which is against the apriori of the model, showing a negative relationship with trade balance. Meaning 1% currency depreciation will lead to a corresponding reduction on the trade balance by 0.65% in Nigeria, holding factors constant. The coefficient of
total export is a positive value of 0.98475 which is positive and. This shows that there is a positive relationship between total export and trade balance. Thus, 1% increase on the total export will bring about a corresponding 98.5% improvement on the trade balance, holding other factors constant. The coefficient of total import is a positive value of 0.073439 which revealed that there is positive relationship between import and trade balance. Hence 1% increase on the rate of import will bring about an increase of 7.4% on trade balance, other factors constant.

While the coefficient of inflation rate is a negative value of -0.168936 which implies that there is a negative relationship between inflation and trade balance, holding other factors constant. The overall coefficient of determination R², which is the explanatory power of the model, 0.951, that is R² = 0.951. This implies that 95.1 percent variations on trade balance are explained by exchange rate, total export, import and inflation. The remaining 4.9 percent change is explained by the stochastic error term (µ). The Adjusted R² of 0.943 shows that having removed the influence of a number of included explanatory variables, the model is still a good fit and the dependent variable is explained by 94.3 percent; hence in terms of goodness of fit, we can say that the test is conclusive.

The Durbin-Watson value of 1.697042 reveals that there is positive serial correlation since it lies between 2 and 3. The F test at 5 percent level significance revealed that the combined parameters of the model are significant in explaining the variations on the trade balance since it is significant at P-value 0.000 < 0.05, we reject the H₀. This means that the parameters, β₀, β₁, β₂, β₃ and β₄ are statistically significant in explaining trade balance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The result revealed a negative relationship between the exchange rate and trade balance and by implication depreciation of the currency will negatively affect the trade balance in Nigeria, because the exchange rate has to be currency-contract period, the pass through period, and the quantity-adjustment period positive if the real depreciation is to improve the trade balance in the long run as revealed by Ziramba and Chifamba (2014) in their ‘The J-Curve Dynamics of South African Trade:………’ inflation on the other hand also has a negative relationship with trade balance. To test whether J-curve effects exist in Nigeria, I examined the response of trade balance to real exchange rate. It then implies that the insignificance of coefficient of the exchange rate has a negative long-run impact on the trade balance, means that the J-curve is not supported by the empirical study. Hence the J-curve cannot be applicable to the Nigeria economy.

However, it is revealed that the applicability of the J-curve is mostly favorable in economy that does not depend mostly on importation, because the hypothesis will make exportation more attractive and make importation very expensive. This implies that the Nigeria economy will need to increase exportation by diversifying her economy in addition to the crude oil.

References


Exploring Technical Education Programme for Sustainable Future of Its Output in the World of Work

Anthony Oyetunde Oyenuga; Ph.D
Department of Vocational and Technical Education, Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ogun State, Nigeria
E-mail: tajeam@yahoo.com; oluoye2014@gmail.com

&

Ogbuanya, Theresa Chinyere; Ph.D
Department of Vocational and Teacher Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Enugu State, Nigeria

Abstract
Technical Education programme has continued to experience constant changes and improvement globally. If one considers its place in social and economic development of a nation like Nigeria, issues relating to exploring its output for sustainable future should not be left to chance. Poor quality technical education programme may lead to unemployment and wastage of talents since the skills to be acquired would be crippled. This paper attempts to examine technical education programme in Nigeria and the future sustainability of its output in the world of work.

Introduction
The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) (2004) in her revised National Policy on Education stated that vocational and technical education as that aspect of education that gives its recipient opportunity to acquire practical skills as well as some scientific knowledge. According to Career and Technical Education (2009), technical education facilitates the acquisition of practical and applied skills as well as basic scientific knowledge, it is therefore a planned program of courses and learning experiences that begins with exploration of career options, supports basic academic and life skills, and enables achievement of high academic standards, leadership, preparation for industry-defined work, and advanced and continuing education. Technical education is an education that can be conceded as a preparation for life and it is the kind of education an individual need to give his/her children to make them create, invent new ideas and technologies that can help in nation building.

The basic objectives of technical education according to FGN (2004) are to provide trained manpower in applied science, technology and commerce that is necessary for agricultural, commercial and economic development. It is aimed at producing manpower which will apply the acquired knowledge towards improving and solving their environmental problem, thus making the environment more useful and convenient for man but its neglect in the area of personnel, infrastructure, facilities and financial backup to encourage vocational and technical education are robbing Nigeria of the contribution which her graduates would make in the economy. However, Asogwa and Diogwu (2007) maintained that there is an urgent need for the people’s attention to be redirected towards self-reliant and sustainable means of livelihood which technical education provides.

Over the years, education is seen to have occupied the centre focus of developmental effort of Africa nations, most especially Nigeria. The emergence of technical education in Nigeria since 1960 had suffered neglect with little or no attention focused on it. If the government is sincere towards the development of technical education, this may not only change the traditional role of the family, it might as well alter the family function as a self-perpetual unit and as a training ground. With the growth of industry in Nigeria, graduates of technical education need to be occupationally mobilized so that they can be self-sustained. The heart of the processes of preparing technical education graduates for sustainable future in the world of work may be centered on the technical education system. This implies that the kind of education that every Nigerian child should receive irrespective of his/her background and trait is the kind that would assist them to prepare their future for life.
outside the school and that technical education may be considered for such education since it has a lot of career opportunities that can make its output to be self-sustained.

Above all, technical education is one aspect of global education that has continued to experience constant changes and improvement such that if one should consider its place in social and economic development of any nation, issues relating to the exploration of the programme for sustainable future of its graduates should not be left to chance. An ill technical education programme (that is, poor quality of the programme) can lead to gross unemployment and wastage of talents.

Sustainable Development
According to Ugoh (2008) in Nnabuo and Asodike (2012), sustainable development meets the need of the present generation without compromising the needs of the future generation. This supports the roles of technical education for future sustainability as a lifelong education that prospers individual that can key to it. Sustainable development has also been defined by the Nigeria Study/Action Team (NEST, 1991) in Osuji (2004) and Nnabuo and Asodike (2012 as “an approach that combines the development needs and aspirations of the present without compromising the ability of the future while also maintaining ecological integrity”. This, according to Osuji (2004) is a development process that is equitable and sensitive to ecological and environmental issues. Nnabuo and Asodike affirm that it depends on the initiative, resourcefulness, and discipline of human beings who are the managers of developmental programmes. In line with the above, technical education combines the development needs and aspirations of the present without compromising the ability of the future by opening the doors for employment generation and sustainable development. However, there is no controversy that technical education is an education that may create future sustainability for its output in the world of work by raising their income levels and improve standard of living.

Technical Education and Training
In Nigeria, technical education and training is just finding its feet in preparing graduates to meet the challenges of unemployment in the world of work. Industrial attachment that suppose to bridge the gap of unemployment is not being taken seriously by some of students due to the fact that there is no proper monitoring on the part of the government and the relative institutions. In terms of training, it is for the acquisition of skills and this is paramount in technical education where innovations are the order of the day in the technological world. Therefore, institutions must provide adequate machines, equipment and tools needed for the practical work as the industry will only compliment the knowledge and skills acquired in their various institutions. For updating of knowledge and skills, the curriculum should be updated from time to time in order to reflect the constant technology changes and improvement. This will make the students to stand the test of time in the world of work. Training enhances skill and thus stimulating the successful completion of a task as a result of the acquisition of new and relevant knowledge require for employment. According to Nnabuo and Asodike (2012), work based learning, coupled with related academic training in formal education sector can provide young people with knowledge and skills they need to make effective transition from school to a first career job. The duo further stated that this can be done through incorporating skills acquisition in the formal school programme so that the students can acquire technical and social skills necessary to join the already existing workforce.

According to Asodike (2007), secondary schools students who incidentally form the bulk of the unemployed and easily lured into activities that impede developments such as youth restiveness should be made to acquire income generating skill while at school. Corroborating this, Maclean (2008) opined that effective skills development for employability and sustainable livelihood is essential if sustainable development is to be achieved, and this also provides a foundation for peace building through contributing to poverty alleviation and rising levels of income. However, for one to acquire skills, training is very essential.

Education for Self-Sustenance
Education forms an array of ideas with an overlapping networking. It could be predicated on human being because it involves knowledge and understanding in relation to certain contents which may be skills, attitudes or competence that are directly acquired by learning. The educated person would not merely be skillful or well-informed or simply able to produce knowledge whenever it is demanded. This knowledge and understanding he had acquired must be able to affect his relationship with his physical and social
environment. In the olden days the traditional education received was the type of education given to African child. The aim was to make the child skillful so that when he/she is nearing adulthood, he/she is developed to acquire a skill that will sustain him/her in the process of being alone and this skill is learned from his/her family because certain crafts were limited to certain families. Such craft include wood working, gold smiting, blacksmithing, plumbing, metal spinning, etc but nowadays Western education prepares the child mainly for white-collar jobs that can render the child redundant in the society. Most children leave the rural areas in other to look for white-collar jobs after completing their formal education, even those in the urban areas struggle for office jobs and many of these children end up first rated with no pre-requisite training, proper knowledge and information.

The inadequacy of white-collar jobs nowadays has brought about what we know as graduate unemployment, since what was learnt in the school could not be practiced, not to talk of using it to earn a living. Unemployment in Nigeria arose out of the fact that the turn-out from secondary schools and tertiary institution are not being absorbed totally by the labour market, coupled with some parents’ preferences for white-collar jobs for their children. A second contribution to unemployment in Nigeria is that Universities, Polytechnics, Colleges of education and secondary school graduates wish to earn very high pay, due to the rate of inflation in the country as well as the high cost of education in the country. Some sees it as a means for wealth (Adesanya 2000). Like the advance countries that always try to keep the numbers of those that receive schooling down to what they thought their society would be able to absorb. The situation in Nigeria became worsened as more and more people are being turned out in liberal education with their minds fixed on a particular job that is not coming (Adesemowo and Falaye 1993). The duo further stated that the Oyo state government in other to curb the rate of unemployment established a self-employment scheme for school leavers, under which they were given #5,000 each to start individual farm project regardless of their educational preparation. The unemployment saga gave birth to the establishment of National directorate of employment in Nigeria during General Ibrahim Babangida administration in 1987 to reduce the unemployment rate and thus providing loans for secondary school leavers and graduates for small scale business and farming. The directorate also involves itself in training people on different kinds of career after which loans were given to the participants in order to be self-sustained.

Self-employment opportunities in technical education that can be explored for sustainable future of its output
In Nigeria context, there are many self-employment opportunities in Technical education which include:

**Auto Body Repair:** This involves restoring damaged vehicle body and it requires such metal working skills as sport welding, arc-welding, flame-cutting, soldering and riveting, straightening and smoothening tools. The auto body repairer is locally called ‘panel beater’.

**Carburetor Repair:** This involves repair and servicing of carburetor of various types. The carburetor mechanic is locally called ‘carburetor master’.

**Vulcanizing work:** The vulcanizer repairs tubes by patching them and fits tyres into rims. He also makes sure that the gauge pressure of the tyres assembly is accurate. The vulcanizer is locally referred to as ‘Foka’

**Battery repair:** The battery repairer repairs faults in the terminal and cell of the battery. He also charges the battery for better working condition. The battery repairer is locally called ‘battery charger’

**Auto-blacksmith:** The auto-blacksmith repairs the laminated leaf- spring, coil spring or torsion bar, air-spring, radiator and damper of a vehicle. The auto-blacksmith is locally referred to as ‘Agbede’.

**Power/ engine repair:** The engine mechanic repairs the faults in the engine. He also repairs pumps, ignition system, steering system, propeller shaft, final drive, and half shaft and rear axle faults. The power mechanic or engine mechanic is locally called ‘mechanic’.

**Gear mechanic:** The gear mechanic repairs faults associated with the gear box. The gear mechanic is locally called ‘gear master’.

**Brake and clutch mechanic:** The brake mechanic repairs faults associated with the braking system of a vehicle. The brake mechanics are locally called ‘brake master’.

**Auto-electricity:** The auto-electrician repairs the faults in the lightening system of a vehicle. He also repairs motor, coil resistor, alternator, kick-starter, relay, switches, and cut-out. He sees to the proper connection of the battery and ignition wires. The auto-electrician is locally referred to as ‘Rewire’.
Furniture making/upholster: The cabinet maker uses wood to produce house furniture which includes the followings: chairs, tables, dinning sets, beds, wardrobes, cabinets and other household furniture. The furniture makers are locally called ‘furniture’.

The carpentry maker: The carpenter does all carpentry works of any type at home and elsewhere including house roofing and ceiling, wood setting during building decking, e.t.c. They are locally referred to as ‘capenta’.

Building work: The builder builds any structure that requires the use of sands (soft or sharp), cement, granites, stones, blocks, steels, e.t.c. They are locally referred to as ‘birikila’.

Electrical/Electronic work: The electrical repairer deals with electrical installations and rectifies electrical fault of any kind while the electronic repairer repairs electronic fault of any kind be it at home, workplace including electronic industry. The electrical repairer is referred to as ‘electrician’ while the electronic repairer is locally referred to as ‘radionic’ irrespective of any electronic work.

Metal spinning work: The metal spinner produces bowls, caps, trays, saucers, vases and other circular shapes by pressing hard pieces of sheet metal over forms that tune on the lathe.

Electrical/Electronic work: The electrical repairer deals with electrical installations and rectifies electrical fault of any kind while the electronic repairer repairs electronic fault of any kind be it at home, workplace including electronic industry. The electrical repairer is referred to as ‘electrician’ while the electronic repairer is locally referred to as ‘radionic’ irrespective of any electronic work.

Plumbing work: The plumber install and repair sewer and drain pipes, water pipes, gas pipes heater, bathtubs, showers, faucets, e.t.c.

Sheet metal work: A sheet metal worker makes and repairs such thing as furnace ducts, furnaces, ventilators, signs, eave-through, metal roof, metal furniture and lockers. Automobile and airplane bodies are made out of sheet metal.

Structure steel work: Structure steel worker involves in fastening steel beams and frame together. They also construct ships and bridges.

Tools making: A tool maker makes and repairs all kinds of special tools, cutting tools, jigs and gauges.

Welding work: The welding work involving joining of metal parts by melting the edges or end of the parts together with the use of oxy-acetylene welding processes, the electric-arc welding process or with other welding process. The welding worker is referred to as ‘welder’.

Technical Education for Self-sustenance

A country is said to be self-sustained if she can provide for many of its needs without relying much on other countries. Though there is no country that can claim total independence. When a country is independent, it would be shameful for such country to depend and continually recruit expatriates to design and establish her industries, construct her road, bridges and to maintain her machines and repair them. In other to make independence meaningful, a country must be able to manufacture many of the parts used in her road, air and marine/sea transport respectively. For this to be so the country must advance or improve her technological education. In order to maintain her independence and the freedom of her people she ought to be self-reliant and stop depending on other nation for help. Despite the fact that most of the advanced countries are developing technologically, they still have the urge to acquire more knowledge so as to improve on the already acquired technology. This does not mean that they are not self-sustaining. The fact is that they are not yet satisfied and as such aspire for better technology. This has led to the rate of competition among them.

No matter the level of development of a nation, she will still need to improve technologically and this may not be possible without first developing technical education that opens the mind for new ideas. On this premise, the Federal Government summoned a seminar of distinguished scholars under the chairmanship of late Chief S.O.Adebo in 1973 to deliberate on all aspects of the National Policy on Education, so that it will reflect on the development of technological education as a vehicle towards a self-sustaining nation. Self-sustenance is also said to be applicable to corporate bodies such as a nation. Thus, the Nigeria third national plan is building of a united, powerful and self-sustaining nation characterized with knowledge, responsibility and concern for the welfare of her citizens. Most primary schools do not have basic science and technology on their time-table. Even the secondary schools that have the subject on their time-table do not have adequate required periods for the subject. The non introduction of basic science and technology in the curriculum of the primary schools may make one to ask “at what age and level should technical education be introduced to the Nigerian child? The Nigerian child can be properly integrated into technical education if he or she is properly oriented and mobilized into the technical field.
The provision of an effective technical education programme will help in removing the idea of seeking for white-collar jobs by school leavers as well as having indirect but observable impact on the guardian of a child who is gifted or have the love for technical education.

Conclusion
Some years ago, technical education in Nigeria has little or no relevance to the needs of the society and has been limited in scope. But now, technical education may be seen as the root of the economic buoyancy that any country should develop at each level of education (primary school to university level).

Recommendations
Student should be made to go on field trip during the academic session and industrial attachment at the end of the academic session. The attachment should be monitored and evaluated properly.

In Nigeria today, the youth makes up the largest population. To make them self-supporting after leaving school, the primary and secondary school level should make technical education compulsory in their curriculum. This has been the case with mathematics and English language.

The skills training received at the primary and secondary school level should be reinstated and intensified. If the government wants school leavers to be self-reliant and economically sound, she should enact a law on technical education to make it compulsory at the primary and secondary school level.

Special attention should be given to technical education by employing at least or more technical teachers for each primary and secondary school. This will phase out the use of liberal arts teachers teaching technical subjects in some schools.

Instructional materials and equipment should be supplied to the schools so that the pupils will grow up mastering the subject and acquire more skills.

References


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Students’ Experience and Assessment of Undergraduate Research Project Supervision

Professor James A. Ogunji
Professor of Development Education,
Department of Education, Babcock University,
Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract
A sample of 640 respondents formed part of the study. A total of 246 students were sampled from the graduating class of 2011 and 394 were sampled in 2012. Data indicates they were mostly supervised by senior academic staff with only a third supervised by Lecturer 1 and below. Respondents were generally aware of their responsibility in project research writing. The project supervisors’ discharge of professional responsibility was rated good, acknowledging supervisors’ expertise in research topic and interest in students’ completion of research work. Most of the students agree that the supervisors are approachable, good role models, and caring, half of the students felt nervous during the period of the research project writing while the other half felt confident and optimistic. Supervisors did not integrate faith in supervision shown by the fact that they did not pray with the students even rarely. However most of the students accept that their faith in God and prayers accounted for their success. Insufficient time for the research and lack of library materials top the list of the challenges faced by the students. The study established a positive correlation between awareness of students’ role, supervisors’ professional role, spiritual dimension in research supervision and outcome in terms of grade in the course.

Introduction
Often times the period of supervision of undergraduate research project is fraught with many issues that are of serious concerns for parents, students and teachers. Cases abound where students report their teachers for frustrations and maltreatment, parents have been constrained at other times to directly wade into the supervision process to mitigate on the bottlenecks that brew between their wards and supervisors. Many students missed graduation deadline due to inability to complete their research project writing. More than four decades ago Lofland (1971) noted that “the research process is demanding and can bring feelings of excitement and joy, but may also be accompanied by moodiness, irritability, despair or even existential crisis”. Similarly other researchers opine that not all supervision experiences are positive. There are difficulties sometimes in attitudes and expectations (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000). The roles of the supervisor according to Adegbuyega (2012) is to provide guidance and advise to the student, ensure student is made aware of the work expectation and to be accessible to the student at appropriate times.

The complaints and frustrations that follow students and supervisors during supervision constrain the purpose of this study. This study tries to understand what students experiences are with their advisors and their assessment of the research project supervision process.

The research consequently is set to answer the following questions;
1. Are the students aware of their responsibilities and obligations in the period of project writing supervision?
2. How do the students assess the quality of supervision received during research project writing?
3. What are the traits/qualities of the project supervisors as assessed by the students?
4. What feeling dominate the student during the period of project writing?
5. Is there spiritual dimension in the process of project writing supervision?
6. Is there any relationship between supervisors’ professional role, adding spiritual dimension in project supervision and performance in the course?

Understanding these can be of essence to teachers, students, and departmental heads in providing the necessary support for students to complete their research project successfully. Hence, this propels this research.
Research Methodology
A descriptive survey approach was used to achieve the purpose of the study. The sample population was 2011 and 2012 graduating class of Babcock University. A questionnaire to capture the students experience and assessment of the role the supervisor played was developed and administered to capture the following data; students’ characteristics; students awareness of role in research writing; assessment of supervisors professional responsibility, supervisors qualities and traits and spiritual dimension in research supervision. Graduating class students of 2011 and 2012 of Babcock University were sampled. A total of 246 in 2011 and 394 in 2012 formed part of the sample. The data were analyzed by SPSS, employing the following routines, frequency, mean, and Pearson Correlation.

Findings and Discussion

Table 1: Respondents’ Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STUDENT DATA</th>
<th>2011 RESPONSES</th>
<th>2012 RESPONSES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FREQUENCY (246)</td>
<td>FREQUENCY (394)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender of supervisor:</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>B</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
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<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Of the entire respondents, 72% were supervised by male teachers while 28 were supervised by female teachers. Majority of the students got B grades and were supervised by Senior Lecturers and Professors. This reflects the fact that more male teachers are in the senior lecturer and professorial levels and that the senior level staff were mostly assigned to supervise undergraduate project. However more than a third of the students were supervised by teachers at the rank of Lecturer I and Lecturer II which may have implications for quality owing to the fact that they need more mentorship to mature into being supervisors.

Q1. Are the students aware of their responsibilities and obligations in the period of project writing supervision?

Table 2: Student Awareness of Role in Research Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>2011 (246)</th>
<th>2012 (394)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In research mentoring the student has a responsibility for a successful research outcome</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The speed of the research work depends on the students</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the student’s responsibility to keep in touch with the supervisor</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The supervisor’s work load can impede progress of project supervision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>211</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>326</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.7</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Persistence and courage to complete your project successfully are the value to cherish

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>222</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90.2</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>387</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that students were well aware of their responsibility in the research project writing as it affects the speed and quality of the project and even the values to cherish to be able to succeed. It is good to note that a significant 35% and 43% seem not be aware that the speed of completion of project depends on the students.

Q2. What are the students’ assessments of the quality of supervision of their project writing?

Table 3: Students assessment of supervisors’ professional relationship with student’s responsibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional Responsibility</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help organize your work for improvement</td>
<td>3.1803</td>
<td>.93418</td>
<td>3.0485</td>
<td>.96761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give prompt feedback</td>
<td>2.9628</td>
<td>.98256</td>
<td>2.7493</td>
<td>.95006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help research progress in speed and quality</td>
<td>2.9208</td>
<td>.99685</td>
<td>2.7872</td>
<td>.97440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edit and proofread your work</td>
<td>2.9451</td>
<td>1.07413</td>
<td>2.8114</td>
<td>1.22921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibition of Mastery/competence in supervising students</td>
<td>2.9916</td>
<td>1.07747</td>
<td>3.1440</td>
<td>1.91090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation time is fixed and regular</td>
<td>2.6513</td>
<td>1.19078</td>
<td>2.4470</td>
<td>1.21270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engages the student in discussion to make research better</td>
<td>2.8672</td>
<td>1.09877</td>
<td>2.6624</td>
<td>1.09009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has expertise in your research topic</td>
<td>2.9835</td>
<td>1.07003</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
<td>1.26449</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Relationship Responsibility                         |         |                |         |                |
| Provide emotional and moral encouragement            | 2.8675  | 1.00832        | 2.7861  | 1.14034        |
| Devote reasonable time to your work                  | 2.8333  | 1.05330        | 2.6959  | 1.00658        |
| Giving support through hurdles of research           | 2.7435  | 1.10154        | 2.7195  | .94608         |
| Give support during personal crisis (if any) in the course of research | 2.5733  | 1.21567        | 2.4538  | 1.00843        |
| Involvement in the research process                  | 2.7435  | 1.08556        | 2.5674  | 1.04291        |
| Show interest in the success of the research work.   | 3.1645  | .97746         | 3.2228  | .89854         |
| Treat student with respect                           | 3.1116  | 1.05270        | 3.2784  | .97506         |

Legend: Very Poor = 0 - 0.99; Poor = 1.00-1.99; Fair = 2.00-2.49
Good = 2.50-3.49; Very good = 3.50-5.00

Generally the supervisors professional and student relationship responsibility are rated by students as good, which means that the supervisors discharged their professional duties and related well to the students. The students acknowledged their expertise in the research topic and keen concern to seeing them through to completion. Further analysis of the data reveals that students acknowledged that their supervisors were good in organizing and improving the work (43.5%; 44.9%). Though 44.3% rated their supervisors as good in
giving prompt feedback that led to the improvement of the paper only about a third (30.9%; 33.8%) acknowledged that the supervision helped the research in speed and quality. 27% in 2011 and 39% in 2012 rated the speed and quality of input as fair and poor. Another 25% scored supervisors low in having regular and fixed time for supervising them. The students rated the engagement of teacher in discussion to make the research better as averagely good. But 39% in 2011 and 35% in 2012 marked the supervisors as fair and poor. An acknowledgement of supervisors’ expertise in the research topic they are handling rose from 37% in 2011 to 51% in 2012. However 24% of the students maintain that their supervisors do not show expertise in the topics of research assigned them.

Q3. What are the traits/qualities of the research project supervisors?

Table 4: Supervisors qualities or traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRAITS</th>
<th>TRAITS</th>
<th>2011 Freq.</th>
<th>2012 Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2011 Freq.</th>
<th>2012 Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POSITIVE</td>
<td>NEGATIVE</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good role model</td>
<td>Lacking knowledge and expertise</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caring</td>
<td>Unapproachable</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td>Intimidating of student</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiastic</td>
<td>Poor teaching skills</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approachable</td>
<td>Insensitive to student needs</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>52.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patient and understanding</td>
<td>Always in a hurry</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking promises</td>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table showed that a good percentage of students more than 55% rated their project supervisors as good role model, caring, approachable, patient and understandable. Of all the traits being approachable was rated the highest by 76% of the students. However, of note is the fact that about 20% in 2011 and 25% of students in 2012 noted that their supervisors were always in a hurry, while 10% in 2011 and 14% in 2012 rated supervisors as insensitive to students needs. About 8% of the students on the average highlighted supervisors who intimidate students, break promises and are unapproachable.

Q4. What feeling dominated the Students during the period of Research Writing?

Table 5: Dominant feeling of students during research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2011 Freq.</th>
<th>2012 Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2011 Freq.</th>
<th>2012 Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sadness</td>
<td>Ashamed</td>
<td>Depressed</td>
<td>Nervous</td>
<td>Scared</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>232</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lovely</td>
<td>Joyfully</td>
<td>Optimistic</td>
<td>Confident</td>
<td>Abandoned</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

About 44% in 2011 and 59% of the students in 2012 went through their project writing feeling nervous. Feeling of nervousness tops the list of the feelings that dominated the students. However the number of...
students who felt confident and optimistic were on the average of 50% in both years. It is possible that not knowing what to expect from the supervisor or how the entire project writing will end can be a precursor of nervousness.

Q5. Is there any spiritual dimension in the process of project writing supervision?

Table 6: Spiritual dimension in project supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spiritual Activity</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>2011 Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2012 Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prayed with you often over my project</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>76.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prayed with you sometimes over your project</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prayer and trust in God was helpful through the research process</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God’s intervention was experienced during the research</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table shows that supervisors rarely prayed with students during the time of supervision. However, the student acknowledged the role of faith in God in their success in the project. The role of spirituality in health and in the stability of humans today cannot be played down more so that humans have spiritual dimension which kind of coordinates other human personality dimensions.

Q6. Five challenges experienced during your research project.

Table 7: Challenges of students during the research project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>2011 FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>2012 FREQUENCY</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inability to get materials</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities shortage</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate time</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial challenges</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncooperative teammates</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack power supply for students carrying out experimental research</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of research analysis skills</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unavailable supervisors</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of direction</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clashes with school works</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of internet services</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Top on the list of challenges is inadequate time for the research (24.4%) in 2011 and in 2012 (48%). Followed by inability to get library materials and financial challenges. Others included lack of research skills, lack of power supply for students carrying out experimental research and fear of the unknown as per the research. It is characteristic of students in view of the many requirements to satisfy before graduation to be choked with devoting reasonable time to project writing. This situation is compounded by the fact of several trips outside campus to look for sources and materials for research work. Trips for data collection also eat into the time for research writing.
Summary of Findings
This study set out to explore students experience and rating of undergraduate project supervision. Based on the analysis data and findings the study concludes as follows;
✓ Data indicates they were mostly supervised by senior academic staff with only a third supervised by Lecturer 1 and below.
✓ Respondents were generally aware of their responsibility in project research writing.
✓ The project supervisors discharge of professional responsibility were rated good, acknowledging supervisors expertise in research topic and interest in students completion of research work. Most of the students agree that the supervisors have such qualities as; good role model, caring, with being approachable rating as the foremost quality.
✓ Half of the students felt nervous during the period of the research project writing while the other half felt confident and optimistic.
✓ Supervisors did not integrate faith in supervision shown by the fact that they did not pray with the students even rarely. However most of the students accept that their faith in God and prayers accounted to their success.
✓ Among the challenges faced by the students insufficient time for the research and lack of library materials top the list.
✓ The study established a positive correlation between awareness of students role, supervisors professional role, and spiritual dimension in research supervision and outcome in terms of grade in the course.

Recommendations
It therefore recommended that:
1. Supervisors are to carry on their supervision in such a way as to help the students manage their nervousness during project writings recognizing the fact that students are under stress during project work or academic work. This can be achieved by counseling and confidence building in the process
2. Supervisors should integrate faith in supervision in view of the faith that most students are spiritual being and come from faith based homes.
3. Universities are encouraged to improve their library material in number and in currency to help students help ease the problem of locating and accessing research materials. Students are also encouraged to make frantic effort in literature search and by deploying all the electronic device in their reach for this purpose.

References


The Teacher, Professional Practices and Philosophical Foundations of Education for Quality Assurance

Achi Anthony Ndubuisi  
achibeke@gmail.com, +2348037458222, 8022086123

Micah E. Monday  
Department of Technical Education, Babcock University High SchoolIlisan-Remo, Ogun State.  
E-mail: ehusdn@gmail.com +2348104431617

&  
Ohwovorione Peter Avwerosuoghene  
School of General Studies, Delta State Polytechnic, Ogwashi-Uku, Delta State  
ohwopo1@gmail.com +2348025365092

Abstract

Education as a field of study is generally defined narrowly as teaching. A complete education of professional teachers includes the values, ethical standards, and conventions of the discipline since they are fundamental to the profession. However philosophical foundations are means to effective teaching. In this paper, the philosophical foundation of education for quality assurance is examined within the context of the relationship between educational theory and practice. The paper further examined the questions of the dominance or requirements of an effective teacher – should he/she be an intellectual or a technician, simplifier something different from the two. Issues relating to epistemological content and pedagogy which occupy a central place in the teaching and learning enterprise were also examined. The paper established that Philosophy of education is the connecting rod between quality assurance and teacher’s professional practice, hence philosophy should be a mainstream course in teacher education at all levels. It recommended among others that institutions and organizations that employ the services of trained philosophers of education should encourage and sponsor them to attend and participate in the annual national conferences of the Philosophy of Education Association of Nigeria (PEAN); Philosophy of education should not only be made compulsory in all teacher education programmes, but that the contact of course of study should be expanded to cover in details the metaphysical, epistemological and axiological realities of the individual and the society. This cannot be achieved in just one semester course as it is most commonly taught today.

Key Words: Philosophical foundation, teacher Education, Professional practice, quality assurance and the teacher.

Introduction

Education is a human development process. Every society designs the type of citizens it wants to produce, using education as its instrument. To achieve this, the teacher's multi-dimensional responsibilities are required. In other words it takes a well educated teacher to adequately implement the philosophy of any nation via its education. The Nigerian teacher is passing through a lot of challenges bothering on cross discipline among the students, dearth of teaching and learning facilities, acute shortage of teachers, inadequate funding, among others. Apart from these challenges, he is also expected to play the role of foster parents, administrator, counsellor, and others. These challenges have impacted the teacher at all levels negatively therefore affecting the quality of learning. In our search for a solution to this trend, acahj demics of all shades are united with labour in attributing such decline to poor funding, always making reference to a magical 26 percent of total budget on education as the only necessary antigen through which the antidotes which cause educational decline can be eliminated. Rarely do we reason that just as the Marshal Plan succeeded in Europe after the Second World War only because there were certain necessary, conditions which made it so, and that a doubling of that amount in Africa will not have achieved the same effect, due to the absence of those same conditions, increased educational funding alone is no guarantee to improved educational quality.

As educators, therefore, our pre-eminent duty is to provide that necessary substratum of ideas to guide not only the process and content of education but also the policies and programmes which directly or indirectly shape these. Interestingly, just as most human affairs are shaped by philosophy, educational policies and practices are shaped by philosophy of education too. Unfortunately, there is an increasing threat to the quality
of professional membership and the goal to teach, learn, and sustain. The definition of professional education is that the policies and decisions which drive the education system and which to my best understanding have turned it into an educational wasteland are the direct outcome of this neglect (Enoch, 2013). The more this challenges the more the need for sound inculcation of the knowledge of philosophy of education in all teacher education programme. As earlier established the quality and effectiveness of an education system depends on among other factors, the competencies, commitment and resourcefulness of its teachers. In view of this, adhering to standard professional practice by teachers is critical in the aspiration of enhancing the quality of education. This paper focuses on the teacher, professional practice, quality assurance and Philosophical Foundations of education.

Who is a Teacher?
The concept of the teacher was not defined in the traditional education system. It was brought about with the advent of the western Christian missionary education system in Nigeria. The definition of the teacher is diverse perhaps due to the obvious multidimensional roles he seems to be saddled with by the society. Duruh (2005) views the teacher as that personality who is imbued with the necessary capacity to facilitate, transmit learning and sustain the teaching and learning process towards achieving intended goals of education in any given society. In his view, Abah (2002) sees the teacher as a person who instructs learners and guides learning especially in an educational institution. This implies that he should have the necessary wherewithal to not only command but also to effectively direct the psycho-social cognitive, affective and the psycho-motor climate of learning with a view to organizing and managing the learning environment in a manner that affords each learner the maximum opportunity to benefit from learning experiences. He can be seen as "someone who underwent and completed successfully in a formal teacher training institution, a planned programme of training, among other areas in the principles and practice of education and was exposed to an observed period of internship either after or as part of the period of training. The teacher is the repository of knowledge. He occupies a very strategic role in the educational enterprise as an input operator into the system. He is no doubt the main determinant of quality of education in any given society.

To be legally recognized as a teacher in Nigeria, an individual must register with TRCN. The TRCN Act 31 of 1993, section 6 (1) states that to be registered, an individual must:

i. Pass a qualifying examination accepted by the Council and complete the practical teaching prescribed by the Council under the Act or

ii. Not being a Nigerian, hold a qualification granted outside Nigeria which for the time being is recognized by the Council and is by law entitled to practise the profession in the country in which the qualification was granted provided that the other country accords Nigerian professional teachers the same reciprocal treatment and that he satisfies the Council that he has had sufficient practical experience as a teacher.

iii. Be of good character

iv. Have attained the age of twenty-one years

v. Not have been convicted in Nigeria or elsewhere of an offence involving fraud or dishonesty.

What is Professional Practice?
The Wordweb dictionary (2014) gives the following definitions of practice as ‘the exercise of profession’; ‘knowledge of how something is usually done’ and ‘a customary way of operation or behaviour’. A quick analysis of these definitions will suggest that professional practice is synonymous with standards or ethics. Within the teaching profession, the continents and entire world are forging common fronts to see that the regulation of the profession has common yardsticks so that teacher qualification, knowledge, competencies, values, rights and obligations are comparable across the countries. This is to ensure that the spirit of “teachers without borders” is realized. The aim is to make teachers marketable worldwide, and globally competitive. It is also to ensure that the quality of teaching and learning in one country favourably compares with the quality of teaching and learning in another. One instance of the need for Nigeria to have a standard is the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol, a 2004 declaration of the Ministers of Education of the
Commonwealth countries which states that teachers of the Commonwealth countries must be treated equally as their peers wherever they settle in the Commonwealth countries. This declaration which is now one of the world's most popular labour documents has inspired the Commonwealth countries to set standards for the teaching profession in the Commonwealth countries so as to have a concrete basis for equal treatment of teachers. A country that is not part of such standards cannot expect to be treated with respect or dignity by the foreign countries that subscribe to the standards (Wokocha, 2009).

Similarly, many countries in the last fifteen years have taken up the regulation of the teaching profession seriously depicted particularly by the establishment of teaching councils and enactment of laws and practices that make it mandatory for teachers to be registered and licensed before they can practice. To simplify the issue of standards for teachers, Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) has published a landmark document which is one of the best not only in Nigeria but among the teaching councils in the world. The document, called Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers contains 84 Standards that every teacher must aspire to meet (TRCN, 2012). The Standards are grouped into four such as:

- Professional knowledge
- Professional skills
- Professional values, attitude and conduct, and
- Professional membership obligations of the teacher

The document presented to the public in 2011 by Nigeria's Honourable Minister of Education, Professor (Mrs.) Ruqayyatu Ahmed Rufai, has instruments to be used by employers of teachers and other relevant agencies to assess each teacher's performance with respect to the 84 Standards. TRCN therefore issued policies to the effect that the promotion of teachers and appointment into leadership and sensitive positions within the teaching profession must be based largely on a teacher's performance in respect of the professional standards.

**Concept of Quality Assurance**

Quality Assurance is coined from two words quality and assurance. Quality means different things to different people, (Harvey and Green, 1993; Trow, 1994; Vughts, 1994; Lassa, 1992; Middlehurst, 1992; Uvah, 2005 and Article 11 of the World Declaration on Higher Education by the United Nations). Despite its ambiguous nature, Cole (1996) remarked that quality is what everyone considers good and wants to have. Assurance simply put is the guarantee or the degree of confidence that a particular product will meet the expectations of the consumer.

Uvah (2005) quoting UNESCO defined quality in higher education as multidimensional concept embracing all functions and activities of a tertiary institution including teaching, academic programmes, research and scholarship, staffing, students, buildings, facilities, equipment, services to the community and the academic environment. Therefore, it was the drive to maintain quality that gave birth to different approaches to quality management, that is, quality control and quality assurance. Ijaiya (2001) perceives quality control as a retroactive action used to determine quality of a product after processing during which wastages would have occurred, thereby leaving an option of outright rejection or battling with rectification. Thus the need to improve on this approach gave birth to a proactive and modern approach to quality management tagged Quality Assurance or Total Quality Management.

**Philosophical Foundations of Education**

When we speak of foundation, we mean the first level or the base upon which a building is built. If one observes buildings, most of their foundations are buried inside the ground. The foundation of a house is not used directly rather the floor, the wall and the roof are given much prominence. But where are they resting upon? Remove the foundation and see what will happen to the rest of the structure. In the case of educational foundations, they are disciplines which enable us to understand the problems which affect the educational process. They enable the individual educator to appreciate the kind of conditions which affect learning by students. They are not explicit to the learner directly but they are very essential in the entire educational process of teaching and learning of which philosophy of education is one of them. They actually facilitate learning. By the way, what are these foundation courses in education which a person aspiring to be teacher ought to offer in institutions concerned with training of teachers? They are: history of education, sociology of
education, psychology of education, educational administration, guidance and counselling, educational measurement and evaluation and of course special education. Each of these foundation courses is relevant and important in its way. For example, the study of history of education paves the way for meaningful planning and execution of educational policies against the background of past events in education, sociology of education examines influence of society on educational institutions and vice versa.

Philosophy
To begin with the concept of philosophy, what is philosophy? Philosophers have not arrived at a consensus on a unitary definition of their discipline. There are myriads of definitions and interpretations by various philosophers on the word 'philosophy' depending on their schools of thoughts. However, it should be noted that most philosophers do accept the etymological derivation of philosophy from two Greek words: 'philo' and 'sophia' meaning 'love' and 'wisdom' respectively. The combination of the two words means 'love of wisdom'. This view of philosophy originated from ancient Greece and Rome being their classical definition of philosophy. Classical philosophers were concerned about existence generally whether physical or non-physical. They wondered about question of reality, no wonder Socrates, the father of philosophy was found of asking questions in order to examine problems confronting man in the universe and this led him to remark that "the unexamined life is not worth living". They perceived philosophy as a discipline which is concerned with all areas of life. In his discussion with Glaucon, Socrates, described a philosopher as "one who desires all wisdom, not only some part of it ... Only the man who has taste for every sort of knowledge and throws himself into acquiring it with an insatiable curiosity will deserve to be called a philosopher". His contemporary Plato noted that philosophical study is intellectual freedom from mental enslavement. He illustrated this in his famous allegory-myth of the cave". Enoh perceives philosophy as "a discipline which is more of an activity rather than a body of passive knowledge". This implies that philosophy is studied by engaging in it. To engage or to "do" philosophy is to love wisdom; to love wisdom is "to grapple with and seek to understand the most the basic issues in our lives". Philosophy is not studied by reading and regurgitating factual information presented by other people, rather it is done by interpreting other people’s thoughts or ideas that are similar and separating ideas that are divergent to one another. One thing to point out here, is that, philosophers use only logical thinking or reasoning in philosophizing. Whereas philosophical reasoning is not like those of the empirical sciences, rather it involves reflection over the claims made by scientists and theologians in order to ascertain the ground upon which they are founded. The reasoning involves examination and analysis of concepts used as well as redefining them. Another thing which needs to be observed is, philosophy is not like other disciplines which scope of knowledge are limited such as geography, history, economics and mathematics. Every discipline is its concern. Based on this notion, Enoh remarks that philosophy is a "discipline without frontiers" no wonder, we hear today of philosophy of religion, mathematics, law and science etc.

Concept of Education
The concept of 'education' like philosophy has numerous divergent interpretations. The moment the word education is mentioned what comes to mind is a situation where a person or a group of persons acquire experiences. These experiences can be acquired within the four walls of a classroom or outside it, that is, at home, on the farm, market square and so on. To White, education:

has to do with whole being and the whole period of existence possible to man. It is the harmonious of the physical, the mental and spiritual powers. It prepares one for the joy of service in this world, and for the higher joy of wider service in the world to come.

This definition touches many areas, it identifies the whole aspects of man's being: physically, mentally, emotionally, socially and spiritually. It states the period which education takes place, that is, the period of man's existence here on earth and hereafter. Quality of service rendered by an educated should be with joy not with sadness. Having seen some views about education, it is now relevant to have a working definition of education for this discussion. Education is a process of transmitting worthwhile knowledge, skills, values and attitudes of a community from one generation to another in order to make the members of that community to conform to the norms of that society. With the meanings of philosophy and education in mind, what then is philosophy of education?
Philosophy of Education

Philosophy of education can be said to mean the application of some fundamental and basic principles of philosophy in clarifying, studying, verifying, justifying and or solving problems in education. Philosophy of education generates an outlook, an attitude to the theories and practices of education and makes education intelligent, meaningful and purposeful. It gives guide to what kind of life one should lead and what kind of action should be taken. It establishes standards and formulates goals for purposeful living. Philosophy of education draws from the wealth of its vast branches (metaphysics, epistemology and axiology) in attempting and seeking solution to educational problems. In achieving this task, it surveys the past, looks into the future and helps to establish guidelines, norms, aims and standards. Philosophy of education therefore is a coherent set of values and fundamental assumptions used as guides for evaluating and guiding educational practise. This approach to philosophy of education is similar to that of Ocho, which states: “philosophy of education is the application of philosophical principles to educational issues and problems”. In other words, philosophy of education tries to illuminate educational practice through the analysis of meanings and in this way helps teachers to take wider educational perspective of day today educational problems.

The Interface between Teachers’ Professional Practice and Quality Assurance

The place of philosophy of education in assisting the Nigerian teacher to effectively and efficiently cope with the daily challenges cannot be overemphasized; being critical in nature it gives a clearer understanding of most educational issues and problems more than other foundation courses. This is because concepts which are often carelessly used by sociologists or psychologists, philosophy of education serves as a guide to these educational disciplines”, Enoh” observes. Since the role of philosophy of education cuts across other foundations in education, being more critical, integrative and embracing, it is therefore, the foundation of all educational foundations. It attempts to establish standards for assessing values and judging conduct, as well as inquiring into the accuracy of meaning and the logic of language (Okafor, 1992). Here it draws from its sub-branch ethics otherwise known as moral philosophy in enhancing the teachers call to duty and the likely consequences inherent in unethical practice. If philosophy of education is removed from the curriculum of teacher education, the teacher would be beclouded with bleak vision of the educational scene.

As J. Donald Butler rightly observed:

“No teacher or administrator, however effective in practice, can avoid assumptions, conscious or unconscious, as to what he is about. These assumptions, it should be pointed out, are the material of theory, not practice, and they need both to be examined critically and to be related to other assumptions in the largest context of belief, in order to be adequate as a basis for practice.

Dupis and Nordberg (1968) put it even more succinctly, according to them: “to attempt resolve the ‘should’ of education without philosophical analysis is to build one’s house on quicksand.” They justified their position by observing, among other things, that educational philosophy deals with such important issues as “the final nature of learner and of learning, the purposes of education, who has the right to conduct schools ‘and why, and in what sense’. In their opinion, almost every debated issue on the educational scene leads rather directly or indirectly into philosophy.

Knowledge of philosophy of education is also important to the Nigerian teacher as it guides him to clarify some educational concepts and issues which in most cases appear to have been clouded with ambiguities, thus; making achievements difficult. Such philosophical concepts as teaching, learning, discipline, freedom, authority, equality, quality, as well as, issues such as free education, education for all, and others, which are freely used in Nigeria without positive results need clarification. This can only be made relevant by sound knowledge of philosophy of education. The teacher must understand the meaning of concepts and issues related to his field before he performs better. Philosophy examined critically the issues of values and morality in education. Philosophy of education in this regard helps the teacher to be self controlled so as to control the vices which students import into the school system from the macro society. Knowledge of philosophy of education can also help the Nigerian teacher to advise the government and other stakeholders of the school system on better ways to improve the nation’s education system. Philosophy of education is still relevant to the Nigerian teacher as it equips the teacher with sound philosophical thoughts of great world philosophers. These philosophies will enable the teacher to adequately manage his present classroom and school situations.
Philosophy of education helps the Nigerian teacher to cope with other higher responsibilities within and outside the school system nationally or internationally.

Through the use of sound philosophical reasoning and logic, the Nigerian teacher could become more productive and also reduce wastages within and outside the school system. Philosophy of education is very crucial, especially to the present day Nigerian teacher as it equips him to understand better and appreciate the general philosophy of the country so as to balance such objectives with the policies and programmes of education in the country to attain the desired targets of the nation.

Conclusion
In the light of all these considerations and assumptions, the question should not be whether philosophy of education as a subject matter/area is essential in the preparation of teachers or in the formation of the educator, but how much of the subject area should be required before a teacher or an educator is certified as a practitioner in the educational enterprise. This paper has been able to establish a relationship between quality assurance and teachers’ professional practice using philosophy of education as a connecting rod. The epistemologically empowered teacher applies the appropriate pedagogic method for learners appropriately, likewise his/her fulfilment of the ethical obligations of the profession. The more the efforts to improve quality in our educational system, the better the teacher in keeping standards.

Recommendations
Since the necessity of philosophy in enhancing professional practice and assuring quality in education has become so clearly crystallized, hence this paper recommends the following:

1. There has been a recent debate as to whether philosophy of education courses should be taken separately or should be incorporated into, or interrelated with different sectors of educational disciplines, especially the major components. Hence, for instance higher education, should develop a philosophy for higher education, childhood education should develop one for childhood education, while education of the exceptional child should develop one geared to this sub-discipline. In my view, both approaches should be encouraged on account of the importance of philosophical undergirding in the education of man. Educators must be able not only to see philosophy as it relates to all education course, but also as it relates to specific areas, such as the exceptional child, early childhood and higher education.

2. Philosophy of education should not only be made compulsory in all teacher education programmes, but that the contact of course of study should be expanded to cover in details the metaphysical, epistemological and axiological realities of the individual and the society. This cannot be achieved in just one semester course as it is most commonly taught today.

3. The teaching and assessment of students in the field of philosophy of education at any level should only be contracted to professionally trained philosophers of education. The present trend where mediocre are forced to teach a core subject like philosophy of education should be discouraged.

4. Institutions and organizations that employ the services of trained philosophers of education should encourage and sponsor them to attend and participate in the annual national conferences of the Philosophy of Education Association of Nigeria.

5. The National Conference of Philosophers of Education in Nigeria should be reorganized and strengthened to attract the attention and interest of the major stakeholders of education in Nigeria, and;

6. Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria and other regulatory agencies such as NUC, NCCE, JAMB, etc in discharging its functions should put in place adequate mechanism to ensure quality in Nigerian schools. For instance the issue of Accreditation of programmes and institutions should be done purely on merit.

References


Home-Work Interface and Organisational Commitment as Predictors of Job Effectiveness of Public Secondary School Teachers in South-West, Nigeria.

Moyofolu Racheal Titiloye; Ph.D

Department of Educational Management, Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos.
moyofolunike@yahoo.com

&

Professor Lasun Gbadamosi

Professor of Educational Planning & Policy,
Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State, Nigeria
E-mail: lasungbadamosi2014@gmail.com 08033452551

Abstract
The study investigated the extent to which home-work variables, namely: work-family conflict, family-work conflict, marital satisfaction, and spouse support on one hand and organisational commitment on the other hand would predict the job effectiveness of public secondary school teachers in South-West, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 960 public secondary school teachers (480 males and 480 females) selected through stratified random sampling technique from 48 public secondary schools in the geo-political zone. Data were collected through 6 standardized instruments and analysed with the Multiple Regression Analysis. Findings revealed that the predictor variables contributed significantly both collectively and individually to the prediction of the job effectiveness of the teachers. Recommendations focused on enhancing the home and school climate positively to shore up the job effectiveness of teachers.

Keywords: Work-Family Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support, Organisational Commitment, Job effectiveness.

Introduction
The National Policy on Education (FRN, 2013) adopts education as the instrument per excellence for effecting national development and as a tool for solving the many socio-economic problems facing the nation. The policy further identifies teachers as the most important resources in the education industry by opining that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers. The implication of this statement is that the quality of an educational system and that of its teachers are mutually dependent. In essence, only effective teachers can impact positively on the overall development and achievement of their students. Bilesanmi-Awoderu (2012) alluded to the centrality of the teacher in the achievement of educational objectives when she argued that the teacher is the most important factor of all the factors instrumental to effective teaching and learning. According to her, an effective teacher is capable of turning a seemingly hopeless learning condition to a motivating or conducive one. As an outcome variable, job effectiveness has been conceptualized as either an attitudinal or behavioural concept. Boyatzis (1982) associates the concept of effectiveness with job performance as attaining results through actions that satisfy certain constraints. A key point of Boyatzis’ definition is that results are a function of the job incumbents’ actions, not chance occurrences. It takes note of the context within which an employee’s job is performed, that is, the organisation and its environment.

Home and organisational factors have been considered to play very significant roles in determining teachers’ effectiveness. Since a sizeable number of teachers in secondary schools are married, the implication for such teachers is that they will experience conflict between the home and the work place. Traditionally, the work role is seen to be men’s primary domain and women are still perceived to be primarily responsible for the home and children (Windebark, 2001). That is why employed women have to juggle the demands from both work and family roles to a greater degree than employed men (Noor, 2003); which eventually creates an imbalance between these two types of roles. In general, it is more likely that women will experience greater amount of conflict from family domain and men will experience more conflict from work domain.
One family variable that may affect teachers’ level of job effectiveness is parental demands. Parenting introduces new demands and responsibilities into a marriage that requires a great deal of parenting time and energy. The implication for married female teachers is that the more parental demands they experience, the less time and energy they have to devote to work. Hassan (2003; 2005) reported that the heavy load of household chores on women impaired their effectiveness at work. Rice (2003) and Aghenta (1987) found that many teachers are incapable of separating their professional and family roles effectively. Support from the family has been found to play an important role in reducing work and non-work-conflict. A teacher’s job effectiveness can be impeded when there is lack of support from work and support from family. Social support may come from co-workers and principals while family support could come from one’s spouse.

According to Noor (2003), a good and open relationship with one’s spouse can result in less marital stress. A study has found that husband’s support of his wife’s employment is critical to the reduction of a working woman’s conflict (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1984). The absence of such support leads to stress and conflict resulting in teachers’ ineffectiveness and poor academic performance of students. Stressing this fact further, Sotonade (2012; 2004) noted that lack of support by spouse is not only a major cause of marital conflict but also work-family-conflict. In the same vein, Gbadamosi (2012) and Ajibade and Gbadamosi (1992) found that spouse relations is a major factor in the managerial efficiency of school administrators. They noted that when there is cordial relationship between the husband and wife at home, the worker will be in the best frame of mind to deliver his/her best at work. Family-work role conflict is an important issue in the determination of job effectiveness. Over the years, there has been an increase in competitive pressures on schools to increase productivity and a concomitant increase in time demands on the workforce; leaving less time available for the teachers to be with their families. Moreover, the workforce composition has changed in recent years, with an increase in women in the workplace and there has been an increase in men being involved in family life (Frone, Russel, and Cooper 2011; Cardson, 2005). Dual income couples and an increase in single parenting are now becoming the norm of today’s society. Work-family role conflict has been defined as “a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Flippo, 2005). The conflict occurs when teachers extend their efforts to satisfy their family demands at the expense of their work demands or vice versa (Cole, 2004).

Conflict could arise from work interfering with the family life, such as working overtime to meet demands of the job or from family demands when there is illness with a family member. A significant amount of researches have concluded that work-family conflict and family-work conflict are related but distinct constructs (Ajiboye, 2008; Adebola, 2005). Work-family conflict is primarily caused by excessive work demands and predicts negative family outcomes, whereas family-work conflict is primarily determined by family demands and predicts negative work outcomes. (Adekola, 2010). Therefore, if teachers are experiencing high levels of family-work role conflict, their roles and responsibilities in family life are interfering with the work domain. Meanwhile, because the teacher is more committed to the welfare of the family, this will take priority, reducing or minimizing the time and energy being spent in the work domain. Thus, the teacher who experiences high family role conflict would experience less effective commitment to the organisation. The influence of family variables on organisational commitment and effectiveness in this study is examined from a spillover perspective. Spillover may be positive when enriching experiences in the family domain enhance one’s effectiveness or satisfaction in the work domain. On the other hand, negative spillover exists when dissatisfying experiences or conditions in the family domain detract from one’s experiences or performance in the work domain (Crouter, 1984). However, work-family conflict occurs when the domain of work interferes with the family demands and vice-versa (Ajiboye, 2008).

Spousal support is an important factor in reducing conflict between work and family demands (Strauss, 2012; Kirrane and Buckley, 2004). Spouse support can be emotional or instrumental (Lee and Choo, 2001; Kirrane and Buckley, 2004). Emotional support refers to sympathetic, loving, and caring behaviours (e.g., showing concern on spouse’s work, willingness to listen, and giving advice or guidance) (Lee and Choo, 2001). Instrumental support, on the other hand, refers to the actual assistance or facilitation in task accomplishment (e.g., helping in household chores and childcare, providing financial assistance (Strauss, 2012; Lee and Choo, 2001). Actions representing spouse support include; care given during the time of illness, emotional support, counseling, child care and advice, all of which are able to minimize fatigue and irritation (Bernas and Major, 2000).
The concept of organisational commitment has enjoyed a great deal of research interest, the sustained interest in organisational commitment stems, in part, from the recognition of the limitations of technological innovations in creating and sustaining competitive advantage. For this reason, many organisations are turning from a control model to a commitment model in managing their workforce (Akintayo 2010). One of the main reasons for its popularity is that organisations have continued to find and sustain competitive advantage through teams of committed employees. Meyer & Allen, (1997) have found that committed employees are more likely to remain with the organisation and strive towards the organisation’s mission, goals and objectives. Organisational commitment is defined as the degree to which the employee feels devoted to his/her organisation (Spector, 2000). Hassan, Hassan and Mabekoje (2008) reported a strong relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction of workers.

Hypotheses

H01: There is no significant combined contributions of family-work conflict, work-family conflict, marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment in the prediction of the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers.

H02: There is no significant relative contributions of family-work conflict, work-family conflict, marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment in the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers.

Methods

The population consisted of all married public secondary school teachers in the six states of South-West namely; Lagos, Ogun, Osun, Oyo, Ondo and Ekiti States. The sample was 960 public secondary school teachers (480 males and 480 females) selected through stratified random sampling techniques from three randomly selected states in the zone.

Data were collected through 6 standardized instruments namely: Family-Work Conflict Scale (Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian; 1996), Work-Family Conflict Scale (Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrian; 1996), Marital Satisfaction Scale (Spanier, 1976), Spouse Support Scale (Samuel and Yard, 1992), Organisational Commitment Scale (Allen and Meyer, 1996), and Teachers Annual Appraisal Scale of the Lagos State Government. The reliability Co-efficients for each of the scales range from 0.73 to 0.82. Data were analysed with the Multiple Regression Analysis.

Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REGRESSION ANOVA</th>
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<tr>
<td>Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>R = .226</td>
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<tr>
<td>R Square = .051</td>
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<td>Adjusted R Square = .046</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

a Predictors: (Constant), Organisational Commitment, Work-Family Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support, Family-Work Conflict

b Dependent Variable: Job Effectiveness
c School type = Public school

The results in Table 1 indicated that with all the predictor variables (family-work conflict, work family conflict, marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment) entered into the regression model at once, there was a significant prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers (R = .226; R² = .051; Adj R² = .046; F (5,898) = 9.627; p < .05). This showed that all the variables accounted for 4.6% of the variance in the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. This
implies that there is a significant combined contribution of family-work conflict, work family conflict, marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment in the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was performed to determine the complementary contributions of the independent variables to the prediction of the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. Results are as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Model Summary of the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis for the Combined Contributions of Family-Work Conflict, Work Family Conflict, Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support and Organisational Commitment to the Prediction of Job Effectiveness of Married Public Secondary School Teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Estimate</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.164(a)</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.026</td>
<td>10.0096</td>
<td>.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.194(b)</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>9.95086</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.212(c)</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>9.91807</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.226(d)</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>9.89352</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Predictors: (Constant), Marital Satisfaction  
b Predictors: (Constant), Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support  
c Predictors: (Constant), Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support, Organisational Commitment  
d Predictors: (Constant), Marital Satisfaction, Spouse Support, Organisational Commitment, Work-Family Conflict  
e School type = Public school

The results in Table 2 showed that when marital satisfaction was entered into the regression model as the first predictor variable based on the strength of its relationship with job effectiveness, there was a significant contribution to the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers (R = .164; R^2 = .027; Adj R^2 = .026; F(1,902) = 24.946; p < .05). By this, marital satisfaction alone accounted for 2.6 percent of the variance in job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. When spouse support was introduced into the regression model as the second predictor variable, together with marital satisfaction, it revealed a significant effect on job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers (R = .194; R^2 = .038; Adj R^2 = .036; F(1,901) = 10.105; p < .05). This revealed that marital satisfaction and spouse support together predicted 3.6 percent of the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. In effect, spouse support was able to add about 1.0 percent to the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. When organisational commitment was introduced into the regression model as the third predictor variable, together with marital satisfaction and spouse support, it revealed a significant effect on job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers (R = .212; R^2 = .045; Adj R^2 = .042; F(1,900) = 6.968; p < .05). This revealed that marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment together predicted 4.2 percent of the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. In effect, organisational commitment was able to add about 0.6 percent to the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. When work-family conflict was introduced into the regression model as the fourth predictor variable, together with marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment it revealed a significant effect on job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers (R = .226; R^2 = .051; Adj R^2 = .047; F(1,1899) = 5.472; p < .05). This revealed that marital satisfaction, spouse support, organisational commitment and family-work conflict together predicted 4.7 percent of the job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers. In effect, family-work conflict was able to add about 0.5 percent to the prediction of job effectiveness of married public secondary school teachers.

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations  
The first major finding was that there is significant combined contribution of family work-conflict, work-family conflict, marital satisfaction, spouse support and organisational commitment in the prediction of the
job effectiveness of public secondary school teachers in the study area. This means that all the predictor variables contribute significantly to the job effectiveness of public secondary school teachers. This finding is in consonance with the earlier findings of Popoola (2008, Akinjide, 2006 and Akinboye (2003). Moffet (2005) had earlier emphasized that when family demands becoming pressing, the effectiveness of the worker would be undermined. For the public secondary school teachers studied, marital satisfaction was the most potent predictor followed by organizational commitment and spouse support in that order. This corroborated earlier findings by Spector (2000) and Gbadamosi (1991). Expectedly, family-work conflict and work-family conflict are negative predictors of job effectiveness of public secondary school teachers.

It was recommended that marriage seminars should be organized for single teachers to ensure that they make suitable choices of partners. Lessons in tolerance and conflict resolution should be given to already married teachers to improve the quality of their family relationship. Government should also improve the working conditions of teachers in public schools to shore up their commitment to the teaching profession.

References


Poverty and Insecurity in Nigeria: Implications for National Development

Osah, Goodnews, Ph.D.; Atere, Clement; Eti, Chinedu & Amakihe Bartholomew

Department of Political Science and Public Administration, Department of International Law and Diplomacy, Babcock University, Ilishan-Remo, Ogun State Nigeria

Corresponding email: osahgood@yahoo.com; +234 8023906893

Abstract
Poverty in Nigeria has been so pervasive despite several anti-poverty campaigns. Meanwhile, the dual crises of poverty and insecurity have contributed to the deepening conditions of the people in the midst of plenty. This paper which is descriptive and qualitative in nature relied on the Frustration-Aggression hypothesis for its theoretical orientation to explain the nexus between poverty and insecurity in Nigeria. Corruption, bad governance, lack of political will and policy inconsistencies in the country have affected the situations adversely. This paper concludes that related government and private agencies should actively engage the youths in productive jobs. More so, the nation’s economy should be diversified to include other sectors such as the agricultural sector which once accounted for about 61% of the country’s export in the 1960s. The paper recommends that justice and equity should be a cognate principle in all facets of national life. More so, the issues that have given rise to the security threats should be addressed holistically and government should go beyond lip-service in its poverty reduction campaign to implement existing policies that would enhance and proffer permanent solutions to insecurity and poverty problems in Nigeria.

Key words: Frustration-Aggression; Insecurity, National development, Political-economy, Poverty

Introduction
The main causes of conflict are poverty and underdevelopment, especially the lack of basic necessities. The best way to resolve conflicts is to address its root causes.

Deng Boqing, Ambassador of the Republic of China to Nigeria.

Poverty is the reason for insecurity. - Shuaibu Idris, is a two-time governorship aspirant in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

The assertions above are not only true, but also show the two sides of the same coin. While the first is an international assertion, the latter is a local one, which suggests that poverty, insecurity are not attributive to local settings alone, but also cut across international landscape. For reasons that need not detain us here, it is already an established fact that poverty looms in Nigeria and the resultant effects have manifested in the insecurity of lives and property, underdevelopment, corruption, bad governance and failure of government institutions. Despite several anti-poverty programmes that have been initiated and established by various Nigerian governments to quash the quagmire out of the system, all efforts have yielded insignificant results thereby deepening the menace and poor conditions of the people (Felix & Osunmakinde, 2014; Aigbokhan, 2000).

Nigeria has remained a mix of plenty and poverty. This paradox is expressed in the rich natural and human resources the country is endowed with, yet it is one of the poorest countries of the world; contrary to the expectations and dreams nourished by her citizens and neighbours that the endowments of the country is supposed to bring them fortune rather than hardship. A few political classes have used the apparatus of the state to siphon the resources meant for the development of the state to satisfy the private and selfish gains of themselves and their clients. This has created an economy of corruption where the citizens struggle for the
remaining resources for their advancement. Sometimes this struggle takes on violent tone which results in the destruction of lives and property. This becomes a ‘survival of the fittest’ syndrome which characterized the ‘state of nature’ in which Thomas Hobbes (1588 - 1679) the 17th century political philosopher describes as ‘one of constant war of “all against all” (Okeke, 2009).

Ikejiaku (2009) argues that poverty is a multidimensional problem that goes beyond economics to include among other things, social, political, and cultural issues. Citing John Burton (1997) Ikejiaku agrees that there are conflict and instability in developing countries because people are denied not only their biological needs, but also psychological needs that relate to growth and development. He further argues that social strife and revolutions are not brought out by the conspiratorial or malignant nature of man; rather revolutions are derived from poverty and distributive injustice. Therefore, when the poor are in the majority and have no prospect of ameliorating their condition, they are bound to be restless and seek restitution through violence. Oshita (2011) adds that there are multiple factors that predispose a society to violent conflictual relationships these include resources, ethnicity, politics, religion, marginalization, insecurity and exclusion. No government can hold stability and peace when it is created on a sea of poverty.

In explaining the above terms in their causal effective to poverty and insecurity, it is argued that where such (i.e poverty and insecurity) take upper hand in the society without adequate control, might make conflict penetrable into the society. Nigeria’s multi-ethnicity makes it susceptible to conflict and insecurity especially when a group claims that the others are marginalizing it or when ethnic or religious minorities are systematically excluded from governance or political representation, they may resort to open revolt against the system (Oshita, ibid). Campbell (2010) opines that Northern Nigeria’s escalating poverty is as a result of its declined access to oil because it lost political power to the South. His idea is that control of political power equals access to economic power. This perhaps may appear to be the root cause of the crises in Northern Nigeria which some have argued is an attempt to malign the leadership of the country being headed by a south-south representative. These crises have claimed hundreds of lives and property which has imposed high cost on governance. The Boko Haram insurgent activities have not only been detrimental to Nigeria but for Sub-Sahara Africa. This Sums up Osita's (ibid) argument that intra-state conflict especially in Africa does not only have internal consequences but consequences for global peace and security.

II. Theoretical Orientation: The Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis
There are competing paradigms that seek to explain the cause of poverty and insecurity not just in Nigeria but in developing countries generally. While the situation might be different with other countries, that of Nigeria is one that is mare with complexities and paradoxical. This is because as mentioned earlier, Nigeria is a mix of plenty and poverty. Therefore the premise on which this argument is based for its theoretical foundation is the Frustration-Aggression hypothesis. Aggression though is a key concept developed by biologists and psychologists for the explanation of conflict. Dollard, Dobb, Miller, Mower, and Seers (1939) who are credited with popularizing the frustration-aggression hypothesis state that when circumstances interfere with a goal response, it often leads to aggression. This concept of frustration-aggression suggest that individuals turn aggressive when there are perceived or real impediments to their route to success in life, basically when their material basic needs are not met (Faleti, 2006).

The concept of frustration has featured prominently in the analysis of aggression because of the widespread assumption that the high conflict potential of developing countries is rooted in frustration caused by economic deprivation and political marginalization (Justino, 2002; Berdal & Malone, 2001; Goodhand, 2001; Collier & Hoeffler, 2000; Anderson & Dill, 1995, Esman, 1994). The hypothesis which is situated under the microcosmic theories of violent conflict originally was limited to the assumption that aggression is always a consequence of frustration. The corollary of this is that whenever a barrier is placed in between persons and their desired goal, an extra amount of energy is mobilized. Such energy mobilization, if continued and there is no success, there is the tendency that it will flow over into generalized destructive behaviour as the case in Nigeria. In the view of Dolland et al (1939), the strength of instigation to the aggression is expected to vary with the strength of the frustrated response; the degree of interference with the frustrated response and the number of frustrated response-sequence. Thus, when grievances are not met, the poor and deprived in the society will riot, question the leadership as well and even join rebel groups (Ikejiaku, 2012).
III. The Political Economy of Pre-independence and Post-independence Nigeria

Nigeria, the most populous black nation and the seventh most populous country in the world seats on the land mass of 923,768 km² and boosts of a population of over 173.6 million. It shares boundaries with Chad and Cameroon in the east, the Republic of Benin in the west, Niger in the north. Its coast in the south lies on the Gulf of Guinea in the Atlantic Ocean (World Bank, 2014). Though rich in both natural and human resources, has come under siege - siege in political, economic and social life. Osaghae (2011) argues that Nigeria's political nature since independence is a long-drawn-out decay or decline whose empirical elements are first political instability occasioned by high turn-over of governments - regime structures, institutions and personal - leading to military coups, inconclusive and contested electoral outcomes, frequent changes in policy, political violence and crisis of legitimacy. Second a low level of national cohesion which defiles every element of healthy ethnic competitions and third economic crises, all of these reinforcing one another. The experience of post-independence Nigeria as argued by Osaghae (2011) is a carry-over from pre-independence Nigeria. The colonial political economy was one which had an exploitative character without having the development of Nigeria and indeed the African Continent in mind. Ekekwe & Azu (2011), Ekekwe (1986), Ake (1981) suggest that the intension of colonial lords tended towards the disarticulation and incoherence of the different sectors of the Nigeria state. The colonizers could exploit the colony's wealth at all cost without recourse. Every sector of the colony in which the colonizers invested in, were of important interest to them. The railway system and the port for instance were not built to yield any maximum benefit to the development of the country but were built to satisfy the selfish interest of the colonizers. Groundnut export from the Kano region showed an increase within two years of almost 1,000 percent from less than 2,000 tons produced in 1911 before the arrival of railway system, to about 20,000 tons in 1913 a year after the railway reached Kano.

The Agricultural and Manufacturing sectors also witnessed disarticulation line of production in these sectors was mainly on commodities that benefited the colonizers. Priority was given to few export crops like cocoa in Ghana. Meanwhile, Ghana had not started exporting cocoa until its colonization, such that by 1901 the country was already the largest producers of cocoa in the world (Ake, 1981). Education under the colonial state followed an imperialist ideology which informed the roles played by the state. On the other hand, the foreign missionary group which brought formal Education to Nigeria complemented the activities of the state since the mission schools provided the state with some qualified manpower, while the state provided security for the missionaries "in this imperialist mission, both maxim guns and the Bible found mutual support and benefits" (Ekekwe 1986:35). There was no attempt to liberalize education since at this time in Britain; education was largely a restricted commodity. To them (colonial state), education was more important for its consequence and orientation than, for the number of students who received it, therefore they continued to show little interest in that direction.

Political succession under the colonial state was heavily tampered with as there was an attempt by the colonizers to establish their dominance in the country. Following the destruction of the natural economy and the imposition of the colonial state, the traditional notions and processes of political succession based on hereditary as in those of kings and chiefs, was consigned to oblivion. Ekekwe & Azu (2011), citing Warioba (2010) write that the colonial state in a bid to consolidate its role interfered with these systems and processes in order to gain political control; thereby destroying the sanctity, moral and cultural basis which traditionally attached to the succession process without regard to the implications for political succession in the future. While we may appear at the risk of blaming colonial rule for the current misery of the Nigerian state, it is important to establish that the sorry condition in which the present Nigerian state is intrinsically linked to the experiences of the colonial era. The establishment of some private British orientated company such as the CSOA, JOHN HOLT, UAC, PZ, UTC and Multinational corporations are ploys to deepen and further perpetrate the colonial evil to maintain the status quo for their selfish interest which is described as the new colonial relations between the national economy and foreign capital. This is responsible for the "decapitalization, technological backwardness, structural distortion, political instability, cultural degradation and environmental devastation of the third world" (Alapiki, 2006; Ekekwe, 1986).

IV. Emerging Economy for Post-Independence Nigeria

For the Nigerian political elite, the challenge is between private accumulation and social accumulation, although they may have learnt from colonial rule, they could have also changed and stopped what they decreed at that time to be the exploitation of the local economy without due regard for future development. But that
was not the case as they were more interested in private accumulation which has metamorphosized into several crises in the state. While few have used the apparatuses of the State to satisfy their private gains, others are left to wallow in abject poverty which has translated into the present sectoral crises which has bedeviled the Nigerian state. The political elites on one hand have invented an interest-specific leadership style that aimed at satisfying their private gains, instead of development-specific leadership style that makes for an opportunity for growth and development. The social miscreants on the other hand have created an emerging economy occasioned by extensive smuggling of arms, theft and sale of crude oil, kidnapping of foreign and local expatriate, destruction of oil company property and installations, human rights abuses, thereby creating for a self economic empowerment programme which to them out-weighs any government empowerment programme (Eti, 2014).

Every attempt by the political elite to put a stop to these self economic empowerment programmes by these social miscreants has resulted into conflicts between government forces and the social miscreants. While we may agree that the study of insurgency in the Northern part of Nigeria is as weighty as the region itself and that for want of space which we may not locate within the scope of this study, it is imperative to state that such insurgency has increased the poverty and insecurity level of the lives and property of Nigeria, therefore some suggestion have been provided to serve as succor for these menaces in Nigeria. Again the view held by many that colonialism would lead to peaceful African states did not stand, because after independence, the African continent has witnessed a plethora of conflicts which has contributed to the continent’s “backwardness”. Colonialism left a system that imposed high cost of governance because it was poor and too weak to manage its affairs (Ikejiaku 2009).

Part of the emerging economy of post-independent Nigeria, is the client-patronage relations which characterizes the Nigerian political economy. Here, the political leader in a clientele environment grants privileges to a selected potion of the society as compensation for their obedience and corporation. These clients determine what happens to the creation and distribution of resources within the state (Yagboyaju 2007). They are neither trained on the tenets of governance, nor do they possess any skills to understand and drive the objective policies and public goals of the state. While these clients and patrons assert themselves in office and use the apparatus of the state to promote and protect their parochial egocentric interests, the rest of the aggrieved citizens are left with no other choice than to engage in violent activities which sometimes results in conflict situation between the state and rebels, to improve their poor livelihood. Issues of corruption, bad leadership and weak institutions are negatives that have crept into governance in the emerging economy of post-independent Nigeria. Political leaders lack the capacity to formidable drive the ideal agenda of the state; which is growth and development. Growth and development is not only related to the economy; say fiscal growth, but an economic growth properly harnessed by political leaders which enhances political, social and economic welfare of the citizens.

Population upsurge is another problem militating against governance in post-independence Nigeria. The tremendous increase in population in Nigeria has outweigths economic such that there is very little to cater for the teeming population and this has imposed a very huge challenge on governance. Over the last 50 years, very little economic growth has occurred and this has not been commensurate with the high increase in population; again this is another cursor to a conflict situation in Nigeria as citizens have had to scramble for the available resources to cushion the effects of their poor conditions.

V. Desideratum for Positive National Development
The eradication of poverty on one hand, and the achievement of national security on the other is accepted as primary objectives of developing countries affected by this dual crises. While it may be argued that successive Nigerian governments have over the years, introduced anti-poverty programmes that are expected to cleanse the State of poverty; the reality is that the issue is far from being resolved. Without sounding pessimistic, poverty keeps multiplying in several dimensions and creating more problems on governance. Perhaps the reason for such failure is poor policy conception and lack of control mechanism which are derived from weak theoretical orientation that is anchored on “things rather than on people.”

GDP growth, inflation rate, balance of payment popularly referred to as graphical development seem to be the concentration of governance and not on the development of the people. Here, consumption, literacy and
participation should be the ideal focus of governance. Nigeria’s GDP growth of $510 billion (in 2013) makes no impact on her citizens if such does not translate to tangibles and real development of the various sectors that make up the country – political, economic and social etc. Therefore a paradigm shift is necessary in this regard to put the country into proper perspective. In this sense, governance in Nigeria needs to be conceptualized to reflect the realities of the prevalent conditions. It is rather unfortunate that the 15 years of uninterrupted democracy in Nigeria has not earned the country stability in political leadership; as core democratic values are yet to take firm root in Nigeria’s democracy. Thus political leaders must remain accountable, responsible and transparent in managing public finance. Rule of law, separation of powers, and independence of democratic institutions – electoral bodies, law enforcement agencies, the judiciary and other institutions, citizenship engagement in democratic process must be properly entrenched into the political system and governance structure because they are very crucial for the sustenance of her democracy.

Pre-independence Nigerian economy was largely agrarian with lots of expectations for development and even after independence, the agricultural sector accounted for over 61% of the total value Nigeria’s export (Adeyemo, 2002) and this placed the country on the trajectory of development. The 1970s came with it the “oil boom” period which expectedly was to provide more development deliverables for the country. Sadly, the “oil boom” led to “oil doom” that has succeeded in making Nigeria a “mono-cultural economy and more import-dependent” (Babawale, 2003). Its dependence on resources from the oil and gas sector has consigned the once-cherished agricultural sector into oblivion. Today, the biggest shocker of the economy is that it makes the economy very vulnerable to global shocks and weak in inclusiveness. For that reason, there must be transformation of the agricultural sector, but this transformation cannot be in isolation of infrastructure development and industrialization. The Nigerian agricultural market still ranks very low in the global market, robust support is required on the part of government to catch up with the global market and compete with international standards. The education sector plays a vital role in the development of the economy. The Report of the Commission for Africa (RCA, 2005) noted that education is a means to fulfill individual aspirations and critical for economic growth and healthy population. The Nigerian University system should diversify on the content of their learning and instruction as well as establish entrepreneurial and vocational institutes which should serve the citizens who may not have the capacity to go through the university system in acquiring formal education, but are talented in business and skills. Other sectors – telecommunication, finance, real sector (manufacturing) must receive priority attention as well.

VI. Conclusion
In spite of the huge resources of which Nigeria is blessed, the country has been regarded as the sleeping giant or as Osaghae (2011) puts it the ‘crippled giant’, and has remained amongst the poorest countries of the world. The slogan of “suffering and smiling” in the mist of plenty is now been replaced with “use what you have to get what you want”. The result is unending conflicts and insecurity. The people have been pushed to the wall. The sound guns are alarming on every part of the country. Time has come to attack poverty our common enemy in the land. Time has come to stop killing ourselves and move forward.
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The Place of Target Costing in Managerial Decision Making Process

Tolani Agboola Hassan
Department of Business Management,
Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract
Target costing is an essential tool for companies striving to achieve and maintain a position of true cost competitiveness. It provides great insights and perspective into target cost management practices by combining theory and practice. It is a must-read for all practicing managers and scholars. This paper therefore examines the relevance of target costing as a decision making tool.

Introduction
In the highly competitive business environment of today, punctuated by globalization, an effective management control system is essential for organizations. In this regard, management of costs has become a very crucial issue. The short product life-cycles and the orientation towards producing high quality products at a low cost has added even more impetus to the search for useful solutions. Consequently, a host of management accounting concepts and techniques including Target Cost Management (TCM) has come into existence. It should be remarked that, what consequences and implications such tools have on the business process are subject to debate. Nevertheless, the trend is such that companies carry out value analysis in a bid to identify and prioritise value-adding activities and eliminate activities that do not add value to the customer, thus reducing costs. It is against such a background that we attempt to explore the concept of TCM as implemented in companies in the west. In order to explore TCM and investigate the practice of this concept, a critical review of the literatures in this area has been conducted. The purpose of this was to develop a good understanding and insight into relevant previous research and trends that have emerged the last decades. This paper is also to a large extent based on examination of secondary data such as books, journals and the Internet. Nevertheless, this could only provide us with a limited amount of literature.

Conceptual clarification
The concept of TCM was developed by the Toyota Motor Corporation in the mid-sules (Monden & Sakurai, 1989). It was initially used by Japanese companies but later gained prominence and came to be adopted by companies in the Western World. According to Drury (1996), a target market price is determined prior to designing and introducing a new product. This target price is set at a level that will permit the company to achieve a desired market share and sales volume, a desired profit margin is then deducted to determine the target maximum allowable product cost. Where the new product being introduced is a variation of an existing product, target-selling prices can be established based on the prices of existing products, market research data, and an examination of competitors pricing strategies. It was further stated that, for entirely new products companies to employ functional analysis and price the product by functions. The price is decomposed into many elements or attributes. For instance, automobiles, functions or attributes may consist of style, comfort, operability, reliability, quality, attractiveness, to mention but a few. A price for each element is determined which reflects the amount the customer is prepared to pay. It was further stated that the total of the values for each function gives the estimated selling price.

A target cost is calculated by subtracting a desired profit margin from an estimated or a market-based price to arrive at a desired production, engineering, or marketing cost. This may not be the initial production cost, but one expected to be achieved during the mature production stage. Target costing is a method used in the analysis of product design that involves estimating a target cost and then designing the product/service to meet that cost. Thus, the target cost is determined by deducting the target profit from the target-selling price. The following formula illustrates this relationship:

**Target Cost = Target Selling Price - Target Profit**
In summary, TCM involves identification of the price at which a product/service will be competitive in the market place; determination of the minimum desired profit to be made on that product or service; computation of a target cost for the product or service by subtracting the desired profit from the competitive market price (Ax, 2002). However, it should be realized that there is no single and precise definition of TCM (Corrigan, 1996). We have chosen to adopt a definition by Tani (1994) as we believe that this perspective on TCM supports our view on the subject. Tani (1994) is of the opinion that target costing is concerned with simultaneously achieving a target cost along with planning, development and detailed design of new products by using methods such as value engineering. It is important to state that this definition has a rather customer/market perspective compared with other authors, for example Kato (1993) and Sakurai (1989). Their definitions are more Research & Development and Process oriented.

Application of TCM

The implementation of TCM is a time consuming and often difficult process. Every entity of the organization has to adapt to the ideas and this can be a very difficult assignment and requires good planning of the top management. It is fundamental that the managers make sure that the concept is deeply rooted throughout the entire organization. The problems which arise through the implementation of the concept depends on what conditions the organizations have (Bertilsson & Thollonen, 1999). In accordance with Monden (1995) there are five stages which organizations are advised to conform to, for successful implementation of TCM. These are:

1. Corporate-wide product planning,
2. Developing new products,
3. Determining a new product's basic plan,
4. Detailed product design, and
5. Transfer of the product plan to production.

Before discussing the five stages of TCM, it is important to point out the following caveat: not all products undergo the process to the same extent. In particular, TCM is often only applied to base models within a product line and the major components of the higher-level products. The preliminary phase is corporate planning, where medium and long-term goals are established. This scenario relates to lifecycle planning, which includes production set up, prototype development, personnel costs for design alongside profit plans. The lifecycle plans extends over one to five years. From the first year of development to long-term funds plans, which include the whole organization. The introduction of new products should be done in the context of the organisation's existing range of products, and the model changes and model modifications that have previously been scheduled (Monden, 1995). The second section refers to the development the specific new product project. The analysis of customer survey's and trends among competitors gives the organization the necessary data to identify the quality related issues required. Also, the organization is able to analyse advances in automotive technology. This heightens the implementation procedure, while considering both the customer needs and the new product developments (Monden, 1995).

Determining the basic plan for a specific new product is the third phase. Here the organization determines the allocation of financial resources, for example target sale price and planned investment schedule, thus constituting the main ingredient in TCM. As a point of illustration, Japanese automobile companies often use a pay back period, especially when making capital investment and new product introduction decisions. Once completed, the new product plans are forwarded to a cost management department, where preliminary financial analyses are performed. Should the preliminary financial analyses indicate that the project is unlikely to be profitable, the project is sent back to the engineering planning department. This department is asked to make cost-saving modifications to the product. It is also encouraged to consider the elimination of certain product features that provide dubious value for customers. Such modifications and/or eliminations are performed in consultation with the product-planning department. This collaboration helps ensure that the product will still meet customer expectations for quality and functionality (www.icwa.com).

According to Monden (1995), product design is the phase in where designers draft a trial blueprint incorporating the TCM. The purpose here is to design a product to suit the cost. The following action in this stage is to estimate the manufacturing cost. There is an equation that details the most effective way to achieve this (illustrated below). Hitherto, the organisation's main mission in this phase is to obtain both quality and
cost targets.

**Manufacturing Costs = Direct Materials Cost + Processing Costs + Direct Operating Cost**

Finally, the production transfer plan phase is the conclusive chapter in the implementation process. The main focus within this stage is to analyse whether the production equipment, materials and parts fit into the proposed plan and schedule. Once the manufacturing and purchasing activities have commenced the evaluation takes place (Monden, 1995). The goals with the TCM method were: Firstly, to make sure that the cost never exceeds the revenue. Secondly, placing the cost where they give most value for the money, that is, to fit the customers’ demands as much as possible. To achieve these goals, it was very important that the message of TCM was communicated all through the organization. The goals are important in all organizations where the production costs are not always directly connected to an increased value of the product. The calculations are standardized, easy to understand and show the connection between cost and price. By using these calculations the information can easily and efficiently be shared with everyone concerned.

The cost targets are set twice, before and after the concept phase. If the pre-calculated costs are exceeded the management of the project department will decide which alternative will add most value to the car. The cost targets may be increased or other article-options can be suggested. This cost awareness in the early stages encourages the development teams to participate more in the target setting process, which leads to a greater undertaking of the goals of the TCM methods.

**Discussion**

From the forgoing, attempts have been made to briefly describe TCM and examine the application procedure of the concept. The purpose of this was to develop a good understanding and insight into relevant previous research and trends that have emerged in this area. Subsequently, deductions could be made as follows:

First of all, it is worth questioning if TCM is appropriate to use in all types of industries. We cannot ignore the fact that both the company where the concept was developed and the businesses we have examined in our case studies are representatives for the car industry. It would probably have been more accurate to investigate companies in various industries in order to draw more general conclusions. However, as a result of the fact that a number of companies, which have implemented TCM, is rather limited, options available were quite restricted. It should also be mentioned that there is a lack of available secondary data on this specific topic. For these reasons we agree with Urban Ask (1999) that there is an existing need to investigate how Swedish companies apply TCM in their organizations. Research in this area could lead to increased knowledge in various aspects.

Secondly, we believe that it is essential to investigate whether TCM should be adapted directly from Japanese Management or if adjustments need to be made. A vast number of researchers have investigated how Japanese Management theories can be adopted into foreign organizations in a successful way. Although the question has been frequently raised, the answer remains inconsistent. Some authors (i.e. Bromwich & Inoue, 1994, Lillrank, 1995) claim that Japanese Management practice cannot be directly transferred to companies outside Japan without being adapted to the existing environments. Scholars such as Cooper (1995) and Womack (1990) argue that this transition is possible. These opinions are, backed up by the fact that the implementation and use of the TCM concept needs to be adapted to the specific situation. Further, it is important to view the implementation and use of TCM in relation to the organizations strategy and goal. Additionally, a company may pursue to keep its strong position within their market segment by meeting its customer's high demands. The inventor of the concept of TCM develops new models that are basically maintaining the same product concept as their predecessors. Thus, the development of an entirely new model is relatively unusual. The adoption of Japanese management accounting systems is often hard to understand for managers in the all over the World due to cultural, behavioural and organisational differences. Fuchsberg (1993) supports this view by claiming:

"The mere names of the new notions are mind-boggling ... Many business owners are too busy just getting through the days crises to study the pros and cons of all the new techniques/ which are aimed at cutting costs and improving productivity. So they do what entrepreneurs have always done to solve problems: improvise ... The very complexity of all the new management strategies has created a business niche of its own" (Fuchsberg/ p.12/ 1993).
TCM has been used to manage costs during a product’s planning and design stages for nearly thirty years. A staggering 80% plus of the major companies in assembly-type industries, and 60% in process industries utilise the concept (Kato, 1993, Sakurai, 1989; 1991). It is interesting to note that TCM has received little publication until recently both in Japan and the Western world. In accordance with Kato (1993) reasons for the lack of attention is that the notion has been overshadowed by other fashionable concepts, such as Just in Time (JIT) and Total Quality Management (TQM). In extension of this, the lack of focus has impaired the implementation procedure, although TCM has existed for over three decades. Further, the author discovered that there is a vast amount of secrecy with regard to new product development, which in turn has hidden the real impact of TCM. Despite the difficulties connected to transferring management accounting techniques into foreign contexts, our case studies indicate that the Japanese originated concept, TCM, is an appropriate management accounting system for Western companies.

However, there were some unsolved questions when the system was implemented. This might be one of the reasons for the problems Volvo and Saab faced during the implementation phase of TCM. This leads on to the following issue; whether some companies more prepared to implement the concept than others? It is essential that the right organizational context should support the implementation of a management accounting system such as TCM. Actually, we would go as far as claiming that the organizational context is critical to the success of the implemented accounting system. Many contextual factors must be regarded in order to use TCM to its full potential. These factors include structuring and educating the work-force, full acceptance from top-management, identifying appropriate champions of the new systems and finally ensuring satisfactory support from the finance and accounting function. There are presumably a number of important aspects regarding this area. However, in our opinion the above issue is fundamental, and hence should be investigated further.

Conclusion

It is important to note that the use of Target Costing enhances efficient and effective decision making. It is evident that a number of aspects have to be taken into consideration when implementing foreign management accounting techniques. The adoption of TCM was not, 1 straightforward task because of the close connection between organizational accounting policies and the corporate strategy. This is an important aspect that needs to be fully understood by the managers as well as the other employees in the organization. Nevertheless, it is believed that this area is far from entirely explored and it has a long way to go before it is possible to fully assess the potential benefits of foreign management accounting techniques. Managers at all levels should endeavour to understand the concept of Target Costing and apply same in their day to day decision making policy and procedure to achieve optimum utilization of resources and attainment of organizational goals and objectives.

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Teachers’ Preparation in the Context of Education Quality Assurance and the Effectiveness of Secondary Schools in Southwestern Nigeria

P. A. Akinmusere, Ph.D & Toju Eyengho
Department of Special Education and Curriculum Studies
Adeyemi University of Education, Ondo.
eyenghotoju@yahoo.com 08038638861

Abstract
This paper appraises the effect of Teachers’ Preparation in the Context of Education Quality Assurance on the Effectiveness of Secondary Schools in Southwestern Nigeria. The teachers’ input, learning ecology and school leadership were chosen as factors of effectiveness. A stratified sample of 30 schools were selected from a population of 313 from the six southwestern states of Ondo, Osun, Oyo, Ekiti, Ogun and Lagos, and based on equal selection of five schools from each of the states. 30 teachers were also selected from each of the sampled schools taking cognizance of gender, qualification and experience. The researcher designed a questionnaire which was employed to collect relevant data. The questionnaire was subjected to a test of face validity and test-retest reliability when they were returned. The collected data were then subjected to Chi-square analysis and in line with the hypothesis generated to guide the study. Results of the analysis indicate that quality assurance has a significant effect on each of teacher’s input and school leadership but not on learning environment. Based on the findings, recommendations were made to the effect that quality assurance should form the fulcrum of teachers’ preparation in Nigeria.

Introduction
The National Policy on Education (NPE), (FRN, 2013 revised), states clearly that the nation’s policy on education is government’s way of realizing that part of the national goals which can be achieved using education as a tool. The federal government in recognition of the crucial role of education in its policy statements in the introductory paragraph declares that:

Education in Nigeria is an instrument “par excellence” for effecting national development. It has witnessed active participation by non-governmental agencies, communities and individuals as well as government intervention.

It is very obvious from the policy statement that any nation who seeks relevance in the global economy cannot afford to neglect education. It therefore implies that the importance of education to the general well-being of mankind cannot be over-emphasized. The relationship between education and development has been established, such that education is now internationally accepted as a key development index (Woolman, 2001, Odukoya, 2009; Ajayi and Adeyemi, 2011; and Imam, 2012). It is in recognition of this importance that the international community and governments all over the world are making frantic efforts to ensure that teachers at all levels are properly trained, equipped and motivated for the task ahead. The NPE (2013) states that since no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers, teacher education (Teacher Preparation) shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development. According to Oyetola, Kayode and Okanuga (2012) quality work force in the education sector brings quality education which is an instrument highly indispensable in the transformation of individual values, beliefs and behavior. The quality of the workforce in the school system presupposes the quality of the school output, that is, the human resources that will be available for the nation. Consequently and as set out by the NPE (2004), the goals of Teacher Education shall be to:
(a) Produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our educational system.
(b) Encourage further the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers;
(c) Help teachers to fit into social life of the community and the society at large and enhance their commitment to national goals;

(d) Provide teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and make them adaptable to changing situations;

(e) Enhance teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession.

One can therefore deduce from these goals that the federal government is serious about teachers’ preparation, however, whether these lofty goals will be matched by effective actions and political will on the part of the government remains to be seen. In the school system, some determinants of high quality education include goals of education, quality of input as well as a well organized school system that ensures the articulation and effective co-ordination of all aspects of the school life (Ochuba, 2009). Ochuba (2009) further reiterates the need for checks and balances through regular and effective supervision and inspection if the education industry wants to carry out its function of development of quality human capital.

As reported by Ayeni (2012), the results of Senior School Certificate Examination conducted and released by the West African Examination Council (WAEC) and the National Examination Council (NECO) were below average in Nigeria between 2007 and 2010. The percentage of students who obtained credit level passes in five subjects and above including English language and mathematics was about 25% in Nigeria while in Ondo State, students results in WASSCE between 2007 and 2009 ranged from 16.7% to 19% and the same in NECOSSCE ranged from 3.2% to 27% and the 2010 WASSCE/NECOSSCE ranged from 19.6% to 43.6% (Bello-Osagie & Olubamila, 2009; Owadiae, 2010; Quality Education Assurance Agency, 2010). Also in 2011 May/June Senior School Certificate Examination conducted by the West African Examination Council only 30.99% of the 1,540,250 candidates obtained credit level passes and above in five subjects including English language and mathematics in the 36 states of the federation, and the federal capital territory (Owadiae, 2011). The unimpressive performance of students may be unconnected to inadequacies in the teacher’s methodology, teachers’ work-load, class size, inadequacy of instructional materials, students’ indiscipline, overloaded curricula, disproportional teacher-pupil ratio, lack of experienced and qualified teachers, poorly motivated learners, policy formulation and its implementation among others (Marzono, Pickering & Pollock, 2001; Dibbon, 2004; Ibadin, 2010; Fafunwa, 2010; Ehindero, 2010; Nkweke and Dollah, 2011 and Osim, Chika & Isaac, 2012). These short-comings seem to constitute a major gap in the quality of learning facilities, thus, many challenges bear on teaching and learning thereby preventing the education sector from getting the best out of its efforts to achieve the required level of attainment in teaching and learning at the secondary school level. A consideration of these identified challenges indicates that there is a greater challenge ahead of teachers, school leadership and external evaluators. The downward trend in the poor performance of students both in their internal and external examinations couple with other hindering factors already highlighted in this paper prompted the National Council on Education (NCE) at its 54th meeting held at Katsina on December 2007 to decide to restructure and strengthen the Federal Inspectorate Department to be able to meet the demands of improving the quality of education in Nigeria.

The decision has transformed the Federal Inspectorate Services to Nigeria Education Quality Assurance Services with greater emphasis on stakeholder’s collaboration, participation and contribution towards ensuring sustaining education service delivery by using the mechanism of Whole School Evaluation (WSE). The conventional school inspection model inherited from the British Colonial Government vested the power to inspect schools on the Inspectorate Department of the Ministry of Education and there was little or no synergy with other key players/stakeholders in Education to ensure effective implementation of both curricula and co-curricula activities in schools.

This mode of operation has become ineffective and conservative due to the current global challenges of information and communication technology and the need to achieve a sustainable human empowerment through quality education that is partnership driven. The attainment of a virile Quality Assurance policy that would be responsive, functional and meet global standards is dependent largely on effective participation of key stakeholders in Education in order to achieve the goals of Education for All (EFA/Universal Basic Education (UBE) State Economic Empowerment Development Strategies (SEEDS), the 7-point Agenda of the federal government, Vision 20-20 and MDGs goal for a holistic socio-economic transformation of the federating states in particular and Nigeria in general.
It therefore implies that teachers’ preparation and utilization are of utmost importance if quality in the teaching learning situation is to be enhanced and sustained. In recognition of this, the NPE (2004) section 8, 74 & 75 states:

(74) Teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum. Teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession.

(75) In-service training shall be developed as an integral part of continuing teacher education and shall also take care of all inadequacies.

This is why Carless (1999), submits that teachers are the individuals who implement, adapt, reject or ignore curriculum innovation. It is therefore pertinent to state that the quality of education provided by any society and the nature of the change effected by that education are both dependent on the quality of teachers and the effectiveness of their teaching in schools (Ukeje, 1991). Ukeje further pictures a scenario when he states that if a doctor makes a mistake, a patient may die, if an engineer makes a mistake, a bridge or structure may collapse; if a lawyer makes a mistake, somebody may lose his/her liberty but if a teacher makes a mistakes, generation yet unborn may suffer the consequences. With the inception of the education quality assurance initiative in Southwestern Nigeria, there are indications that teachers’ education programmes are not keying into the Quality Assurance Initiative which has been resulting in a lot of disconnect between governments’ intention and what actually takes place in the school system. There is therefore the need to examine teachers’ preparation in the context of quality assurance and the effectiveness of secondary schools in Southwestern Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem
There has been a steady decline in teachers’ instructional task performance and students’ academic performance. This may be traced to the level of preparation teachers are exposed to in the various institutions preparing teachers for the various schools in Nigeria. A major factor responsible for this development has been partly identified as poor or non-implementation of the education quality assurance initiative which has not been properly integrated into teachers’ preparatory programme. Teaching and learning is one of the thematic areas for evaluation under quality assurance initiative. It serves to evaluate how effective teaching and learning are in reaching the full range of learners’ needs. There is therefore a need to evaluate teachers’ preparation in the context of quality assurance and the effectiveness of secondary schools in Southwestern Nigeria.

Research Hypothesis
The following research hypotheses were generated to guide the study:

i. There is no significant effect of Education Quality Assurance on teachers’ input in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

ii. There is no significant effect of Education Quality Assurance on school leadership in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

iii. There is no significant effect of Education Quality Assurance on learning environment in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

Methodology
The research population embraces 313 teachers in 30 secondary schools in Southwestern Nigeria. 30 secondary schools were selected from the study population on an equal basis from the six Southwestern states. Consequently, five schools were randomly chosen from each of the states. From each of the sampled schools were chosen 30 teachers on a stratified basis of gender, qualification and experience ensuring that these categories were fairly equally represented. The instrument used was a questionnaire. It has two sections (A and B). section A, sought information on respondents sex, length of service, age, qualifications and other bio-data. Section B, obtained varied information. The instrument was validated by experienced teachers/educators and experts in educational measurement and evaluation. The reliability was carried out using test-retest reliability measure. The reliability co-efficient was found to be 0.76.

Data Analysis and Presentation of Results
Data collected were analysed in accordance with the hypotheses generated to guide the study using chi-square analysis.
**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant effect of Education Quality Assurance on teachers’ input in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

| Table 1: Chi-square Analysis of the effect of Education Quality Assurance on Teachers’ Input |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| X² Calculated                          | X² Table        | Degree of freedom | Level of significance | Decision         |
| 47.623                                 | 40.1            | 27               | 0.05               | Hypothesis is rejected |

Result of data analysis in Table 1 shows that X² calculated is greater than X² table which implies that there is a significant effect on teachers’ input with the practice of quality assurance. **Hypothesis 1** is therefore rejected.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant effect of Education Quality Assurance on school leadership in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

| Table II: Chi-square Analysis of the effect of Quality Assurance on School leadership |
|----------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| X² Calculated                          | X² Table        | Degree of freedom | Level of significance | Decision         |
| 57.867                                 | 40.1            | 27               | 0.05               | Hypothesis is rejected |

Results of data analysis from Table 2, indicates that the calculated X² value is greater than the table value. Therefore, there is a significant effect on leadership of school with the application of Education Quality Assurance Initiative. The Second hypothesis is therefore not accepted.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is no significant effect on Education Quality Assurance on learning ecology in secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria.

| Table III: Chi-square Analysis of effect of Education Quality Assurance on learning ecology |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| X² Calculated                            | X² Table        | Degree of freedom | Level of significance | Decision         |
| 30.412                                   | 40.1            | 27               | 0.05               | Hypothesis is rejected |

Results emanating from Table 3, indicates that the calculated Chi-square value is greater than the table value. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. This points to the fact that education quality assurance has no significant effect on learning ecology.

**Discussion**

The study examined teachers’ preparation in the context of education quality assurance and the effectiveness of secondary schools in southwestern Nigeria. However, the study concentrated on three variables of school effectiveness namely teachers’ input, school leadership and learning ecology. The data analysis and results revealed that Education Quality Assurance plays an important role in school effectiveness. The study indicates that education quality assurance has effect on teachers’ academic input in the teaching learning process thereby promoting the effectiveness of the school. This was attested to by 71% positive response of the respondents and the results of the Chi-square analysis of Hypothesis 1. This result corroborates Ochuba’s (2009) observation that the level of performance in a school system is determined by the quality of the teachers input.

The leadership of a school is a crucial factor in the attainment of effectiveness in school. The ability of the school leadership to create an enabling environment for the teaching learning process and peaceful co-existence among the work-force is vital for qualitative education. It is the duty of the leadership to harness all
influencing variables in the school system for the attainment of effectiveness. Though, it is important to point out that the situation in Nigeria educational structure puts the principals or school leadership in such away as to have little or no influence on staff promotion, development and welfare. Again principals of secondary schools have little or no influence on the provision of classrooms, furniture, libraries and laboratories construction and teaching materials. According to Ijaiya (2009), the worth of any management is based on its ability to identify and solve problems that militate against quality delivery.

The study however reveals that Education Quality Assurance Initiative in southwestern Nigeria has no significant effect in the improvement of the learning ecology. This is not to say that conducive learning environment is not vital to school effectiveness but that the present learning environment in the six states of the southwestern part used in this study are not up to acceptable standards. It can therefore be stated based on the research findings that the practice of education quality assurance initiative has not been felt in the learners’ environment, thereby affecting school effectiveness to some level of degree.

Conclusion
As a result of the data gathered and analysis carried out, and the findings reached, the study submits that education quality assurance is important in school effectiveness in terms of teachers’ inputs and school leadership. This is, teachers input and school leadership would improve with quality assurance. However, quality assurance may not necessarily engender learning ecology.

Recommendations
Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were made in order to improve education quality assurance and the effectiveness of secondary schools in Nigeria.

1. School leadership should collaborate with other stake-holders such as the PTA, NGOs, Communities, and Philanthropists in order to provide adequate and effective teaching materials and facilities in secondary schools.
2. Teachers’ preparation should take cognizance of Education Quality Assurance Initiative in order that there would be agreement between theory and practice.
3. School leadership should ensure that constant feedback mechanisms are deployed especially to teachers in order to enhance the teaching learning delivery in schools.
4. Government should organize periodic capacity development workshops for educational managers on institutional management and instructional supervision to improve the quality of teaching and learning processes and the learning outcomes in schools.
5. The Education Quality Assurance Agency should ensure proper monitoring and evaluation of teaching and learning process in order to improve the quality inputs, process and outputs in secondary schools.
6. Public-Private-Participation in school system should be taken seriously in order to promote effectiveness in terms of providing conducive learning environment.
7. School authorities should provide constant and comprehensive feedbacks on students’ academic performance to parents in order to sensitize and encourage them to provide the required textbooks and other learning materials for their children/wards.

References


Self Dietary In-Take Assessment

Lano-Maduagu, A. T; Ph.D
Faculty of Education, Department of Science and Technology Education,
University of Lagos, Nigeria.

Abstract
Dietary assessment encompasses food consumption at the national, household and individual level and may be collected by weighted food record, food frequency questionnaire or interview, observation, estimated food record or menu records. The present study focuses on individual-level food intake assessment. Dietary intake was studied for two weekdays and two weekends. The respondent being an off campus student prepared her meals from home. The food consumption survey was carried out by direct weighing method. The results show inadequate dietary intake for calcium 80.5% and riboflavin 56.2% below the recommended dietary allowance while protein 138.8%, fat 123.7%, iron 142.5%, phosphorus 220.2% and ascorbic acid 306.7% intakes exceeded the recommended dietary allowance. However, the dietary intakes during the weekends were greater than that of weekdays. The BMI of the respondent according to Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) also indicates overweight (25.559). It is therefore recommended that calcium, protein and riboflavin dietary intake should be increased while fat, iron, phosphorus and ascorbic acid intakes should be reduced. Mixed and adequate diet should be encouraged.

Keywords: Dietary Survey, Food Consumption Pattern, Individual, Precise weighing method.

Introduction
Food consumption survey is the primary tool for assessing the nutritional status and this has identified larger numbers of Nigerians as having inadequate intake. Studies have shown that average availability of nutrients correlated with money spent on food for family. Economic factors dictate whether a person can follow his normal food patterns, or must alter them temporarily to meet economic limitations (Thompson and Subar 2001). Many comparative investigations have been made on different methods used for food consumption survey and how applicable they are to various study situations (Thompson and Subar 2001). These methods depend on the aim of the survey (and the usual aim of any dietary survey is to discover the habitual intake of individual or group) how much accuracy is needed, sample size, available funds; trained personnel as well as the educational level of that community. Precise weighing method is the most accurate method to obtain data on food consumption. It is also referred to as recipe method. It is useful for surveying food consumption of both families, group of people and individuals. Pamela (1992) found this method accurate in obtaining information on dietary intake of 1000 school children in Birmingham. The study was carried out for a period of 7 days.

Since food consumption survey has been proved to be one of the most necessary tools in assessing nutritional status by most researchers. This paper therefore intends to use dietary survey (precise weighing method) in highlighting the food - consumption pattern.

The specific aims are:
1. To study individual food consumption pattern.
2. To determine how much of the various nutrients consumed and the percentage of daily recommended allowance met.
3. To compare week days nutrients intakes with weekends nutrient intakes.

Material and Method
The study dealt with estimating the food and nutrient intake of a student. Being an off campus student all the food consumed were prepared and eaten at home. During the week days, lunch were packed in food flask to school.

Method of Assessment
Direct weighing method was used for the assessment of meals consumed for the total duration of the study. All foods and snacks consumed were weighed before cooking, and before and after consumption. The food stuffs used for the preparation of the meals, the cooked food, amounts eaten at meals, the left over, plate waste, discarded food
and snacks were weighed daily (4 day) using dietary scale, (either the small type with a maximum reading of 500gms or the big type with a maximum reading of 5 kilograms). The weight of the empty plate were taken and recorded before foods were placed on the plate and weight item by item and each weight recorded in grams. The weight of the plate and food consumed were recorded in grams. The weight of the plate and food consumed were recorded before and after consumption. The weight of empty plate and left over in the plate was subtracted to get the actual weight of the food consumed for the total period of study. All foods consumed were converted to 100 grams portion for uniformity. The cooked foods were broken down to raw ingredients using the conversion factor for individual food item.

The summary of the daily intake for individual food items was calculated from the break down summary sheet. This was done for the period of 4 days (2 week days and 2 weekend days), two days week days alone and finally 2 days. The mean daily consumption with standard deviation were calculated and recorded. The nutrient contents of each food items were also calculated using the mean daily intake, and FAO, USA and Platt Food tables. The total nutrients intake for breakfast, lunch, supper and snacks for 2 week days, plus weekend and 4 days (2 week days plus 2 weekends) were calculated and compared with daily recommended allowance, the percentage met were also calculated.

Materials Used
The materials used for the survey were: one bathroom scale recorded in kilogram (kg), salter scale with a maximum reading of 5 kilogrammes, food consumption table, ruler, pencil, eraser, biro, notebook, calculator and tape-rule.

Results
The essence of this study is to have acknowledged of the eating pattern of an individual (self) during week days and weekend, the nutrients intakes, deficiency and adequacy of the nutrients.

Dietary Pattern/Menu Table
The respondent's dietary pattern is shown in the menu table (Table 1). Her dietary pattern has been regular throughout the duration of the survey. She cooked the food herself and ate at home with her family, except during the week days that she packed her lunch to school. Lunch was skipped on day 2, but snacks were taken in replacement inform of groundnut and oranges. Special dishes were prepared on Saturdays and Sundays. The respondents normally take breakfast between 7.00am and 8.00am and foods eaten were bread with margarine or cooked egg and beverage tea, boiled rice with vegetable soup or boiled yam with fried eggs.

Lunch was eaten between 1.00pm and 2.00pm and foods consumed were boiled rice with beef stew and plantain, amala with ewedu and beef stew. Supper was eaten between 7.00pm and 8.00pm in form of moinmoin and garri, amala, ewedu and beef stew: and stewed beans with fried plantain. Groundnut and oranges were consumed as snacks especially when lunch was not eaten.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>Breakfast (7-8.00am)</th>
<th>Lunch (1-2pm)</th>
<th>Supper (7-8.00pm)</th>
<th>Snacks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>Bread with margarine, beverage tea with milk and sugar.</td>
<td>Boiled rice with beef</td>
<td>Moinmoin and garri.</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>Boiled rice with vegetable soup and fish.</td>
<td>Skipped</td>
<td>Amala, beef stew with ewedu.</td>
<td>Orange and groundnuts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturday</td>
<td>Bread with margarine, cooked egg, beverage tea with milk and sugar.</td>
<td>Amala, beef arid beef</td>
<td>Moinmoin and garri.</td>
<td>Orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunday</td>
<td>Boiled yam and fried eggs.</td>
<td>Boiled rice beef and beef stew, and fried Plantain.</td>
<td>Stewed bean and fried plantain</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The mean daily nutrients intake for 4 days of survey and percentage met are presented in Table 2. The respondent did not meet the R. D. A for calcium (80.5%), riboflavin (56.2%) and iron (95%). However, she met that of energy (100%) and exceeded R. D. A percentage for protein (129.2%) fat (123.7%) and phosphorus (220.2%).

The comparison of the mean daily nutrient intakes for all the food nutrients studied for two week days and two weekends are shown in Table 3. The percentage of R. D. A met for energy during the week days was 83.5%, while that of the weekends was 116.5% which was highest. The percentage met for protein during the week days was 114.1% while that of the weekends was higher, 144.3%. The percentage met for fat during the week days was 90.3% while the percentage met for the weekends was 157.4% which was relatively higher.

Generally, the subject met and exceeded the percentage of recommended daily allowance for the weekends which was significantly higher in all the three nutrients than the week days in which she did not meet that of fat and energy. However, she met and exceeded the percentage of recommended daily allowance for iron, phosphorus, and ascorbic acid during week days: 116.7%, 184.6% and 235.7% respectively. She also met and exceeded the above mentioned nutrients during the weekends: 167.1%, 255.4% and 381.30% respectively.

However, she did not meet the recommended dietary allowance for riboflavin and calcium during the week days and weekends that is 41.5%, 66.2% and 72.3%, 93.7% respectively.
Discussion

The respondent's dietary pattern shown in the menu table (Table 1) indicate that her dietary pattern has been regular throughout the duration of the survey except lunch that was skipped on day two and was replaced in form of snacks. This regularity pattern was in line with the study on social and psychological factors affecting eating habits among University students in a Malaysian school. (Ganasegeran et al 2012). The subject's regularity in dietary pattern must be due to the fact that she is an off campus student and always pack her lunch to school. The subject weekend nutrients intake was higher than her week days nutrients intake (Table 4), this confirm the findings of Anuar and Ghazali, (2011) which stated that people eat nutritious food during the weekends than the week days because weekends are known to be generally festive in most societies. As a result of no hustling and bustling for lecture and other activities that normally take place in the week days, the respondent was able to take adequate time in preparing and consuming meals to suit her taste and this may actually account for higher nutrients intake during the weekends than the week days. Generally, during the 4 days dietary survey, (Table 2), the respondent met and exceeded the nutrient intake for protein (69.4%). This shows that protein intake was very high. This was in line with Williams (1986) report that shows more than adequate protein intake among subjects. Fat intake too was very high (123.7%) and high fat intake can lead to arteriosclerosis. The iron intake was also very high (142.5%) likewise phosphorus (220.2%). An overload of iron cause liver siderosis and when the concentration of iron in the liver becomes too much, a redistribution takes place with hemosiderin being deposited in many organs particularly the pancreases and heart muscle (Myocardium).

The energy intake was low during the weekdays and high during the weekend. But during the 4 days comparison (Table 2) the subject met the recommended dietary allowance for energy (100%). But persistent inadequate energy intake during the week days may affect the general performance of the subject. Although energy are derived from fat/oil and protein since subject took adequate of these two nutrients. Calcium and riboflavin intakes were also lower during the weekend and week days. This was in line with low intake reported in Moy et al (2009) study. This low calcium intake might be due to high cost of food rich in these two nutrients. And if persistent for a long time may lead to deficiency symptoms. However, the mere fact that the amount of nutrients recorded in this study exceeded the daily requirement in some nutrients does not imply that they are available or utilized in the body. This is because many factors - physical, chemical and biochemical may contribute to this. For example, most minerals are bound by some other components of the foodstuff and such complexes are not hydrolysed by the gastro-intestinal tract enzymes e. g. phytic acid and oxalic acid. Oxalic acid which is found in beef greens, spinach, chard, rhybab and some cocoa combine with calcium to for insoluble calcium oxalate. Phytic acid is found in the bran of whole wheat and combines with calcium to form insoluble calcium phytate which cannot be absorbed. Fibre is also being found to be responsible for preventing the absorption of minerals. The phytic acid also affect the binding of iron e. g. if bread is taken with milk, milk affect the absorption of iron in milk, thereby lowering the amount of iron that will be absorbed.

The high percentage of ascorbic acid recorded should not be considered in the light of its presence since such ordinary physical factors as heat, cutting and mere bruising, treatment with alkaline medium, light traces of metals especially copper may result in its being readily oxidized. Nutrient interaction can also affect availability of nutrients in the body. This is demonstrated by the exhibition of iron utilization by milk protein. There is also the difference individuals ability to break down the food nutrients, thus the nutrients available for metabolism is affected by this process and even where the nutrients are made available, the different individuals differ in their ability to utilize the nutrients.

Conclusion

The data obtained from this study showed inadequate dietary intake for calcium, iron and riboflavin while protein, fat, phosphorus and ascorbic acid intakes exceeded the recommended dietary allowance. However, the dietary intakes during the weekends were greater than the dietary intakes during the week days, and this must be because of insufficient time in the preparation and consumption of meals during the week days.

Recommendations

Respondent nutrients intake at weekends and weekdays were slightly different. Adequate nutrient should be taken during the week days. However, foods that are good source of calcium and riboflavin should be taken in adequate amount. Nutrition education should be incorporated into the university programme or curriculum as a compulsory course. This will provide adequate information to students regarding the type of food combination to make a balance diet and the need for regular feeding.
There is a high intake of fat and oil, protein, iron, phosphorus and ascorbic acid. The high fat and oil intake should be avoided to prevent obesity and its associated complications. High iron intake should be avoided to prevent liver siderosis and hemosidering being deposited in may organs particularly pancreas and heart muscle, while high intake of ascorbic acid too should be avoided to prevent the development of kidney and bladder stones and alteration in carbohydrate metabolism.

References


Provision of Free Mid-day Meal and Nutritional Supplement of Public Primary School Pupils in Ogun State, Nigeria

Badmus, Muinat Abisola; Dip in Comm Health (LUTH); B.Sc. (Ed); M.Ed (Ogun); DTHS (UCH)
Principal Lecturer & Head, Department of Community Health, Ogun State College of Health Technology, Ilese-Ijebu.

Abstract
Many school children go to school on empty stomach and find it hard to concentrate in the classroom beyond a few hours. This invariably affects their performance. Providing these school children with meals put an end to the phenomena of “classroom hunger”. Nutritional support to school children is considered as a means to achieve the objective of providing free and compulsory universal basic education of satisfactory quality to all children below 15 years, through increased enrolment, improved school attendance and better learning, which is one of the Millenium Development Goals. The paper discusses this and the benefits of school midday meal in achieving the Millenium Development Goals. Pertinent recommendations were also provided.

Introduction
The mid-day meal programme is a name for school meal programme. It involves provision of lunch free of cost to school children in all working day. The key objectives of the programme are protecting children from classroom hunger, increasing school enrolment and attendance, increase school activities, improved socialisation among children belonging to all castes, addressing malnutrition, and social empowerment through provision of employment to women. The mid-day meal programme is in operation in Nigeria since 1960s when cooked meal at lunch hour was being provided to the students enrolled in primaries I to VI in public urban and rural schools. Poverty is a major issue. It has its impact on the primary education as well as improve the health status of children. Because of mass illiteracy and endemic poverty, the community participation in primary school was low. High drop out, low retention, problems of girls education and education of local children are the major issues identified.

Benefits of Free Mid-day Meal (MdM)
Mid-day meal seeks to provide for each school child roughly one-third of the daily nutrient requirement. It has sometimes been argued that in the case of children from poor households, the school meal may become a substitute rather than a supplement for the home meal.

* It could foster sound social behaviours among school children and dispel feelings of differences in social classes.
* Through free MdM, nutrition education programme are included in the school curriculum so that school children will have opportunities to expand their nutritional knowledge and learn how to select healthy food choices at school, homes and restaurants.
* Most importantly, MdM could trigger all round development of entire school system, leading to better infrastructure in schools, better teaching facilities, a school health service and community involvement.

School Enrolment Goes Up
Earlier research on primary education in urban and rural areas of Ogun State suggests that mid-day meals enhance school participation, especially among girls. One recent study estimates that the provision of a mid-day meal in the school is associated with a 50% reduction in the proportion of girls who are out of school.

This observation is based on comparing school enrolment in July 2001 with the corresponding figure one year earlier before free mid-day meal was introduced in Ijebu North-East Local Government, Ogun State. Taking the 26 observed schools out of 31 schools in the Local Government together, primary 1 enrolment rose by 15 per cent between July 2000 and July 2002. This surge in enrolment is driven mainly by impression increase in female enrolment in Ogun State.

The Ijebu North-East Local Government Education Authority supplied by Education Department, also suggests major increase in enrolment in 2002-03. 19 per cent and 18 per cent in girls’ and boys’ enrolment respectively. There is a striking break here from the trend increase in school enrolment (which was about 2 per cent per year in the 1990s) and the bulk of this break is likely to reflect the impact of mid-day meals being provided by the local government.
Enhancing school performance
There is also much informal evidence that free mid-day meal had enhanced daily school attendance (and not just annual enrolment). Many parents, for instance, reported that mid-day meal had made it much easier for them to persuade their children to go to school in the morning. Most teachers also felt that free mid-day meals had raised daily attendance and activities especially among young children. Some of them added that free mid-day meals make it easier to retain pupils after the lunch break.

End of Classroom Hunger
Assessing the impact of free mid-day meal on child nutrition was main focus of this paper. However, two nutrition-related achievements do emerge.

First, the free mid-day meals facilitate the abolition of classroom hunger. Many pupils reach school on an empty stomach in the morning as early morning breakfast is not part of the household routine. In the absence of a meal, pupils often go hungry after a few hours and find it hard to concentrate in the class. This problem will be largely resolved with the provision of the free mid-day meal.

Secondly, in the more deprived areas, the mid-day meal is a protection against hunger in general. For instance, the mid-day meals have helped to avert an intensification of child under-nutrition in many poverty-ridden areas. Similarly, poor household such as those headed by widows or landless labourers value the assurance of a free lunch for their children. The contribution of mid-day meals to food security seems to be particularly crucial in some areas, where hunger is endemic.

Learning to Share
Aside from boosting school attendance and child nutrition, mid-day meals have important socialisation value. As children learn to sit together and share a common meal, one can expect some erosion of caste prejudices and class inequality. Of course, mid-day meals can also be a tool of reinforcement of prevailing social inequalities children need to have social equalities in the class and do not need to discriminate amongst themselves. This is an abominable instance of caste discrimination in the classroom, which defects the socialisation role of mid-day meals.

There should be no preferential treatment for upper caste children. Pupils of different social background seem to be quite happy to sit together and share the same food. Parents too claim to welcome the arrangement in most cases. Teachers confirmed that parents rarely objected to their children sharing a meal with children of other castes. And among disadvantaged castes, parents felt that their children had never experience caste discrimination in the context of mid-day meals.

Gender Aspects
Aside from helping to defeat caste prejudices, meals also contribute to gender equality. Indeed, meals reduce the gender gap in education, since they boost female school attendance more than male attendance. Mid-day meals, also contribute to gender equality by creating employment opportunities for poor women. In the schools observed, large majority 68 per cent of the cooks are women, and most of them come from underprivileged backgrounds. Thus, is not surprising, since the work is fairly demanding.

There is another important way in which mid-day meals contribute to the liberation of working women, when children get a hot meal at school, working-mothers are free from the burden of having to feed them at noon. This feature is especially relevant for working-mothers who often work outside the house without the benefit of any domestic maid’s support.

Conclusion and Recommendations
The experience so far clearly shows that mid-day meals have much to contribute to the well-being and future of public school children in Nigeria (Ogun State inclusive). As things stand, the free mid-day meal programme has many flaws, but the way to go forward is for government to do adequate resources allocation and quality safeguards. Mid-day meals can play a major role in boosting school attendance, school activities, eliminating classroom hunger and fostering social equity. With these submissions, qualitative improvement are urgently required if mid-day meal are to achieve their full potential. Based on observation, it is suggested that:
(i) financial allocation need to be increased. This will give the programme the opportunity to promote important social goals at relatively low cost. With the programme in place, a moderate amount of additional expenditure could radically enhance the quality of the mid-day meals for more nutritional supplement/substitution
(ii) the mid-day meal structure calls for urgent improvement and provision in Nigerian schools (Ogun State public primary schools inclusive), to facilitate learning.
(iii) the monitoring system needs to be overhauled. Close supervision and regular inspections are essential to achieve quality standard. Better monitoring would also help to eradicate petty corruption, such as the pilferage of food by various intermediaries.
(iv) the socialisation value of mid-day meals can be enhanced in various ways. Instances of social discrimination at school have to be firmly dealt with. Clear guidelines for the selection of cooks need to be issued and enforced. And the lunch time routine can be used to impart various good habit to children, such as washing one’s hands before and after eating.
(v) there is a case of more varied and nutrition lunch menus where children are tired of the ever recurring carbohydrate foods. But the need to enhance the nutritional content of mid-day meals applies to public pupils in Ogun State.
(vi) taking a longer view, there is much potential for linking mid-day meals with related inputs such as micro-nutrient supplementation, health services and nutrition education. This is already happening like giving of iron and deworming tablets at school. School children therefore enjoy regular health checkups, routine medical examination and regular general inspections of the body by the school health team.
(vii) there is a strong need for instituting and effectively implementing the mid-day meal programme throughout Nigeria so as to meet the Millennium Development Goals of free and compulsory Universal Basic Education.
(viii) various corporate organisations should be persuaded to support the programme.
(ix) for the MdM programme to be effective, there should be active participation of all members of the community, including parents and teachers, and
(x) the meal should be varied to ensure better acceptability by school children.

References


Organisational Climate Factors as Predictors of Female Workers’ Participation in Union Leadership in Tertiary Institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria

Johnson Fejoh; Ph.D
Institute of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State
femifejoh@yahoo.com, fejoh.johnson@oouagoiwoye.edu.ng
+234-8034018505; 8055280864

Abstract
This study investigated organizational climate factors of organizational structure, rewards system, perception of job risk and conflict tolerance by management as predictors of female workers’ participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria. The study employed the ex-post-facto research design. Four hypotheses were generated and tested using an instrument titled “organisational climate and female workers’ participation in union leadership scale” (OCFWPULS) which comprised of 25 items. The instrument was administered to a purposely selected population of 300 staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, and Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun, Ijebu-Ode, all of Ogun State of Nigeria. Pearson moment correlation coefficient was used to test all the four hypotheses. The findings show that organizational climate factors have significant positive correlation with female workers’ participation in union leadership as follows – organizational structure (r=0.776, p <0.005); reward system (r=0.722, p<0.005); perception of job risk (r=0.635, p<0.005) and degree of conflict tolerance by management (r=0.712, p<0.005). The study therefore recommended that managers of tertiary institutions in Ogun State should ensure that organisational climate is made conducive enough to female workers in other to arouse their interests in union leadership. This they could achieve by ensuring that female workers are rewarded for jobs done adequately, having the assurance that their jobs are not at risk for their participation in union struggles and are not discouraged by their superior officers by way of threats and workplace bullying.

Key words: Organisational Climate Factors, Female Workers, Union Participation, Union Leadership, Tertiary Institution, Ogun State.

Introduction
Organisational climate mirrors a worker perception of the organization which he is a member. It refers to set of distinct features and characteristics that are perceived by workers about their organisations which serve as a major driving force influencing their behaviour. Therefore, organizational climate can be understood as the social setting of the organization. It is imperative for today’s managers to fully understand the impact of organizational climate of the effectiveness and efficiency of the workers in the organization. Many organisations will continue to struggle to survive in order to remain relevant and be able to meet their organizational objectives and goals if they fail to understand the factors that influence the performance and productivity of employees. The significance of understanding employees’ perception of the climate that pervades the organization goes a long way to influence the behavior of employees within the organization. In the same vein, organizational climate is most likely to have serious effect on workers participation in work-place activities which include participation in union activities. The climate of an organization can be likened to the personality of a person. Individuals have personalities that make them unique and different from other persons, so also organisations have climates that distinguish one from another. Schneider (2008) describes organizational climate as an experimentally based description of the work environment, and more specifically, employees’ perception of the formal and informal policies, practices and procedures in the organization. Schulte, et al (2006) asserts that organizational climate emerges from the idiosyncratic interpretations of the work environment when individuals within a particular unit (group, organization) share similar perception of the situation. Adenike (2011) asserts that organizational climate serves as a measure of individual perceptions or feelings about an organization. Organizational climate includes management or leadership styles, participation in decision making, provision of challenging jobs to employees, reduction of boredom and frustration, provision of benefits, personnel policies, provision of good working conditions and creation of suitable career ladder for academics. Therefore, understanding organizational climate in these perspective bring out the examination of its effect, if any, on the ability of female workers to participate in the leadership of their unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State. This is against the backdrop that there have been fewer cases of female workers participation in union matters in tertiary institution in Nigeria as a whole.
Past researches on organizational climate have their origin to the human relations movement pioneered by Professor Elton Mayo with the Hawthorne experiment where management studies researches were carried out to establish that human factors that are socially and psychologically driven are highly important in the management of organisations. This can be safely said to be the origin of organizational climate. According to Zhang (2010), researchers turned their attention from the “hard” physical environment to the “soft” psychological environment; thus the concept of organizational climate was born. Taguiri (2011) sees organizational climate as being made up of ecology, milieu, social climate and culture of the organization. To him ecology refers to the physical features of the organization, such as the building design, age and size of the facilities including equipment and technology used in the daily operations of the organization. Milieu is seen as the characteristics of the people, their attitudes, skills, motivation, feelings, morale, values and leadership resources while social climate is perceived as the social interactions among the workers on one hand and between the workers and the management on the other hand. Culture of the organization clearly influences the success of the organization. Litwin and Stringer (1966) see organizational climate as “a group of measurable characteristics that members could perceive directly or indirectly in the work environment,” and, as a description of environmental factors, it could help researchers ascertain the effects of environment on employee motivation. In addition, organizational climate was the most common variable applied to descriptions of the organizational context. As a description of individuals’ perception of organization, organizational climate was more similar to the real behavior than the real environment. As a result of the interaction between organization and environment, organizational climate was rich in content. Researching earlier on organizational climate, Litwin and Stringer (1966) identified six factors which affect organizational climate. These are: (a) Organizational structure: This includes perceptions of the extent of organizational constraints, rules, regulations, red tape; (b) Individual responsibility: This involves feeling of autonomy of being one’s own boss; (c) Rewards: Feelings related to being confident of adequate and appropriate rewards; (d) Risk and risk taking: Perceptions of the degree of challenge and risk in the work situation; (e) Warmth and support: Feeling of general good fellowship and helpfulness prevailing in the work setting; and (f) Tolerance and conflict: Degree of confidence that the climate can tolerate, differing opinions.

**Women Participation in Union Leadership**

Workers participation in union activities denotes full involvement of workers in all the activities of their trade unions directly (taking up of leadership positions in the union) or indirectly (through their elected representatives and leaders). The activities include attending meetings of the union, voting during elections, obeying directives of the unions during industrial disputes, payment of check-off dues, and having the spirit of “we” instead of “I” when issues concerning workers welfare, entitlements and conditions of service are raised in the work place. In the same vein, female workers participation in union activities entails all the above mentioned activities including, but not limited to taking up of leadership positions in the unions. According to Metochi (2002) union participation refers to involvement in collective action and other union related activities that are connected to the effective functioning of the union. Fullagar et al (2004) classify union participation activities classified into two major areas: formal activities and informal activities. Formal activities include involvement in elections, meeting attendance, voting, filing a grievance and serving as an officer. In contrast, informal activities include helping other members to file grievances, talking about the union with friends or family, and reading union-related publications. Scholars however differ on this simple classification of union participation while Tetrick (1995) sees informal activities as extra-activities in union matters that is beyond what is required, Heshizer and Lund (1997) perceive informal activities as those activities that conform with minimal role expected of members. McShane (1986) was of the opinion that the classification should be more than two. To him, there should be three dimensions which should be categorised by type of activity (meeting, voting and administrative) and not by nature of activity (formal and informal). It has been observed that fewer women do participate in union leadership activities in Nigeria and in order to encourage them, most unions have entrenched in their constitutions the percentage of women required in the leadership positions. The Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU) taking a cue from its central labour organization, the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) insisted on certain percentage of leadership positions reserved for women (article 9(i) of SSANU Constitution). In actual fact, these positions are rarely filled to the disappointment of the drafters of the constitutions. Lonsindilo et al (2010) while working on the factors that hinder women participation in social, political and economic activities in Tanzania identified level of education, place of residence, age group, religion and marital status as factors responsible for the low level of participation in such activities. Meanwhile, Pacris and Geges (2015) worked on factors affecting women participation in selected trade union groups in Philippines and came up with factors such as duties at home, health concerns, lack of expertise and security reasons as being responsible for lack of women participation in union activities. Olabisi Onabanjo University (OUU) and Tai Solarin University of Education (TASUED) are Ogun State owned tertiary institutions with four labour unions in each of the universities. The unions are: Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU).
of Academic Technologists (NAAT) and Non Academic Staff Union of Educational and Allied Institutions (NASU). From the eight unions across these two universities, the leadership of all the unions is male dominated with the exception of National Association of Academic Technologists of Olabisi Onabanjo University (NAAT-OOU) which has a female leader. The benefits of having women as union leaders are many. For example, women are seen to be more tolerant and less prone to militancy and corrupt tendencies. Anyim, et al (2012) quoting Kaminski & Yakura (2008) assert that women are more likely to be transformational leaders, which is characterized by being a role model, inspiring others, strategic thinking, innovation, mentoring and developing others in organization.

Statement of the Problem
It has been observed than Nigeria industrial relations landscape has been under the control of men for a very long period of time. Female workers hardly participate in the affairs of most industrial unions in Nigeria not to talk of taking leadership positions of the various unions. This may not be unconnected with the leadership styles adopted by early leaders of trade unions in Nigeria. Union leaders during colonial periods and even during military regimes in Nigeria adopted militancy approach to press home their demands for better conditions of service for their members as that seemed to be the only method for achieving their objectives. This militancy approach had led to incarceration and prosecution of labour leaders at various points of Nigerian industrial relations history. Naturally, women kept away from such ventures. However, with the coming and stability of civil rule in Nigeria since 1999 and the subsequent adherence to rules of law in dealing with labour matters, it is apparent that women are still not showing appreciable level of interest in the leadership of unions in Nigeria. It is against this backdrop that this study investigated organizational climate factors as predictors of female workers participation in the leadership of unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Research Hypotheses
The following are the research hypotheses for this study.
(i) Female workers perception of organizational structure does not have any significant relationship with their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
(ii) Organizational reward system for female workers does not have any significant relationship with their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
(iii) There is no significant relationship between female workers perception of the degree of challenge and job risks and their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
(iv) Organizational management tolerance of differing opinions does not have any significant relationship with female workers participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.

Materials and Methods
The study employed the ex-post-facto research design. The population for this study comprised all members of staff of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State and Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State. A sample of 300 members of staff comprising of 150 male and 150 female workers of these institutions were randomly selected. Four hypotheses were generated and tested using an instrument titled “organizational climate and women participation in union leadership scale” (OCFWPULS) which comprised of 25 items based on the research hypotheses and was structured on a four points Likert scale. The instrument was administered to a purposely selected population of 300 staff with a return rate of 100 percent because all the questionnaires were adequately monitored with personal touch of the researcher who was once a leader of a union in one of these universities. The Pearson product moment correlation co-efficient was used to test all the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance.

Data Analysis and Interpretation
The analysis of the data obtained from this study was done within the framework of five hypotheses earlier formulated for the study in order to make valid conclusions based on the stated problem of the study.

Ho 1: Female workers perception of organisational structure does not have any significant relationship with their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
The result in Table 1 revealed a significant outcome (r=0.776, p<0.05). This implied that the mean score on organisational structure of 15.47 is positively correlated with the mean score of 75.21 on leadership participation at the 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant relationship between female workers perception of organisational structure and their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State.

**Ho2:** Organisational rewards system for female workers does not have a significant relationship with their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State

The result in Table 2 revealed a significant outcome (r=0.722, p<0.05). This implied that the mean score on organizational rewards system of 14.60 is positively correlated with the mean score of 75.21 on union leadership participation at the 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant relationship between organisational rewards system for female workers and their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.

**Ho3:** There is no significant relationship between female workers perception of the degree of challenges, job risks and their participation in the leadership of unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.

The result in Table 3 revealed a significant outcome (r=0.635, p<0.05). This implied that the mean score on challenges and job risks of 15.16 has a significant positively correlation with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers union leadership at the 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant relationship between the degree of challenges, job risks and female workers’ participation in the leadership of unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.

**Ho4:** Organisation management tolerance of differing opinion does not have a significant relationship with female workers’ participation in the leadership of the unions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
The result in Table 4 revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.712$, $p<0.05$). This implied that the mean score on organization management tolerance of differing opinions of 15.07 has a significant positively correlation with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers’ participation in union leadership at the 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant relationship between organization management tolerance of differing opinion and female workers’ participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.

Discussion

The result in Table 1 revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.776$, $p<0.05$). This implied that there is a significant relationship between female workers perception of organisational structure and their participation in the leadership of the unions in tertiary institutions in Ogun State. Female workers of tertiary institutions in Ogun State want to take active roles in the leadership of staff unions provided they have the assurance that the organisational structure of their various institution are such that their superiors are friendly and the university rules and regulations are followed without prejudice to gender considerations. In as much as female workers are allowed to get to the peak of their career without bias, female workers are ready to participate in the leadership of the unions.

The above submission was reinforced by Ren, et al (2001) when they reported that human resource management situations which are aspects of organizational structure are part of the issues that members of organisation are most concerned about. It is for this reason that management style and its operation mode are important for the perception of organisational climate by employees. Female workers in tertiary institutions in Ogun State are not fully participating in the leadership of staff unions as expected for the reason that majority of them believe that sometimes organizational goals and objectives are not known to them or not made explicit enough in spite of the fact that these are written in the universities handbook and as such they may not know how managers of these institutions will perceive their participation in union leadership. This has the capacity to affect how they perceive their individual responsibilities at work. The finding here was reinforced by a study by Butcher & Houston (1994) who found out that organisational climate was significantly associated with the perception of employees regarding the organisational goals and core values.

Table 2 also revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.722$, $p<0.05$) and this implied that the mean score on organisational rewards system of 14.60 is positively correlated with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers’ participation in union leadership at the 0.05 level, while Table 3 further revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.635$, $p<0.05$). This showed that the mean score on challenges and job risks of 15.16 has a significant positively correlation with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers’ participation in union leadership at the 0.05 level. Hence, there is a significant relationship between female workers’ perception of job challenges and risks and their participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria. Zhang & Liu (2010) found out that organizational climate factors of rules and promotion played a positive role in promoting employees commitment. Establishing rules, sound and fair rewards system and enforcing their execution is a breakthrough in enhancing employees’ commitment. Female workers are likely to participate more in union leadership if the institutions where they work put in place sound rewards system and also ensure their implementations.

How female workers respond to job challenges and risks are important. They should be free to try new ideas without fears. They should be free to aspire to lead the unions without the fears of the managers of the institution. This type of fear is present in the management of these tertiary institutions. Finally, the results in Table 4 revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.712$, $p<0.05$). This implied that the mean score on organization management tolerance of differing opinions of 15.07 has a significant positively correlation with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers’ participation in union leadership at the 0.05 level. Thus, there is a significant relationship between organization management tolerance of differing opinions and female workers’ participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria. It is evident that managers of tertiary institutions in Ogun State have little or limited tolerance for differing opinions. They tend to see criticisms by employees and union leaders as

### Table 1: Relationship between Organization Management Tolerance of Differing Opinions and Female Workers' Participation in Union Leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tolerance of Differing Opinions</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>0.712*</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Participation</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>75.21</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result in Table 4 revealed a significant outcome ($r=0.712$, $p<0.05$). This implied that the mean score on organisation management tolerance of differing opinions of 15.07 has a significant positively correlation with the mean score of 75.21 on female workers’ participation in union leadership at the 0.05 level. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there is a significant relationship between organisation management tolerance of differing opinion and female workers’ participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State of Nigeria.
confrontation and an attempt to undermine their leadership. For this reason, female workers prefer to stay out of trouble by not wanting to take leadership positions in unions.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The present study was carried out against the background of determining whether organisational climate factors will predict female workers’ participation in union leadership in tertiary institutions in Ogun State. The findings of this study have clearly established a strong relationship between organisational climate factors and female workers’ participation in the leadership of the staff unions. This study therefore recommended that female workers need to participate fully in the leadership of staff unions in their various institutions as this will engendered parity, job satisfaction and the infusion of feminine touch to union and labour issues which were hitherto plagued by militancy and all the accompanying consequences. Management of tertiary institutions in Ogun State should therefore ensure that organisational climate is made conducive enough to female workers in other to arouse their interests in union leadership. This they could achieve by ensuring that female workers are rewarded for jobs done adequately, having the assurance that their jobs are not at risks by participating in union matters and are not discouraged by their superior officers by way of threats and workplace bullying. Every society is moving toward female leadership and counties are producing more female leaders than ever. Union leadership at the level of tertiary institutions should not be left out in this regard.

**References**


