

Facebook and Political Communication in the 2011 General Elections

Oyesomi, Kehinde Opeyemi (Ph.D)
Covenant University, Department of Mass Communication
kehinde.oyesomi@covenantuniversity.edu.ng.

Ahmadu, Frederick Olusola (Ph.D)
Covenant University, Department of Sociology
Frederick.ahmadu@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

Itsekor, Victoria (M.Sc)
Covenant University, Centre for Learning Resources
victoria.itsekor@covenantuniversity.edu.ng

Abstract

As the Internet has become ever-present, quicker, and ever more accessible to non-technical communities, social networking and mutual services have grown rapidly, enabling people to communicate and share interests in many more ways. Modern inclinations and advancement in modern technologies seem to be eroding the glory of the mainstream media. The tactics employed by Barack Obama in his presidential election campaign in the 2008 US elections has changed the rules of political communication and since then electoral campaigns have been more about social networking; using the existing and emerging social media platforms than the conventional approach which emphasized more of one-way communication with limited chances to generate feedbacks. This singular event brought social networks into limelight especially Facebook which has now been turned to an advertising medium especially for Nigerian politicians. Therefore this study examined the effectiveness and role that Facebook played as a tool for political communication and mobilisation in Nigeria during the 2011 general elections. Two Nigerian tertiary institutions were studied; the simple random sampling technique was employed to arrive at the two institutions. This study made use of the survey research method using questionnaire and interview as instruments in the gathering, analysis and interpretation of data. Findings showed that Facebook was used to a great extent by the aspirants in mobilising the support of the electorate. It was however found that mobilisation by Facebook was limited to the people who had internet access or smart phones with internet applications.

The paper therefore recommends among others that credibility of social media should be encouraged because presently, most political stories obtained on the web are mere gossips and rumours which most a times are baseless. A little bit of caution should be exhibited by those who post comments into these social media sites. This is because; some of these comments are derogatory and appalling.

Keywords: Elections, Facebook, mobilisation, new media, political communication

Introduction

The 2011 general elections witnessed a remarkable use of social media as a political communication tool in Nigeria. The role of the social media in political mobilisation and participation across the globe cannot be overemphasised. The 2011 general elections offer a unique context and opportunity to examine the use of social media in elections, especially the usefulness and application of social media in the electoral environment.

Although it seems obvious that social media contributed in no small measure to the success of the 2011 elections, it is pertinent to understand specifically how particular stakeholders in the 2011 elections, like INEC, politicians/political parties, the electorate, and CSOs, used the social media during the elections. It was not only INEC that tapped into the opportunities provided by social media for greater and more efficient political communication. Politicians and political parties also utilised the social media largely to engage with voters and constituents. Many candidates that contested the 2011 general elections had Facebook, Twitter, and/or Youtube accounts.

The 2011 elections demonstrated the extent to which the social media has penetrated the urban populace in Nigeria. The benefits of the penetration of social media in Nigeria came to light during the 2011 elections. Nigerian citizens of all ages, 12 education levels and from different parts of the country used and were mobilised through the use of social media to participate in the 2011 general elections.

It is observed by scholars like Durkheim (1982, p.13) that, in many social change experiences, the youths are mostly prone to reacting to change in two ways (i.e. acceptance or rejection) than other age categories of people. Therefore, the introduction of social media especially the Facebook in the political process is likely to be greeted by youth's reactions either positively or otherwise. The thrust of the paper therefore is an *Assessment of the use*

of the Facebook on Political Mobilisation of Nigerian Youths in the 2011 General Elections

Objectives of the study

1. To find out the role Facebook played in creating political awareness of Nigerian youths in the 2011 general elections
2. To find out the extent to which Facebook influenced youths voting decision in the 2011 general elections
3. To find out if any form of abuse was used on Facebook in the 2011 general elections
4. To assess the factors that threaten the effective use of Facebook for Nigeria's political development
5. To find out how Facebook can be sustained to promote democratic participation in Nigeria.

Research Questions

1. Did Facebook increase the political awareness of Nigerian youths in the 2011 general elections?
2. To what extent did Facebook influenced youths voting decision in the 2011 general elections?
3. Was any form of abuse used on Facebook in the 2011 general elections?
4. Are there Factors that threaten the effective use of Facebook for Nigeria's political development?
5. How can Facebook be sustained to promote democratic participation in Nigeria?

The social media and 2011 Elections in Nigeria

In the Nigerian political process, the use of social media became more pronounced in the 2011 General Elections especially among the youths. Most political aspirants in Nigeria including President Goodluck Jonathan, Mallam Nuhu Ribadu, Pastor Chris Okotie, used Facebook, Twitter, Naija Pals, Nairaland among others to engage the youths in discussing their political programmes and policies.

Realising the impact of social media as a tool for political mobilization, the Goodluck Jonathan/Sambo Campaign Organisation (GJSO) effectively used the social media especially the Facebook and Twitter, to widen their political base especially among the youths as captured by Igbini (2010,p.2) thus:

Learning from the successful use of the social media platform by Obama and the desire to connect with the technology savvy Nigerian youth, President Goodluck Jonathan embraced it before he commenced campaigns for his party's ticket. In fact, he announced his decision to vie for the ticket using the instrumentality of Facebook. Not to be left out, other politicians jumped on the bandwagon.

According to Miller and Sarah (1997,p.59):

It has been noticed that when politicians are candidates, they have this incentive to be engaging online, to be very active through social media communicating with voters to win them over. And then, when they get elected, their outreach through social media becomes stilted - it reads much more like a press release.

It is evident that, social media is a powerful tool for political mobilization and support but sustainability or the ability of Nigerian politicians to engage the youths to discuss major national decisions is always lacking. However, experience has shown that the 2010/2011 revolutions in Tunisia, Egypt, Syria and Libya were largely organized, supported and driven through the use of social media-based tools. Facebook, Twitter and mobile phone technology *inter alia* allowed for extensive political expression against government, corruption both on- and offline. Calls for socio-political transformation heard on the streets of Tunis and Cairo were echoed around the globe, gaining much sympathetic support internationally. The recent events in North Africa may be a sign of things to come for the rest of the continent as technology continues to reach more Africans. Also commenting on the effects of social media on traditional media generally Dominick (2009, p.293) identified some of the implications of the internet and its features thus:

The implications include a situation where the internet will become supplementary component of the conventional media fulfilling their roles in the society for instance blogging, Facebook, which allow users to pour comments based on their various interest. Dominick likewise identifies the internet as wiping off functions of gatekeepers.

This implication can result in having all sorts of information transmitted to the audiences unfiltered. Another social media network commonly used among the Nigerian youths for political participation is *Nolitics*. *Nolitics* is a politically-oriented discussion forum in the *NaijaPals* online community website. The term *Nolitics* is portmanteau word (or coinage) from 'Naija Politics', 'Naija' (also written as *9ja*) is a clipped version of 'Nigeria'. The forum generally maintains and promotes social discourse - where members post and receive comments on current social and political topics in Nigeria. Interactions are usually among young people who presumably have equal rights to share information and express their opinions. Members not only post comments, they also engage in some forms of social analyses and criticisms of Nigeria's socio-political system. Thus, participants lend their voices on topical issues that shape the society. Ifukor (2010) states that:

The dialectical relationship between discourse and social practice, and the process of political empowerment can be textually illustrated through the choice of vocabulary and sentiments expressed in blogs or discussion fora. Posts/journals on Nolitics are similar to blogs, which are frequently-updated and arranged in reverse chronological order.

Herring (2004,p.85) notes that “Social interactions are facilitated through user profiles containing biographical and contact information”. Kouper, (2010,p.90) says “Users sign in to the hosting site with their private usernames and passwords”. A close analysis of how meaning is made in some specific discussion fora in relation to the social context is likely to reveal opinions and different ways of thinking about governance and political participation. Modern democratic principles demand that the people are involved in political governance, especially on issues that affect their lives directly or indirectly. Furthermore, Ifukor (2010,p.81) analysed the political discourse and social interaction by members of Nolitics. One of the first studies in this direction centres on the use of political blogs as social mobilization in the 2007 general elections in Nigeria. The study concludes that weblogs are influential political tool for mobilization and Nigerian bloggers have made use of them to educate, enlighten, and encourage eligible voters to perform their civic duties. Ifukor (2010,p.82) concluded that, “citizen’s access to electronic social media empowers them to active involvement in democratic governance” The extensive use of social media during the 2011 elections forced the traditional media to diversify their information gathering and dissemination methods. The traditional media houses relied widely on information provided by citizen journalists for their coverage of the 2011 elections. In addition, reporters employed by the traditional media used electronic messaging tools like SMS, email and blackberry messenger to share their reports.

Concept of political communication

Effective communication which operates in a society through the mass media cannot operate in isolation; it has to operate with the society so as to reflect the needs of the people (Oyesomi and Okorie, 2013). Political communication is one of the areas of development communication that deals with the production, dissemination, procession and effects of information, both through media and interpersonally, within a political context. This includes the study of the media, the analysis of speeches by politicians and those that are trying to influence the political process, and formal and informal conversations among members of the public, among other aspects. Effective

Facebook and the 2011 general elections

According to Amaefule (2011,p.20) “The Facebook, which is one of the first social media tools was launched in 2004 and has over 664.03 million users in about 233 countries worldwide”. Since Facebook was launched, there has been massive interest from Africans to use the medium for different purposes especially among the youths. This observation has been echoed by Narnia Bohler and Charl (2010,p.12) thus:

Facebook is currently the most visited website by internet users on the African continent and currently 17 million people on the continent use Facebook. This may appear to be a small percentage, considering that the population of Africa which stands at over 1 billion, although it depicts an increase of 7 million from 2009.

On Facebook, groups like Neighbour 2 Neighbour (n2n), Alliance for Good Governance, Arewa Christians Initiative (ACI) among several others, were some of the most popular political groups found on the social media network during electioneering campaign in Nigeria. The influence of social media on youths mobilisation is also captured by World Youth Report (2005,p.13) thus:

It is becoming increasingly apparent that through modern day media, ICTs and global interconnectedness have combined to influence the lives of young people, creating what is referred to as global media driven youth culture.

President Goodluck Jonathan was among the candidates that used the social media early in the race. President Jonathan made a remarkable move by announcing his intention to run for Presidency on Facebook. Bearing in mind the heated arguments that characterized the debate on whether President Jonathan should contest in the 2011 elections or not, the Facebook announcement by President Jonathan attracted a stream of messages on his Facebook page. Other candidates that significantly made use of Facebook include Action Congress of Nigeria (ACN) gubernatorial and presidential candidates, Babatunde Fashola and Nuhu Ribadu, respectively; Congress for Progressive Change (CPC) presidential candidate, Muhammadu Buhari; and National Conscience Party (NCP) presidential candidate, Dele Momodu. In fact, the Social Media Tracking Centre, an independent ad hoc centre set up to track the use and effect of social media during the 2011 elections, rated Goodluck Jonathan, Nuhu Ribadu, and Babatunde Fashola as the top three users of Facebook, while Dele Momodu, Babatunde Fashola, and Muhammadu Buhari were adjudged top three users of Twitter during the 2011 elections (Asuni and Farris 2011,p. 9). These politicians’ primarily deployed social media network especially Facebook towards broadcast of messages and engaging the voters.

The Technological Determinism Theory

Most interpretations of technological determinism share two general ideas which Sparks (2002,p.2) noted that:

The development of technology itself follows a predictable, traceable path largely beyond cultural or political influence, and that technology in turn has "effects" on societies that are inherent, rather than socially conditioned or produced because that society organizes itself to support and further develop a technology once it has been introduced.

Marshall (1982,p.15) posited that “societies have always been shaped more by nature of the media with which people communicate than by the content of the communication”. In summary, Marshall was of the opinion that “the medium is the message”. This statement could be used as a peg for the reason why most youth surf the net or join the social networks.

Many young people do not really have a clear cut objective of visiting the internet, but because he or she believes a friend is hooked on the internet, it becomes a mis-nomer for him or her not to be online. As the youths surf the net they join some social networks and consequently participate in political debates and other politically related activities. As they do so, they consciously or unconsciously participate in the political process. This informs our reason for anchoring the study on the technology determinism theory.

Method

For the purpose of the study, the survey research method was adopted. The instrument used by the researcher in the survey research method was questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire had two sections .the first comprises of questions in demographics .While the second section are relating to issues raised in the study. In all, the questions are made up of thirty-five closed ended questions. The research study has a population of undergraduate students, post graduate students and lecturers in the University of Lagos, which constitute about 35,000 people as population and Lagos State polytechnic, with approximate 15,000 people as population. The selection of these tertiary institutions were determined with the use of simple random sampling technique, where all the tertiary institutions were given equal opportunity to be selected i.e. University of Lagos, Lagos State University, Pan African University, Wolex polytechnic and Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education.

Out of a research population of approximately 35,000 people in the University of Lagos and 15,000 people in Lagos State polytechnic, 500 respondents which represent 1% of the entire population constitute the sample size of the study. It is believed that the number would represent the population of the study.

Therefore, researcher made use of stratified sampling technique to divide each tertiary institution into groups. Then the researcher made use of cluster sampling to further divide these groups for effective representation of the study. Basically, cluster sampling is a selection of samples in groups or categories. In a single tier cluster, two faculties were selected with the use of simple random. In a two tier cluster, the faculties were clustered to departments, and then two departments were selected in each tertiary institution by the use of simple random sampling technique.

Result

500 copies of the questionnaire were administered, out of which 486 copies were retrieved. This represented a high response rate of 97.2% and a mortality rate of only 2.8. As high as 262 respondents were males representing 53.9%. While the remaining 224 respondents were females representing 46.1% of the total respondents.

In terms of age, 81 respondents (16%) were between 18 and 23 years of age. 120 respondents representing 25% were between 24 and 29 while 162 respondents representing 33% were between 30 and 35. The age group between 36 and 40 were 26%

Distribution of respondents according to their tertiary institution reveals that 292 respondents were from University of Lagos, which represents 60.1% of the total population of the study, while 192 respondents were from the Lagos State Polytechnic representing 39.9% of the total study population.

Table 1: Facebook created Political Awareness among youths in 2011 General Elections

Response	UNILAG	LASPOTECH
Yes	99%	98%
No	1%	2%
TOTAL	100% n=292	100% n=194

Many of the respondents said yes to this question. This shows that Facebook created political awareness among youths in the 2011 general elections

Table 2. Facebook and Political Awareness among youths in 2011 General Elections

Method	UNILAG	LASPOTECH
Marketing of candidates to electorates	43.6%	50.9%
Get electorates involve in political discourse	42.4%	30.0%
Make electorates Identify political candidates' campaign pages	12.9	15.5%
Others	1.1%	3.6 %
TOTAL	100% n=292	100% n=194

This is a follow-up to table 1. In answering this question, the data in table 2, reveals that Facebook created political awareness among youths in the 2011 general elections by marketing the political candidates to them, get them involve in political discourse and they easily identify candidates' campaign pages.

Table3a. The extent to which Facebook influenced youth's voting decision in 2011 General Elections

Response	Percentage
To a great extent	73%
Limited influence	20.5%
No influence	6.5%
Total	100% n=486

Table 3b. The extent to which Facebook influenced youth's voting decision in 2011 General Elections

Response	EXTENT OF INFLUENCE		
	To a great extent	Limited influence	No influence
Selling their manifestoes	59.0%	60%	20%
Countering the manifestoes of rivals	31.6%	28%	15%
Educating Facebook friends on voting procedure	9.4%	12%	65%
Others	-	-	-
TOTAL	100% n=355	100% n=92	100% n=32

Specifically, some respondents said aspirants used Facebook to influence voting decisions by: selling their manifestoes, countering the manifestoes of rivals, educating Facebook friends on voting procedure, and in disparaging rivals.

Table4: Forms of abuse used on Facebook in the 2011 general elections

Response	Percentage
Violence	12.2%
Rumour	10.0%
Inflammatory messages	8.0%
Impersonation of candidates	6.0%
All	63.8%
Total	100% N=486

In an attempt to determine the forms of abuse used on Facebook during the 2011 general elections, the ratings of the respondents were analysed. Table 4 shows that violence, rumour, inflammatory messages, impersonation of candidates, are general used as a form of abuse on Facebook As high as 59% respondents confirm that all the forms listed were used as a form of abuse during the 2001 general elections.

Table 5: Factors that threaten the effective use of Facebook for Nigeria's political development

Responses	Percentage
Lack of internet access	22.0%
Lack of credibility on the social medianetwork	6.4%
Low ICT literacy	7.3%
Poverty	13.3%
All	51%
Total	100% N=486

Table 5 indicated that all the factors listed above threaten the effective use of Facebook for Nigerians political system. The statistics is an indication that all the factors listed impede effective use of social media for Nigeria's democratic process.

Table 6: Facebook sustainability in the promotion of democratic participation in Nigeria.

Responses	Percentage
Provision of more internet access	44%
More ICT Education	20.5%
High ICT literacy	6.8%
Enhance internet security	28.7%
Total	100% N=486

Table 6 showed that all the mentioned variables are important in sustaining social media for the promotion of Nigeria's democracy. However the most important variable is the provision of more internet access which is represented by 51% of the respondents, followed by enhancement of internet security which is represented by 28.7% of the respondents. The provision of more ICT education and more ICT education are also important. These variables are all important in sustaining the social media for democracy in Nigeria.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Research question 1: Did Facebook increase the political awareness of Nigerian youths in the 2011 general elections?

As high as 98% of the respondents believed that Facebook increased the political awareness of youths in the 2011 general elections. In an interview conducted with the Student Union President of Lagos State Polytechnic, Comrade Olanrewaju Balogun and the President of the Department of Political Science Postgraduate Student, Mr. Rufus Lawal, they are of the consensus that Facebook provided the platform as well as excellent opportunities for the aspirants who all had Facebook fan pages to interface with the electorate mostly through random comments and enquiries. Comrade Olanrewaju Balogun said that for people who had earlier supported the candidature of Goodluck Jonathan (PDP), it provided an excellent opportunity for the extension of this support. Responses also indicated that Facebook provided a basis for the marketing of the candidacy of other Presidential aspirants such as General Muhammadu Buhari (CPC), and Mallam Nuhu Ribadu (ACN).

It was however clearly observed by Mr. Rufus Lawal that apart from Goodluck Jonathan who had an elaborate Facebook presence, Facebook was used to a large extent to mobilise the support of the electorates in the 2011 Presidential Election, though its degree of usage is not known. Even though Goodluck Jonathan (PDP) and Muhammadu Buhari (CPC) led in the use of Facebook and eventually came first and second in the election, doubts were raised by the interviewees whether there was effective mobilisation towards participation, their reasoned opinion in this regard was that Facebook alone cannot claim the credit, there is need to ascertain through further research, the extent of effectiveness of other media and social network in the 2011 Presidential polls. What was perhaps obvious was the fact that Facebook appeals mostly to the youth in terms of age groupings; since access to it depends on access to the internet.

We can therefore conclude from the result that compared to the traditional media of communication, group communications, and face-to-face communication, Facebook was a tool in the hands of the aspirants for mobilisation of support for those with internet access, since the mobilisation function was limited to only the people who had internet access (connectivity) or who had smart phones with Facebook applications.

Research question 2: To what extent did Facebook influenced youths voting decision in the 2011 general elections?

As high as 73% of the respondents said aspirants used Facebook to influence voting decisions by: selling their manifestoes, countering the manifestoes of rivals, educating Facebook friends on voting procedure, and in disparaging rivals. Varying responses were elicited on this issue by the interviewees; Comrade Olanrewaju Balogun felt that the influence of Facebook on the voting decisions of the electorate may not be independently ascertained because the medium was only one of the many media the electorates were exposed to. He further said that, it was not enough to conclude that interactions on Facebook influenced voting decisions – negatively or positively. It was also the considered opinion of Mr. Rufus Lawal that Facebook provided a platform for the aspirants to *convince* the electorate why they had to contest the election. He buttressed their argument with Goodluck Jonathan's (PDP) case, arguing that his candidacy was highly controversial; as such he needed to clear the doubts of the electorate as to why he was in the race. Respondents were also of the view that Facebook provided the opportunity for answers to be given on certain issues even if these answers were not so convincing. It was also noted that Facebook served essentially as a platform for exchange and opinions; some of these opinions, Comrade Balogun argued, were made prior to the advent of the election, while others were actually made during the election.

By and large, we may conclude from the findings that by providing opportunities for the aspirants and electorate to interact online, Facebook created the enabling platform for the aspirants to influence the electorate via persuasion (presenting manifestoes with the intent of convincing, convicting, and moving the electorate to action – actual voting).

Research Question 3: Was any form of abuse used on Facebook in the 2011 general elections? The most disturbing form of abuse during the 2011 general elections is the use of Facebook to incite violence. Rumors and inflammatory messages spread through electronic messaging tools were part of the triggers of the 2011 post-election violence that resulted in loss of lives and destruction of properties. As high as 59% respondents confirm that all the forms listed were used as a form of abuse during the 2011 general elections.

Unethical use of social media also reflects in the activities of some campaign groups who misused popular names in a bid to attract large following. One illustration according to Mr. Rufus Lawal, is a Facebook campaign page called "Save Nigeria", which mimicked the pro-democracy group - "Save Nigeria Group", but failed to indicate early that it is a campaign page of a notable presidential candidate. Many people followed that page believing it was that of the "Save Nigeria Group", only to receive a message afterward informing them that the page had become an election campaign group. In line with this, Ekine, (2010) opines that another form of abuse of popular names is the creation of several Facebook and Twitter handles with names of popular individuals. There were seventeen Facebook groups with the name of Goodluck Jonathan, however only two appear to be directly linked to him. There were also links between Nigerian government website and the campaign website, Twitter and Facebook pages of President Goodluck Jonathan. As Comrade Balogun noted, while there may not be evidence of intentional deception, the connections between the federal government site and the on-line campaign platform of the President suggests incompetence, and perhaps lack of probity

Harwood and Campbell (2011) are of the opinion that inflammatory rhetoric sent via the social media worsened the tensions created by religious and ethnic campaigning by supporters of President Jonathan in the South and followers of Muhammadu Buhari in the North. As Omokri (2011) noted that three days after the parliamentary elections, the spokesman of Nigeria's Vice President alleged that "some people have been going around in the North warning that any Muslim that votes for PDP or any other party outside CPC (Congress for Progressive Change) is not a genuine Muslim and will be punished for that". There were also SMS that attempted to stir up Muslims against President Jonathan and Northern Muslim governors perceived to be supporting him. The anti-Jonathan rhetoric in the North hardened the stance of many Southerners against Buhari, setting up an inevitable clash between followers of Buhari and Jonathan that has left Nigeria divided into two - along religious and regional lines.

Research Question 4: Are there Factors that threaten the effective use of Facebook for Nigeria's political development?

Many respondents (51%) are of the opinion that lack of internet access, lack of credibility on the social media network, low ICT literacy, and poverty impede effective use of social media for Nigeria's democratic process. Eva, Marta, and Aina (2010) assert that many authors have shown that access to the Internet is not equal among the population, but is concentrated among young people and more privileged groups- what is known as the digital divide. Some have argued that this leads to an increase in inequality: a concentration of tools in the same pairs of hands. Those who already tend to be active not only have new channels of influence, but also benefit from more requests for participation and other opportunities that the Internet offers. Some authors argue that it is mainly by young people who use the Internet for non-political purposes, and thus does not lead to more political involvement.

In addition, even in the case of access to political information, there is a risk of segmentation, given that the possibility of focusing the selection of subjects to be accessed reduces plurality. The Facebook enables individuals with specific interests to select only the information which strengthens their position. This behaviour can polarize opinions about certain social conflicts since it radicalizes attitudes and impedes contact and deliberation between opposing standpoints

Arthur (2012) explains further that although social media provide the potential to facilitate political mobilisation, there is a need to be cautiously optimistic in touting this potential, as a number of challenges exist in the context within which the platforms are being used. Various factors impinge on participation depending on the specific context in which the platforms are being utilized. These include countries' historical experiences, institutional arrangements and socioeconomic and political conditions. These factors have an impact on the nature of the political participation that can be facilitated via social media.

Research Question 5: How can Facebook be sustained to promote democratic participation in Nigeria?

The most important variable is the provision of more internet access which is represented by 51% of the respondents, followed by enhancement of internet security which is represented by 28.7% of the respondents. The provision of more ICT education and more ICT education are also important. Point to note is that the social media is also bedeviled with all manner of negatives because of the unlimited freedom it permits. It is extremely important to watch for hate messages and make sure that there is a well-driven team dedicated to handle comments. What voters will like to see is a well packaged and functional use of social media tools to disseminate important campaign messages. this will involve not only text related materials that can be shared easily, but smart politicians can also produce speeches in audio and video forms, these can be posted through online platform for easy transfer, sharing and download. Political parties and campaign groups that successfully

implement this, particularly when the message has resonance with the voters, may win a larger share of the hearts and votes the electorates. It is important for politicians to understand the voters social media attitudes by knowing who is using which social media platform, why is it suitable, how has it been used and when is it often used. By so doing, politicians can promote their programs and manifesto to the voting public on the appropriate social networks that will not erode the credibility and seriousness or otherwise of the message.

It is hoped that, in the coming days, with the growing confidence and acceptance of social media in political campaigns management, more potential voters will participate actively in political activities so as to reduce political apathy. The social media will certainly assist Nigerians in accessing instant political news, share opinions, and mobilise against rigging and other forms of electoral fraud in the coming elections and beyond.

CONCLUSION

Facebook has impacted on political communication and has provided a whole effective means for political mobilization. This study was conducted to assess the extent to which Facebook fared as a tool of political communication in the 2011 General Election in Nigeria. The study was guided by five objectives. Findings showed that Facebook was used to a great extent by the aspirants in mobilising the support of the electorate. It was however found that mobilisation by Facebook was limited to the people who had internet access or smart phones with internet applications.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the challenges and opportunities of the use of social media in elections, we recommend as follows:

1. The benefits of the use of social media outweigh its risks, as such the civil society should plan to use and equally encourage other election stakeholders to use social media in the subsequent elections in Nigeria.
2. INEC should establish guidelines for the use of social media as a political communication tool in Nigeria. Modalities should be established to systematically verify information reported by citizen observers through the social media.
3. INEC should establish a social media tracking centre to monitor, collate, and interpret trends and reports during elections.
4. Development partners should support domestic observer groups to utilize social media as a means of improving election observation in Nigeria.
5. Credibility of social media should be encouraged because presently, most political stories obtained on the web are mere gossips and rumours which most times are baseless. A little bit of caution should be exhibited by those who post comments on social media sites. This is because; some of these comments are derogatory and appalling.

REFERENCES

- Arthur C. (2012). Encouraging Political Participation in Africa. Retrieved March 15, 201, from <http://www.issafrica.org>
- Asuni, B. and Farris, J (2011), Tracking Social Media: The Social Media Tracking Centre and the 2011 Nigerian Elections. Abuja: Shehu Musa Yar'Adua Foundation
- Bohler-M and Charl M (2011) The Potential of Social Media to Influence Socio Political Change on the African Continent. *Africa Institute of South Africa Briefing*. No 46 March.
- Durkheim, E. (1982). *Rules of sociological methods*. New York: Free Press.
- Ekine, S. (2010), Use and Abuse of Social Media in Nigerian Elections. <http://www.newint.org/blog/majority/2010/10/21/use-and-abuse-of-social-media-in-nigerian-elections/>.
- Eva A., Marta C., and Aina G. (2009). Political Participation and the Internet. *Information, Communication & Society journal*. Vol 6, PP.860 — 878.
- Facebook Usage Statistics (2010:5) <http://www.nickburcher.com/Facebook-usage.Statistics-March-2010.htm> accessed 28 February 2011].
- Goldfarb, A(2007) Facebook flexes political might. *The Washington Post*. February 3 .
- Harwood, A and Campbell J.(2010), Opinion: Text Messaging as a Weapon in Nigeria <http://www.globalpost.com/dispatch/africa/100916/text-messaging-weapon-northern-nigeria>
- Herring, S. (2004). Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis: an Approach to Researching Online Behaviour. In S.A. Barab, R.Kling & J. Gray (Eds.), *Designing for Virtual Communities in the Service of Learning*. New York: Cambridge University
- Ifujor, H. (2010). *Key concept in politics*. New York: Sage publishers.
- Igbinidu C. (2011). Social Media and the 2011 Elections in Nigeria. www.socialmedia2011
- Kouper, I.(2010), The Pragmatics of Peer Advice in a Live journal community.Language@Internet7, Article 1, www.languageatinternet.de
- Marshall, M. (1982). *All that is solid melts into air: The experience of modernity*. New York: Simon and

Schuster

Miller and Sarah (1997). Recognising the Social Determinants of Change Social Alternatives. Futures Work.Vol.1 No.1. January,P 58.

Omokri, Reno (2011), How Social Media and the Youth Helped Achieve Credible Elections in Nigeria, paper delivered at the Atlantic Council, Washington D.C. on April 19,2012 <http://www.nigeriavillagesquare.com/articles/guest-articles/how-social-media-and-the-youth-helped-achieve-credible-elections-in-nigeria.html>.

Oyesomi, K. O. and Okorie, N (2013) *Radio and Political Mobilisation of Women in Ado-Odo/Ota Local Government of Ogun State*. Global Journal of Applied, Management and Social Sciences, 4. pp. 195-205. ISSN 2276 – 9013

Sparks, G. (2002). *Media effects research*. Canada: Wadsworth Publishers

An Investigation of the Level of Entrepreneurial Aspiration among Students in a Nigerian University

Adetayo, Janet Oyebola (PhD.)

Lecturer, Curriculum Studies and Instructional Technology Department, Faculty of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, P.M.B. 222, Ago-Iwoye
bolafemitayo@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study investigated the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institution students in Ogun State. A total of 300 students selected through simple random sampling techniques from the Faculty of Education of Olabisi Onabanjo University participated in the study. Three research questions were raised and answered in the study. A researcher designed and validated questionnaire titled: Students Entrepreneurship Aspiration Scale was the only major instrument used for data collection. The frequency count, simple percentage and t-test of significance at 0.05 level of confidence were used for data analysis. Findings from the study revealed that majority of the students possessed low level of entrepreneurship aspiration. There was no significant gender difference in the students' level of entrepreneurship aspiration; and several reasons were given by the participants for the recorded low level of entrepreneurship aspiration. It was therefore recommended among others that effort should be made to create positive attitude to entrepreneurship, as well as the need for all stakeholders to encourage youths to set up businesses of their own.

Introduction

Gana (2001) defines entrepreneurship education as the willingness and ability of an individual to seek out investment opportunities in an environment and ability to establish and run an enterprise successfully based on the identified opportunity available to them. It is observed by Oyenuga (2011) citing Igbo (1995) that entrepreneurship involves risk-taking in human financial resources. In Bateman and Swell's (1999) view entrepreneurship is a manifestation of effective control of human intelligence, skill and financial resources to achieve great profit. Wikipedia, Higher School Career and Technical Education (2009) sees entrepreneurship education as a career opportunity for students who may never go to college and as a way to upgrade a young person's abilities to succeed as an employee as well as an entrepreneur.

Ashmore (2002) see entrepreneurship, as a vehicle to explain economic theory and to call American youth to the understanding that entrepreneur is a career option for everyone and also a way to emphasize the importance of mathematics, science, language arts and social studies. The view is further stressed by Urevbu (2001) that entrepreneurship education is a vehicle to develop academic skills and creative thinking under the free enterprise system. In the same vein, Uwameiye & Clark (2003) are of the view that entrepreneurship is a vehicle to empower adults to be self-sufficient, independent, and income-producing citizens.

Marilyn (2009) states that "one of the only ways this generation is going to achieve a life style that is different from that of their parents is through entrepreneurship". It is vital for students to be prepared to make different career paths in a world that is constantly changing. Dike (2009) reports that, youth unemployment appears to be shooting up the sky; because many of them lack "employability" skills that are often acquired from vocational schools. The Vanguard Newspaper of December 23, 2004 notes "youth unemployment moved from 4.3% in 1985 to 15.3% in 1986 to 7.0% in 1987 and jumped to 60% in 1997. The report shows that in 2003 primary schools accounted for 14.7% unemployment, secondary school 53.6% and tertiary schools constituted 12.4%. He further states that the progress in Nigeria lies in the productivity of its citizens and quality education and genuine vocational programmes hold the key, this will improve economic growth and development strategies as part of poverty alleviation and assist the unemployed in job search.

Nwafor (2007) points out that the whole idea about entrepreneurship education is self-employment, which will generate employment opportunity to others that must work with him as he cannot work alone. In his view, potential entrepreneurs are separated from general population given to variety of business that entrepreneurs have created. An entrepreneur always sets his goals and objectives, goes all out to achieve them without minding any obstacle on the way. All stones before an entrepreneur are converted into stepping stones towards achieving success. He is always confident, independent in thought and optimistic in his action. Furthermore, he sees entrepreneurs as original and unique in thoughts, innovations and creations with knowledge and versatility. He further stresses that entrepreneur always "stands out" when he is thorough, original and unique in his way of doing things.

Kiadese (2007) citing Nelson (1996) noted that entrepreneurship education is much relevant in the tertiary education curriculum as it provides students with skills and knowledge to successfully launch and operate their own business venture, provide them with the opportunity to develop own and practice skills and perspectives that

are vital; to entrepreneurial success. David (2000), posited that the inclusion of entrepreneurship education in tertiary institutions curriculum will serve the students in experiencing and understanding what is involved in setting up a business, he further added that entrepreneurship education would also be useful to tertiary students. Studies such as that of Kiadese (2007) and Okon (1990) have reported a high level of entrepreneurship education among tertiary institution students. However, awareness of entrepreneurship education among students is not enough but the need to find out the level of their entrepreneurship aspiration or readiness to establish a business of their own.

According to Denga (2005) in Kiadese (2007) entrepreneurship aspiration refers to the desire of an individual to set up and manage business. Also Consortium of Entrepreneurship Education also defined entrepreneurship aspirations as the willingness of individual to own a prosperous business. Research from the Consortium of entrepreneurship education as reported by Cathy (2003) also reported that the youth level of awareness is closely related with their entrepreneurial aspiration. In other words, their level of awareness is a greater factor in stimulating their interest to set up a personal business after school.

The essentiality of becoming self-reliant in other to safeguard oneself against the problem of unemployment that is eating deep into young graduates in Nigeria necessitated that urgent attention to be given to entrepreneurship education and increase level of entrepreneurship aspiration among these young graduates for the purpose of arresting the embarrassing situation in youth unemployment among graduates of our higher institutions of learning. This study therefore, investigated the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institutions students in Ogun State.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised in other to guide the study:

1. What is the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among students in a Nigerian University?
2. What are the reasons for the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among students in a Nigerian University?
3. Will the students' differ significantly in their level of entrepreneurship aspiration by gender?

Method

The study adopted a descriptive design. This is because the design permitted a description of the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables.

Population and Sample

The population for the study consists of all students in the Faculty of Education of Olabisi Onabanjo University. In this study, the population was stratified into four that is 100 to 400 levels respectively from which the simple random sampling technique was adopted in selecting 150 students from each of the 300 level and 400 level students. 100 level and 200 level students were excluded from the study because of the assumption that they might not have offered enough courses with entrepreneurship content. In all, three hundred students participated in the study.

Research Instrument

A Researcher designed and validated Students' Entrepreneurship Aspiration Scale (SEAS) was the only instrument used for the study. The SEAS comprised of two sections, section A sought demographic information of the respondent such as level of study, sex and course, while section B contained 20 structured items meant to elicit information on the level of entrepreneurship aspiration. The instrument were validated by two of the researcher's colleagues who are experts in the area of questionnaire design and test construction in the Faculty of Education, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye while test-retest reliability was carried out to establish its reliability, the exercise yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.78. The instrument was personally administered to the students.

Data Analysis

Data collected were analyzed using simple percentage and frequency counts and t-test of significance at 0.05 level of confidence.

Results and Interpretation

The results of the study are presented in table 1 to 3 to reflect the order in which the research questions were raised and answered:

Research Question 1: What is the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among Ogun state tertiary institution students?

Table 1: Students Level of Entrepreneurship Aspiration

Aspiration Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Low Aspiration	165	55
High Aspiration	135	45
Total	300	100

The result in table 1 shows that 165 (55%) students possessed low aspiration for entrepreneurship while the remaining 135 (45%) students possessed high aspiration to set up businesses of their own after graduation.

Hence, entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institutions students is low.

Research Question 2: What are the reasons for the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among the students?

Table 2: Reasons for the level of Entrepreneurship Aspiration among Students

S/N	Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Preference for White Collar Job	180	21.63
2.	Lack of Capital	88	10.58
3.	High readiness to join politics	96	11.54
4.	Theoretical Teaching of Entrepreneurship concept without resources to practice with	155	18.63
5.	Non-availability of Entrepreneurship skills acquisition equipment	133	15.99
6.	Fear of positive support from family members	68	8.17
7.	Prolong years of suffering before breakthrough	112	13.46
	Total	832	100

Table 2 reveals that majority of the students that is one hundred and eighty who represent approximately 22% gave reasons for low entrepreneurship aspiration in favour of preference for white collar job. Eighty eight students who constitute 11% of the respondents base their reasons to be lack of capital to start business with. Also, ninety-six students who represent 11% provided reasons for high readiness to join politics at the completion of their programme because of the belief that they will make it easily in that way. Moreover, one hundred and fifty-five students representing 18% based their reasons on teaching of entrepreneurship concept at the tertiary institutions without recourse to real practice of the act. Another reasons given for low aspiration by one hundred and thirty-three students who are 16% of the respondents is the non-availability of entrepreneurship skills acquisition equipment in tertiary institutions while sixty-eight students representing 8% of the respondents raised the fear of positive support from family members. About one hundred and twelve students stated that the reasons for low aspiration is due to possibility of several years of suffering and struggling before having breakthrough in one's business.

Research Question 3: Will the students' differ significantly in their level of entrepreneurship aspiration by gender?

Table 3: Gender Difference in Students Entrepreneurship Aspiration Level

Gender	N	Mean	SD.	df	t.	Sig. t	P	Remark
Male	142	59.25	6.55	298	0.32	0.766	0.05	Not sig.
Female	158	59.69	7.66					

The result in table 3 revealed a non-significant outcome ($t = 0.32, p > 0.05$). This means that the difference between the mean score of male and female students in entrepreneurship aspiration level is not statistically significant. The mean aspiration score of 59.25 recorded by the male students is not significantly different from the mean aspiration score of 59.69 recorded by the female students. Hence, there is no significant gender difference in the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institutions students in Ogun State.

Discussion of findings and Conclusion

The first research question which sought to find out the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among Ogun state tertiary institution students, revealed that majority of the students possessed low level of entrepreneurship aspiration. This finding negated that of Denga (2005) and Consortium of entrepreneurship education (2003) who both submitted in their different studies that the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among students is very high haven belief that entrepreneurship aspiration has a lot to do with the extent of exposure to entrepreneurial content. Answer to research question 2 revealed a non-significant outcome. That is, there is no significant gender difference in the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institutions students in Ogun State. The finding supported that of Cathy (2003) and Kiadese & Adetayo (2007) who found that teachers had similar responses according to gender in their perception of the relevance of entrepreneurship education in school curriculum, in view of this efforts should be put in place by all stakeholders in education to encourage and develop entrepreneurship aspiration in the undergraduate in all our higher institutions of learning.

Lastly, several reasons were given by the selected students on the discouraging factors for entrepreneurship aspiration among them, as it can be concluded from the study that the level of entrepreneurship aspiration among higher institutions students in Ogun State is very low. Therefore, considering the importance of entrepreneurship aspiration among youth and school leavers it becomes very imperative that urgent measure be put in place in solving most of the problems militating against the aspiration of youth and young school leavers to own or set up a business of their own.

Recommendations

Based on the findings in this study the following recommendations were made in other to improve the level of

entrepreneurship aspiration among tertiary institutions students:

* Efforts should be made by parents and all other stakeholders in education to create a positive towards entrepreneurship among the students because encouraging the enterprise spirit in young people is a pre-condition to achieving progress in employment, growth competitiveness and innovation.

* There is need for Government and School authority to establish a Practice Firm for the students. This is a training method based on the simulation of entrepreneurship life in order to study the changing operations and the preconditions of running a successful enterprise.

* Course Lecturers in conjunction with the Faculty can organized visitation to entrepreneurs in the community, through such visitations, instructors can expose students to successful small businesses, provide opportunities for students to practice their skills, enable students to become familiar with entrepreneurial and management tasks, and introduce students to contacts that they can draw upon to pursue their entrepreneurial dreams.

* University management should organized seminars on entrepreneurship skills and attributes which are needed by entrepreneurs to succeed in business for students. Here successful entrepreneurs can be invited to give seminars on their experiences to students.

References

- Ashmore, C. (2002). Five stages of lifelong learning. *Consortium for Entrepreneurship Education*. Also available at www.entrepreneurship.ed.org.
- Bateman, T. and Shell, S. (1999). *Management Building competitive advantage*. Fourth edition, Boston:Irwin McGraw Hill.
- Cathy, A. (2003). The Consortium for Entrepreneurship Education. Columbus, O.H.
- David, O. (2001). *Advancing Innovation and Entrepreneurship Education*, London Longman Group Ltd.
- Dike, E. (2009). Vocational Education: Missing link in Nigeria's Development Policy. <http://www.nigeria-village-square.com/articles/victor-dike/vocational>.
- Gana, J.S. (2001). Introduction to Entrepreneurship Education. <http://www.entre-ed.org.arch/intro/htm>.
- Kiadese, A. and Adetayo, J.O. (2007). Teachers' Perception of the Relevance of Entrepreneurship Education in Vocational Education. *Journal of Applied Education and Vocational Research*, 2, (3), 146-153.
- Kiadese, A. (2007). An Assessment of Awareness Level on Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurship Aspiration of Ogun State Tertiary Institution Students. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies, Journal of Curriculum Organization of Nigeria*, 14 (2), 166-174.
- Marilyn Kourislky (2009). Demand for Youth Entrepreneurship Education. http://www.entre-ed.org/_arc/intro.htm.
- Nelson, B. (1996). Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment Promotion in Asia and the Pacific Region. Proceedings of regional Workshop on Training and Entrepreneurship and Self-Employment: Asian Development Bank and ILO.
- Nelson, R.E. & Johnson, S.D. (1997). Entrepreneurship Education as a strategic approach to economic growth in Kenya. *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education*, 35 (1), 7-21.
- Nwafor, P. (2007). *Practical Approach to Entrepreneurship: Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMES)* Precision Publishers Limited, Enugu.
- Okon, S.E. (1990). Promotion of Employment in Contemporary Nigeria: The Role of Entrepreneurship Education. *Business Education Journal*.
- Oyenuga, B.S. (2011). Content Analysis of Entrepreneurship Potentials, Awareness Creation and Learning Outcomes of Secondary School Students in Yoruba Language. A PhD post-field seminar paper presented at the Department of Curriculum Studies and Instructional Technology, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye.
- Urevbu, A. (2001). *Curriculum studies*. Benin City: Juland Publishers, Pp. 328.
- Uwameiye, R. & Aduwa-Ogiegbaen, S.E. (2006). Developing Entrepreneurship Culture among Young People in Nigeria. *Nigerian Journal of Curriculum Studies, Journal of Curriculum Organization of Nigeria*, 13 (3), 97-102.
- Uwameiye, R. & Clark, A.O. (2003). Vocational education and entrepreneurship education in Nigeria: the missing link. *Convergence*, 36 (2), 131-141.

Determinants and Pattern of Single Family Housing Estates in Port Harcourt Metropolitan Fringe Areas

Dr. Collins H. Wizor

(Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, P.M.B 5323, Port Harcourt, Nigeria)

*Email: collins.wizor@uniport.edu.ng

wizorcollins@yahoo.com

Abstract

This article examines the determinants and pattern of single family housing estates in Port Harcourt fringe areas. The data obtained for the study includes the design, ownership structure and infrastructural facilities of the single family housing estates, property characteristics and residential mobility, reasons for preferring housing areas at the current metropolitan fringe areas of Port Harcourt and satisfaction level of housing located outside the city centre. Other data includes the List of single family housing estates in the current Port Harcourt Metropolitan fringe areas (both private and government) and the aggregate population of the two local government areas making up the metropolitan fringe area. The article showed changing residential location preference. Almost all of the households left the prestige districts and opportunity of being close to city center and preferred living at the periphery of the city. Findings of the study indicate that forefront pull factors are desire to 'live in a detached house with a private garden', 'being close to natural amenities and large green open spaces', and push factors 'deteriorated environmental quality' and 'traffic congestion in the city center'. There is therefore the urgent need to establish single family housing estates and integrate them within the overall urban master plan. In cases where there are no master plans, relevant governments should ensure that master plans are prepared so as to foster orderly development. The government should equally ensure that majority of the single family housing estates at the fringe areas be built by major building firms in order to achieve the best desired result in terms of size, design, quality of construction and maintenance and adherence to urban planning regulations.

Keywords: Determinant, Pattern, Single family housing estates, Fringe area

Introduction

Decentralization of cities towards their periphery has been observed since nineteenth century. In contemporary times the rate of decentralization has been astronomical due to rapid urbanization, increased urban sprawl, changes in economic structure, public policy, increased mobility, progression in transport and technology, changing household features, changes in income distribution and life styles and other related factors.

In this urban development and growth dynamics, development and location choice of housing areas are important factors. These macro factors are very influential. Another factor related with the development of housing areas is the preferences and choices of households (Filion et al, 1999). These choices that are determined by some multi-dimensional and complicated decision processes vary according to economic and socio-cultural values. Factors which affect the choices are dwelling size, house price, quality, social homogeneity (especially among high-income groups), quality of life and accessibility to urban facilities and activities.

There are two distinct perspectives about the location preference of housing areas at urban fringe areas (Bryant et al. 1995, Daniels 1999). Urban and rural characteristics based on the duality of the fringe area are connected with "push" and "pull" factors. This was effective in the preparation of the questionnaire and on the determination of reasons of choices. "Pull" factors come out as the advantages of urban fringe areas and are related with natural beauties, open and green space, quality of living environment, size of houses and privacy. "Push" factors on the other hand indicate to the negative images of the urban environment. Factors which lies beneath the development of the single family housing estates at urban fringes, like "being with nature", "healthy life", "a clean environment", "quality of living environment", "metropol-phobia", "a homogeneous social environment", preference of single family houses" are all related with this viewpoint.

The processes of peripheral growth have for a long time been observed and interpreted in the context of 'dissolution of urban structures' (Burdack, 2002). At the end of the dissolution of urban structure, urban-rural boundaries are increasingly blurred and the relationship between city and countryside shifting. The term associated with this peripheral growth according to Wizor (2014) is 'urban sprawl'. A variety of urban forms have been covered by the term "urban sprawl" ranging from contiguous suburban growth, linear patterns of strip development, leapfrog and scattered development" (Ewing, 2004).

Urban fringe studies are affected by its partly urban and partly rural socio-spatial characteristics. Planners, geographers and social science researchers who have tried to explain size, form, rate of expansion, and socioeconomic-environmental effects of metropolitan areas were debating for years. Nigeria has been experiencing a great transition from rural to urban oriented economy, which has been accompanied by the

increasing mobility of production factors such as: capital, labour, technology and information to the metropolitan periphery near mega cities like Ibadan, Lagos, Port Harcourt, Kano, Benin city, Aba, and Kaduna. Sequel to the wide spread beliefs that the metropolis are fashionable area in urban literature especially in developed countries; empirical studies have revealed a contrary view regarding the fate of cities in developing countries (Dupont, 2005). Housing development is one of the important functions currently seen in urban fringes of cities. Certainly, housing development that began to appear at urban fringe areas is not a recent phenomenon. One of these new residential form is “single family housing estate” that indicates to the new forms of urban growth and diffusion processes in metropolitan cities such as Lagos and Port Harcourt (Mabogunje, 2002).

This article attempts to examine the determinants and pattern of single family housing estates in Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe areas. To achieve this aim, two specific objectives were pursued. They are:

1. Examine the spatial pattern of Single family housing estates in Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe area.
2. Determine the users’ reasons for preferring Single family housing estates and their satisfaction levels.

The study Area

The study area, Obio/Akpor and Eleme LGAs of Rivers State are the current metropolitan fringe areas of Port Harcourt. They are the hub of industrial and commercial activities in the state. The area lies between longitude 4° 48” and 5° 00” N and latitude 6° 55” and 7° 10” E., (Alagoa and Derefaka, 2001).

The mean annual temperature of the area is 28°C. It is predominantly under the influence of the monsoon wind and also records heavy rainfall of 2370.5mm (Osuiwu and Ologunorisa, 1999). The growth of Port Harcourt and its fringe areas has been phenomenal since its inception in 1913. Growth has been experienced in terms of population and space. Two years after its founding, the population was 5,000. Census figures for the city through its history are 7,185 in 1921; 15,201 in 1932 and 71,634 in 1953 (Okoye, 1975). The 1963 census gave the city’s population as 179,563 and in 1973 it was 213,443 (Ogionwo, 1979). The 1991 census fixed the population of Port Harcourt and Obio/Akpor local government areas alone at 645,883. The projection for 1996 by the National Population Commission is 832,471 for the two local government areas and the interim figures for the 2006 national census is over one million. Spatially too, Port Harcourt city has grown to cover much of the Upper Bonny River Basin. Originally the city covered a 25 km² area between the UTC junction and the New Layout Market. In the land use and vegetation map of Nigeria (1975/76), the built-up area of Port Harcourt covered 17.4km².

Twenty years later, a similar map showed the extent of the city as 89.4km². This is more than a five-fold increase. (See figure 1).

Like many cities in Nigeria, Port Harcourt has recorded rapid growth in population and aerial spread. Urban development is denser on the corridors determined by geographic thresholds and major transportation connections.

Port Harcourt as a result of population increase and economic growth spreads to the periphery as in the other metropolitan cities.

Physically the spread has occurred in both a south – easterly direction and a northerly direction. To the south, growth was through marshland colonization in squatter settlements locally called “waterfronts”. In the last two years settlements of these waterfronts have been demolished by the Rivers State Government. Growth has also occurred in north – westerly and north – easterly direction through the entrapment of indigenous enclaves of semi – rural and rural communities within the built – up area of the city. The Port Harcourt urban fringe today stretches to Iriebe, Eleme, Elelewon Rukpoku, Woji, Choba, Rumokwursi and Onne.

Much of this growth is unplanned and unregulated. As part of its efforts to manage the city’s growth, the Rivers State Government in 2009 established the Greater Port Harcourt City Development Authority with jurisdiction covering Port Harcourt city and Obio Akpor Local Government Areas (LGA) and parts of eight other local government areas. It covers an area of approximately 1,900 square kilometers (40,000 hectares of land) with a projected population of about two (2) million people.

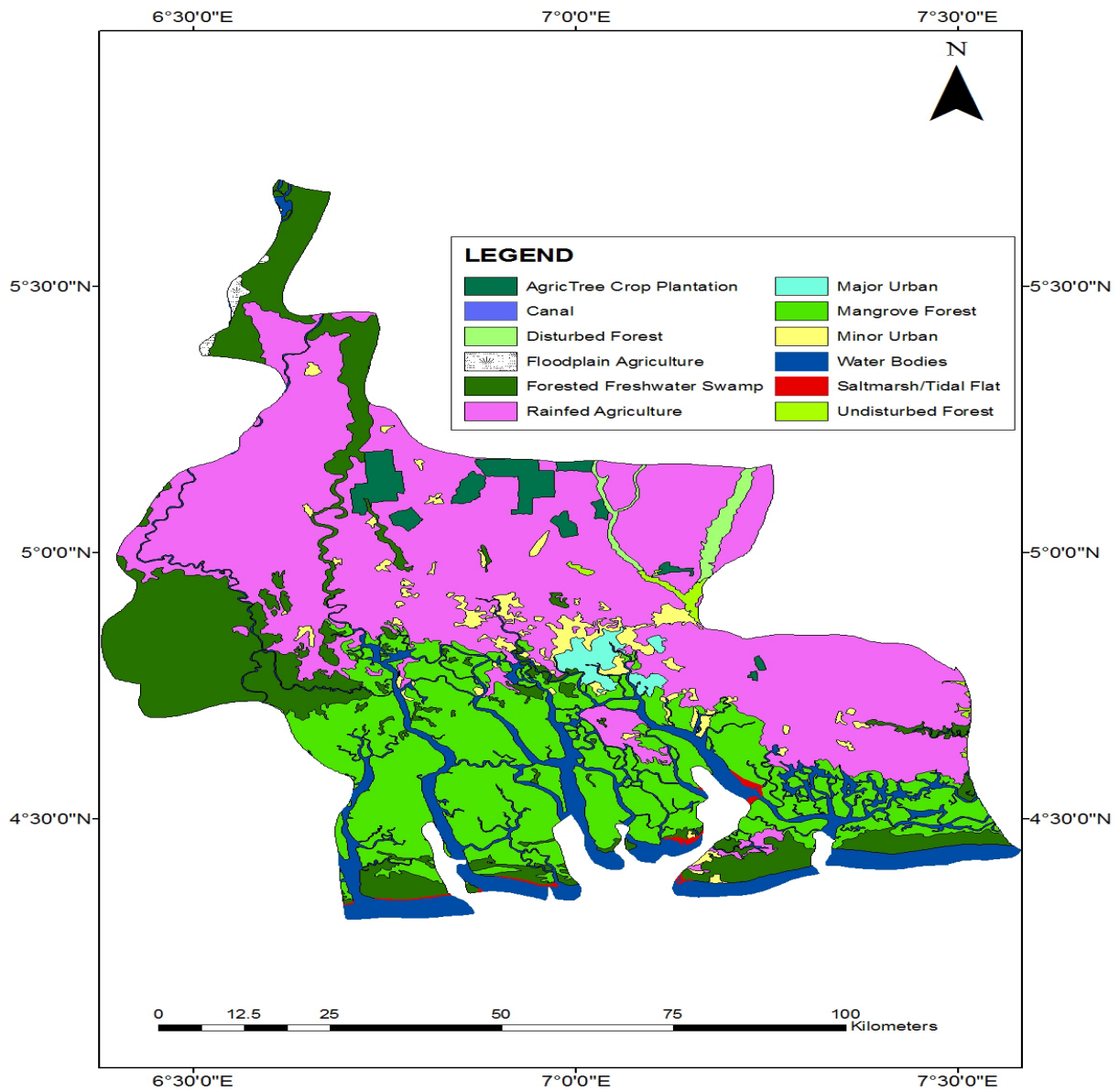


Figure 1. Map of Rivers State Showing Land Use (Source: GIS Laboratory, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria)

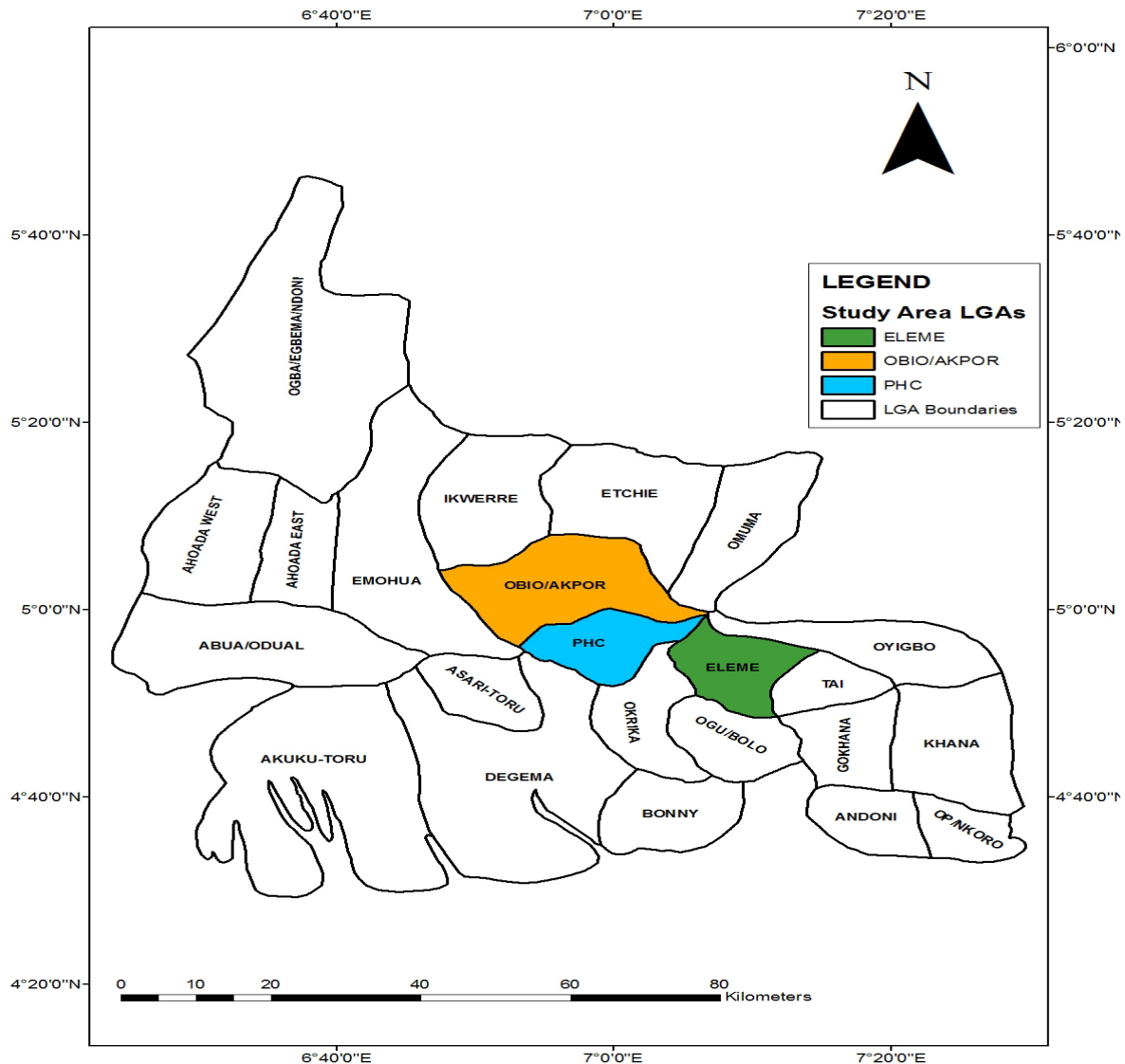


Figure 2. Map of Rivers State showing the Metropolis (Source: GIS Laboratory, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria)

Methodology

The data obtained for this study includes the design, ownership structure and infrastructural facilities of the single family housing estates, property characteristics and residential mobility, reasons for preferring housing areas at the current metropolitan fringe areas of Port Harcourt and satisfaction level of housing located outside the city centre. Other data includes the List of single family housing estates in the current Port Harcourt Metropolitan fringe areas (both private and government) and the aggregate population of the two local government areas making up the metropolitan fringe area.

Population and Sampling

Obio/Akpor and Eleme Local Government Areas (LGAs) of Rivers State were chosen as the study area because they constitute the current Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe area. Secondly single family housing estates can be found in these LGAs.

The study area was divided into five zones using stratified random sampling techniques. The basis for stratification is to enable us get the subset of the population. The five zones from our preliminary investigation were found to consist of thirty (30) single family Housing estates in all. They are as follows:

ZONE

A - WOJI ZONE

1. Woji Housing Estate (60 Units)
2. Ognigba Palm Estate (30 Units)
3. Golden Valley Estate (90 Units)
4. Rumuogba Housing Estate (110 Units)
5. Rumuibekwe Housing Estate (60 Units)

ZONE B - IRIEBE ZONE

1. Laurel Heights Estate (120 Units; Not completed)
2. Tonimas Estate (60 Units)
3. Palm View City Estate (35 Units)
4. Iriebe Garden City Estate (40 Units)
5. Iriebe Housing Estate (40 Units)
6. Terra Wood Estate (42 Units)
7. Trinity Garden Estate (40 Units)

ZONE C - ARTILLERY/RUMUIBEKWE ZONE

1. Adamac Estate (35 Units)
2. Ekulema Gardens Estate (30 Units)
3. New Heaven Estate (110 Units)
3. Schlumberger Estate (30 Units)
5. Mini Ezekwu/ Cocaine Village (120 Units)
6. Agip Staff Estate (85 Units)
7. Total Village (60 Units)
8. Elekohia Housing Estate (120 Units)

ZONE D - RUMUOKWURUSI/ELELENWO ZONE

1. Shell Residential Estate (160 Units)
2. Eli-mini Igwe Heights (35 Units)
3. Elelenwo Housing Estate/Bristow (60 Units)
4. Deutag Camp Estate (30 Units)
5. Intels Aba Road Camp Estate (50 Units)
6. Lonestar Estate (30 Units)

ZONE E - AKPAJO ELEME ZONE

1. Akpajo Height Estate (60 Units)
2. Green Village (80 Units)
3. Intels Camp Estate (75 Units)
4. NNPC Estate (70 Units)

Criteria for Selection of Case Study Estates

The following criteria were considered in the selection of Single Family Housing Estates in the five zones identified above:

1. Occupancy rate: This was aimed to select single family housing estates with high occupancy rate and consequently to be able to reach out to as many users as possible. Thus single family housing estates below 30 units were not selected for survey.
2. 30% of the single family housing estates were selected across the zones

In guidance of the above factors, ten (10) single family housing estates were selected from the five zones as case study estates. The ten (10) single family housing estates selected are the following:

ZONE A - WOJI ZONE

1. Rumuogba Housing Estate (110 Units)
2. Golden Valley Estate (90 Units)

ZONE B - IRIEBE ZONE

1. Tonimas Estate (60 Units)
2. Terra Wood Estate (42 Units)

ZONE C - ARTILLERY ZONE

1. New Heaven Estate (110 Units)
2. Cocain Village/Mini Ezeukwu (120 Units)
3. Agip Staff Estate (85 Units)

ZONE D - RUMUOKWURUSI/ELELENWO ZONE

1. Shell Residential Estate (160 Units)
2. Elelenwo Housing Estate/Bristow (60 Units)

ZONE E - AKPAJO/ELEME ZONE

1. Green Village (80 Units)

Data Processing

Data processing entails two major aspects: data editing and coding. For this research, the respondents' perceptions about preferences were ranked on a Likert-type five-point scale. The five categories are: "1 – Very Important", "2 – Important", "3 – Neutral", "4 – Not very important", and "5 – Not applicable". Questions about "Satisfaction" were also prepared likewise with Likert-type five-point scale. The scale ranged between 1 to 5, where "1 – Very Satisfied", "2 – Satisfied", "3 – Fairly Satisfied", "4 – Dissatisfied", and "5" indicates "Very Dissatisfied".

In the processing of the data, the widely known "Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. Thus all the variables obtained during the fieldwork were cross tabulated by the computer through the aid of this statistical package. This greatly reduced the chances of errors or problems associated with repetitious calculations arising from using large quantities of data.

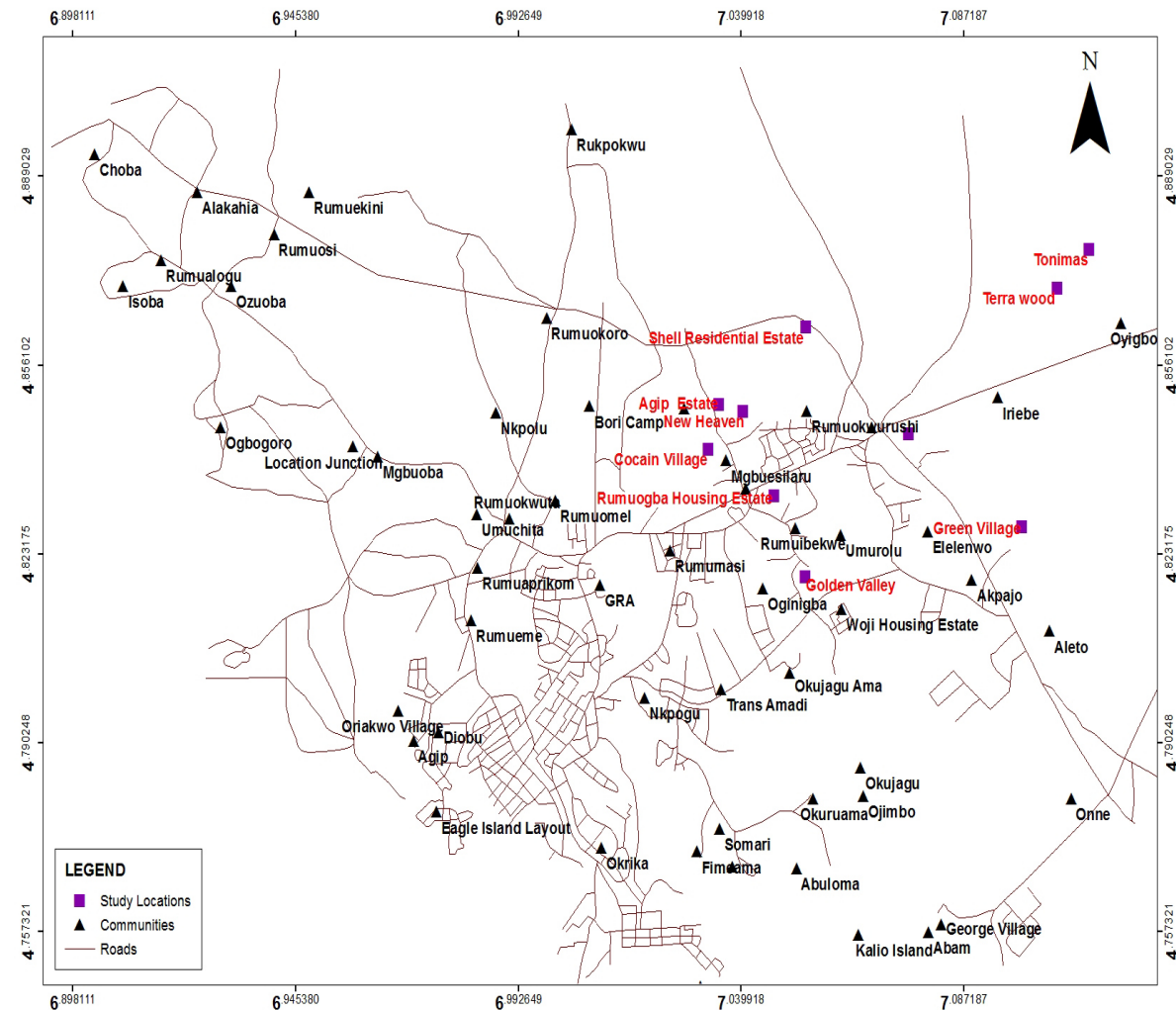


Figure 3. Map of Port Harcourt Metropolitan Fringe Showing Case Study Estates (Source: GIS Laboratory, Department of Geography and Environmental Management, University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria)

Results and Findings

Table 1 below shows the reasons for preferring Single Family housing estates in the Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe areas. From the table, Rumuogba Housing Estate’s residents’ most important factors for preferring their housing estate are Quality of living environment (18.2%) and size of house (18.2%) while the least factor considered by the residents is Neighbourhood with homogenous character (4.5%). Neighbourhood Homogeneity was considered the least factor by Rumuogba Housing Estate residents because the various housing designs varies as individual developers built their houses to suit their taste.

For Golden Valley Estate which is located in the Woji area of the metropolitan fringe of Port Harcourt, the most important factor considered for choice of the estate is “A safer place than central city” (18.9%). The least factor considered for Golden Valley Estate is “Ease of accessibility” (3.3%). This is largely due to the fact that Woji area of the metropolis is located far from the city centre. There is only one arterial road connecting Woji to the Port Harcourt – Aba express way and Trans Amadi industrial area.

Table 1 below also showed that Tonimas Estate which is located at the Iriebe area of the metropolis has ‘Existence of larger open space’ (16.7%), ‘Beauty, nature and Environment’ (16.7%) and ‘Price of house’ (16.7%) as factors with highest scores in reasons for preferring housing estates in the fringe area. Price of house was particularly considered as one of the most important factors for choice of this estate by the residents because our interview with them revealed that houses of similar design and quality attracted very high prices in the central city and other choice areas of the metropolis. The least factors considered by residents of Tonimas Estate are ‘Ease of accessibility’ (3.3%) and ‘Existence of garden for private use’ (3.3%). For Terra Wood Estate which is also located in the Iriebe area of the metropolis, the most important factor considered by residents as reason for preferring their estate is ‘Price of house’ (23.8%). This is followed by ‘Quality of living environment’ (14.3%). The survey clearly shows that Terra Wood Estate residents were attracted to the estate because of the price of house and the serene environment which is devoid of the noise and pollution noticeable in the central

city.

Table 1. Reasons for Preferring Single Family Housing Estates in the Fringe Area

Housing Estates	Ease of Accessibility	Ex Existence of Lager open Space	Beauty, Nature and Environment	Quality of Living Environment	Size of house	A Safer Place than Central city	Price of house	Neighbourhood with Homogenous Character	Existence of Garden for Private Use	Row Total
	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %
Rumuogba Housing Estate	10 (9.1%)	15 (13.6%)	10 (9.1%)	20 (18.2%)	20 (18.2%)	10 (9.1%)	10 (9.1%)	5 (4.5%)	10 (9.1%)	110
Golden Valley Estate	3 (3.3%)	13 (14.4%)	7 (7.8%)	12 (13.3%)	8 (8.9%)	17 (18.9%)	10 (11.1%)	15 (16.7%)	5(5.6%)	90
Tonimas Estate	2 (3.3%)	10 (16.7%)	10 (16.7%)	8 (13.3%)	5 (8.3%)	5 (8.3%)	10 (16.7%)	8 (8.3%)	2 (3.3%)	60
Terra Wood Estate	2 (4.8%)	5 (11.9%)	4 (9.5%)	6 (14.3%)	5 (11.9%)	3 (7.1%)	10 (23.8%)	5 (11.9%)	2 (4.8%)	42
New Heaven Estate	15 (13.6%)	7 (6.4%)	13 (11.8%)	20 (18.2%)	9 (8.2%)	21 (19.1%)	9 (8.2%)	6 (5.5%)	10 (9.1%)	110
Cocain Village	20 (16.7%)	15 (12.5%)	10 (8.3%)	15 (12.5%)	10 (8.3%)	20 (16.7%)	15 (12.5%)	10 (8.3%)	5 (4.2%)	120
Agip Staff Estate	8 (9.4%)	14 (16.5%)	11 (12.9%)	10 (11.8%)	5 (5.9%)	12 (14.1%)	9 (10.6%)	11 (12.9%)	5 (5.9%)	85
Shell Residential Estate	40 (25%)	23 (14.4%)	15 (9.4%)	17 (10.6%)	5 (3.1%)	20 (12.5%)	5 (3.1%)	20 (12.5%)	15 (9.4%)	160
Bristow Estate	5 (8.3%)	10 (16.7%)	8 (13.3%)	5 (8.3%)	7 (11.7%)	5 (8.3%)	5 (8.3%)	10 (16.7%)	5 (8.3%)	60
Green Village	1 (1.3%)	10 (12.5%)	5 (6.3%)	9 (11.3%)	15 (18.8%)	10 (12.5%)	14 (17.5%)	11 (13.8%)	5 (6.3%)	80
Column Total	106	122	93	122	89	123	97	101	64	917

Author's Fieldwork, 2013

The result of the survey as shown in table 1 above also revealed that residents of New Heaven Estate which is located around the Artillery area of the metropolitan fringe area considered the factor, 'A safer place than central city' (19.1%) as the most important factor in their reasons for preferring housing estate. This is largely due to the fact that in this gated and controlled estate, there is the presence of the regular security and estate security personnel. This factor is closely followed by 'Quality of living environment' (18.2%). For Cocain Village which is also located around the Artillery area of the metropolis, the two most important factors considered by the residents as reasons for preferring their estate are 'Ease of accessibility' (16.7%) and 'A safer place than central city' (16.7%). This high brow deluxe estate is located along the Port Harcourt – Aba express road and is also accessible from Okporo road. In terms of security, Cocain Village is safer than central city and some other parts of the metropolis due to the gated and controlled nature of the estate coupled with the obvious presence of the estate security and regular police. Most of the residents indicate that the urban fringe is safer than the central city. This result is consistent with the work of Olayiwola, et al (2005) which maintained that the urban core of most third world countries are prone to crime and other social vices.

It is also clear from the table that Agip Staff Estate located along Okporo road has 'existence of larger open space' (16.5%) as the most important factor determining choice of the estate. This is closely followed by the factors, 'A safer place than central city' (14.1%) and 'Neighbourhood with homogenous character' (12.9%) respectively. For Shell Residential Estate which is located along Port Harcourt – Aba express road, the most important factor for residents' reasons for preferring the estate is 'Ease of accessibility' (25%). The estate is the most accessible among the case study estates. The 'ease of accessibility' factor is followed by 'Existence of larger open space' (14.4%). The other factors that have high score in reasons for choice of estate are 'A safer place than central city' (12.5%) and 'Neighbourhood with homogenous character' (12.5%). Our interview with residents revealed that the estate is the safest in the metropolis since cases of armed robbery, kidnapping, assassination and other heinous crime do not exist in the estate. This electronically gated and packaged environment are professionally secured by well trained security operatives, trained dogs, CC Cameras and other high-tech security gadgets. This accounts for the reason why most expatriates of the multinational Dutch oil company prefer to live in this estate. Another important factor highlighted by the residents as a reason for preferring this estate is the neighbourhood homogeneity. This is closely followed by 'beauty, nature and environment' (9.4%). The green areas are very conspicuous in this high class residential estate.

Bristow Estate is also one of the high class deluxe residential Villas in Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe areas. It

is also called Elelenwo Housing Estate by the natives due to its location around Elelenwo town in Obio/Akpor LGA. From table 1 above, the two most important factors for preferring this estate are 'existence of larger open space' (16.7%) and 'neighbourhood with homogenous character' (16.7%). All the apartments are similar in design and quality with larger open space and green areas. For Green Village which is located around the Akpajo Eleme area of the metropolis, the most important factor considered by the residents is the 'size of the house' (18.8%). This is closely followed by the 'price of house' (17.5%). The size and price of the detached apartments were seen as major reasons for preferring this estate. Our interview with the residents showed that detached apartments of similar size and quality attracted higher prices in the residential areas close to the central city. This is in agreement with the work of Hoyt (1939) as cited by Ayeni (1978) that deluxe high rent apartments are established near the central business districts.

Generally, table 1 above shows that the most important factor considered by the residents across the ten case study estates as reasons for preferring single family housing estate in the fringe area is 'A safer place than central city'. This is closely followed by the factors 'Quality of living environment' and 'Existence of larger open space'. The least factor considered as determinant of their estate choice is 'Existence of garden for private use'.

Satisfaction Level of Housing Located Outside the City Centre

The aim of this section is to evaluate resident's perceptions of and feelings for their housing units and the environment. This evaluation is made for three different categories including (1) housing estate environment in the fringe area, (2) Single family Residence (house), and (3) accessibility to urban services. Satisfaction level explained for the factors in these categories enabled us to perceive the positive and negative sides of these housing estates outside the city centre.

This section of the survey is arranged as Likert-type and five-point scale likewise with the previous part. The scale ranges from 1 to 5, where "1-very satisfied", "2-satisfied", "3-fairly satisfied", "4-dissatisfied", and "5" indicates "very dissatisfied". Evaluations firstly are done within each category then determined by tri-section of the five-point response scale.

Satisfactions of users in terms of housing estates environment they live in were evaluated according to ten factors as seen in Table 2 below. The table shows that quality of landscaping and security of neighbourhood are factors with highest satisfaction levels. The respondents are generally satisfied with the security of their neighbourhood due to the presence of the regular security operatives and the estate security outfit coupled with all the security facilities noticeable in this high brow residential areas. In most of the case study estates especially Shell Residential estate and Elelenwo Housing Estate (Bristow), the presence of Hi-tech CC cameras, metal detectors, dogs and automated doors and gates are noticeable.

Satisfaction levels belonging to accessibility and recreational facilities vary according to the location of the estate and its design options. Shell Residential Estate and Cocaine Village have the highest scores in terms of accessibility to central city. Golden Valley Estate from the viewpoint of accessibility to the central city is the most remote and disadvantageous location.

Diversity of sports and recreational facilities these estates have is also reflected on their satisfaction level. For example, Shell Residential Estate is the most equipped and with the highest satisfaction level. This is closely followed by Elelenwo Housing Estate/Bristow. However, not every housing estate in the study area is designed in this manner. In some of the estates, social facilities are either completed after the houses or even never constructed.

Further evidence from table 2 below shows that for Rumuogba Housing Estate, the factor with the highest satisfaction level is 'quality of landscaping' (17.3%). This is closely followed by the factors, 'quality of infrastructure services' (16.4%) and 'management (MGT) and maintenance' (10.9%). For Golden Valley estate, the factor with the highest satisfaction level is 'quality of infrastructure services' (23.3%) while the least factor in terms of satisfaction with housing estate environment is 'accessibility to central city' (4.4%). The residents of this estate maintained that they are not satisfied with accessibility to central city. This is largely due to the location of the estate around Iriebe area of the metropolis.

The result of the survey as shown on table 2 below also shows that satisfaction with the factor, 'access to relatives/friends' is the least when the ten case study estates are considered. This is consistent with the work of Hasibe (2004) which revealed that living in this deluxe high class gated and packaged environment causes social isolation. For Green Village, residents are not satisfied with the factors, 'traffic connection with major roads/surrounding' (2.5%) and 'accessibility to central city' (2.5%). This is because of the absence of good link roads to the major highways and expressways. The respondents maintained that due to the nature of the available link roads, accessing the city centre has been difficult.

Table 2. Satisfaction with Housing Estate Environment in the Fringe Area

Housing Estates	Quality of Landscape	Security of Neighbourhood	Traffic Connection with major Roads/Surrounding	Accessibility to central city	MGT and maintenance	Quality of Infrastructure Services	Recreational Opportunities	House Maintenance	Access to Relatives/Friends	Access to Work Place	Row Total
	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	
Rumuogba Housing Estate	19 (17.3%)	11 (10%)	10 (9.1%)	5 (4.5%)	12 (10.9%)	18 (16.4%)	10 (9.1%)	10 (9.1%)	6 (5.5%)	9 (8.2%)	110
Golden Valley Estate	10 (11.1%)	10 (11.1%)	6(6.7%)	4 (4.4%)	14 (15.6%)	21 (23.3%)	5 (5.6%)	10 (11.1%)	5 (5.6%)	5 (5.6%)	90
Tonimas Estate	10 (16.7%)	5(8.3%)	3(5%)	2 (3.3%)	10 (16.7%)	8 (13.3%)	2 (3.3)	10 (16.7%)	5 (8.3%)	5 (8.3%)	60
Terra Wood Estate	8 (19.0%)	5 (11.9%)	2(4.8%)	3 (7.1%)	5 (11.9%)	5 (11.9%)	5 (11.9%)	5 (11.9%)	2 (4.8%)	2 (4.8%)	42
New Heaven Estate	20 (18.2%)	20 (18.2%)	10 (9.1%)	5 (4.5%)	10 (9.1%)	15 (13.6%)	5 (4.5%)	10 (9.1%)	5 (4.5%)	10 (9.1%)	110
Cocain Village	25 (20.8%)	20 (20.8%)	10 (8.3%)	8 (6.7%)	12 (10%)	10 (8.3%)	10 (8.3%)	10 (8.3%)	5 (4.2%)	10 (8.3%)	120
Agip Staff Estate	10 (11.8%)	10 (11.8%)	10 (11.8%)	5 (5.9%)	10 (11.8%)	10 (11.8%)	10 (11.8%)	10 (11.8%)	5 (5.9%)	5 (5.9%)	85
Shell Residential Estate	29 (18.1%)	31 (19.4%)	12 (7.5%)	8 (5%)	20 (12.5%)	10 (6.3%)	20 (12.5%)	15 (9.4%)	5 (3.1%)	10 (6.3%)	160
Bristow Estate	10 (16.7%)	10 (16.7%)	3(5%)	2 (3.3%)	10 (16.7%)	5 (8.3%)	8 (13.3%)	8 (13.3%)	2 (3.3%)	2 (3.3%)	60
Green Village	14 (17.5%)	10 (12.5%)	2(2.5%)	2 (2.5%)	12 (15%)	10 (12.5%)	10 (12.5%)	11 (13.8%)	3 (3.8%)	6 (7.5%)	80
Column Total	155	132	68	44	115	112	85	99	43	64	917


Author's Fieldwork, 2013

Satisfaction of users in terms of 'Residence' (House) is evaluated according to five factors. Among these factors, the one with the highest satisfaction level is "general appearance of house". (See Table 3 below)

Table 3 Satisfaction with Single Family Residence (House) in the Fringe Area

Housing Estates	General Appearance of House	Existence of Private Garden	Quality of Construction	Size of House	Garage Size/Parking Space	Row Total
	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %
Rumuogba Housing Estate	42 (38.2%)	18 (16.4%)	21 (21%)	19 (17.3%)	10 (9.1%)	110
Golden Valley Estate	25 (27.8%)	15 (16.7%)	27 (30%)	13 (14.4%)	10 (11.1%)	90
Tonimas Estate	14 (23.3%)	11 (18.3%)	15 (25%)	13 (21.7%)	7 (11.7%)	60
Terra Wood Estate	10 (23.8%)	8 (19.0%)	12(28.6%)	7 (16.7%)	5 (11.9%)	42
New Heaven Estate	29 (26.4%)	21 (19.1%)	30 (27.3%)	13 (11.8%)	17 (15.5%)	110
Cocain Village	45 (37.5%)	21 (17.5%)	34 (28.3%)	9 (7.5%)	11 (9.2%)	120
Agip Staff Estate	24 (28.2%)	11 (12.9%)	25(29.4%)	9 (10.6%)	16 (18.8%)	85
Shell Residential Estate	59 (36.9%)	31 (19.4%)	38 (23.8%)	17(10.6%)	15 (9.4%)	160
Bristow Estate	20(33.3%)	10 (16.7%)	15 (25%)	8 (13.3%)	7 (11.7%)	60
Green Village	25 (31.3%)	21 (26.3%)	14 (17.5%)	9 (11.3%)	11 (13.8%)	80
Column Total	293	167	231	117	109	917

Author's Fieldwork, 2013

 *Your complimentary use period has ended. Thank you for using PDF Complete.*
[Click Here to upgrade to Unlimited Pages and Expanded Features](#)

Vertical stack of 8 blue rounded rectangular boxes, likely representing redacted text or a list of items.



Aerial view of akpajo estate

Plate 1

Generally the size and appearance of houses referred to as “villa” or “luxurious house” are approved by respondents. Table 3 above shows that respondents are satisfied with the factor, ‘quality of construction’. In the interviews based on survey, it was understood that detailed construction of houses are done by most of the users in some of the estates. Very few houses are constructed by building firms. Examples of the estates constructed by building firms among the ten case study estates include Bristow Estate, Shell Residential Estate, Agip Staff Estate, Green Village and Terra Wood Estate.

In the evaluation of ‘garage size/parking space’, the satisfaction level drops down. This is largely due to the size in some of the estates which cannot accommodate more than two cars. When individual housing estates are considered, the result of the survey showed that the factor with the highest satisfaction level for Rumuogba Housing Estate is ‘general appearance of house’ (38.2%). This is followed by the factor, ‘quality of construction’ (21%). This implies that the residents of this estate are very satisfied with the general appearance of their house and satisfied with the quality of construction.

For Terra Wood Estate, table 3 shows that the respondents are very satisfied with the factor, ‘quality of construction’ (28.6%), satisfied with the factor, ‘general appearance of house’ (23.8%), fairly satisfied with the factor, ‘existence of private garden’ (19%), dissatisfied with the factor, ‘size of house’ (16.7%) and very dissatisfied with the factor, ‘garage size/parking space’ (11.9%). The result of the survey as shown in table 3 further shows that the respondents are very satisfied with the factor, ‘quality of construction’ (29.4%), satisfied with the factor, ‘general appearance of house’ (28.2%), fairly satisfied with the factor, ‘garage size/parking space’ (18.8%) and very dissatisfied with ‘size of house’ (10.6%).

Accessibility level of housing estates to urban services and facilities is evaluated based on ten factors (Table 4).

Table 4. Satisfaction with Accessibility to Urban Services and Facilities

Housing Estates	Access to Shopping Centres	Access to Work Place	Access to Health Services	Access to Local Police	Access to Central City (PH Municipality	Access to Municipal Service	Access to Public Events/Facilities	Access to Mass Transportation	Access to LGA Obio/Akpor & Eleme	Access to Relatives/Friends	Row Total
	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	No %	
Rumuogba Housing Estate	14 (12.7%)	21 (19.1%)	10 (9.1%)	30 (27.3%)	11 (10%)	4 (3.6%)	5 (4.5%)	5 (4.5%)	7 (6.4%)	3 (2.7%)	110
Golden Valley Estate	20 (22.2%)	10 (11.1%)	5 (5.6%)	20 (22.2%)	5 (5.6%)	8 (8.9%)	12 (13.3%)	5 (5.6%)	2 (2.2%)	3 (3.3%)	90
Tonimas Estate	8 (13.3%)	5 (8.3%)	5 (8.3%)	20 (33.3%)	2 (3.3%)	3 (5%)	5 (8.3%)	8 (13.3%)	2 (3.3%)	2 (3.3%)	60
Terra Wood Estate	5 (11.9%)	2 (4.8%)	3 (7.1%)	8 (19%)	2 (4.8%)	5 (11.9%)	5 (11.9%)	5 (11.9%)	2 (4.8%)	5 (11.9%)	42
New Heaven Estate	20 (18.2%)	17 (15.5%)	10 (9.1%)	25 (22.7%)	8 (7.3%)	5 (4.5%)	10 (9.1%)	5 (4.5%)	5 (4.5%)	5 (4.5%)	110
Cocain Village	32 (26.7%)	18 (15%)	10 (8.3%)	20 (16.7%)	10 (8.3%)	8 (6.7%)	10 (8.3%)	5 (4.2%)	5 (4.2%)	2 (4.2%)	120
Agip Staff Estate	20 (23.5%)	5 (4.2%)	10 (11.8%)	20 (23.5%)	5 (5.9%)	5 (5.9%)	8 (9.4%)	2 (2.4%)	8 (9.4%)	2 (2.4%)	85
Shell Residential Estate	30 (18.8%)	25 (15.6%)	25 (15.6%)	30 (18.8%)	5 (3.1%)	10 (6.3%)	10 (6.3%)	8 (5%)	10 (6.3%)	7 (4.4%)	160
Bristow Estate	5 (12.5%)	5 (8.3%)	10 (16.5%)	10 (16.5%)	2 (3.3%)	3 (5%)	5 (8.3%)	2 (3.3%)	12 (20%)	6 (10%)	60
Green Village	10 (12.5%)	5 (6.3%)	8 (10%)	22 (27.5%)	2 (2.5%)	3 (3.8%)	10 (12.5%)	5 (6.3%)	10 (12.5%)	5 (6.3%)	80
Column total	164	113	96	205	52	54	80	50	63	40	917

Author’s Fieldwork, 2013

Table 4 above shows that ‘access to local Police’ has the highest satisfaction levels across the ten case study estates. This is followed by the factor, ‘access to shopping centres’. Respondents explained that they do their weekly shopping in big shopping malls within the metropolis and daily shopping around their estates. This is closely followed by access to work place. The respondents are satisfied with accessibility to their work place. Not having access to the two Local Government Areas (Obio/Akpor and Eleme) that make up the Port Harcourt metropolitan fringe area and access to mass transport services is one of the complaining issues in most of the Housing estates. Respondents maintained that having access to these LGA’s headquarters has been a major

constraint in accessibility to urban services and facilities due to the location of the headquarters. On lack of access to mass transport options, respondents believe that the situation is an important problem for people who work in these estates. Families with children complain most about lack of mass transportation system since they have to take their children to school by their own car if school services do not exist.

Access to relatives and friends has the lowest satisfaction level. This result is contrary to the general belief that residents of housing estates at the fringe area of cities can access relatives and friends in the city centre at any time because of the increase in car-dependency. Table 4 above shows that for Rumuogba Housing Estate, the factor with the least satisfaction level is 'access to relatives/friends (2.7%)'. The respondents say they are very dissatisfied with accessibility to relatives and friends especially those living at the city centre. Most of the users interviewed explained that accessing their relatives and friends at the city centre has been hindered due to the traffic situation in the city and high rate of insecurity in the city core.

Conclusion

Evidence from the research showed changing residential location preference. Almost all of the households left the prestige districts and opportunity of being close to city center and preferred living at the periphery of the city. Findings of the study indicate that forefront pull factors are desire to 'live in a detached house with a private garden', 'being close to natural amenities and large green open spaces', and push factors 'deteriorated environmental quality' and 'traffic congestion in the city center'. The push and pull factors influencing the people preferring these housing estates are important in two ways. Firstly, they are important from the viewpoint of usage, management and planning of urban fringe in the future. Secondly, they are important in perceiving and orienting the physical and social changes that may and can form in the city center. From the urban fringe perspective, single family housing estates present a viable alternative to apartment flats in the city. However, it can be concluded that, demand for single family housing estates is limited, yet, because, they are consumed largely by high income groups.

The result of the survey also reveals that the most important factor considered by the residents across the ten case study estates as reasons for preferring single family housing estate in the fringe area is 'A safer place than central city'. This is closely followed by the factors 'Quality of living environment' and 'Existence of larger open space'. The least factor considered as determinant of their estate choice is 'Existence of garden for private use'.

There is therefore the urgent need to establish single family housing estates and integrate them within the overall urban master plan. In cases where there are no master plans, relevant governments should ensure that master plans are prepared so as to foster orderly development. New housing scheme must be located in consideration of the work place, existing or proposed transport system, availability of water, electricity and other infrastructural facilities in order to meet the needs of the people. The government should equally ensure that majority of the single family housing estates at the fringe areas be built by major building firms in order to achieve the best desired result in terms of size, design, quality of construction and maintenance and adherence to urban planning regulations. Since urban policies and planning are dynamic activities whose formulation and interpretation is a continuing process, there is a need to invigorate planning machinery and activity in Port Harcourt metropolis to incorporate and integrate new planning paradigm into planning of the city and to introduce measures to guarantee public participation in planning.

References

- Alagoa, E. J. and Derefaka, A. A.(2001) (ed): "*The Land and People of Rivers State (Eastern Niger Delta)*". Onyeoma Research Publishers, Port Harcourt
- Ayeni, B (1979) "*Concepts and Techniques in Urban Analysis*" (Groom Helm London).
- Bryant, C. R. (1995): "The Role of Local Actors in Transforming the Urban Fringe." *Journal of Rural Studies* Vol.11 (No.3)
- Burdack, J. (2002): New economic poles in the periphery of European Metropolitan areas. 42nd Congress of the European Regional Science Association (ERSA)
- Daniels, T. (1999) "*When City and Country Collide, Managing Growth in the metropolitan Fringe*". USA, Island Press
- Dupont, V. (2005) Peri-Urban Dynamics-Population, Habitat and Environment on the Peripheries of Large Indian Metropolises. *Occasional Paper, French Research Institutes in Indian. New Delhi.*
- Ewing, R. (2004) "Measuring Sprawl and its Impacts". www.smartgrowthamerica.org
- Filion, P., Bunting, T.E. and Warriner, K. (1999)"The Entrenchment of Urban Dispersion: Residential Preferences and Location Patterns in the Dispersed City." *Urban Studies* Vol. 36 (No. 8)
- Hasibe, V (2004) "Development Trends of Housing Estates in Izmir Fringes of Turkey", *Izmir Institute Turkey*
- Hoyt, H. (1939): "*The Structure and Growth of Residential Neighbourhood in American Cities*". Washington

D.C. Government Printing Office

Mabogunje, A.L. (2002) "Reconstructing the Nigerian City: The New Policy on Urban Development and Housing". Conference Paper on the City in Nigeria. Abuja.

Ogionwo, W. W. (1979) "*The City of Port Harcourt*". Heinemann Publishers Ibadan

Okoye, T. O. (1975) "Port Harcourt", In: G. E. K. Ofomata (Ed) *Nigeria in Maps: Eastern Nigeria States*. Ethiope Publishing, Benin City. Pp. 92 – 93

Osuiwu, B.O & Ologunorisa, T.E.,(1999) "Weather and Climate", In Oyegun, C.U & Adeyemo, A.(Ed): *Port Harcourt Region*, Paragraphics Port Harcourt

Olayiwola, L.M., Adeleye, O., & Ogunsakin, L (2005) "Urban Housing Crisis and Response in Nigeria": *The Planners' Viewpoint*

Wizor, C.H. (2014) "Single Family Housing Estates Development Dynamics in Port Harcourt Metropolitan Fringe Areas: Implication for Sustainable Urban Planning". *Journal of Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*

Vol. 4 No. 6

Religious Tolerance and Peaceful Co-Existence: The Case of Female Religious Cults Relationship in Ijebuland, Ogun State, Nigeria

OLUWATOSIN ADEOTI AKINTAN, Ph.D

Department of Religious Studies, Faculty of Arts, Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Abstract

There is in Nigeria today, a depressed mood of daily occurrences of war, tension, impending collapse of the political system, social decay, corruption and religious violence. The core cause of this crisis in Nigeria among other reasons is religion. Despite various government's efforts to put an end to all the violence there seems to be no end to the violence and intolerance dividing the nation. The various violent or religious crisis has had a bitter impact on inter-religious relationship in a pluralistic religious state like Nigeria. Most of the violence was caused by religious crisis, lack of tolerance among the different religious groups or faith, ignorance, the struggle for power and monopoly-having absolute knowledge about God. Since all the religions practised in Nigeria advocate peace, harmony, tolerance, patience understanding, good neighbourliness and even the idea of 'live and let others live', one then wonders why all the religious crisis or violence against each other. The theme of this paper is religious tolerance and peaceful co-existence from the perspective of the traditional African religion taking examples from the inter-cultic groups in Ijebuland. It is necessary to note that inter-cultic groups in Ijebuland would continue to be an integrating power that would unite people in Ijebuland and not disintegrate them. The traditional religion through the various activities of its adherents should be a reckon force for integration since there is a mutual inter-cult relationship among the various cultic group. Among these group of people, their religion is not a mere faith which they profess but a way of life, a system of social control through which they get an organizing mechanism in which they live their everyday life peacefully.

Keywords: Religious tolerance, peaceful co-existence, female cults, Ijebuland

Introduction

Religion which is as old as humanity has played a great role in the lives of the people. Religion, a universal feature of human existence, is one of the fascinating varied and complex phenomenon in human history. However, many people have accepted the pervasiveness and persistence of the traditional religious rituals and the deep rooted influence they have on the people's understanding of life. The new religions necessitated a re-orientation of the people's minds, thoughts and beliefs in which the indigenous cults, their ritual activities and divinities gradually became less important, since the new religions do not recognise them. The influence of Islam and Christianity has not however diminished the honour respect and loyalty given to the traditional religion. The three religions practised in Nigeria enjoy patronage by the people in the various communities. According to Nwanaju, (2005: 55).

the great Yoruba pantheons of deities still portray a wide range of cults and occultist practices. Rituals have great bearing on the cycle, ecology and civic calendar. They are meant to appeal organism favours from the gods.

These various traditional rituals serve psychological, spiritual, political, social roles among the people and they provide an inter-cultural perspective which will continue to illuminate the religion. Therefore, an examination of these crucial, basic and essential rituals would give insights into the persistence of the traditional rituals among Ijebu people and the activities of women being the most highly revered ritualists who would continue to promote religious tolerance among their various cultic groups.

An understanding of the position of women and their activities in their various traditional religious cults could be used as a yard stick to ensure religious tolerance in the society. Religious tolerance which is a situation whereby people of different faiths live together peacefully and accommodate each other's view without violent crisis and respect one another's view without clash is desirable for anybody. The activities and ritual rites performed by women if extended to others can be used as an example for religious tolerance in the large society.

Their inter-cultic activities had been used to foster unity, understanding and progress in Ijebu-community and to show peaceful co-existence among the various cult groups in the traditional society. They relate and communicate among each other amicably despite their short comings. They know that no one is perfect and human being as a whole needs the company of others. From the activities of the religious cult they make all efforts to inculcate among themselves the spirit of love, peace, understanding, unity and tolerance. In their various religious cult groups, they have rules and regulations which regulate and control the group's behaviour.

The traditional cult groups lay emphasis on virtue and reverence each other a lot while they make various rituals as their tool. Every stage of their life is characterised with these rituals which are religious observances. These are norms taboos and prohibitions which they use in protecting their members and the entire cult groups in Ijebuland. They promote peace and harmony with all integrity which has resulted in security of life and property.

Engendered Priesthood in African Religion

Among the Ìjèbù people, just like in other Yorùbá communities, the priestesses are among the various religious leaders who perform specific rituals. These religious specialists in their own ways and contexts serve a religious purpose as intermediaries between humanity and the spirit world. In order to be able to communicate between humanity and the spirit world, they are concerned with the renewal and the sustenance of the life of the individual and the community they serve through their rituals and symbolic authorities. As Ray, (2000: 72-89) said:

Like that of most traditional priests, their effectiveness as ritual healers lies in their ability to control self-induced trance states and to perform dramatic ceremonies involving powerful herbal medicines. In this way they exercise troubling spirits and expel the evil forces of witchcraft.

They are the official servants of a divinity and they work in the shrine or temple of the divinities. They are to be found in places where gods are worshipped and where sacrifices are made to the sacred beings. They are the mediators between the object of worship and the adherents. They are the people in charge of the shrine “*Ojú Òrisà*”. They take care of the shrine and sacred places in general. They keep the shrines tidy by sweeping them regularly. The walls are neatly kept and the artistic decorations of the emblems of the divinities are beautifully done. They are responsible for the preparation of sacrificial materials, the examination of the sacrificial items and they prepare specific rites.

The Supreme Being and other spirits invisible to mere mortals/human beings are approached directly and indirectly through these chosen priestesses. Libations, invocation, sacrifices and prayers are the supplications acceptable by the divinities. These are made by the priestesses with traditional rituals and ceremonies at appropriate times and places. The priestesses are the keepers of the welfare of the people and are entrusted with the sacred rituals.

According to Parrinder, (1962) the priestesses are the specialists who help the paramount ruler of a community in the area of propitiation. They advise him (King) about the rituals and medicines to be used. They are responsible for the treatment of certain diseases through the use of herbs, plants, bark and roots. Among their popular medicines are the purgatives and other treatments which may include poultices, ointments, rubbing powders and sweating bath. They have their own way of treating particular types of sicknesses.

Their objective is to profess remedies in the curing of specific diseases. They are able to carry out magical and sacrificial rites in treating the afflictions. Apart from the *Ifá* priest, they are prominent when it comes to oracular inquiry. They are able to serve as soothsayers and foretell the future. They diagnose diseases and recommend their remedies. They speak or listen to the divinities when the need arises through the use of *Erédógún* (the kolanuts-divination). Parrinder, (1962: 102) further says that:

They seek to interpret the mysteries of life, to convey the messages of the gods, to give guidance in daily affairs and settle disputes, to uncover the past and to look into the future.

In order to carry out their administrative and political functions in each town, the *Olòrisà* organises themselves into an association of priests and priestesses. In this association as in other associations in Yorùbáland, their purpose according to Fádípè (1970: 254) is to;

introduce uniformity in such matters as calling upon the Òrisà on behalf of the community in such critical occasions as, war, drought and pestilence, annual propitiatory sacrifice for ensuring the welfare of the community during the selection of a new King or Chief.

Apart from these functions, they are also responsible for fixing the dates of the annual festivals of the *Òrisà*. Finally, having learnt and received instruction in the laws and taboos of the divinities from an older priestess, they too pass the knowledge unto others. They teach the people the law and the taboos governing religious matters. Their administration and political functions include settling quarrels among members, their family, the nuclear and the extended families, the communities and help members by discussing their domestic problems. People generally confide in them as guardians and counsellors. Fádípè (1970: 254) retorts in this regard that:

A priestess... is a person “in touch” both ways between the object of worship and man. She knows them both, hears

them and speaks on behalf of one to the other. It is her duty to offer up man's worship and to bless man in the name of his object of worship.

It is her primary assignment to speak on behalf of her clients to the divine beings and bless them in return. Ìdòwú, (1979: 133) confirms this point when he says:

On the whole, they are women of respectable character: trustworthy, devout, obedient to the traditions of the office and to God or the divinities that they serve, friendly, kind, 'educated' in matters of their profession, and religious.

They are indeed the cream of the society.

Women through their cult groups and its various movements, have gender roles to play in the search for peace between the various denomination of faiths in Nigeria today. According to Ogundipe, (2007: 49) because of women's closeness to the spiritual, and their own sacrality and being givers of life tend to be more spiritual and long-sighted about life and culture. These women can intervene positively and productively in the internal religious crises facing Nigeria. Female Priestesses being women, wives and mothers are the real producers of life and are tend to be more opposed to its destruction and would not be happy and be party in advocating the taking of life in killings as seen during religious conflicts involving the "foreign religions". Ogundipe, (2007: 50) opined further when she said that:

Being more involved with religious movement for sociological reasons some of which we know, women could work on recreating the religious tolerance and interconnectedness that existed in Africa before these genocidal times. We shall not develop by massacring each other, by killing off our populations and loving in blindness about each other's faith and other aspects of culture.

There exist various cultic groups each with its institution of priesthood and in this there exist hierarchy and each members respect this order of hierarchy within the group and outside the group, no problem of one priestess of one cult group being jealous of the other in another cult group, they reverence each other a lot. These hierarchy is the grade of priesthood and it has to do with the various cultic functionaries that exist in the female cult. Their functionaries include, the *Alagbo*, who is the owner or person in charge of the shrine. There is also the *Alabe*, the person next in rank to *Alagbo*, she is responsible for the shaving of heads of new initiates during initiations. She is a sort of bodyguard to the '*Alagbo*'. The next in rank to *Alabe* is *Alase*, she is the catering officer who is responsible for buying the materials for sacrifice. She is also the treasurer in charge of the shrine. Next is the "*Koburu*" who is a sort of chief whip and police officer and she keeps order among members. These groups of priestesses occupy an important position in the community. They are revered in the worship of the divinities in various cults and their functions can be summarised into five: these are cultic, oracular, therapeutic, instructional and administrative or political functions.

To ensure the continuity of the priestesses, new members are initiated from time to time in order to perpetuate the activities of the cult. In addition to this, people are being initiated from their childhood so as to continue the tradition laid down by the cult group. Moreover, the cult groups are adapting to modern situations. The shrines are being rebuilt and the old structures are being pulled down and new ones are replacing them thereby helping in perpetuating the activities of the priestesses.

In the area of ritual practice, it is observed there is continuity in the area of rituals. This is because rituals are found at every location - at road junctions, streams, rivers, etcetera and this forms an essential feature in traditional Ìjèbú society.

Some Causes and Cases of Religious Crises in Nigeria

Nigeria in recent times has had a number of religious crises and this crisis is either in form of intolerance within a religion or between one religion and another. There are many factors which causes this intolerance among the different religious sects. According to Faluyi (1988: 126)

Many factors may bring about intolerance among the different religions. Doctrinal interpretations may cause conflict. The mode of worship by one sect may be at variance with the practice of the others. Fanaticism may generate violence and intolerance.

Causes of religious crisis in Nigeria include religious particularity, the claim that one religion is the best, noteworthy, special and the only universal religion that vouchsafes salvation to man. Particularity is a common phenomenon among human beings as well as a feature of religions. It is a notion that is deep-down in human nature and a claim of self-superiority by man. Particularity is common to all religious but no religion can claim

to have the monopoly to religious truth as salvation is property of every religion.

Nobody should claim that his/her religion is the only one and that his/her own is the best. The various religions are but the different languages through which God Almighty has spoken to the human heart, that is, channel through which God reveals Himself to human beings at different times. Each religion should care for its own doctrines and leave the salvation phenomenon to the judgment of God. God alone has the final say on whom would be saved. Particularity has caused more religious conflicts in Nigeria than any other factor. It has been a major cause of inter-religious conflicts.

There are two types of religious crises in Nigeria. We have the intra-religious crises and the inter-religious crises. The intra religious crisis is aimed at purifying a particular religion and is usually targeted at members of the same religious faith. As Alli, (1993: 117) opine, this type of religious crises is usually the result of violent efforts by some believes to impose their own views or interpretations of theological positions on others. Example of such a crisis was in Nigeria in 1980, when the Maitatsine sect launched a violent attack on the people of Kano, the Bulunkutu riots in Bulunkutu area of Maiduguri. Around October, 1982, the various Kaduna riots of 1982 and 1984, the Katsina riots, the Gombe riots of 1985 and the January 1993 Katsina and Funtua riots were examples. All these riots were seen as intra-religious crises.

The inter-religious riot occurs when members of different religious faith fight usually over superiority of their faith. Example of this crisis include the Christian – Muslim riots in Kano in 1982, the Kafanchan riots of 1987 the Bauchi riots of 1991 and the Zangon – Kataf riots of May 14, 1992 to mention a few. The Kaduna Sharia crisis of February 2000 which continued in January, 2001 between the Yoruba Christian and Hausa Muslim is another inter-religious riot. The bad incident between the Tivs and the Azeris in May, 2001 in Nasarawa state in which many were homeless and dead was not only ethnic but also religious crisis.

One must not forget the Muslim solidarity with Afghanistan in October, 2001 when the Muslim radicals saw the US bombardment of Afghanistan following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks as a violation of Islam. This was used as a way to attack Christians in Nigeria. In the same month religious violence was recorded again in Zaki-Biam in the central part of Nigeria, there was also the Miss World competition riot of November, 2002 in which the Northern Muslims burnt down the Christian churches. Today, Boko Haram; an Islamic Terrorist group in Nigeria has killed, maimed and destroy wantonly with reckless abandon. This evil act o recent has not been limited to the opposing religion but as well to Muslims.

The November, 2008 and 17th January, 2010 Jos riots which were crises between the Muslim and Christian ethnic groups in Central Nigeria near the city of Jos is another example of inter-religious violence. In these crises, houses, churches, mosques, vehicles were set ablaze and no fewer than 200 people were killed. This crisis continued to the dawn of 7th March, 2010 in which more than one hundred Christian villagers were killed by Muslim Hausa-Fulani herders in Dogo-Nahawa village near Jos.

Inter-cult Relationship

A critical look at the different cults in Ijebuland reveals that cordial relationships exist between the female-oriented cults and all other cults in Ijebuland. It is not easy or common to see a devotee of one divinity or cult to convert to another one as in the imported religions where one can move from one denomination to another. This is because in the traditional religion generally, there is no policy of evangelisation, as they see themselves as one. Members of one cult, like *Iyemoji* can be invited for the annual festival of *Iyemule* another cult group in Ijebuland. They would join each other in the worship, give roles to one another to perform except classified roles that may not be allocated to an initiate of another deity. In breaking kolanuts, offering prayers and using the *Eredogun*, they can join and even lead as a mark of honour. There is a link between all the divinities and their various cults in Ijebuland and even beyond. They see themselves as one and the spirit of togetherness is always expressed and showed in all their activities. It is true that there is proliferation of cults in Nigeria, to the effect that each divinity has its priests and priestesses. Shrine, temple or grove and devotees. Yet, there is a strong inter-cultic solidarity so much so that devotees of different cults come together and perform social and religious functions together especially on festival occasion. The relationship between the members of different traditional cults is one of peace, harmony and concord. There is no rivalry between the members of one traditional cult and those of another. No matter where one priestess may go, she is identified and sees as a member of the larger. They accept one another and use the same passwords either for greetings or performing rituals with little variations. They easily identify the slight differences and adjust. There is no antagonism and no undermining of authority. Idowu, (1979: 153) added that.

Members of the different cults have moral obligation to be at peace with one another. There are taboos and prohibitions which hold them together internally and these are binding on all and sundry.

They respect one another's views and know the order of things among themselves. They know the time and period of one another's annual festival, what is expected of them and they do not fight or have alteration. For

instance, before the female-oriented cults have their annual yam festivals, they must have celebrated the annual *Agemo* festival. Each cult in Ijebuland sees one another as partners in progress; they never look down on one another, there is no room for envy; there is no strife, no tension. Where there is any, they settle amicably. The Ijebu people use their religion as the base for achieving peace. The Supreme Being is their ultimate reference point in dealing or relating to one another Akanmidu, (1993: 282) remarked that:

...the adherents of African religion have explanation primarily in the uniform way they acknowledge and articulate God..., they all see the Supreme God as the embodiment of peace and that there are no other alternative to please Him without having to love peace.

S. N. Booth (1977: 15) does not mince words when he also affirmed that;

African religion is to a very large extent a “family” religion. The relationship within the family, within the clan, between clan and clan and so on, are all important and God is interested in the continuing coherence of the group so that it doesn’t break up.

They see themselves as one and they are able to demonstrate personal responsibility in their behavior “they have not given themselves to the illusion that building impenetrable religious boundaries between the different adherents of the deities helps their relationship”. Ijebu religion in particular and African religion in general, provides internal cohesion among its followers. Dopamu (1993: 243) surmised that;

Although we have devotees of different divinities, the worshippers do not see themselves as belonging to different religions. That is why it is possible for a person to worship several divinities at a time. Again, there are no sect, no secessions no internal conflicts and the worshippers do not go to court in order to make the appointments of a chief priest invalid or to remove an aged priest. The oracle is their court, their judge and their arbiter and its declaration and judgment is binding. Again, death is the only agent that can enforce compulsory retirement on the priests/priestess.

The indigenous religion of the Ijebu people infuses a great deal of discipline on the people in the traditional society. They obey the law of the land and all the do’s and don’ts of the cult groups. It is necessary to extol the moral bounds with which the various cult groups used to bind the individuals together for the large society. The social, moral and spiritual stability that exist among members of each group which is also extended to other groups can be used by other religions to continue to promote religious harmony and tolerance in the larger society. Just as in the words of Komolafe, (1997) “our indigenous faiths through our various cultic association or group foster our heritage of peace and harmony and it is indeed our gospel of religious tolerance”.

Looking at the African life before the coming of the foreign faiths, there is a lot of strength, spiritual affinity, fondness, inclination, cohesion and persistence performance and observance of religious rituals and ceremonies in all the different cult groups and this is still so nowadays. The various gods and goddesses placed on the adherents of the cult groups discipline and each group serve as an avenue where peace, justice, honesty and prosperity reign supreme. In order to accomplish this, there are various sanctions spelled out to punish offenders and to reward the compliance by the divinities and the ancestors as the case may be. It is therefore not surprising to see any thief being punished with violent death by Sango and Ayelala while Ogun, the god of iron deals with people that cheat or swear falsely. The cult groups have ethics, rules and regulations which instill discipline and order in the individual person and within the group.

There is virtuous life among the women, honesty, justice, and fair-play is also noticeable and they avoid things that are taboos or forbidden as much as possible. There is high sense of loyalty and peaceful co-existence among these cult groups. These they show in the various traditions associated with the worship of the divinities and the veneration of ancestors in their cults. In some of these traditions there are symbolic behaviours of the devotees and the various priestesses. A notable tradition is seeing the way they greet each other. The mode of greeting in these female oriented cults is different from the normal way of greeting which is usually kneeling down. In greeting a senior member of the cult, the junior kneels down, put her hands at her back and touches her forehead to the ground to pay homage especially to their senior priestesses.

Another important thing they do is displayed in the way they share kolanut. They normally use their mouth to pick the kolanuts from the ground. This is a re-enactment of their covenant with one another and with the divinities. The covenant is both suzerainty and parity. With this covenant agreement, an atmosphere of oneness and togetherness is created. The covenant brings together members of the cults and gives cohesion in the community at large. As J. O. Awolalu and P. A. Dopamu (2005: 233-234) have stated:

...by the terms of the covenant the worshippers are bound together and they see themselves as members of the same family. Spiritually therefore, the people have concern for one another in consequence of the covenant. This covenant gives meaning and cohesion to society and enhances a bond between man and God and finally between man and man.

Speaking further on this observation, P. A. Dopamu (1988: 59) affirmed that: Covenant, therefore, is not a commercial bargain or a legal contract, but rather the people's pledge of loyalty to God and their fellow men, especially those who stand with them within the covenant. It is a quality not only of loyalty to one another but also of loving kindness. It is for this reason that they should seek the welfare of one another and keep away from doing evil to one another.

In all these, they must not fight or envy each other, but if they do, they must not injure each other. They must neither curse nor abuse one another in the shrine. At times, in sharing *kolanut*, the *Alagbo* (the head of the priestesses) may feed it into each priestess's mouth. These covenant frameworks can be used to regulate human and to solve the problem of religious crisis in the society. It must also be used to foster morality and combat corruption and moral decadence in the community. As used by women in their various cult groups, covenant concept can also be used in the large society among the various religious groups to regulate human behaviour in social contexts.

Other significant behaviours were also observed during offering of sacrifices to the divinities or the ancestors. First, the priestess that had gone to place the sacrifice at the altar or at the entrance of the shrine must first be fed. She must not use her hands for any other thing until she has been fed by the chief priestess. When the priestess returns, she must be fed with the same type of food she had sacrificed to the deities. To do this, the priestess must put her hands at her back. It is only after she has been fed that she could use her hands.

Also, during ancestral veneration, the priestesses must deep their hands into the blood of the sacrificial animal and clean them by rubbing them against the tomb. Whatever blood stain that remains on their hands is rubbed on their bodies. They would kneel down and pray against shedding of blood among their children and other cult members.

Finally, during the procession by the priestesses to and from the river side to fetch water, they must not talk to anybody. They would only tie white wrapper which symbolises holiness and purity or any neat wrapper and must go bare-footed. They would carry their clay pot (*Otun*) on their heads/hands and cane (*Atori*) on their hands which is symbolically use to ward off evils generally or impending ones. It is a taboo to be touched by these canes. If anybody is inadvertently touched by the cane, the person would be asked to bite it. However, if a person is deliberately beaten with this cane, he or she would be tasked to perform an elaborate sacrifice to avoid calamities. During the procession, the line must not be intruded upon by a non initiate and even an initiate. A non-initiate either rushes by before they get to him/her or waits patiently until they have all passed. Anyone who breaks into this procession would be cursed. With this long procession not cut or intruded upon, they believe in unity and in this unity lies their strength. They see themselves as a long-handled sweeping broom which can not be broken unlike one broom stick which can be broken. In the shrine, no one wear slippers or shoes and this is a mark of respect for the deities all together.

To sum up, the Ijebu people through their traditional religion enhance internal cohesion, inter-cultic and inter-faith solidarity which accounts for the general well-being and cohesion of their community. Tolerance is an important feature of the Ijebu traditional cultic group if it is upheld by all; it can put an end to all the destructive crises of religious intolerance pervading the society. The traditional religion can adequately hold the people of various communities together and help in building a progressive society. It can play a significant role in uniting a fragmented society and allow co-existence of other religions and cultures.

It should be noted that in their cultic group, living closely with one another, fixing the days of their various festivals without clashing, allow each other to attend those of their friends in and outside of their respective communities, and most importantly, all showing respect for the right of the other man. Hence, these religious groups in Ijebu can be used as a model for Nigeria in pursuit of peaceful co-existence, mutual respect for other faith and unity among all can be achieved. There are many factors that project the people as one these factors could be used for the building of a progressive and economically viable nation which will always stand in unity and as the saying goes "in unity lies our strength."

Conclusion

The relationship of the female-oriented religious cults in Ijebuland, Ogun State could be a model for religious

tolerance and peaceful co-existence for other religions in Ijebuland and Nigeria as a whole. Since tolerance, harmony, and peaceful co-existence are the prerequisite factors of communal development and stability in any society, a peaceful co-existence among the various religious groups could be achieved if they adopts some of the policy of the female-oriented cults groups in Ijebuland as examined above in the paper. Adherents of religions should be at peace with one another and not turn against each other. Religious groups should also understand each other's religion and mutually co-habit for the evolving an egalitarian society

References

- Adewale, S. A. (ed.) (1988). *Religion and State: The Nigerian Experience* in Orita. *Ibadan Journal of Religion Studies*. XI/ December.
- Adewale, S. A. (1991). "The Significance of Traditional Religion in Yorùbá Traditional Society in *ORITA Ibadan Journal of Religious Studies*. XVII.
- Adewale, S. A. (1993). "Religion and the Issue of Human Rights: Traditional Religion as a Case Study", In *Orita: Ibadan Journal of Religious Studies*. XXV/1-2: June and December.
- Adewale, S. A. *The Interaction of Religions in Nigeria*. Lagos: Sudan Press.
- Adewale, S. A. (1994) "Crime and African Traditional Religion", in *Orita: Ibadan Journal of Religious Studies*. XXVI/1-2: June and December.
- Abubakre, R. D. et al (1993) Studies in Religious Understanding in Nigeria, Ilorin: *Nigerian Association for the Study of Religion* (NASR).
- Akanmidu R. A. (1993) - The Concept of the principle of "live and let live" in a pluralist religious state: The case of African religion in Nigeria. Abubakre R. D. et al, Studies in Religious Understanding in Nigeria, Ilorin; *Nigerian Association for the Study of Religions* (NASR).
- Akintan O. A. (1997) African Traditional Religion in the Pre-Islamic and Christian Era in Ìjèbù land In S. A. Adewale (ed) *A Study of Religion and Culture*, Lagos, Sudan Press.
- Akintunde, D. "Ed." (2002). *Women and the Culture of Violence in Traditional Africa*. Ibadan: Sefer Book, 2002.
- Awólàlù J. O. & Dòpámú, P. A. (2005). *West Africa Traditional Religion(Revised Edition)*Nigeria: Macmillan.
- Bidmos, M. A. (2006). *Inter-Religious Dialogue: The Nigerian Experience*. Abuja: Panaf Publishing.
- Booth, N. S. (1977). *African Religion: A Symposium*. New York: NOK. Publishers.
- Dòpámú P. A (1988). "Religious Tolerance and peaceful co-existence: The case of African Religion in Nigeria" In *Philosophy of Religious Tolerance*, Vol IV Lagos: John West Printing Division.
- Dòpámú, P. A. (1993). "African religion in Nigeria society in Abubakre R. D. et al, studies in religious understanding in Nigeria, Ilorin; Nigerian Association for the Study of Religions (NASR).
- Fadipe, N. A. (1970). *The Sociology of the Yorùbá*, Ibadan: University Press.
- Falola, T. (1998). *Violence in Nigeria: The Crises of Religious Politics and Secular Ideologies*. Rochester. University Press.
- Idowu, E. B. (1979). *Olodumare, God in Yoruba Belief*. London: Longman.
- Iwuchukwu B. (1997). "Women and Religion in Afria" in Amoah, E. (ed) *where God Reigns: Reflection on women in God's World*, Ghana: *Circle of Concerned African Women Theologians*.
- Kenny, J. (1984). Religious Movements in Nigeria, Divisive or cohesive? Some Interpretative Models. In *Orita: Ibadan Journal of Religious Studies* XVI/2/Dec.
- Mala S. B. (1985). Fanaticism in Religion: A naughty child of difficult mother in *Orita: Ibadan Journal of Religion Studies* XVII/2/DEC.
- Mbiti, J. S. (1970). *African Religion and Philosophy*. London: Heinemann.
- Mbiti, J. S. (1988). "Flowers in the Garden: The role of Women in African Religion", in *Cahiers Des Religious Africanines*. Vol. 22, no. 43-44, pp. 69-82.
- Momoh C. S. Onuoha E. and El-Miskin T. (eds) (1988). *Nigeria Studies in Religious Tolerance*. Vol I – IV, Nigeria: John West Printing.
- Nabofa, M. Y. (1991). Religion and Culture in Thompson, L. A. (Ed.), *Culture and Civilization*. Ibadan: Afrika-Link books.
- Nwanaju, I. (2005). *Christian-Muslim Relations in Nigeria*. Lagos. Free Enterprise Publishers.
- Ogundipe, L. (2007). *Indigenous and Contemporary Gender Concepts and Issues in Africa: Implication for Nigeria's Development*. Lagos: Malthouse.
- Olupona J. K. and Falola T. (1991). *Religion and Society in Nigeria: Historical and Sociological Perspectives*. Ibadan: Spectrum.
- Parrinder, G. E. (1962). *African Traditional Religion*. London: Sheldon Press.
- Ray, B. C. (2000). *African Religious, Symbol, Ritual and Community*. New York: Prentice.

Exercise: A Therapy for Physical and Mental Fitness of School Children

EDIM, M. E., AND ODOK, E. A.,

Department of Human Kinetics and Health Education, Faculty of Education, University of Calabar, Calabar-Nigeria

E-mail: edimmosses@yahoo.com

Abstract

The enhancement and maintenance of physical and mental fitness of the pupils in school is one of the cordial objectives of every good education system. Physical fitness does not only imply the absence of diseases or deformities, but the ability of the pupils to undertake their studies efficiently and effectively each day without undue fatigue imposed by any of the systems of the body and to have reserve energy for other activities at home. Physical and mental fitness cannot be developed and maintained mainly by reading them in books. They are attained through participation in regular graded physical exercises outside the classroom in the open air. This was the primary preoccupation of the classroom teachers in the forties and fifties. Today the story is different. Teachers do no longer pay attention to the development and maintenance of physical and mental fitness of the children. Consequently, the physical and mental fitness of the pupils has dropped tremendously and school administrators are virtually powerless to do anything about it.

INTRODUCTION

The development and the maintenance of a functional or dynamic physical and mental fitness of the pupils and students for all intensive physical and intellectual work through graded regular physical education programme was keen one of the candidate objective of any good educational system from time immemorial. Physical fitness in broadest sense is called total fitness which involves physical, intellectual, emotional, social, moral and spiritual wellbeing. So, a fit person must enjoy an alert and inquiring mind, emotional stability, a robust healthy and a proficiency in basic skills of movement (Perrol, 2006).

Ntui (2005), elaborated on the areas which total fitness covers, ranging from physical fitness which involves the general fitness of the human body which can be enhanced through sports social fitness refers to the ability of the pupils or students to have good pupils relations with others; mental fitness means an increase in the flow of blood to the brain, enhancing mood, increasing mental alertness, and improving self-esteem among other things.

THE CONCEPT OF FITNESS

Self-concept or self perception of physical and academic achievement were related in fourteen (14) fields and laboratory indicators of physical fitness and to academic achievement for a large national representative sample of Australian boys and girls ages 9-15 (N=6283). Corrections between self concept and the corresponding external criteria increased steadily with age both in physical and academic domain (March, 2008).

According to Arnold (2003), although the term "physical fitness" is in common use and each of us has a personal interpretation, the concept is difficult to define. Physical fitness implies not only freedom from disability, deformity or disease but also the activities which demand a high degree of coordination (Greaff & Fax, 2006).

RELEVANCE OF FITNESS (WHY WE EXERCISE TO KEEP FIT)

Some people may claim that they do not take regular exercise but yet fit. But if there are forced by circumstances to run a short distance to catch a train or rescue a child in danger, they begin to gasp for breath. They possess what is referred to as static or medical fitness (Copper, 2008).

1. Exercise is important in maintaining as well as developing physical and mental fitness. Habitual exercise prolongs life and gives some protection against the diseases with a too much dormant or sedentary existence. There include obesity, diabetes, back ache, due to poor muscle tone, constipation, varicose vein and coronary heart diseases which are common and tend to be more severe in inactive individuals (Sloan, 2004).
2. Physical fitness is a dynamic process. It is not stored up like food or money. It has to be developed, renewed and maintained by regular exercises throughout life (Sloan, 2004).
3. Muscles are not like machines which wear out by use instead, they become more efficient with use. Regular exercise especially aerobics are the activities which keep all the types of principal muscles efficiency.
4. Physical fitness is more important to the community as well as to the individual. Many everyday tasks in agriculture and industry demand a high standard of fitness and even light work is performed more

- efficiently, other things being equal, by someone who is physically fit.
5. In war, even more than in peace, the survival of a nation may depend on the physical fitness of its citizens. Modern war in spite of mechanization imposes severe physical and intellectual strain on members of the armed forces. If both opposing forces are equipped with modern weapons, the deciding factor may be the endurance of the fighting men. In the time in which we are living now, a nation may be called upon at short notice to defend itself against aggression and its men and women should be physically fit for this service.
 6. The physical fitness of the children is the basics of physical fitness of the community. Appropriate physical activities in childhood develops the muscles, promotes good posture, improves neuro-muscular coordination and increases the capacity of the circulatory and respiratory systems to deal with the demands of muscular and intellectual exercises (Sloan, 2004).
 7. Physical fitness has become a basic requirement for certain employments in many countries. Recruitment into the Armed Forces and the Police, para-military, youths and sports centres, FIFA referees etc. requires a certain degree of fitness. Development of fitness standards for employment must comply with the bonafide occupational requirement guidelines (Thomson, 2004).
 8. Cardiovascular fitness (the heart and the blood vessels) is considered by most exercise physiologists as the major physiological indicators for overall fitness and power (Martin & Dodds, 2003).

From the above literature on physical and mental fitness, it is crystal clear that the development and maintenance of physical and mental fitness of pupils and students is a responsibility of the school. The school administrators must spare no iota of their strength in seeing that the pupils and students in their schools have a well developed and maintain physical and mental fitness through regular graded physical education programmes throughout the course of their educational career.

Teaching in the primary schools is in “unit”, in that every teacher teaches all the subjects on the time table including physical education to the pupils in his or her class. There is no serious specialization at that level, the classroom teacher does not need to be an athletic champion or a professional in basketball, football, handball, volleyball, and so on in order to teach physical education at this level. There have been excellent physical education teachers in the primary schools who could not perform themselves but because they know the importance of physical exercise to the development and maintenance of the fitness of the pupils, they made possible for the pupils to have graded regular exercises.

After-all, the teaching of physical education in the primary schools is more of organization than the actual teaching of skills. Besides, skills at this level are taught indirectly in the form of lead-up-games. Once the teachers have mastered the principles of organizing these games, they can administer them with every little instruction and without most personal demonstrations.

In many countries in Africa today, teachers in training colleges are taught how to teach some simple physical exercises to the pupils and how to organize some lead-up games. As far back as the forties and the fifties, classroom teachers were able to drill, teach physical education to the pupils from 8:05 to 8:45 am three to four mornings in a week. They also organized some games for pupils in the afternoon after school. All these, the morning drills for every pupil and the games in the afternoons contributed tremendously to the development and the maintenance of the physical and intellectual fitness of the pupils (Ntui, 2006).

What has happened to the classroom teachers of today? There is a lot of laissez-fair in most of our primary schools today. Some school administrators do not care to see that all the subjects on the school time table are given equal attention. Many school administrators and teachers do not know that all school pupils need physical as well as mental fitness in order to study well at school. The physical and mental fitness of our pupils is down to first rung of the physical fitness ladder.

The capacity to perform our daily physical and intellectual tasks without limitations imposed by poor function of any of the systems of the body, may be defined as a state of health in which active physical and intellectual exercise can be undertaken efficiently without undue fatigue and with a sense of well being. Akintunde (2004) said physical fitness is something individuals need, being an athlete or non-athlete notwithstanding. To him, fitness include those qualities or functions that provide the individual with what is necessary for his or her participation in sporting activities or daily work with great skills, great power and those aspects which enable one to have endurance, strength, stamina, muscular endurance, cardio-respiratory endurance, flexibility, coordination, speed, motor skills, and other desirable physical qualities such as freedom from obesity which are best developed through vigorous activities.

CATEGORIES OF FITNESS

According to Ntui (2006), physical fitness may be considered in three categories: medical, static or passive; functional, dynamic or endurance and motor skills fitness.

- a. **Medical, static or passive fitness:** Freedom from deformity or disease is ascertained by routine medical examination which should be performed by a qualified medical practitioner. There are degrees

of fitness in this category as in others. Weak muscles, a feeble acting heart, or a rather low concentration of hemoglobin in the blood make the individual less fit though not necessarily diseased. There is nothing wrong with him-not yet, rather there is nothing really right with him either. If he is likely he can coast like that for years, but without any activity, his body is essentially deteriorating (Copper, 2008).

- b. **Functional, dynamic or endurance fitness:** A person is functionally physically fit if he possesses the ability to carry out his daily physical and intellectual tasks without undue fatigue and still has an ample reserved energy to enjoy leisure time activities and meet unforeseen emergencies (Sloan, 2004). Here it is a relative term. An athlete may be fit for high jump but not fit for distance run. Particular situations in life require particular fitness. There is a fitness of an old man at the age of seventy (70) who is a farmer; there is the fitness of a market woman who carried her wares on her head and travels 5km to the market; there is the fitness of a student, a teacher, a tutor; there is the fitness of an Olympic athlete; there is the fitness of the pilot who flies the supersonic air craft, etc. In this type of fitness, the question can be asked “fitness for what”? The answer may be started thus: As long as you possess the fitness for performing your daily physical and intellectual tasks without undue fatigue at the end of the day, you are physically and intellectually fit (Muten, 2004).
- c. **Motor skills fitness:** Fitness for particular skills depends on neuro-muscular co-ordination and on the strength of particular muscles group. The co-ordination of groups of muscles to perform purposive movements is achieved by the nervous system and improves the practice. Motor skill fitness is important in all.

Ntui (2005) opined that some pupils by virtue of their intrinsic love for play organize some internal games within the school premises during break time on their own without the assistance of any teacher. It is this type of informal fitness of some pupils even to the first rung of the physical fitness ladder. He concluded that we cannot say anything much about the motor skills of our pupils today, very little or nothing is taught to pupils in most schools today in the form of basic or special skills in athletics, football, handball or other games practically.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To sum up, let us note that physical and mental fitness are primordial qualities in the child which must receive the attention of teachers and school administrators at a very early age if we are aspiring to the optimum development of the pupils we teach. No iota of our energy should be spared in trying to develop and maintain high level of physical and mental development of our pupils. We cannot do this simply by teaching them in the classroom theoretically how to develop and maintain physical and mental fitness. Physical and mental fitness can be developed and maintained only through regular and graded physical education programmes. We must therefore make an effort to give our pupils regular graded physical exercises even if we ourselves cannot perform, but we must learn how to teach physical exercise practically and to organize some lead-up games. If we cannot do this, then we are failing in our task of giving the pupils all round education.

REFERENCES

- Arnold, C. B. (2003). Exercise, training and red blood cell turnover. *Journal of Sports Medicine* Vol. 19, (1) 18-32.
- Akintunde, P. G. (2004). Principles and practice of physical fitness. Calabar: University of Calabar Press.
- Copper, K. K. (2008). Aerobics. Hong Kong: Bantam Books.
- March, H. W. (2008). Physical fitness and self concepts: relations of physical fitness to field and field technical indications for boys and girls aged 9-15. *Journal of Sports and Exercises Psychology*. 2(4) 84-98
- Martin, S. K., Dodds, D. (2003). Physical fitness for children with mental retardation. *Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness* 3(9) 43-58.
- Muten, E. A. (2004). Sports physiology: The construction of physical fitness programme. Ibadan: Denben Publishers.
- Ntui, E. P (2005). The scientific basis of sports training. Calabar: Ushie Printing and Publishing Company Limited.
- Ntui, E. P (2006). Aerobics and prolong intensive studies. Calabar: Ushie Printing and Publishing Company Limited.
- Perrol, W. H. (2006). Physical activities on aerobic fitness of children. *Journal of Sports Medicine and Physical Fitness*. 19(1) 9-24.
- Sloan, A. W. (2004). Physiology for students and teachers of physical education. Bamenda, Atlantic Press.
- Thomson, M. (2004). Development of physical fitness standards for Canadian children. *Canadian Journal of Applied Physiology* 5(12) 113-126.

Hawking of Medicinal Drugs: The Perspective of the Ghanaian Consumer

Edem Maxwell Azila-Gbetor¹, Eli Ayawo Atatsi², Evelyn Delali Adigbo³

1. Department of Accountancy, Ho Polytechnic, Ho, Ghana

2. Department of Liberal Studies, Ho Polytechnic, Ho, Ghana

3. Department of Marketing, Takoradi Polytechnic, Takoradi, Ghana

*Corresponding Author Email: mymaxz@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study sought to lay bare, whether there was a high patronage for vended drugs and why, assess their quality and associated risks. An exploratory analysis was applied for the study. Structured interviews were completed by nine hundred and eighty three (983) respondents, selected using convenience sampling techniques from eighteen (18) bus terminals and along two (2) streets. Conclusively, the study revealed high patronage of vended drugs most especially herbal medicine. For most respondents (consumers), the quality of herbal medicine was rated higher compared to over the counter (OTC) and prescription drugs. The study further indicated a strong link between the factors evaluated and patronization of vended drugs. It is thereby recommended that the state must play an active role in resourcing the mandated institutions to eliminate the proliferation of the activities of the drug hawkers.

Keywords: Hawked Drugs, Herbal Medicine, Over the Counter Medicine, Prescription Medicine

1. Introduction

Street vending or hawking is a universal and mounting urban menace in West Africa (Tinker, 2003). It forms an integral and important part of the informal economic sector of West African Countries. Hawking is highly patronized because it provides affordable services to low income families, since it often supplies products by the item instead of in bulk (Davis, 2008). In Ghana, hawking can be found in all major cities and covers almost all products including pharmaceutical goods. Anyone can buy drugs from street hawkers in bus terminals and along the streets without a doctor's prescription or pharmacist's assistance, but by the untutored vendor's suggestions as to its dosage and side effects.

This phenomenon raises consumer health safety questions in the era where "production and distribution of counterfeit medications has become a significant global public health issue" (Law and Youmans, 2011:114). A study by World Health Organization cited by Law and Youmans (2011) indicates 771 reports of counterfeit medications between 1984 and 1999, of which 78% originated in developing countries. Furthermore, the Center for Medicines in Public Interest estimates that 2010 global counterfeit profits will be \$75 billion, a 92% increase from 2005. The majority of the studies conducted in developing countries in order to determine the prevalence of medicine counterfeiting show that about half of the drugs tested were sub-standard (Bate and Hess, 2010; Milissa McGinnis, 2010 ; Oforo-Kwakye et al., 2008).

Besides, studies into vended drugs in developing countries show that large proportions of the drugs are of low quality (Arya, 1995). This is partly because these drugs are constantly exposed to dust, the sun, and changes in the weather. Additionally, majority of instructions and information on these drugs are written in foreign languages, making it difficult for both vendors and consumers to read and understand the characters and the accompanying leaflets, if any, are likewise illegible to the consumers. The effects of these low quality drugs include treatment failure (Roy, 1994; Abdi et al., 1995; Arya, 1995; Kron, 1996) and serious damage to the patients' health or even death. (Milan, 1987; Pandya, 1988; Masland and Marshall, 1990; Silveman et al., 1990; Okuonghae et al., 1992; Ogoh Alubo, 1994).

The Pharmacy Act of Ghana (ACT 489) 1994 regulates the supply, distribution and sale of medicines that are duly registered by the Pharmacists Council and Food and Drugs Authority of Ghana. This act clearly prohibits the display, distribution and sale of all categories of medicines in unregistered outlets. Despite the stated Act, proliferation of pharmacy shops and license chemical stores, implementation of National Health Insurance Scheme which provide consumers with affordable healthcare and the continuous publicity on the dangers associated with the patronage of these drugs by mandated authorities, it is still public knowledge that majority of Ghanaians continue to patronize drugs peddled at bus terminals and along major streets. Ironically, citizens believe nothing concrete is being done to eradicate the problem by the authorities and no attention is given to why consumers still frequent street vended drugs. Additionally, much of the information on the hawking or street vending of medicines is published in the grey literature such as in newspapers and internet articles instead of scientific literature, suggesting significant under reporting or a lack of properly designed studies.

The focus of this paper is to explore the reasons why there is high support for street drug vending in Ghana and its causes, if such is the case despite good public medical support from the state.

2. Methodology

Two (2) main lorry stations and their associated busy streets within the Ho municipality were used for the study. The terminal was used because it serves as an avenue where all major activities concerning drug vending are carried out. The street considered ranks among the busiest with heavy traffic inflow to and from Ho throughout the day.

This study is an exploratory one aimed at investigating the types and reasons of high patronization of hawked or street vended pharmaceutical drugs. The researchers chose this design as the field of study is fairly unexploited, especially in the Ghanaian context. Our choice of design is based on the proposition of (Philips and Pugh, 1987; Webb, 1992; Ghauri et al., 1995) that exploratory research is most useful in the preliminary stages of a research project when the levels of uncertainty and of general ignorance of the subject in question are at their highest, and when the problem is not very well understood and unstructured.

The researchers employed convenience sampling technique to select one thousand two hundred (1,200) adults samples (18yrs +) for the study. This approach is to help the researchers select the most accessible subjects and it is least costly in terms of time and effort (Oisín, 2007; Marshall, 1996) since the target population is infinite.

A structured interview was the main instrument used to collect data from the respondents for the study. The questions have fixed responses or predetermined alternatives which help in simple administration and data consistency (Malhotra and Birks, 2003) and to enable quick responses and less writing. The closed ended questionnaire was designed to establish demographic profile (age, gender, employment type, income level and educational level) of respondents, assessment of the type of vended drug purchased, awareness and type of risk associated with patronizing vended drugs. Rating of quality of drugs and factors influencing consumers decision to purchase vended drugs were evaluated on a five (5) point item Likert scale (1= very good/strongly agree; 2= good/agree; 3= neutral; 4= bad/disagree; 5=very bad/strongly disagree). The likert format was used to determine attitudes in case of influencing factors and experiences in quality assessment of consumers (Shaw and Pieter, 2000). The questionnaires were administered in five (5) sections - Monday to Friday covering fifty (50) questionnaires per each of the twenty-four (24) trained research assistants between 6th-10th January 2014, designated at eighteen (18) lorry terminals and two (2) streets. The research assistants abetted in the administration of the questionnaires and more importantly helped to interpret the questions in the local language and record the responses by checklist. To restrict a respondent to participate once in the study, respondents were identified with a particular code given to them by the research assistants during their first participation or interaction. A total of 983 questionnaires were used after editing, giving a response rate of 84.69%. The unusable questionnaires were mainly caused by poor interpretation of questionnaire by research assistants to respondents. The SPSS statistical package was used for data input and results were analyzed using descriptive statistics and are expressed as numbers and percentages.

3. Results

Table 1 below measures the demographic distribution of respondents. Out of the 983 questionnaires utilized for this study, 573 (58.3%) are males and 410 (41.7%) are females. Furthermore, 659 (67.0%) of the respondents are aged between 18yrs to 45yrs, 251 (25.5%) are aged between 46yrs and 60yrs and 73 (7.45) are aged above 61yrs. In examining respondents type of employment, the finding indicates that majority of them are self-employed; 482 (49.0%), 273 (27.8%) are employed in the government sector and the remaining 228 (23.2%) are employed in the private sector. For income levels per month, 617 (62.8%) of the respondents earn incomes less than or equal to Ghc 500.00 (\$199.00), 229 (23.3%) earn between Ghc 501.00 and Ghc 999.00 (\$200.00 and \$399.00) and 137 (13.9%) earn incomes above Ghc1,000.00 (\$400.00). On the respondents level of education, majority hold SSCE/WASSCE/GCE "O&A" Level certificate (384; 39.1%), followed by Diploma (243; 24.7%), undergraduate (131; 13.3%), postgraduate (87; 8.9%). Other qualifications cater for the remaining 138 (14.0%).

Table 1: Respondents Characteristics

Gender	Freq	Percent	Age	Freq	Percent
Male	573	58.3	18yrs -45yrs	659	67.0
Female	410	41.7	46yrs -60yrs	251	25.5
Total	983	100	61yrs above	73	7.4
				983	100

Type of Employment	Freq	Percent	Level of Income per month	Freq	Percent
Self-Employment	482	49.0	≤ Ghc500	617	62.8
Government Sector Employment	273	27.8	B/n Ghc 501 and 999	229	23.3
Private Sector Employment	228	23.2	Above Ghc 1000	137	13.9
	983	100		983	100

Level of Education	Freq	Percent
SSCE/WASSCE/GCE "O&A" Level	384	39.1
Higher National Diploma	243	24.7
Undergraduate	131	13.3
Postgraduate	87	8.9
Others	138	14.0
	983	100

Source: *Field Survey* 6th-10th January 2014

Table 2 below evaluates whether the respondents have ever patronized vended drug, the type of vended medicine patronized, assessment of the quality of the drug, their awareness of the risks associated with the purchasing and intake of vended drugs and the type of risk.

A 'direct question' approach asked respondents if they have purchased vended pharmaceutical drugs before. Of the 983 questionnaires utilized, majority of the respondents, 734 (74.7%) indicated yes and the remaining 249 (25.3%) indicated no. For those who suggested "no" an open - ended question was asked to elicit their reason(s) for not patronizing vended drugs. A summary of their responses show that 15.7% indicated sellers are deceitful; 7.2% indicated because those medicines are not prescribed for them by doctors; 32.3% indicated vended medicines are harmful; 27.2% indicated they are faked; 14.2% indicated majority are expired drugs and the remaining 3.4% gave no reason.

Table 2: Whether Respondents Ever Purchased Vended Medicine, Type of Medicine Purchased, Assessment of the Quality of Medicine Purchased, and Types of Risk Associated with its usage

Ever Patronized or Purchased Vended Drug			Types of Medicine Respondents have ever Purchased		
	Freq	Percent		Freq	Percent
Yes	734	74.7	Over the Counter Drugs	196	26.7
No	249	25.3	Prescription Drugs	199	27.1
Total	983	100	Herbal Medicine	251	34.2
			Other Combinations	88	12.0
				734	100

Assessment of Quality of Drug Purchased after Usage	Very good	Good	Neutral	Bad	Very Bad
Over the Counter Drugs	5.1	2.1	0.3	6.8	13.1
Prescription Drugs	2.1	1.7	0	11.4	12.3
Herbal Medicine	25.5	9.1	1.3	2.6	-
Other Combinations	0.5	2.4	1.1	2.5	0.1
Total	33.2	15.3	2.7	23.3	25.5

Awareness of Risks Associated with Purchased Vended Drugs			Type of Risks Associated with Vended Drugs		
	Freq	Percent		Freq	Percent
Yes	648	88.4	Treatment Failure	258	39.4
No	85	11.6	Damage to the Patients' Health	249	38.0
Total	743	100	Death	63	9.6
			Other Combinations	85	13.0
				743	100

Source: *Field Survey* 6th-10th January 2014

In assessing the type of drugs purchased, those who answered 'no' were routed out from further participation in the study; those who said, 'yes' were asked to continue answering questions. For respondents who purchased vended drugs, 251 (34.2%) go for herbal medicine, 199 (27.1) patronized prescription drugs, 196 (26.7%) purchased over the counter and the remaining 88 (12.0%) patronized a combination of two or three drugs. In addition, the study shows that patronage of herbal medicine is high for all data analyzed for within demographic data of respondents. Thus 31.8% for 18years -45years; 35.3% for between 46 years and 60 years and 50.0% for

61 years above for age of respondents. This shows a cumulative 33.0% of males as compared to 35.7% of females for gender of respondents. Furthermore, 33.0% of self-employed, 30.7% of respondents in government sector employment and 30.1% of respondents in private sector employment in the case of employment type. Likewise, 34.4%, 33.0% and 35.5% of respondents that earned less than Ghc 500.00, between Ghc 501.00 and Ghc 999.00 and Ghc 1,000.00 and above respectively patronized vended herbal drugs. In the same way 33.8%, 30.6%, 30.4% and 32.4% of respondents are qualified SSCE/WASSCE/GCE “O&A” level, Higher National Diploma graduates, undergraduates and post graduates respectively patronized vended herbal drugs. More analysis for percentage within type of vended drugs respondents have ever purchase, indicated for age of respondents, patronage decreased with increase in age for all category of drugs. Similarly, for level of income, and level of education, patronage decreases with an increase in income, and increasing level of educational attainment for all categories of drugs analyzed respectively. Likewise for type of employment, patronage decreases from self-employment to private sector employment.

In further assessing the quality of the vended drugs purchased, equal or proportionate number of respondents, 48.5% and 48.8% rated them to be good and very good, and bad and very bad respectively. Decomposing the quality of assessment based on specific drug, of the overall 33.2% who assessed the vended drugs to be very good, majority, 25.5% (very good) and 9.1% (good) patronized herbal medicine. Additionally, majority of the respondents who patronized over the counter and prescription drugs rated them either bad (OC-6.8% and PD-11.4%) or very bad (OC-13.1% and PD-12.3%)

Results on awareness of risks associated with purchasing vended drugs suggest 648 (88.4%) are conscious of the risks. Of the type of risk, 258 (39.4%) indicated treatment failure; 249 (38.0%) indicated damage to patience health; 63 (9.6%) indicated death and the remaining 85 (13%) indicated combination of two or three types of risks.

A five point Likert scale to examine how strongly respondents agree or disagree with statements on factors that influence their decision to purchase vended medicine is analyzed in table 3 below. It is significant to note that majority of the respondents were of the view that the factors listed have major effects on their decision to patronize vended drugs. The factors and their score include the following: time spent at hospitals or pharmacies (85.9%); level of information dissemination by authorities (66.6%); accessibility of healthcare facility and shops (52.4%); cost of medical delivery (64.6%) and weak institutions and regulations (75.8%). However, 70.4% of the respondents disagreed that their level of education have influence on their decision to purchase vended drugs. Equally, 54.8% also disagreed that they are not influenced by inability of doctors to prescribe medicines for them.

Table 3: Factor Influencing the Patronage of Vended Medicine

Factors	Responses In Percentage				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
Time spent at hospitals and pharmacies	58.1	27.8	-	10	4.1
Level of Education	15.7	9.6	4.3	50.2	20.2
Level of Information Dissemination by authorities	37.7	28.9	-	33.4	-
Accessibility of healthcare facility and shops	36.1	16.3	5.6	22.7	19.3
Cost of medical delivery	45.4	19.2	2.1	22.2	11.1
Weak institutions and regulations	31.7	44.1	0.2	9.4	14.6
Cannot access high quality drugs unless prescribed by a qualified doctor	29.3	8.3	7.6	31.7	23.1

Source: *Field Survey* 6th-10th January 2014

SD– Strongly Disagree, *D* – Disagree, *N*– Neutral, *A*- Agree and *SA* – Strongly Agree

4. Conclusion and Discussion

There are few things in life that involve as much trust as buying pharmaceutical products along the streets or markets. Consequently, institutions have been established and public health laws, regulations and guidelines have been developed over the years to protect consumers of unhealthy practices. Street vendors are a big concern in Ghana though the laws of the state forbid hawking of pharmaceutical products. However, the practice of drugs peddling is reckoned to be high in the country and citizens believe nothing concrete is being done to eradicate the problem, by the authorities and there is no attention given to reasons why consumers still patronize street vended drugs. This study sought to demonstrate, why there is a high demand for vended drugs, assess their quality and the causal factors.

The high numbers of respondents thus 74.7% who patronized street vended drugs suggest that hawking of medicines remain pervasive despite its prohibition by relevant laws. This implies that majority of respondents are engaged in self-medication, therefore exposed to consumption of counterfeited, poor quality drugs and are possibly unprotected from abuse and addiction, and other associated effects. The problem with self-medication is either the drug seller or the consumer is unaware of the correct dosage and duration of treatment (Okeke et al, 2006). The freedom in which drug vending and patronage takes place also suggests a strong and successful

bonding between vendors and the consuming population. The bonding appeared strong enough for consumers to patronize and trust the vendors for their medicinal needs without as much as ascertaining their capability and competency to discharge the trust appropriately (Yusuff and Wassi, 2011). The effortlessness consumers go through in getting these drugs also suggest that government has been benevolent towards the drug vendors and is not supporting the regulatory agencies that are fighting against this malaise.

Furthermore, the study reveals that the most patronized drug is herbal medicine when comparison is made for responses within demographic data. This observable fact is not surprising since a study by Grünwald (1995) has validated global public interest and rise in natural therapies, namely herbal medicine in both developing and industrialized countries. This occurrence can be narrowed down to tendency of self-medication, high cost of synthetic medicines, proof of efficacy and safety of herbal medicines, and most importantly the belief that herbal medicines might be of effective benefit in the treatment of certain diseases where conventional therapies and medicines have proven to be inadequate (Grünwald, 1995 in Calixto, 2000). It is however, significant to note that the preference for herbal medicine in Ghana is worrisome since most of the medicines have not undergone clinical tests to authenticate their safety. Again, the quality of these medicines cannot be guaranteed given that nobody is aware of the procedures engaged by the producers. Likewise, the legal process of regulation and legislation of herbal medicines in Ghana is continuously flaunted by those who engage in the production, and only few herbal preparations have been tested for safety and efficacy.

The findings also reveal that patronage for all categories of drugs assessed for within type of drug show a decrease in quantity as there is an improvement in respondent demographic data. These results are very significant in view of direct relations between higher level of education and level of income. "Early philosophers such as Aristotle and Plato pointed out that education is central to the moral fulfillment of individuals and the well-being of the society in which they live" (OECD 2013: 1). In the past few decades, research has supported this conventional wisdom, revealing that education not only enables individuals to perform better in the labour market, but also helps to improve their overall health. According to Greenstone and Looney (2010) higher levels of education do result in higher earning power. The analysis above presents evidence on the relationship between education and social outcomes including health. This directly affects consumers' tendency to purchase vended drugs since they cannot afford the expensive drugs due to higher purchasing power at their disposal. Finding from Chan et al (2003) indicates that low-income/education among Asian patients had a high direct relationship between the type and costly drug interventions. The finding of the research seems to be consistent with the work of (Chan et al, 2011).

According to Nordberg (2004) consumers' lack of knowledge on drug quality make them vulnerable to the business interest of drug sellers. In assessing the quality of drugs purchased, a high majority of respondents who purchased herbal medicine evaluate them to be either good or very good which is consistent with the findings of (Mhame et al., 2010; Kasilo et al., 2010; Sambo 2010), in papers delivered during the African traditional medicine day in August 2010.

A study on over the counter and prescription drugs found in places such as the streets and open markets may be of lower quality since they are often not well regulated; for instance, low level providers (patent medicine vendors) accounted for 78% of suspect medicines in Onwujekwe et al. (2009) and 90% of medicines found to be substandard in Tipke et al. (2009) were obtained from illicit outlets (markets, street vendors and shops). The findings from the study supported the above assertion since majority of respondents who purchased over the counter or unprescriptive drugs evaluate them to be either bad or very bad. This finding also concur with the work of (Bate and Hess, 2010; Oforo-Kwakye et al, 2008).

Increasing consumer awareness of the need to consider potential risks prior to taking drugs purchased on the streets is a positive sign. This is revealed by 88.4% of the respondents who indicated they are aware of the associated risks for purchasing drugs along the streets. Equal proportion of the respondents further indicated treatment failure and damage to patients' health as the main risk which is also consistent with the work of (Roy, 1994; Abdi et al. 1995; Milan, 1987; Pandya 1988; Masland and Marshall, 1990)

Lastly, in the consideration of factors that influence consumers to patronize vended drugs, the studies reveal that in the exception of respondent's level of education and inability of doctors to prescribe medicines for them to purchase vended drugs, all other factors are significant.

We conclude that Ghana is vulnerable to increasing activities of drug hawking and its attendant effects not principally because of the pronounced penchant to patronize these drugs, but because the safeguards or factors that could plausibly protect the societies from these problems are rarely in evidence. There is a long way to go in ensuring a zero tolerance to this illegitimate activity. Government and responsible agencies must be a step ahead of the players in this market in order to make any significant influence. It is without a doubt from the study that both economic and social factors are aggravating the unlawful trend; they are no more momentous than the political will and influence of government to play its role as the arbiter of law and order. The state must therefore reform, resource and support the institutions mandated to protect consumers. This would go far towards nurturing a more robust capability to contain the illicit activity.

5. Limitation

This study is limited in that; it is localized to consumers in a specific area. A generalization of results is a challenge. Further study which covers a wider area and more heterogeneous sample is recommended.

References

- Abdi, Y.A., Rimoy, G. Ericsson, O. Alm, C and Massele, A.Y. (1995), Quality of Chloroquine Preparations Marketed in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. *The Lancet* 346, 1161
- Arya, S. C. (1995) Inadvertent Supply of Substandard Drugs. *World Health Forum* 16, 269
- Bate, R. and Hess, K (2010), Anti-malarial Drug Quality in Lagos and Accra-a comparison of various drug quality assessments. Available at <http://fightingmalaria.org/research.aspx?id=1456>. Accessed on 10/01/2014
- Calixto, J. B. (2000), Efficacy, Safety, Quality Control, Marketing and Regulatory Guidelines for Herbal Medicines. *Brazilian Journal of Medical and Biological Research*, 33(2): 179-189
- Chan, W.M., Mak, J and Epstein, R. J (2011), Impact of Income and Education on Drug Purchasing Decisions in Hong Kong Chinese Cancer Patients: A Pilot Study. *Asian Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention*, 12(8): 2093-2096
- Davis, J. (2008), Selling Wares on the Streets of Accra: A Case Study of Street Hawkers in Ghana's Capital. *Focus on Geography*, 51(3):32-36
- Ghuri, P., Grønhaug, K and Kristianslund, I (1995), *Research Methods in Business Studies - A Practical Guide*, Prentice Hall, Harlow, Essex, UK.
- Greenstone, M. and Adam, L (2010), An Economic Strategy to Renew American Communities the Hamilton Project, Strategy Paper. <http://www.economics.mit.edu> (Accessed 10/01/2014)
- Grünwald, J. (1995), The European Phytomedicines Market: Figures, Trends, Analysis. *Herbal Gram*, 34: 60-65.
- Kasilo, O.M.J, Trapsida, J.M., Mwikisa,N.C and Lusamba-Dikassa,P.S (2010), An Overview of the Traditional Medicine Situation in the African Region, *The African Health Monitor*, World Health Organization Special issue 14 pp. 7-15
- Kron, M. A (1996), Substandard Primaquine Phosphate for US Peace Corps Personnel. *Lancet* 348, 1453–1454
- Law, E. and Youmans, L.S (2010), Combating Counterfeit Medications: The California Pharmacist Perspective. *Journal of Pharmacy Practice*, 24 (1): 114-121
- Malhotra, N. K., and Birks, D.F (2003), *Marketing Research: An Applied Approach*. Prentice Hall, Harlow.
- Marshall, M. N. (1996), Sampling For Qualitative Research. *Family Practice*, 13(6): 522-525
- Masland, T and Marshall, R (1990), The Pill Pirates. *Newsweek*, 5 November, 18–23
- Mhame, P.P., Busia, K and Kasilo, O.M.J (2010), Clinical Practices of African Traditional Medicine, *The African Health Monitor*, World Health Organization Special issue 14 pp. 32-39
- Milan, M. M. (1987), Doctors Blame Fake Medicines for Deaths. *The Sunday Times*, 1 November, 15
- Milissa McGinnis, M. A. (2010), Matrix of Medicine Quality Reports Affecting USAID-assisted Countries by the Promoting the Quality of Medicines program. Available at <http://www.usp.org/pdf/EN/dqi/ghcDrugQualityMatrix.pdf>. (Accessed 08/01/2014)
- Nordberg, B. (2004), Consumers and providers-could they make better use of antibiotics?http://soapimg.icecube.snowfall.se/stoppresistance/consumers_and_providers. (Accessed 08/01/2014)
- OECD (2013), What are the social benefits of education? *Education Indicators in Focus* <http://www.oecd.org/edu/skills-beyond-school> (Accessed 10/01/2014)
- Ofori-Kwakye, K., Asantewaa, Y and Gaye, O (2008), Quality of Artesunate Tablets Sold in Pharmacies in Kumasi, Ghana. *Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, 7 (4): 1179-1184
- Ogoh Alubo, S. (1994), Death for Sale: A Study of Drug Poisoning and Deaths in Nigeria. *Social Science and Medicine*, 38(1): 97–103
- Oisín, T. (2007), Process Tracing and Elite Interviewing: A Case for Non-Probability Sampling. *Cambridge Journal Online*, 4, 765-772.
- Okeke T.A, Uzochukwu, B and Okafor, H (2006), An In-Depth Study of Patent Medicine Seller's Perspectives on Malaria in Rural Nigeria Community. *Malaria Journal in Pubmed Central*, vol. 5: 97
- Okuonghae, H.O., Ighogboja, I.S., Lawson, J.O and Nwana, E.J.C (1992), Diethylene Glycolpoisoning in Nigerian Children. *Annals of Tropical Paediatrics*, 12(3): 235–238
- Onwujekwe, O., Kaur, H., Dike, N., Shu, E., Uzochukwu, B., Hanson, K., Okoye, V and Okonkwo, P (2009), Quality of Anti-Malarial Drugs Provided By Public and Private Healthcare Providers in South-East Nigeria. *Malaria Journal*; 8 (22): 1-9
- Pandya, S.K (1988), An Unmitigated Tragedy. *British Medical Journal* 297, 117–119
- Phillips, E. and Pugh, D (1987), *How to get a PhD*, Open University Press
- Roy, J. (1994), The Menace of Substandard Drugs. *World Health Forum* 15, 406-407
- Sambo, L.G., (2010), The Decade of African Traditional Medicine: Progress So Far, *The African Health Monitor*, World Health Organization Special issue 14 pp. 4-6

- Shaw, G. and Pieter, W (2000), The Use of Asynchronous Learning Networks in Nutrition Education: Student Attitude, Experiences and Performance. Accessed [17. 12.13].
- Silverman, M.M., Lydecker, M and Lee, P.R (1990), The Drug Swindlers. *International Journal of Health Services*, 20, 561–572
- Tinker, I. (2003), Street Foods: Traditional Micro-Enterprise in a Modernizing World. *International Journal of Politic, Culture and Society*, 16(3): 331–349.
- Tipke, M., Diallo, S., Coulibaly, B., Störzinger, D., Hoppe-Tichy, T., Sie, A and Müller, O (2009), Substandard Anti-Malarial Drugs in Burkina Faso. *Malaria Journal* 7: 95
- Webb, J. (1992), Understanding and Designing Marketing Research. The Dryden Press, London

Hectrage Response of Some Selected Cereal Crops to Price and Non-Price Factors in Nigeria (1983-2008).

Tahir, Hussaini. Mairiga

Department of Economics, Faculty of Social and Management Sciences, Bauchi State University, Gadau. Bauchi Campus, Bauchi. Bauchi State – Nigeria.
mairiga2013@gmail.com

Abstract

The Study aimed at estimating the hectrage response of maize and sorghum to changes in price and non-price factors in Nigeria between 1983 and 2008. Time series data in respect of weather index approximated by the national mean rainfall (millimeters), area harvested (hectares), producer price in local currency (Naira/ton), and the annual yield (Kg/hectare) of the selected cereal crops were obtained. Unit root tests, via Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) equation, were conducted on the data series to determine the stationary properties of hectrage, price, yield and mean rainfall. Estimation was carried out using the Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance Estimator. Results of maize response function showed that, own price and yield were significant at 10%, lagged hectrage was significant at 1%; while yield of sorghum was significant at 5%. On the other hand, results of sorghum response function showed that lagged hectrage was significant at 1%, while the yield of the crop, yield of maize and weather were significant at 5% level. The major trend in this study is that lagged dependent Variable(lagged hectrage) has been found to be a significant determinant of hectrage allocation in the cultivation of the crops studied; and yield, rather than price was more important in hectrage allocation decision of farmers in Nigeria. Efforts should be geared towards enhancing land management practices, expansion of cultivable land and accessibility to same by farmers to encourage cultivation of more land for increased crop productivity and achieving stable yields.

Keywords: Hectrage Response, Unit Root Test, Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance, Response Function.

1.0 Introduction

Agriculture has made a substantial contribution to the economic development of Nigeria especially in the sixties. As the mainstay of the economy, it employs 60% of Nigerians and used to be principal foreign exchange earner for the country. Major agricultural products include groundnuts, palm oil, cocoa, coconut, citrus, fruits, maize, millet, cassava, yams and sugar cane. Prior to exploration of oil in Nigeria in the seventies, agriculture contributed over 70% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ashinze and Onwioduokit, 1996). One of the most daunting ramifications of the discovery of oil was the decline of agricultural sector. So tragic was this neglect that Nigeria, which in the 1960's grew 98% of its own food and was a net exporter, now, imports much of the same cash crops it was formerly famous for as the biggest exporter. Petroleum now plays a large role in the Nigerian economy, accounting for 40% of the GDP (Search.com, 2010). In recent years, the growth of the agricultural sector has been unable to keep pace with the growing demand for food due to increase in the rate of population growth. This has led to a wide gap between domestic production and consumption, thus, giving rise to increase in the level of importation of food and industrial raw materials.

Prior to 1986, strong appreciation of the Naira eroded the competitiveness of Nigeria's agricultural exports and reduced the cost of food imports due to unfavourable macroeconomic policies, resulting in a predictable sharp decline in the quantity and value of agricultural exports, accompanied by a surge in food imports especially rice (NTWG, 2009). Report in 1983 indicated that about \$56.6 million and \$213.4 million worth of rice and wheat respectively, were imported (Haruna, 1995). The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) also asserts that the level of Nigeria's self sufficiency in cereals has been falling resulting in rapid growth in the amounts of cereals imports, especially rice imports, which increased 130 percent in 2001, over the previous five year average (FAO, 2001). However, these short term measures could not solve the problem of declined agricultural production in the long-run.

In line with the aforementioned circumstance, the federal government formulated policies and programmes aimed at reviving the agricultural sector. The policies were pursued through various means, such as subsidy on prices of improved seeds, fertilizers and agro-chemicals and provision of low interest credit to small-scale farmers among others. In the mid seventies and early eighties some new varieties, basically arable crops were extensively tested under field trials and were found to be responsive towards high doses of fertilizer and irrigation, yielding a significant output than the traditional varieties in vogue. The evolution and distribution of these varieties occurred under the aegis of different programmes such as the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), Green Revolution, National Accelerated Food Production Programme (NAFPP) and Integrated Agricultural

Development Programmes (ADPs) (Haruna, 2002). To complement these measures, more areas of land were cultivated for increased production of arable crops. These efforts led to tremendous increase in output (Nkonya *et al*, 2010).

In most of the sub-Saharan African countries, the prime role of the agricultural sector in the provision of adequate foodstuff is drastically declining over the years. Due to critical supply shortages, food prices have risen considerably over the years. In Nigeria, the problem had been aggravated by rising costs of farm inputs precipitated by the depreciation of the exchange rate, and the associated general increase in the costs of living and commodity prices due to the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in the country (Philip *et al*, 2008). As a result of policy distortions and the increasing liberalization of the economy, particularly the withdrawal of government subsidy on major agricultural inputs such as fertilizer, sustained and successful arable crop production in Nigeria was directly and vigorously challenged by constraints of low yield per hectare, lack of adequate maintenance of established irrigation infrastructural facilities and non availability of production inputs at affordable prices.

It is also a known fact that, the nature of farmers' responses revolves around the ecology and economics of agricultural production, both of which are usually influenced by future occurrence whose probability distribution cannot be determined empirically or otherwise in advance. Furthermore, the necessity for making subjective forecast places a limit on distance into the future for which farmers and policy makers can plan in a meaningful manner (Tahir, 2012). All these influence the extent of policy formulation; and underscore the need for research into the field of supply responsiveness of farmers especially in the developing countries.

But, economic theory suggests that prices are important determinants of economic behavior and rational farmers should sufficiently react to changes in prices of output (Narain, 1965). And according to Moraes (2006), the expected signs of the estimated coefficients of variables are derived from simple logic. An increase in a crop's own price is expected to have positive impact on the crops acreage, while increases in the price of land competing crops are expected to have a negative impact on the crop's acreage. Hence, it is generally assumed that farmers behave rationally and react to circumstances in a way that maximizes their utility in the context of opportunities, incentives and risks as perceived by them (Nayarana and Parikh, 1981).

However, it is the view that farmers in less developed countries are not responsive to changes in relative prices and/or they are less responsive than those in the developed countries (Narain, 1965). And Mytilli (2006) asserts that there are many arguments to support the notion that farmers in less developed countries do not respond to economic incentives like price and income. Krishna, (1962); Narain, (1965); Askari and Cummings, (1976); and Gulati and Kelly, (1999) further assert that non-price factors seem to dominate over price factors in farmers' decision problem. Reasons cited for poor response varied factors such as constraints on irrigation, infrastructure e.t.c to lack of complementary agricultural policies (Mytilli, 2006). The poor performance of the agricultural sector in Nigeria has been ascribed to the existence of these constraints (Phillip *et al*, 2008); leading to the supposed irrational economic behavior of farmers which suggests that farmers do not take into account prices and incomes while allocating their limited resources to various competing crops or enterprises.

Empirical determination of the relationships that exist between output, quantities, resource use and prices remain the central focus for researchers in agricultural development. In view of the overriding need to enhance the level of agricultural productivity, particularly of food grains, in the face of increasing population, declining agricultural output and the supposed poor response of farmers to economic incentives (price and non price factors) in developing countries such as Nigeria; the importance of determining empirically quantitative relationships that provide estimates of changes in output, hectrage and yield associated with input use and in prices and vice visa cannot therefore be overemphasized (Tahir, 2012).

Maize, sorghum, cowpea, groundnut, yam and cassava are some of the most important staple arable crops produced in Nigeria. Annual output of these crops has been observed to increase over the years, and hectrage under their production still have great potentials for expansion with resultant increase in output (Nkonya *et al*, 2010). Also, farmers are expected to respond positively to changes in price and other economic incentives in allocating their limited resources among competing crops. In view of these, an analysis of the hectrage response of selected arable crops in Nigeria was undertaken to verify such assertion, based on agricultural productivity and other economic parameters.

The main objective of the study therefore, is to examine the hectrage response of the selected arable crops i. e. maize and sorghum to price and non-price factors in Nigeria between 1983 and 2008.

2.0 Methodology

2.1 The Area of Study

Nigeria is located in West Africa and shares land borders with the Republic of Benin in the West, Chad and Cameroon in the East and Niger in the North. Its coast lies on the Gulf of Guinea part of the Atlantic Ocean in the South; along the coast of West Africa between latitude 4⁰ and 14⁰N and longitude 3⁰ and 15⁰E (Obasi, 2006). Nigeria is a physically and climatically diverse country. It encompasses three major ecological regions, a humid

forest region, a sub-humid region and semi-arid region, with annual rainfall ranging from about 250mm in the Sahelian North to over 3000mm in the Southern Coastal areas. The natural vegetation varies from rain forest to savanna. The natural and physical climate diversity permits the growth of a wide variety of crops. There is also substantial inland water resource. According to the 2006 National Population Census, Nigeria is the most populous country in sub-Saharan Africa with a population of 140 million people (National Population Commission, 2006) growing at a fast pace of 3.2% per annum. The population is characterized by almost equal proportion of males and females, and rural-urban migration. Over 44% of the people are living below the poverty line, and 63% of the national population lives in rural areas. The life expectancy at birth was estimated at 51 years (UNICEF, 2010).

2.2 Scope of Study

The study covered the entire country and analyzed the hecfrage response of the selected cereal crops from 1983 to 2008 (26 years). Data (1983-2008) for the identified variables were obtained from the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) statistical database (FAOSTAT), and the Nigerian Metreological Agency (NIMET). Data in respect of weather index approximated by the national mean rainfall (millimeters), area harvested (hectares), producer price in local currency (Naira/ton), and the annual yield (kg/hectare) of the selected cereal crops covering the period of study were obtained.

2.3 Method of Data Analysis

A Combination of the distributed lag and Nerlovian supply response models was employed. The resulting Nerlovian dynamic adjustment model (NEDAL) was used to determine the supply responsiveness of farmers i.e. hecfrage allocation to supply shifters-lagged hecfrage, price, yield and rainfall.

A major problem which arises in any economic time series analysis concerns the non stationarity of the variables. Regressions involving non-stationary variables may result in spurious estimates. Following Szeto (2001) who noted that there are three solutions to the problem of spurious regression thus; (1) determine the stationarity of the variables before estimating (2) add the lagged value of the dependent variable as an independent variable (3) the cointegration approach; two approaches were employed by conducting unit root test; including the lagged dependent variable as an independent variable and estimating the regression equation with the Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance Estimator (HAC consistent covariance) using Statistical Software, E views 4.0.

Determining the stationarity of the variables of study involved testing the unit root in the variables to identify the order of integration of each single time series. This entailed performing an Augemented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test with and without deterministic trend using statistical software, E-views 4.0.

The procedure for the (ADF) test is as follows:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \beta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \ell_t \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \gamma t + \beta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \ell_t \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Where equations (1) and (2) above indicate ADF tests without trend and with trend, respectively. Thus, the ADF unit root test posits a null hypothesis $\beta=0$ versus an alternative hypothesis $\beta<0$ where the ADF statistics was compared with the Mackinnon criterion for rejecting null hypothesis.

The H_0 is rejected if the ADF statistic is greater than the critical values in absolute term.

Heteroskedasticity and Autocorrelation Consistent Covariance method or the HAC consistent covariance was used to estimate the regression equations. The method consists of the White heteroskedasticity and the Newey-West HAC consistent covariance estimators with each allowing for ordinary least squares estimation.

The Newey-West HAC consistent covariances estimation method was adopted in this study due to its robustness and inclusiveness in addressing autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity issues. The method is consistent in the presence of both heteroskedasticity and autocorrelation of unknown form and is given by:

$$\sum NW = \frac{T}{T-K} (X'X)^{-1} \hat{\pi} (X'X)^{-1} \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

Where

$$\hat{\pi} = \frac{T}{T-K} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^T U_t^2 x_t x_t' + \sum_{v=1}^q \left[\left(1 - \frac{v}{q-1} \right) \sum_{t=v+1}^T (x_t u_t u_{t-v} x_{t-v}' + x_{t-v} u_{t-v} u_t x_t') \right] \right\}$$

and q, the truncation lag, is a parameter representing the number of autocorrelations used in evaluating the dynamics of the OLS residuals, U_t .

Nerlove's partial adjustment and adaptive expectation model (1958) assumes that the area farmers desire to cultivate is a function of the expected price and some other important variables. Nerlove claims that farmers'

planting decision depends on the price they expect to receive when the crop is marketed. In turn, the actual price for the crop depends on the amount actually harvested as well as the current level of demand. Nerlove's model is basically characterized by both adaptive expectation and partial adjustment.

According to Patunru (1998) standard representation of the Nerlovian model is:

$$P_t^* = P_{t-1}^* + \beta(P_{t-1} - P_{t-1}^*) + U_t, 0 \leq \beta \leq 1 \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

$$X_t = X_{t-1} + \gamma(X_t^* - X_{t-1}) + V_t, 0 \leq \gamma \dots\dots\dots(5)$$

u and v are random terms with zero expected values, X is quantity supplied.

Equation (4) resembles the adaptive expectation and says that the expected price P_t^* for the year is equal to the expected price last year, plus the difference between the actual and the expected price last year, multiplied by expectation coefficient β .

Equation (5), on the other hand resembles the adjustment process, inferring that the quantity supplied this year is the same as the quantity supplied last year plus the difference between the expected (or desired) supplies this year and the actual supply last year times the adjustment coefficient γ .

The coefficient γ represents level of technology or the speed of adjustment. Hence the farmer could not move to equilibrium instantaneously in the short run.

Furthermore, the supply response function is represented thus;

$$X_t^* = a + bp_t^* + cZ_t + W_t \dots\dots\dots(6)$$

Where z is other exogenous factors and w is random term with zero expected value.

Allowing for continuing lags, equation (4) can be rewritten as:

$$P_t^* = \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \beta(1-\beta)^{s-1} \cdot p_{t-s} \dots\dots\dots(7)$$

Combining equations (6) and (7); we obtain:

$$X_t^* = a + b \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \beta(1-\beta)^{s-1} \cdot P_{t-s} + CZ_t + W_t \dots\dots\dots(8)$$

Plugging equation (8) into (5), the following equation implies both adaptive expectations and partial adjustment process.

$$X_t = a\gamma + b\gamma \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \beta(1-\beta)^{s-1} \cdot P_{t-s} + C\gamma z_t + \gamma w_t + \gamma X_{t-1} + v_t \dots\dots\dots(9)$$

Suppressing γ in the constant and error terms, we have:

$$X_t = a + b\gamma \sum_{s=1}^{\alpha} \beta(1-\beta)^{s-1} \cdot P_{t-s} + C\gamma z_t + (1-\gamma)X_{t-1} + U_t \dots\dots\dots(10)$$

For estimation purpose, equations (4), (6) and (5) can be substituted to get:

$$X_t = a\beta\gamma + b\beta\gamma P_{t-1} + [(1-\beta) + (1-\gamma)]X_{t-1} + [-(1-\beta)(1-\gamma)]X_{t-2} + c\gamma z_t + [-c\gamma(1-\beta)]z_{t-1} + v_t - (1-\beta)v_{t-1} + \gamma w_t - \gamma(1-\beta)w_{t-1} + b\gamma u_t \dots\dots\dots(11)$$

The reduced form:

$$X_t = \pi_1 + \pi_2 P_{t-1} + \pi_3 X_{t-1} + \pi_4 X_{t-2} + \pi_5 z_t + \pi_6 z_{t-1} + e \dots\dots\dots(12)$$

Where:

- $\pi_1 = a\beta\gamma$
- $\pi_2 = b\beta\gamma$
- $\pi_3 = (1-\beta) + (1-\gamma)$
- $\pi_4 = -(1-\beta)(1-\gamma)$
- $\pi_5 = c\gamma$
- $\pi_6 = -c\gamma(1-\beta)$

$$e = v_t - (1 - \beta)v_{t-1} + \gamma w_t - \gamma(1 - \beta)w_{t-1} + b\mu_t \dots \dots \dots (13)$$

Sheffrin, (1996) also asserts that the different assumptions of the basic Nerlove model concerning the formation of price expectation could dramatically alter the actual price dynamics in the market. If the price expectation is based on last year's price, there would be a potential for significant instability in prices and production. Moreover, in agriculture, which is subject to weather uncertainties and other socio-economic, environmental and technological changes, particularly in a developing country like Nigeria; a model which will accommodate additional variable explanatory factors in determining the supply response of farmers is more desirable. The Nerlovian Dynamic Adjustment lag model (NEDAL) appropriately meets this need, hence, adopted in this study. NEDAL postulates that the actual hectrade under a crop in any period is adjusted in proportion to the difference between the desired hectrade in the long run equilibrium and the actual hectrade in the preceding year. Also, the expected price in any year can be expressed as a function of actual price last year and the expected price last year, while the expected price last year could be replaced by linear function of last year's hectrade. Thus, through this algebraic substitution, the final form of the adjustment model expresses hectrade in any year as function of previous year's actual price and previous year's hectrade thereby ignoring the effect of expectational lags in prices. This is in line with estimation equation as stated by Patunru (1998) in the reduced form of equation (12). The reduced form is a distributed lag model with the lagged dependent variable appearing as an independent variable.

As Cummings, (1975) and Holt, (1999) noted, supply response could be assumed to be equivalent to response in acreage under cultivation to changes in economic and non-economic factors. Moreover, Mythili, (2006) also asserts that area decision is totally under the control of farmers and using supply or output conceals some variations in area and yield if they move in opposite directions. Therefore hectrade was used as indicator of supply in this study.

This study tried to estimate the impact of variable factors on output vis-à-vis the area harvested. The variable factors considered include the lagged values of the dependent variable, the yield of investigated crop in the previous year(s), the yield of the competing crop in the previous year(s), the price of the investigated crop in the previous year(s), the price of the competing crop in the previous year(s) and the weather index approximated by the annual mean rainfall at a time "t". The use of lagged (previous years) price, yield and hectrade was based on the assumption that previous year(s) price, yield and hectrade allocated to the production of the selected crops exert pressures on farmers' subsequent hectrade allocation decisions in the production of the crops.

The general form of the model adopted in this study is:

$$Q_i = b_0 + b_1 A_{it-k} + b_2 y_{it-k} + b_3 y_{jct-k} + b_4 P_{it-k} + b_5 P_{jct-k} + b_6 W_{t-k} + U_t$$

Where

- Q_i = Hectrade response of crop i
- b_0 = intercept
- $b_1 \dots \dots \dots b_6$ = Distributed lag weights (coefficients of variables)
- k = 1.....n years
- A_{it-k} = Hectrade under crop i, lagged at 1.....n year(s)
- y_{it-k} = Yield of crop i, lagged at 1.....n year(s)
- y_{jct-k} = Yield of competing crop j, at 1.....n year(s) lagged.
- P_{it-k} = Price of crop i, lagged at 1.....n year(s)
- P_{jct-k} = Price of competing crop j, lagged at 1.....n year(s)
- W_{t-k} = Amount of rainfall at one year lagged
- U_t = Residual error

The general form of the model was applied for estimating values in respect of the crops selected for the study.

3.0 Results

3.1 Unit Root Test Result:

The result of the unit root tests obtained shows the order of integration and stationarity of hectrade, price, yield and mean rainfall series determined by the Augmented Dickey Fuller test. Table 1 shows the order of integration and the number of times the series were differenced. One of the variables (price of sorghum) was stationary at levels implying an integrated order of: I (0); four variables (hectrade of sorghum, yield of sorghum, yield of maize and price of maize) were stationary after the first difference: I (1); while the hectrade of maize was stationary after the second difference: I (2).

Table 1: Unit Root Tests

Variables	Order of integration	Augmented Dickey Fuller Test			P-Values	
		Critical values	ADF Statistics			
		1%	5%	10%		
Δ^2 AMAIZE	I(2)	-4.4415	-3.6330	-3.2535	-6.968734	0.000002
Δ ASORGHUM	I(1)	-4.4167	-3.6219	-3.2474	-5.107619	0.000004
Δ YMAIZE	I(1)	-4.4167	-3.6219	-3.2474	-3.992675	0.000376
Δ YSORGHUM	I(1)	-4.4167	-3.6219	-3.2474	-5.758837	0.000067
Δ PMAIZE	I(1)	-4.4167	-3.6219	-3.2474	-7.033009	0.000007
PSORGHUM	I(0)	-4.3942	-3.6118	-3.2418	-3.660903	0.009291
Δ WEATHER	I(1)	-4.4167	-3.6219	-3.2474	-5.215415	0.000007

1. Δ = Difference operator
2. I (d) No. of times of integration
3. Level= 1%, 5%, 10% level of significance

3.2 Maize Hectrage Response:

Regression result in respect of maize hectrage response is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Least squares regression result for maize hectrage response

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	0.056373	0.174615	0.32284	0.751
DLOG(AMAIZE(-1,2))	-0.756162	0.146823	-5.150178	0.0001***
DLOG(YMAIZE(-2))	0.374587	0.19869	1.885281	0.0777*
DLOG(YSORGHUM(-2))	-0.655694	0.280742	-2.335579	0.0329**
DLOG(PMAIZE(-2))	0.144248	0.075531	1.909773	0.0743*
LOG(PSORGHUM(-1))	-0.008864	0.018269	-0.485197	0.6341
DLOG(WEATHER(-1))	-0.036477	0.05998	-0.608157	0.5516
R-squared	0.685764	F-statistic		5.819521
Adjusted R-squared	0.567925	Prob(F-statistic)		0.002226
Durbin-Watson stat	1.984005			

Dependent variable: LOG (AMAIZE) *Significant @ 10% level **Significant @ 5% level ***Significant @ 1% level

The regression result for maize hectrage response as shown in Table 2 indicates that the lagged dependent variable i.e. the lagged hectrage of maize is statistically significant at 1% level. The yield of sorghum which is the competing crop is statistically significant at 5% level. The yield and price of the investigating crop, maize, were also statistically significant at 10% level; thereby indicating that hectrage of the investigating crop maize, it's own price and yield as well as the lagged yield of the competing crop, sorghum, were important factors determining farmers' hectrage allocation decision in the production of maize.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is 0.6858 thereby indicating goodness of fit of the regression function and the joint influence of the independent variables (in conjunction with the lagged hectrage) in explaining 68.58% variation in maize hectrage. The F-statistic which is the global test for the significance of the regression function is 5.820 with a corresponding Prob (F-statistics) of 0.002, which further attests to the overall goodness of fit of the regression function. It is also notable that Durbin-Watson statistic is approximately 2.0 thereby, indicating absence of serial correlation between the variables used in the study.

It is also noticeable that the coefficients of the price and yield of maize are very low while the coefficients of the yield of sorghum and lagged hectrage of maize are above average; thereby indicating that the yield of sorghum and the lagged hectrage of maize exert more pressure on farmers' hectrage allocation decision for the production of maize. Moreover, the negative coefficients of lagged hectrage of maize and yield of sorghum may be a reflection of stagnating or declining hectrage allocation to maize and decreasing yield of sorghum over the period of study.

3.3 Sorghum Hectrage Response:

Regression result in respect of sorghum hectrage response is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Least squares regression result for sorghum hecfrage response

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-0.027125	0.072328	-0.375026	0.7126
DLOG(ASORGHUM(-1))	-0.459513	0.145931	-3.14883	0.0062***
DLOG(YMAIZE(-2))	-0.413998	0.154622	-2.677477	0.0165**
DLOG(YSORGHUM(-2))	-0.326174	0.123274	-2.645919	0.0176**
DLOG(PMAIZE(-2))	-0.013503	0.029492	-0.457873	0.6532
LOG(PSORGHUM(-1))	0.00754	0.008249	0.914051	0.3743
DLOG(WEATHER(-1))	0.060043	0.02518	2.384528	0.0298**
R-squared	0.694781	F-statistic		6.070227
Adjusted R-squared	0.580324	Prob(F-statistic)		0.001803
Durbin-Watson stat	2.024293			
Dependent variable: LOG (ASORGHUM) **Significant@ 5% level ***Significant @ 1% level				

Regression result for sorghum hecfrage response as shown in Table 3 indicates that the lagged dependent variable i.e. lagged hecfrage of sorghum was statistically significant at 1% level. Also, the yield of sorghum, yield of the competing crop, maize, and weather were statistically significant at 5% level; thereby indicating that lagged hecfrage of sorghum, yield of sorghum, yield of maize and weather were important factors influencing farmers' hecfrage allocation decision in the production of sorghum.

It was also observed that the coefficient of lagged hecfrage of sorghum was higher than its own price and yield coefficients as well as the coefficients of price and yield of maize, and weather; thereby indicating that lagged hecfrage exerts more pressure than price, yield and weather on farmers' hecfrage allocation decision in the production of sorghum.

The R^2 and the adjusted R^2 values are good at 0.6948 and 0.5803 respectively; thereby indicating goodness of fit and the significance of the response function. The R^2 or the coefficient of determination indicates that the explanatory variables (in conjunction with the lagged hecfrage) have a joint influence on the variation of hecfrage of sorghum to the extent of approximately 69%.

4.0 Discussion

A major trend in this study is that lagged dependent variable has been found to be a significant determinant of hecfrage allocation in the cultivation of the crops of study. The trend is reflected by the estimates of the coefficients of lagged hecfrage of the crops which were statistically significant at 1% and 10% levels, thereby indicating that lagged hecfrage was an important factor influencing farmers' hecfrage allocation decisions in the production of the selected crops of study. The coefficients of the lagged hecfrage of maize and the yield of sorghum were higher than the coefficients of price of maize, thereby indicating that lagged hecfrage and yield exert more pressure on farmers' hecfrage allocation decision for the production of maize. Moreover, the negative coefficients of lagged hecfrage of maize and yield of sorghum may be a reflection of stagnating or declining hecfrage allocation to maize and decreasing yield of sorghum over the period of study. Also, the coefficient of lagged dependent variable (hecfrage of sorghum) was higher than the coefficients of its own price and yield and the coefficients of price and yield of maize and weather thereby indicating that lagged hecfrage exerts more pressure than other factors on farmers' hecfrage allocation decision in the production of sorghum. This is consistent with findings of Chadhaury, (1986) who found lagged hecfrage to be important factor determining acreage allocation to the cultivation of crops. Kumar and Roy, (1985)., Ahmed, (1986) and Mahmood *et al*, (2007) have also noted that although area is expected to vary positively with expected yield, it could either rise or fall with changes in rainfall, depending upon whether or not there is a normal rainfall or flood or drought. Moreover, relative rather than absolute prices and irrigation could be better account for acreage response.

The trend of hecfrage allocation decisions in respect of the production of cereal crops also indicates that yield rather than price; exert more pressure on farmers' hecfrage allocation decision given that coefficients of yield were consistently higher than the coefficients of price in respect of the selected cereal crops. This may be attributable to the subsistence nature of farming in Nigeria, where the primary objective of farming households is to maximize yield for consumption; an effort towards ensuring food security. Apart from the fact that enough quantity could be produced beyond family consumption, availability of surplus is a status symbol for most farming households in developing economies such as Nigeria. This is consistent with previous studies in Nigeria, which indicate that price alone may not be an adequate incentive for inducing farmers' response except it is accompanied with other factors such as access to irrigation, technology, cultivable land and minimal risk among

other factors (Olubode-Awosola *et al*, 2006 and Ogazi, 2009). The small holding and subsistence orientation of the Nigerian farming system coupled with lack of stable pricing regime and market imperfections may be the basis for which farmers' responsiveness to yield (for consumption) rather than to price, is higher. After all, it is usually the surplus rather than total output that is marketed. It is therefore obvious that the more the yield obtained, notwithstanding the price level, the more hectrage would be allocated to production of the crops. Philip, *et al*, (2008) have also noted that Nigeria's agricultural system is characterized by a number of sector wide constraints to increasing agricultural productivity; which include poor agricultural pricing policies, low fertilizer use, low access to agricultural credit, land tenure insecurity, land degradation, poverty and gender issues, low and unstable investment in agricultural research and poor market access and marketing efficiency. These constraints, to a large extent may be accountable for the partial responsiveness of farmers in Nigeria to price and non-price factors in their hectrage allocation to the production of crops of study or specifically to each of the explanatory variables of study as hypothesized.

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

The study tried to estimate the hectrage response of maize and sorghum to price and non-price factors in Nigeria between 1983 and 2008 and found that Nigerian farmers do not respond fully to changes in economic incentives in their resource allocation decisions.

In view of the findings of the study that lagged dependent variable (lagged hectrage) had significant influence on hectrage allocation, efforts should be geared towards expansion of cultivable land and enhancing land management practices and accessibility to same by farmers through formulation and implementation of policies on land reforms. This will encourage farmers to cultivate more land for increased crop productivity. Government should endeavour to create a National Land Development Agency with a view to propel vigorous implementation of policies on land reforms.

Efforts should also be geared towards ensuring policies which encourage farmers to achieve stable yields in line findings of the study that yield rather than price was more important factor that determined farmers' hectrage allocation decision to the production of the crops studied. Attention should also be directed at removing some of the physical infrastructure constraints to agricultural performance, improvement in the output and input market infrastructure, expansion of irrigation and ensuring pricing and marketing policies which centre on enhancing crop productivity, farm income and food security and empowering farmers to make decisions about their own crops and livelihoods.

References

- Ahmed, B. (1986). Acreage response of rice in Pakistan, *Punjab journal of development studies* 8, 63-97.
- Ashinze, J.O. and Onwioduokit, E.A. (1996). Economic growth and foreign debt: A case study of Nigeria, *Central Bank of Nigeria, Economic and Financial Review*. 14. (1), 523-540.
- Askari, H and Cummings, T. (1976). *Agricultural Supply responses: a Survey of the Econometric Evidence* Pralgar Publishers, New York.
- Chaudhary, M.A. (1986). Economic analysis of supply response in Pakistan's agriculture: *The Lahore Journal of economics* 5. (2), 1-18.
- Cummings, J. (1975). The supply responsiveness of Indian farmers in the post independence period major cereal and cash crops, *Indian journal of agricultural economics*, 30. (1), 23-40.
- David, L., Glenn, S., Chris, W., Horoyuiki, K., Richard, S., Robert, E., *et al*, (2001). *Eviews 4.0: Users guide*. Quantitative Micro software LLC. Irvine, CA
- FAO, (2001). *The state of food insecurity in the world, 2000*. FAO, Rome.
- Gulati, A and Kelly, T (1999). *Trade Liberalization and Indian Agriculture*. Oxford University Press.
- Haruna, U. (2002). *Economics of sustainable fadama farming among fadama users*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, School of Agricultural Economics and Extension. ATBU, Bauchi.
- Haruna, U. (1995). *Area response of sorghum to selected economic parameters in Bauchi State*. Unpublished Msc Thesis, School of Agricultural Economics and Extension. ATBU, Bauchi.
- Holt, M. (1999). A Linear approximate acreage allocation model. *Journal of agricultural and resource economics* 24. (2), 283-297.
- Krishna, R. (1962). "A note on the elasticity of the marketable surplus of a subsistence crop." *Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics* 17, 79-84.
- Kumar, A.I. and Roy, P. (1985). Rainfall and supply response: A study of rice in India. *Journal of Development Economics*, 8. (2-3), 315 -334.
- Mahmood, M.A., Sheikh, A.D. and Kashif, M. (2007). Acreage supply response of rice in Punjab, *Pakistan Journal of Agricultural Research* 45. (3), 231-236.
- Moraes, M. (2006). *Soyabean acreage response in Brazil*. Paper presented at the *Conference on Applied Commodity Price Analysis, Forecasting and Market Risk Management*, NCC 134. St Louis, Missouri.

- Mythili, G. (2006). *Supply response of Indian farmers; Pre and post reforms*. (Working paper, WP 2006-009). Indira Ghandi Institute of Development Research.
- Narain, D. (1965). *The impact of price movements on areas under selected crops in India 1900-1939*. Cambridge University Press.
- National Population Commission [NPC] (2006). *Nigerian Population Census Analysis*. VI. National and State Population Projects, NPC.
- Nayarana, N.S.S. and Parikh, K.S. (1981). *Estimation of farm supply response and acreage allocation: A case study of Indian Agriculture*. (Research Report. 81-1, February). International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis. Luxemburg, Austria.
- Nerlove, M. (1958). *The economics of supply: Estimation of farmer supply response to price*. Baltimore. John Hopkins University Press.
- Nkonya, E., Pender, J., Kato, E., Omobowale, O., Philip, D. and Ehui, S. (2010). *Enhancing Agricultural Productivity and Profitability in Nigeria*. (NSSP Brief No 19). IFPRI
- NTWG, (2009). *Report of the Vision 2020 National technical working group on agriculture and food security*. Federal Government of Nigeria, Abuja.
- Obasi, P. C. (2006). Effects of agricultural production on external debt management in Nigeria. *International Journal of Agriculture and Rural Development*, 7. (2), 92-98.
- Ogazi, C. G. (2009). Rice output supply response to the changes in real prices in Nigeria: An autoregressive distributed lag model approach, *Journal of sustainable development in Africa* 11. (4), 83 – 99.
- Olubode-Awosola, O.O., Oyewumi, O.A. and Jooste, A. (2006). Vector Error Correction Modelling of Nigerian Agricultural Supply Response. *Agrekon* 45. (4), 421-436.
- Panturu, A. A. (1998). *Agricultural supply response: Adaptive and rational expectations*. (Working paper), University of Illinois. Illinois.
- Philip, D., Nkonya, I., Pender, J. and Oni, O.A. (2008). *Constraints to increasing agricultural productivity in Nigeria*, (NSSP Brief No 4). International Food Policy Research Institute, IFPRI.
- Search.com (2010). [www. Search .com](http://www.Search.com). Accessed on 15th December, 2010.
- Sheffrin, S. M. (1996). *Rational Expectations* (2nd edition), Cambridge University Press.
- Szeto, K.L, (2001). *An econometric analysis of a production function for New Zealand*. (Working Paper 01/31). Wellington, NZ Treasury.
- Tahir, H.M, (2012). *Hectrage response of some selected cereal, legume and root and tuber crops to price and non-price factors in Nigeria (1983-2008)*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, School of Agriculture and Agricultural Technology. ATBU, Bauchi.
- UNICEF (2010) http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/stats_popup6.html. Accessed on 20th October, 2010.

The variables used in this study and their definitions are as follows:

Variable Name	Definition
AMaize	Area harvested of Maize (hectares)
ASorghum	Area harvested of Sorghum (hectares)
PMaize	Producer price of Maize (Naira/ton)
PSorghum	Producer price of Sorghum (Naira/ton)
YMaize	Yield of maize (kg/hectare)
YSorghum	Yield of Sorghum (kg/hectare)
Weather	Weather index approximated by mean annual Rainfall (Millimeters)

La Prévoyance Des Ecrivains Africains, Le Cas De Sembene Ousmane Dans *Le Mandat*

Rabiu IYANDA

Osun State University, P.M.B 4494, Osogbo, Nigeria, Department of Languages and Linguistics, College of Humanities and Culture, Ikire Campus.

rabiu.iyanda@uniosun.edu.ng , rabiu4iyanda@gmail.com

Introduction

Beaucoup d'écrivains africains, Anglophones et francophones d'écrivent et prévoient ce qui se passe dans la société d'un moment donné. La plupart des écrits littéraires africains sont l'art pour la vie ou bien l'art pour l'âme. Pour avoir les besoins et la qualité littéraire, ces écrivains utilisent des colorations linguistiques, culturelles et esthétiques. Dans ces rédigés, il y a des réalités sociales, des condamnations, l'exposition des souffrances sociales et politiques et même culturelles. Certains écrivains s'engagent dans l'enseignement l'autres dans l'amusements et beaucoup d'autres de montrer la valeur de la culture noire. Sans doute ces écrivains d'écrivent la réalité qui ce passe dans le moment et certains autres prévoient ce qui passera à l'avenir. Niyi Osundare cité par Iferi-Obeitan (2004 :83)

.....I am of the opinion that the writer is first and foremost an artist but he is also the voice of the people, he is a prophet, a teacher, in short, he is the conscience of the society.....he must constantly hold before them a mirror of their errors, the rich and the poor alike, the rulers, the ruled, the oppressors and the oppressed.....

Nous voulons remarquer d'après cette expression que l'écrivain est. toujours la porte parole de sa société, il représente son assemblée. Concernant ce que font et signifie les écrivains, Ngugi wa Thiong'O (2009 :161) quand il parle sur le roman, *A Man of the People*,

A man of the people, coming out at about the same time as the first Nigerian military coup, had shown that a writer could be a prophet.....

Donc, nous pouvons dire que les écrivains constituent des prophètes ou méritent la place des prophètes dans certains cas. Ils postulent les événements à l'avenir. Beaucoup de facteurs déterminent le choix des thèmes. Donc le changement des événements dans les sociétés changent les pensées des écrivains . Ngugi wa Thiong'O est de l'avis que la littérature africaine est divisée en trois ère ;

..... the age of the anti-colonial struggle ; the age of independence and the age of neo-colonialism.

Avant l'indépendance les écrivains africains, francophones et Anglophones, s'engagent dans la libération des africains, la culture et les peuples. Ils écrivent pour refuser et révolter les colons tout entier. Parmi d'autres écrivains nous avons, Kwame Nkrumah, colonial freedom, les Bout de Bois de Dieu, Sembene Ousmane, L'enfant Noir Camara Laye, Things Fall Apart, Chinua Achebe. Tous ont révolté contre l'oppression et l'exploitation des blancs. Dans *tell freedom*, par Peter Abraham, nous voyons la situation douloureuse des africains et sans hésitation l'écrivain a remarqué *.....One day these whites will go.*

Est-ce que les blancs restent toujours comme les maîtres chez les noirs? Dirigent – ils les affaires africaines jusqu'à présent dans la manière directe? NON !

Dans les années soixante, les années de l'indépendance, les thèmes changent, il y avait la revalorisation des cultures noires et par conséquent attentive à tout ce qui paraient constituer la différence avec la culture occidentale. Les écrivains/romanciers africains se réduisaient à la mission contestataire de la colonisation, puis à la dénonciation des nouveaux pouvoirs africains.

.....the pioneers of African literature and African cultural nationalism.....identified very closely with colonial culture and its institutions, even as they opposed the destructive practices of imperial rule and fought for African political rights.

La littérature est un outil pour réagir contre l'oppression et de revaloriser Gikandi (2009) dit

la culture noire. Jusqu'à présent, les situations sociopolitiques occupaient les écrits de ces romanciers africains. Mudimbe (2009 :6)

.....the world of literature is sustained by and reflects the real Universe, particularly the social relationship of production and the silent impact of ideological signalizations'. Thus one who add the literary world could well be a mythical space, yet it unveils the concrete experience of human communities.

En dix-septième siècle, la Fontaine a écrit des fables pour attirer, exposer, et condamner le régime anarchique de Louis XIV. Cet écrivain ou fabuliste a réussi de corriger certains méfaits de cette époque à travers ses fables qui reste une œuvre très significatif jusqu'aujourd'hui dans la littérature française soit en France et même hors de l'hexagone.

Dans l'année 1894, George Orwell a écrit un roman intitulé, 1984. Orwell s'engagea de la situation politique de sa société. Dans l'année 1984, tout ce que cet écrivain, George Orwell a prédit dans le roman 1984, écrit en 1894 viennent de passer dans sa société contemporaine.

Le résumé du roman

Sembene Ousmane un écrivain africain de nationalité sénégalaise a beaucoup écrit concernant la vie sociopolitiques et économiques des africains en général et ceux des sénégalais en particulier après l'indépendance. Comme les autres écrivains africains, Sembene peut aussi se considérer engagé. Sa préoccupation majeure est centré sur les problèmes du néo-colonialisme dans la plupart de ses romans. Après l'indépendance, quelle situation se trouve les africains? dans ce roman il présente un jeune africain, Abdou. Il voyage en France pour trouver de quoi faire. Pour pouvoir voyager il a emprunté de l'argent. Après avoir gagné du travail, il rembourse ses argents et envoie à son neveu un mandat de vingt-cinq mille francs CFA. Celui-ci est illettré et chômeur. Les problèmes qu'il rencontre au cours d'encaisser cette somme nous réveille la situation de cette société sénégalaise après l'indépendance.

Sembene comme Orwell et beaucoup d'autres dans son roman *Le Mandat*, écrit pour prédire le future. Ce roman, *Le Mandat* est apparu en 1965, ce roman semble être la réalité de toujours. Le romancier a prévu la situation sénégalaise dont on peut généraliser aux pays africains tout entier. C'est la situation ou bien problèmes quotidien en Afrique. Ce roman constitue la vie quotidienne de nos jours. Dans le roman, le romancier a parlé du chômage, la polygamie, l'escroc, etc. concernant la période que le roman est sorti, 1965 et les événements d'aujourd'hui sans hésitation on peut dire que ce romancier est prophète.

Les problèmes énumérés

Problème du chômage.

Dans le roman le problème de chômage qui pousse Abdou à Paris reste toujours un des problèmes dominants mondialement soit en Afrique ou même chez les soi disant maîtres. Si on considère ce problème du chômage qui pousse Abdou à Paris en 1965, l'année de la publication du roman. Malgré le soi disant mondialisation, il y a des chômeurs de tout catégories dans la vie. Aujourd'hui les jeunes africains aussi cherchent des moyens de sortir pour avoir que faire, pour avoir la vie. Ils cherchent tous les moyens possible de voyager à l'occident. L'occident devient le paradis ou bien eldorado. Beaucoup s'engagent dans le voyage en Europe par des moyens considèrent dangereux. Certains par avion dans une manière légale ou illégale. Beaucoup d'entre ceux qui voyagent par la mer se noient pendant l'efforts de traverser la mer. Ce voyage ne se limite pas à ceux qui ont l'éducation formelle seulement, il y a des autres qui n'ont pas d'éducation formelle qui se voient dans ce voyage. Ils cherchent des moyens de demeurer en occident. Ce voyage est déjà prédit par Sembene Ousmane depuis 1965. Les comportements ailleurs

Après avoir arriver à l'occident saint et sauve, la vie des noirs en Europe changent. Dans le roman d'après même personnage, Abdou, dans sa lettre qu'il écrit à Ibrahima Dieng, le héros, il nous a montré sa situation et celle des autres noirs en France,

.....*je ne suis pas en France pour faire de vagabond, ni le bandit...126*

De ce dit nous nous justifions que beaucoup de noirs s'engagent dans les affaires atrocités. Ses actes peuvent être un moyen de s'enrichir sans considérer les lois. L'issue d'un nigérian, Abdul Matalib, qui a eu l'envie de souffler un avion aux Etats Unis reste très frais dans les journaux et dans les mémoires. Ce jeune nigérian a réussi d'avoir eu le jugement de rester en prison durant sa vie. Si on considère la phrase dans les années soixante et ce qui se passe maintenant c'est très évident que l'écrivain est prophète tout ce qui avaient prédit par cet homme et les autres romanciers constituaient les événements d'aujourd'hui. De voyager d'un cote à l'autre pour trouver des travaux n'est pas un problème, mais le cas de constituer des ennuis et des voyous dans un tels pays reste un obstacle. Ces types qui s'engagent dans les actes immoraux cherchent des moyens d'être riches coûte que coûte, donc les méfaits entrent. Ces gens ne considèrent pas l'image de leurs pays, de leurs noms propre et ceux de leurs familles, en faisant ses actes perturbés.

Transfer de l'argent

Le titre et l'issue du roman, le mandat est un autre aspect à considérer, le fait d'envoyer l'argent de l'Europe/occident à l'Afrique. Ce mandat est toujours présent aujourd'hui. Le fait d'envoyer de l'argent de l'Europe aux pays africains gagne plus de popularités. Voilà l'introduction des autres moyens modernes comme le Western Union, Money Express, Ria Money Transfer etc. à part d'envoyer l'argent certains autres matériels sont aussi envoyés. Si on a bien lu ce roman tout ces attitudes sont déjà mentionnés. Le problème émanant avec ce mandat avec le héros, Ibrahima Dieng reste avec les autres 'Ibrahimas' dans nos sociétés avant de toucher ou encaisser les matériels de l'autres pays. Le problème de la carte d'identité un aspect des colons reste un héritage non-contestable en Afrique. Beaucoup d'africains sont tombés à l'un ou des problèmes de ce soi disant élément d'identification pour pouvoir encaisser de l'argent. Dans certaines sociétés, cette carte semble importante que la

vie ou la personnalité d'individu. Le problème bureaucratique est toujours présent pour encaisser. Comme le héros a perdu la somme importante aux exigences des bureaux et à l'élites, beaucoup d'autres africains aussi tombent toujours dans le même trous. Sembene Ousmane, dans ce roman a prédit tout ce qui arrive aux jeunes générations après une quarantaine d'années.

La dépendance et relation mutuelle

La dépendance des âgés sur les jeunes reste quelque chose importante dans le roman et dans la vie. Dès soixante les âgés africains subsisteraient sur leurs enfants ou leurs progénitures. Ils restent chez eux attendant les jeunes d'envoyer les fruits de leurs sueur, ils ménagèrent pour ces jeunes qui ne sont pas là et vivent de ce qui les envoyés. Toujours les jeunes sortent pour travailler et les âgés restent à domiciles. Donc c'est la culture africaine pour les jeunes de prendre soin des vieillards. Le héros, Ibrahima Dieng, et les autres âgés dans la société sénégalaise comme il existaient dans presque toute les sociétés africaines se dirigent la situation et font des prières pour ces jeunes qui ne sont pas là. La prière est réservée pour un tel ou une telle qui envoie de l'argent à ses vieux comme Abdou. Cela veut dire qu'il ne les oublie pas. Certains parmi ces vieux vivre en crédit, l'autres s'empruntent du membre de la communauté. D'après le roman Gorgui Maïssa commence à suivre Ibrahima Dieng pour pouvoir partager du riz et la somme. Beaucoup d'autres sont allés chez Ibrahima Dieng pour avoir des solutions à leurs problèmes financiers. Soit pour emprunter de l'argent ou pour avoir du riz. Chez Ibrahima Dieng on ne part pas en main vide.

L'escroc

L'escroquerie dans le milieu socio n'est pas étrangère. Dès le moment de l'indépendance les éduqués ont l'habitudes de frauder les analphabètes. Les élites africains constituent dans la plupart du temps et situation la peste dans la société. Ils fraudent, exploitent et trompent les incultes. Malgré les dettes, promesses, d'autres engagements financiers et les problèmes psychologiques, le héros ne touche pas le mandat. Quelle bizarre ! Ibrahima considère Mbaye Ndiaye le rédempteur qui peut lui aider encaisser le mandat, il lui a donné le mandat sans hésitation. Au lieu de recevoir la somme c'est l'histoire,

.....ayant une course à faire à Kaolack, une course qui réclamait ma présence, je gars mon auto, à l'arrivée, en face du marché – tu connais Kaolack ? Une ville de voyous ! Hors de l'auto, je traverse ce marché, j'achète je ne sais plus quoi et au moment de payer, je cherche mon portefeuille.....Plus rien ! Non seulement, il y avait tes vingt-cinq mille francs, mais soixante autres. (186).

Beaucoup de questions se posent concernant cette explication de Mbaye, Nous nous demandons, quelle situation psychologique sera notre héros ? il y a des autres questions, quand Mbaye savait qu'il y a des voyous à Kaolack pourquoi laisse – t – il son portefeuille dans son auto ? aussi quand il est si riche pourquoi ne donne – t – il pas à Ibrahima Dieng cette somme, le vingt- cinq mille francs CFA soit en recevant le mandat du Ibrahima ou immédiatement qu'il a encaissé? Si la somme totale de quatre-vingt cinq mille peut perdre comme ça d'un individu dans la société où beaucoup d'autres meurent de faim. Mbaye représente les nouveaux riches dans notre société. Malgré le fait que les relations lointaines ou très proches vivaient en faim, ils continuent s'amuser et vivent comme des maîtres. Aujourd'hui beaucoup d'élites se trouvent dans le même chemin, les illettrés n'ont pas de choix quand ils ont des affaires avec les bureaux publics, ils courent vers les élites, beaucoup d'élites trichent et exploitent ces analphabètes.

Le roman, *Le Mandat* qui s'est paru en 1965, quand la population des africains et même ceux des pays occidentaux n'est pas si peuplé ou nombreuses, les événements à ces jours restent non populaire comme il y en a aujourd'hui. Si à ce moment là l'écrivain peut dire ;

.....pourtant.....Enfin, l'honnêteté est un délit de nos jours dans ce pays.....

Qu'avons-nous à dire concernant l'honnêteté aujourd'hui ? Est-ce que la sincérité est toujours dans la société ? Sans aucune doute nous pouvons dire que la dégrée de sincérité reste toujours indéterminée dans la société africaine.

Mélange culturelle

Chez Mbaye Ndiaye, il y a quelque chose très important à remarquer, le fait qu'il est éduqué, il est polygame. Cela veut dire que les élites africains aussi aiment cette aspect africaine. Les même catégories des gens de nos jours qu'ils font la polygamie. Ses deux femmes constituent un autre aspect, il a deux femmes, une chrétienne et l'autre musulmane. Dans cette famille il y existait la paix malgré les deux religions. Pourquoi donc la paix cesse de régner chez ceux qui n'appartient pas à la même religion? Donc aujourd'hui dans des situations où une telle relation est en existence, c'est la réalité de la prédire du prophète-écrivain. Avant de partir de chez Mbaye, il a sa maison à cote, il n'habite pas dans les environnements peuplé leurs quartiers sont toujours à part des autres citoyens. Ils vivent en close.

Conclusion

Les écrivains représentent toujours les miroirs et la porte parole de ceux qui n'ont pas de bouches à parler dans chaque société. Dans ce papier nous avons essayé de voir comment Sembene Ousmane a réussi dans sa clairvoyance de la vie africaine quotidienne dès un longtemps. La manière de comportement de ces nouveaux élites et ceux qui ne sont pas encore nés se trouvent dans ce roman. Le romancier a bien présenté ses idées, avec la langue quotidienne de ses gens. L'extrait donne la vie sénégalaise et celle des africains hors du Sénégal. Ce qui arrive à Ibrahima Dieng, le héros affecte et affectera beaucoup des africains de tout les niveaux sociaux. Le héros peut être considéré symbolique en tant qu'il représente les autres africains comme lui.

Références

- Ayeleru Babatunde, La Langue et la Littérature Africaine Francophone: entre une identité et un hybride linguistique in Ukoyen Joseph, (2002) Ibadan Journal of European Studies. No 3. Ibadan. Evi-Coleman Publications. (2002: 68 – 78)
- Daniel P.Kunene. African Language Literature : Tragedy and Hope, in African literature, an Anthology of Criticism and Theory, Tejumola Olaniyan and Ato Quayson,Ed. Australia. Blackwell Publishing. (2009 : 315-322).
- Iferi-Obetan, Mercy. La réhabilitation des valeurs africaines dans Le silence de la foret d'Etienne Gryemide et Africa Baa de Remy. Angrey, F.U. (Ed.) La Revue des études francophones de Calabar (RETFRAC) 1.(4) Calabar. Darl Basse Press. (2004: 82-93.)
- Ngugi wa Thiong'O. 'The Language of African literature', in African literature, an anthology of criticism and theory, Tejumola Olaniyan and Ato Quayson, (Ed) Australia. Blackwell Publishing. (2009: 285-306).
- Onyemelukwe, Ifeoma (2004). Colonial, Feminist and Post-Colonial Discourses : Decolonisation and Globalisation of African Literature. Zaria. Labelle Educational Publisher.
- Ousmane, Sembene (1966) Le Mandat précédé de Véhi-Ciosane. Paris. Présence Africaine.
- Philippe, Nathalie (2007). Cultures Sud no 166. Paris. Culturesfrance.
- Simon Gikandi, (2009) 'African Literature and the Colonial Factor'. in African literature, an Anthology of Criticism and Theory, Tejumola Olaniyan and Ato Quayson,Ed. Australia. Blackwell Publishing. (2009 : 54-59).

Level of Awareness of Effects of the Use of Cosmetic Bleaching Products among Women: A Case Study of Bolgatanga Municipality of Ghana.

Richard A. Kuffour^{1*}, Emmanuel Dartey¹, Wellington Owusu¹ and Philip M. Dabuoh¹

1. Department of Environmental Health and Sanitation Education, University of Education, Winneba, P.O. Box M40, Ashanti-Mampong, Ghana; E-mail: emmeldartey@yahoo.co.uk; wellington.owusu@yahoo.com; Dabuohphilip@yahoo.com

* E-mail of the corresponding author: rakufffour@gmail.com

Abstract

This study intends to find out the level of awareness of the harmful effects of cosmetic bleaching products among women in Bolgatanga municipality of Ghana. The study also investigated the motives for skin bleaching as well as observing any physical manifestation of bleaching effects on the skin. Structured questionnaire was the main instrument used for the data collection. The questionnaires were administered in ten (10) selected communities in the Bolgatanga Municipality from which one hundred and twenty (120) women were randomly selected. The results showed that 39.2% of the women interviewed used cosmetics bleaching products, 9 women representing 7.5% experienced related side-effects and 82.4% had no knowledge on the side effects of these bleaching products. Chi-square analysis showed that lack of formal education could account for their ignorance. High amount of sunshine in addition to skin bleaching could serve as a predisposing factor which would lead to the contraction of skin cancer. The knowledge of the effects of cosmetic bleaching products is an imperative measure in maintaining a healthy skin.

Keywords: women, cosmetics, bleaching products, skin.

1. Introduction

In September 2006, The Food and Drugs Administration (FDA) in the United States of America recommended that products containing hydroquinone be sold only with a prescription due to their opinion that it posed certain health risks. Hydroquinone has also been linked with the medical condition known as Ochronosis in which the skin becomes dark and thick. The FDA asserts that study in rodents shows evidence of hydroquinone acting as a carcinogen or cancer-causing chemical (FDA, 2006). This product has been banned in Japan, the European Union, and Australia (Tracey A. *et al.*, 2011). Some of the side effects of skin-bleaching products include: skin thinning, acne, stretch marks, visible blood vessels, skin redness and irritation, easy bruising of the skin, skin darkening e.g. around the eyes and on the knuckles, sunburn, skin ageing, skin cancer and harmful internal effects ([Http://jamaica-gleaner.com/gleaner/20120808/health/health1.html](http://jamaica-gleaner.com/gleaner/20120808/health/health1.html)) (Accessed on 11/01/2013, 12:05pm). In Ghana, the use of skin bleaching products is more prevalent in the towns and cities due to the growing general perception that women with light- skin (fair women) are more beautiful than women with dark-skin. This belief has compelled many young women to bleach their skin using depigmentation agents such as Kojic acid, corticosteroids and hydroquinone based products.

There are reports indicating severe side-effects of prolonged use of such products. Bolgatanga is one of the Municipalities in Ghana which experiences high amount of sunshine throughout the year. This climatic condition coupled with skin bleaching could make the skin vulnerable to the dangerous effects of ultraviolet light rays which cause familial malignant melanoma (skin cancer).

2. Methodology

The Bolgatanga Municipal is one of the nine (9) districts in the Upper East Region of northern Ghana. The capital is the town Bolgatanga, which also serves as the capital of the Upper East Region. It is located in typical savanna vegetation where vast grass land is seen with very few trees. Rainfall pattern is very poor with a long dry season period. Temperatures are very high especially between February and June ranging between 26°C – 43°C (<http://bolga.ghanadistricts.gov.gh/> (accessed on 02/01/2013, 10:05am).

The area can be windy and dusty during the dry season. The inhabitants of the district belong predominantly to different peoples of Northern Ghana. The town of Bolgatanga, however, has a cosmopolitan character. The inhabitants comprise people of the north, but also members of the major ethnic groups including the Akan, Ewe, and Ga peoples. The natural vegetation of the district consists of tree savanna, with baobab, and acacia trees (<http://bolga.ghanadistricts.gov.gh/> (accessed on 02/01/2013, 10:05am). Figure 1 shows the location of Bolgatanga Municipal in the Upper East Region of Ghana (highlighted).

The study was predominantly on a descriptive survey using structured questionnaires and extensive observation of women to assess their level of Knowledge on the use of bleaching products and the effect of prolong usage of

those products. The study parameters assessed included the age, the level of education, the bleaching status, reasons for bleaching, effect of bleaching, some common bleaching products and the level of knowledge and dangers associated with skin bleaching. A total of hundred and twenty (120) women were randomly selected from different houses in ten (10) selected communities of the Municipality namely; Bukere, Atulibabisi, Tanzui, Zongo, Dagweo, Zuarungu/Sawaba, Eastates/Tindonsobligo, Tindonmoligo, Soe/Zaare, and Yikene. The results from the study (quantitative data) were analyzed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 16.0) using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. Comparative analysis to determine association between study parameters was carried out with the chi square (χ^2) test at 5% significance level.

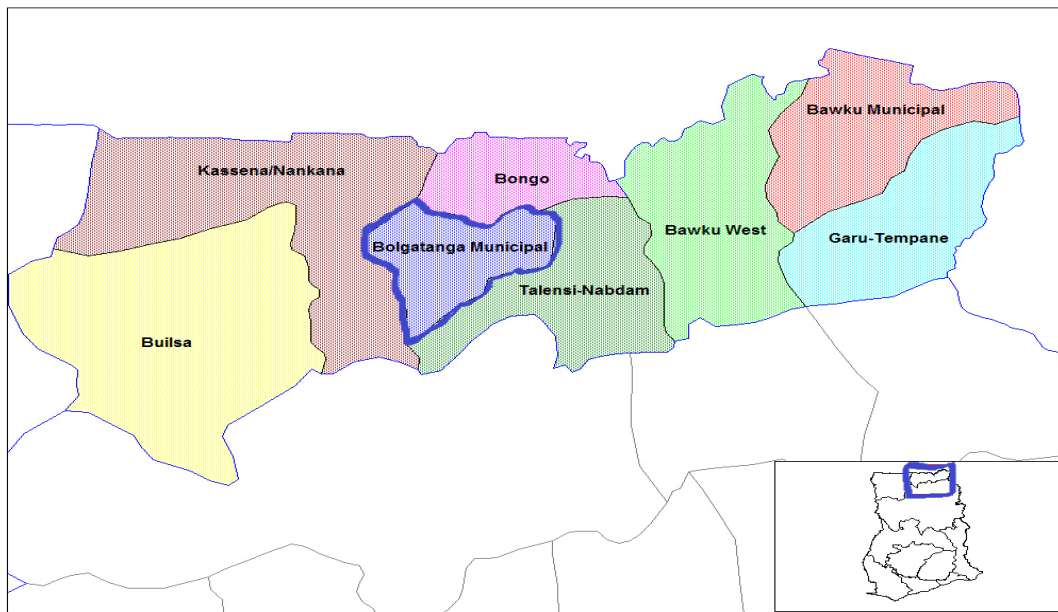


Figure 1. Location of Bolgatanga Municipal in the Upper East Region of Ghana ($10^{\circ}47'N$ $00^{\circ}51'W$ / $10.783^{\circ}N$ $0.850^{\circ}W$); courtesy: <http://bolga.ghanadistricts.gov.gh>.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 General Information of Respondents

The study showed that 22.5%, 20.0%, 20.8%, 25.8% and 10.8% of the women had their ages ranging from 15-20 years, 21-25 years, 26-30 years, 31-36 years and 36-40 years respectively. Educational level of the women revealed that 45.8% had basic education, 30.0% had secondary education, 8.3% had tertiary while 15.8% had no education at all. The information on the educational background of the women could influence their level of knowledge concerning current health issues. The study showed that 45% of the women were married, 52.5% were unmarried women, 2.5% were divorcees. All of them were engaged in various forms of occupation; 20.8% were traders, 8.3% were seamstress, 10.8% hairdressers, 17.5% being house wives, whilst 42.5% were engaged in other jobs not captured in the questionnaire items (Table 1).

Table 1: Personal information of respondents.

Study Parameter		Frequency (<i>n</i> = 120)	Percentage (%)
Age group (years)	15 - 20	27	22.5
	21 - 25	24	20.0
	26 - 30	25	20.8
	31 - 35	31	25.8
	36 - 40	13	10.8
Education	No education	19	15.8
	Basic	55	45.8
	Secondary	36	30.0
	Tertiary	10	8.3
Marital Status	Married	54	45
	Unmarried	63	52.5
	Divorced	3	2.5
Occupation	Trader	25	20.8
	Seamstress	10	8.3
	Hair dressing	13	10.8
	House wife	21	17.5
	Others	51	42.5

3.2 Information on Skin Bleaching

The cosmetic use of skin bleaching products is a common practice in dark-skinned women from sub-Saharan Africa (Godlee F, 1992). In Bamako, the capital of Mali, 25% of adult women reported current use of such products (Mahe *et al.*, 1993). In South Africa, the total sales volume of skin lighteners was estimated in 1986 at £30 million (Hardwick N., 1989). The study showed that 39.2% of the women do use skin lighteners. This is converse to the study conducted by Palokinam *et al.*, 2000 in which out of the 910 women investigated, 58.9% used skin-bleaching cosmetic products.

There was low level of knowledge of the use of cosmetic bleaching products among the women in the communities since 84.2% were totally ignorant. This could be attributed to inadequate education.

It was observed that some of the cosmetic products used include: claire (sivoclaire, peauclaire), movate, skin light and biotone. There are several reports indicating that these products contain quantities of hydroquinone, mercury, phenol and corticosteroids which are depigmenting agents causing skin bleaching (Lerner AB & Fitzpatrick TB, 1952; Jimbow K. *et al.*, 1974). Goeckermann noted that a brown-gray discoloration of the face and neck (especially the skin folds and eyelids) was associated with prolonged use of mercury containing creams (Goeckermann, 1975). Hydroquinone effectively inhibits the creation of melanin in the skin which is what gives skin its colour. Unfortunately, over time, this ingredient can seep into the skin and enter the body, producing some potentially severe side effects.

In the UK and other European countries, stringent measures are being used to curb the use of chemicals such as hydroquinone, mercury etc in the market ([Http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/E6-14263.htm](http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/E6-14263.htm) accessed on 13/01/2013, 12:40pm).

It was also observed that 9 out of 47 women that use cosmetic bleaching products had various kinds of skin complications such as skin itching, body odour, and blackspots. Severe side-effects such as Exogenous Ochronosis and Familial Malignant Melanoma are the possible future occurrences. The pigmented exogenous ochronotic lesions are most marked on sun-exposed areas of the body namely, face, upper chest and upper back. Dogliotte described 3 stages of this condition: (1) Erythema and mild pigmentation; (2) hyperpigmentation, black colloid milia and scanty atrophy; and (3) papulonodules with or without surrounding inflammation (Dogliotte & Liebowitz, 1979). Familial Malignant Melanoma is a type of cancer that can easily occur in people who use skin tonners to make their skin light. The ultra-violet rays from the sun directly act on the skin causing genetic mutation ([Http://www.cancer.net/cancer-types/familial-malignant-melanoma](http://www.cancer.net/cancer-types/familial-malignant-melanoma) (accessed on 13/01/2013, 10:12am).

Table 2: Information on skin bleaching.

Study Parameter		Frequency (n = 120)	Percentage (%)
Bleaching Status (n = 120)	Yes	47	39.2
	No	73	60.8
Knowledge of bleaching (n = 120)	Yes	19	15.8
	No	101	84.2
Product used (n = 47)	Claire	19	40.43
	Motivate	3	6.38
	Skin light	16	34.04
	Biotone	9	19.15
Nature of Effect (n = 9)	Skin itching	5	55.56
	Body odour	1	11.11
	Black spot	3	33.33

3.3 General Views of Women Concerning Skin Bleaching

The study revealed that 60.8% of the women are not involved in the practice. Some reasons of their noninvolvement include; fear of critics (25%), cannot afford the cost(19.17%), not interested(16.67%). This could be attributed to the fact that most of them are very religious and perceived the act as a violation to their belief system.

39.2% that were involved do so in order to attract men (12.5%), enhancement of beauty (15%), please their men (9.17%) and to change skin color (2.5%) as captured in Fig. 2.

Skin colour plays a significant role in the lives of Ghanaian women. Many Ghanaian women's feelings about beauty, attractiveness and the marriage market are associated with skin complexion. They believed that Ghanaian men found lighter-skinned women more attractive (Fokuo,2009).

Globally, young women and single women make more use of this practice than others. This is explained in essence by the desire to seduce. Educated women are more likely to be influenced by the models of Western beauty brought to them by magazines and the audiovisual media (Hardwick, 1989).

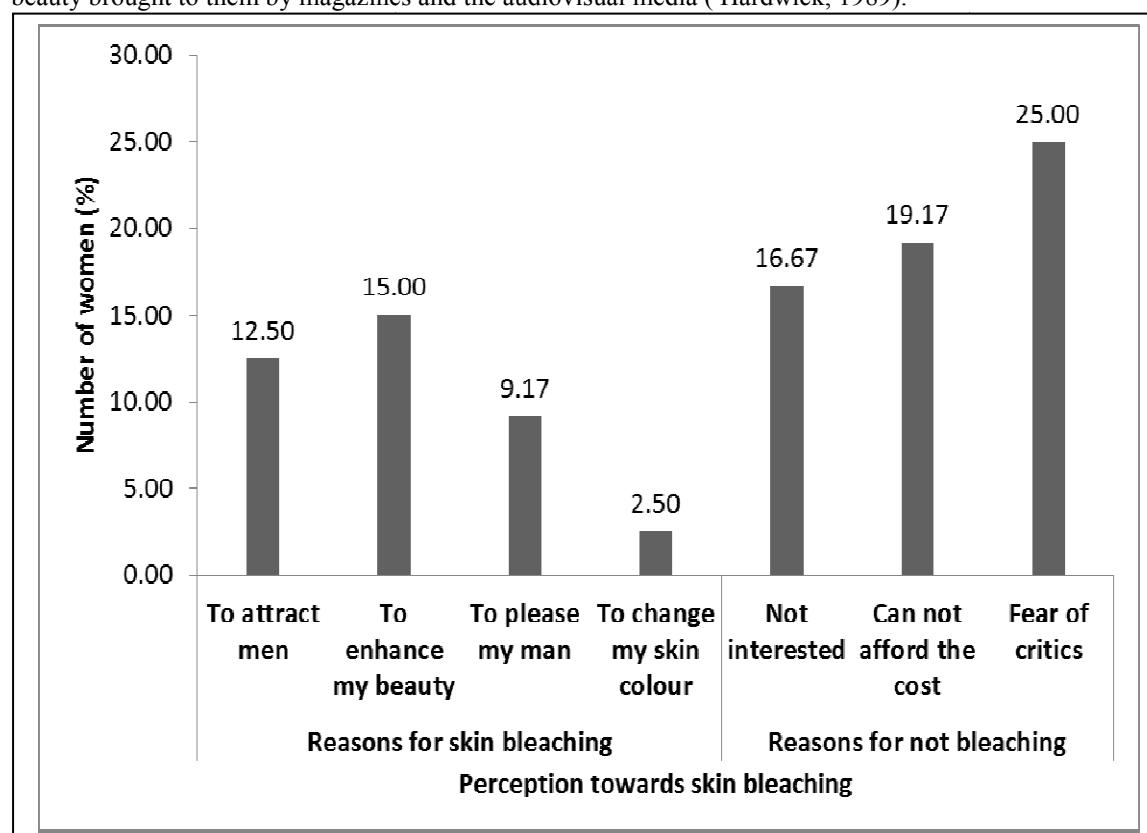


Figure 2: Perception towards skin bleaching

3.4 Association between level of education and knowledge of bleaching effects.

Results of the chi-square test carried out to establish the relationship between the level of education and the knowledge of bleaching effects revealed a significant statistical difference ($p = 0.006$). This indicates that the educational level of the women and their knowledge of bleaching effects are necessarily interrelated. Figure 3 shows that 100% of the women without education responded "No" to knowledge of bleaching effects while out of 10 women with tertiary education background, 80% of them responded "Yes" to knowledge of bleaching effects thereby underscoring the importance of formal education in relation to knowledge on bleaching effects.

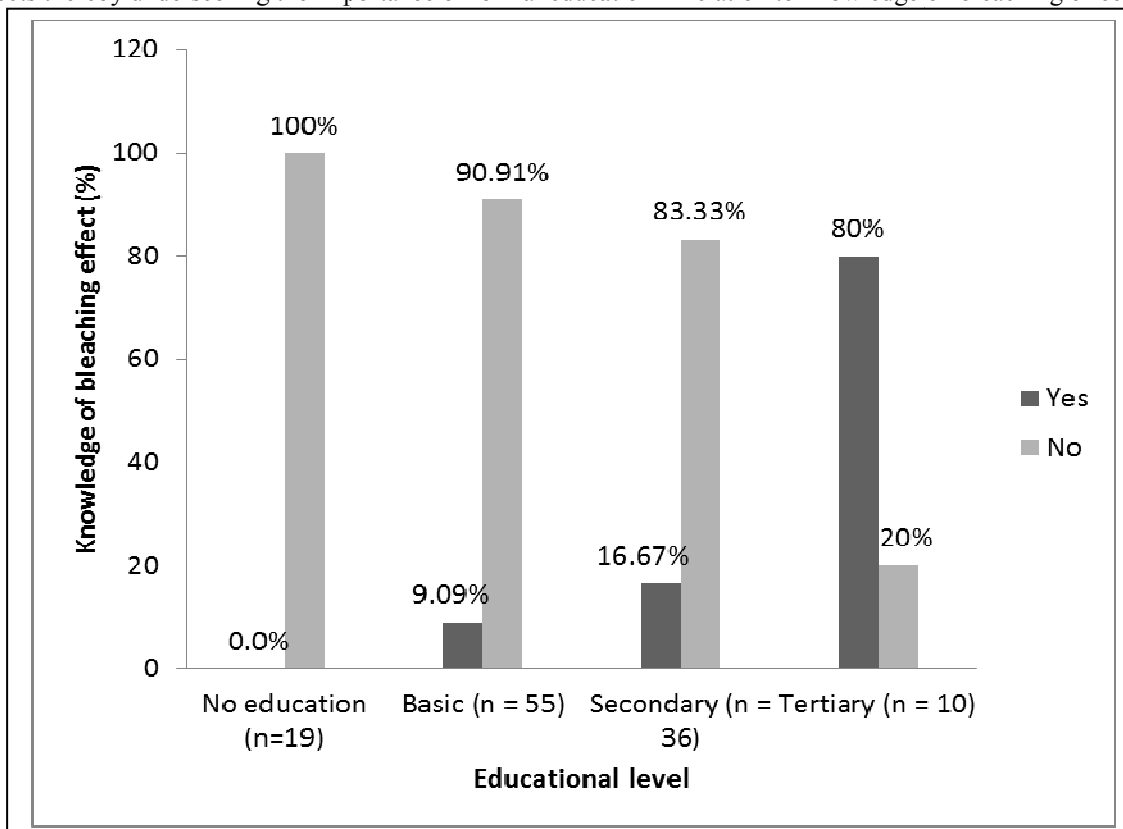


Figure 3: Comparative analysis between respondents' level of education and knowledge of bleaching effect

4. Conclusions

Most of the women in the Bolgatanga Municipality (84.2%) are not aware of the harmful effects of cosmetic bleaching products on their skin and body. Although 60.8% do not bleach their skin, it is very important that they get much information concerning their health so as to prevent any involvement in the near future. 39.2% used cosmetic bleaching products based on the perception that women with lighter skin are more beautiful and attractive to men than women with dark skin. The high amount of sunshine in the Municipality resulting in temperatures (26°C – 43°C) between February and June coupled with skin bleaching poses vulnerability to skin cancer (familial malignant melanoma) as well as other skin-related diseases. Result from the chi-square analysis proved that education is one of the factors that needs to be well addressed in order to restore sanity in the health of the people.

Based on the outcome of the study, the following recommendations were made.

- First of all, the Government should come out with clear policies to regulate the importation and sale of all cosmetic bleaching products in the country. The Government should ban all cosmetic products that contain harmful chemicals such as hydroquinone, corticosteroids, etc.
- Non-governmental organizations and the multi-media organizations via seminars and symposia can help educate the general public about the dangers of skin bleaching.
- Religious organizations should educate to their members during meetings on the need to maintain their God-given natural skin colour.
- The authorities of educational institutions, especially High Schools should allocate some amount of time to enlighten the young girls about skin bleaching.

Acknowledgments

We would like to express our deepest gratitude to the women in the selected communities of Bolgatanga Municipality for their kind reception and active participation in making this research a successful one.

References:

- Bolgatanga Municipal Assembly. <http://bolga.ghanadistricts.gov.gh/> (accessed on 02/01/2013, 10:05am)
- Bolgatanga Municipal District. en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bolgatanga_Municipal_District (accessed on 20/02/2013, 01:31pm)
- Cancer Types. [Http://www.cancer.net/cancer-types/familial-malignant-melanoma](http://www.cancer.net/cancer-types/familial-malignant-melanoma) (accessed on 13/01/2013, 10:12am).
- Dogliotte M, Liebowitz M. Granulomatous ochronosis – a cosmetic-induced skin disorder in blacks. *S Afr Med J* 1979; 56: 757–760.
- Federal Register. [Http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/E6-14263.htm](http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/E6-14263.htm) (accessed on 13/01/2013, 12:40pm).
- Fokuo, Konadu J. *African and Asian Studies*, Volume 8, Numbers 1-2, 2009 , pp. 125-146(22).
- Food and Drugs Administration. Federal Register: August 29, 2006 (Volume 71, Number 167), Proposed Rules, Page 51146-51155.
- Godlee F. Skin lighteners cause permanent damage. *Br Med J* 1992 ; 305 : 333.
- Goeckermann WH. A peculiar discolouration of the skin. *JAMA* 1975; 84: 506–507.
- Hardwick N, van Gelder LW, van der Merwe CA, van der Merwe MP. Exogenous ochronosis: an epidemiological study. *Br J Der-matol* 1989;120: 229–38.
- Jimbow K, Obata H, Pathak MA. Mechanism of Depigmentation by Hydroquinone. *J Invest Dermatol* 1974; 62: 436.
- Lerner AB, Fitzpatrick TB. Inhibition of melanin formation by chemical agents. *J Invest Dermatol* 1952; 18: 119–135.
- Mahe A, Blanc L, Halna JM et al. Enquête e pide miologique sur l'utilisation cosmetique de produits depigmentants par les femmes de Bamako (Mali). *Ann Dermatol Venereol* 1993; 120:870–3.
- Palokinam Pitché, Koussake Kombaté, and Kisseem Tchangai-Walla, *Cosmetic use of skin-bleaching products and associated complications(2000)*. Department of Dermatology, Tokoin University Hospital, University of Lomé, Togo.
- The Gleaner. [Http://jamaica-gleaner.com/gleaner/20120808/health/health1.html](http://jamaica-gleaner.com/gleaner/20120808/health/health1.html) (Accessed on 11/01/2013, 12:05pm).
- Tracey A. Hotta BScN, RN, CPSN, Plastic Surgical Nursing, September 2011, Volume 31 Number 3, Pages 115 – 116.

Multiple Roles of African Women Leaders and Their Challenges: The Case of the Presbyterian Church of Ghana.

Grace Sintim Adasi (PhD)^{1*} Dorothy Anima Frempong²

1. Department Of Languages And Liberial Studies, Accra Polytechnic, P.O box GP 561, Accra, Ghana, West Africa. (00233243326490)
2. Department Of Computer Science, Accra Polytechnic, P.O box GP 561, Accra, Ghana, West Africa.

*Email of the corresponding author: Ograsoa@yahoo.com

Abstract

In the Ghanaian communities women turn to play multiple roles in whatever situations they find themselves. In combining the traditional and contemporary roles, many women find themselves playing the roles as wives, mothers, reverend ministers, ministers in politics, Chief justices at the supreme court, speakers of parliament, doctors, lawyers, farmers, traders, judges, secretaries, nurses, architects, engineers, lecturers among others. It is not uncommon to find a woman playing multiple roles, a woman being a mother, wife, a commissioned and an ordained minister (roles mentioned above) at the same time. The study examines the theory of gender discourse as a theoretical frame using historical analysis method. The existing structures within both the church and society are patriarchal and the structures turn to focus more on men than on women in the various sectors of life. After 1976 women have been congregational leaders embarking on developmental projects in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana(PCG) and generally, participating fully in almost all aspects of the church's activities. Though women leaders in the church are performing multiple roles; there are some socio-cultural perceptions that prevent their recognition. Women leaders in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana do not have access to the decision making positions. The researcher found out that though the women leaders in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana, for example, are effectively performing multiple roles in the church and in the other sectors of life, they are neither recognised.

Keywords: Presbyterian, Women, Multiple Roles, Contemporary roles, Gender

1. Introduction

Since 1976 PCG women have been congregational leaders embarking on developmental projects in the church, and generally, participating fully in almost all aspects of the church's activities. They seem to be playing multiple roles because they are combing church roles with the traditional roles as African women both in the church and in the home. Many church women find themselves playing the roles as wives, mothers, congregational leaders, doctors, lawyers, farmers, teachers, nurses, lecturers among others.

This implies that women leaders in the church including the ordained women ministers in the PCG like their counterparts in the other sectors of life, do not neglect their predominant female duties using their leadership roles as an excuse despite the demands each of these peculiar roles places on the women.

Women leaders in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana (PCG), for example, had to struggle before being ordained as congregational leaders. There were several debates on whether women should be ordained in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana (PCG) or not. However, the church eventually ordained women into the clergy and assigned them roles as district ministers, administrators, presbytery clerks, presbytery chairpersons, chaplains and they have been congregational leaders. In performing their various roles as leaders, women are entangled with multiple roles amidst socio-cultural setbacks. This research investigates the multiple roles that women leaders play in the PCG to contribute to sustainable development.

2. Theoretical Framework and Methodology

This study examines the theory of gender discourse as a theoretical frame using historical analysis. The existing structures within both the church and society are patriarchal and the structures turn to focus more on men than on women in the various sectors of life.

Mercy Amba-Oduyoye (1986, p. 121) argues that gender discourse 'has become the shorthand for the proclamation that women's experience should become an integral part of what goes into the definition of being human.' She further explains that gender is not the word for the female but as a part of the whole movement geared toward liberating the human community from entrenched attitudes and structures that can only operate if dichotomies and hierarchies are maintained (Oduyoye, 1986, p. 121). By this she argues that both men and women should be given equal opportunity to work together as partners in order to contribute to development.

Gender based segregation is largely evident in the socio-economic and religious activities, patterns and roles set for women and men in traditional African societies. Thus, women were not only prevented from occupying certain societal and ecclesiastical positions in the church because of their sex but also assign different roles that centre on the home. Thus Oduyoye argues that 'in Africa, women make pots which are sold cheaply; men make

ritual objects and carvings that are highly regarded (Oduyoye, 1986, p. 123).

3. Women and Role Performance

The Presbyterian Church of Ghana has a mission which all her members aspire to achieve. It is the overall perception of the church in which women are seen to be part. What the mission statement of the PCG seeks to do is that women, who are more than men, contribute directly or indirectly to the development of the church. Some scholars argue that within the African socio-cultural context patriarchal system is men centred thus, Labeodan (2007, p. 113) argues that;

The patriarchal system is held in high esteem in most African Societies. As a result of this, women... are to be seen and not heard... there is so much suppression and oppression of women by men who are supported by the cultures and religions. They used certain facts about the physiology of man and woman as the basis for constituting a set of identities that work to empower men and disempower women.

She explains that the roles assigned to women are very much related to the cultural and historical traditions that try to place women in the domestic domain that they are suppose to be home makers and nurturers of the family including husband and children

Grace Adeoti (1998, p. 107), like Labeodan, also holds a similar view that

In many societies be it Africa or elsewhere, a woman is seen as the burden bearer with no rights whatsoever to equality with man. She is even seen as an irrational being not capable of reasoning; therefore, she is to be seen and not to be head... The ancient world was predominantly a man's world.

The specific roles that women leaders especially women ministers play are the chaplaincy, congregational leadership, administration of lay centres and management of schools. Other roles are women ministers as presbytery chairperson and clerks and finally women ministers as missionaries. In these areas, we see the ordained women ministers actively involved in activities such as proclamation and preaching of the gospel, healing ministry, youth ministry, evangelization, organization of seminars and workshops that equip members of the church especially women for acquiring skills that are needed for economic, social, spiritual and political activities.

4. Multiple Roles of the PCG Women Leaders: Challenges

Culturally or traditionally, many Ghanaian wives are expected to relocate to wherever their husbands find themselves, irrespective of the type of jobs they do before or after marriage or the type of schools their kids attend. Let's take this scenario for example; Mary a teacher is married to Paul who is a bank manager. They live with their kids in Accra where the children have good access to educational facilities. The husband Paul is promoted to the position of a branch manager and he is being transferred to another region in the country. The cultural and societal expectation from their context demands that Mary leaves her job and pack bags and baggage and move with the kids to join the husband Paul in his new region, regardless of whether Mary will get a suitable job and the kids will get good educational facilities or not. On the other hand, if Mary's employees transfer her to another school in another town or region the husband according to culture and custom is not expected to relocate with Mary.

The ordained women ministers face Mary's plight if they are wives. In other words one of the problems facing the ordained women ministers is this cultural and societal demand that every wife, irrespective of who they are, are to relocate to wherever their husbands are transferred to. It is believed that the issue of relocation has greatly influenced some of the PCG men's attitude to married ordained women ministers.

Another problem facing the PCG women leaders who are wives is the ability to efficiently perform their roles of being wives which demand cooking, washing, nurturing, making sure food is ready and cleaning the house. With the role of a woman minister which includes preparing sermons, preaching, visiting congregations, counselling, literally being on duty for 24 hours as a commissioned and an ordained minister.

In the Ghanaian society, it is a challenge when women still combine old traditional roles with new roles. This affects married ordained women in the PCG because in certain societies, roles are differential and most women would not agree that men are the heads in their homes. In response to the question whether respondents think the Ghanaian expectations of women affect ordained women ministers? Some claim it is difficult for ordained married women ministers to balance their lives carefully to be able to perform their roles as wives, mothers and ministers. A female minister in an interview remarked 'her husband is very supportive and he does not leave her alone to go about the house chores and he eats whatever is available' (Interviewed 18 June 2008). Dolphyne (1991, p. 5) writes on 'who does what in the home,' and to Dolphyne;

Every African woman grows up knowing that it is the woman who cooks the meals and generally sees to it that the house is clean and well kept, and that everything is in its proper place. Whatever her level of education or professional status she does not normally expect her

husband to share the household chores.

In her view 'if the husband enjoys cooking and chooses to cook breakfast or dinner one day, she appreciates the fact that he is being helpful, but she does not expect him to do so as a matter of compulsion', (Dolphyne, 1991, p. 5). She continues further that husbands who have lived in Europe before used to help their wives in the house chores but when they are in Ghana they do not help their wives. Professional women in Ghana like the ordained female ministers claim they employ house helps and pay their salary, thinking the house helps do their jobs for them. Sarpong, also affirms Dolphyne's point that 'a good wife is obedient to her husband, faithful, hardworking, and helpful and she sees to it that all that he wants is forthcoming without him having to ask first, as for example, clean clothes, hot water for baths and food.' (Sarpong, 1974, p. 69). Motherhood requires a woman to provide by way of preparation of adequate food and shelter for her own children, others and strangers.

Majority of the married women ministers were of the view that they perform their ministerial duties perfectly and they think they are doing the same as other women in other leadership and challenging positions like teachers, lecturers, bankers, lawyers, judges, police, soldiers, doctors, engineers, architects among others. As to how the male ministers combine their ministerial, fatherly and husbandly duties, they said that they plan with their wives to allocate time and days to the religious activities as well as to the family. According to Nii Noi Odonkor, it is not easy being a minister, husband and a father but it takes discipline, determination and dedication. (Odonkor, Interview, 10 August 2011, Accra). He claims they apportion their time and see to it that none of their roles suffers by ensuring that they spend their leisure times with their family. He remarked that they share their time between the ministry and family life.

Generally speaking, in the Ghanaian societies a lot is expected of married women. Dolphyne says women are supposed to be solely in charge of the kitchen, the children, marketing and the general running of the home. Hired helps in most homes, however, ease the amount of actual work they would have to do. However, some men insist that their wives personally do certain chores, for instance, preparing their food. According to Dolphyne (1991, p. 1), some aspects of African culture have a particular bearing on issues of women's emancipation. She thinks, like E. Martey, M. A. Oduyoye and B. Sackey that these customs, traditions and beliefs have, over the years, helped to keep women under subjugation and make them feel generally inferior to men and incapable of operating at the same level as men in society. Marriage is one of such institutions (Sackey, 2006, p. 49). Sackey has also refuted a review of the theory of inequality that revealed that 'evolutionary anthropologists used the concept of adaptation and division of labour to propose that the size and strength of men made them adapted for different jobs while the biological make up of women kept them at home as only careers of husbands and children', (Sackey, 2006, p. 49).

For Sackey, Marxist anthropologists attribute this subordination of women to the domestic and public dichotomy and sexual division of labour, arguing that women's subsequent relegation to reproductive labour is the main cause of inequality (Sackey, 2006, p. 49). Her observation is true of the African woman because her biological make-up has been traditionally and culturally used as a hindrance to her potentials. She is barred from undertaking/combining certain duties (wife, mother, minister) and as such women like these ordained women who go beyond their 'gender specified' roles as B. Sackey puts it are usually challenged (Sackey, 2006, p. 50).

The ordained female ministers of the PCG have managed to make a breakthrough in the church in spite of the problem created by gender in the society and Sackey thinks it is a reclaim. Mercy Amba Oduyoye also comments on one generalization that, African society expects childbearing and homemaking of its women. She says it is more or less a truism that it has usually been accepted by African women. In the view of Oduyoye such statements are not just outrageous, but they are dangerous because they are sometimes used to form discriminating laws against women (Oduyoye, 1996, p. 5).

M. A. Oduyoye (2000, p. 122), again says 'women's experience of being persons primarily in relation to others, as mother or as wife predominates in Africa and a woman's social status depends on these relationships and not on any qualities or achievements of her own. The traditional norm within which women are expected to earn an income and to provide for at least part of their own as well as their children's needs is perpetuated (Oduyoye, 2000, p. 122). So is the norm that makes housework the exclusive responsibility of women and the modernization of women's work is viewed with suspicion that African women still grind and pound the hours away. We think the wider society is not yet ready to see any change in the present domestic arrangements.

The most common response was that the transition to minister had resulted in lack of time for themselves, their husbands, and their families. The women identified two primary reasons for the time constraints. One is the nature of ministers' work and the unavoidable reality that much of what they are required to do is unpredictable. Many women referred to the ministry as both intensely rewarding and incredibly stressful. Several women shared stories of assisting families through times of illness and death. Having the ability to function with people on such a close level was seen not only as rewarding, but also as difficult because such events were unexpected and untimely. The enormous demands of ministers' work coupled with the lack of practical assistance from spouses were distressing. As expected, these women did not have the support of 'clergy wives' and this presented a problem since most of the women believed that their congregations expected them to perform both

the role of clergy and clergy's spouse (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]). They felt subjected to a double standard in which they were expected to do both clergy and clergy wife's duties, such as cooking, caring for children, and teaching at Sunday school. In most cases, the women described their husbands as helpful, but acknowledged that their support was limited by the normative expectations of the masculine role.

Following the conversation about ministry being a two-person career, it became apparent that there was considerable discrepancy between conventional expectations placed on ministers and their spouses and the manner in which clergy women and their husbands actually fulfilled these expectations. More specifically, most women felt that entering ministry increased their workload considerably, as they continued to perform both paid and unpaid work obligations. Comparatively, their husbands' lives changed very little. One woman emphatically disagreed with the definition of ministry as a two-person career, arguing that clergy women's husbands do not participate to any great extent in their wives' ministries.

Most of the women stated that they and their husbands underwent a significant period of transition and tension in the marriage following ordination. They felt that husbands were initially supportive of their decision to enter ministry, but had trouble adjusting to both the increased demands upon their wives' time as well as their wives' newly founded prestige and source of fulfilment. Husbands had to adjust a little to people calling and asking for wives or the impromptu emergencies and the board meetings. It is different for husbands to see wives that way, as more of an equal than just a wife. When wives talked about going to seminary some of the men were supportive but after their wives were ordained they became jealous. Many of the women believed that their ordination strained but also strengthened their marriage because it altered the way they and their husbands viewed one another. Some husbands seemed more appreciative of their wives and they reconsider their wives' value as individuals that they are not just wives but now they have some formal knowledge.

More than one respondent described their husbands as 'unsettled', 'uncomfortable' or 'anxious' about having a wife who was ordained. From the foregoing, it seemed that husbands were less disturbed by their wives' ordination than they were with their own 'demotion' from the breadwinner or status holder. Some women reported that their husbands' identities were shaken as wives gained the prestige and legitimacy of ordained clergy. Often, women reported that their husbands were uncomfortable with the role of clergy spouse in particular because, for men, that role is not well-defined or understood.

Congregants sometimes expressed their discomfort about clergy husbands because some have been less supportive and less visible at church events. Having a wife who is a minister is fine, they often assert. It is being the husband of a minister that is hard, because it is a new thing for the congregation. Another woman stated that her husband refused to join the Men's Fellowship or teach a Sunday School class because some of these were activities like being Sunday school teachers were normally associated with minister's wives, and presumably, he was uncomfortable with this kind of role reversal. Their husbands feel they have a lot of pressure on them because the congregants want them to join church groups and be present for every event. But some are not very religious and they do not want to be cast into the preacher's wife role (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]). The churches have not had women ministers until recently and, therefore, are not sure what to do with ministers' husbands.

The lack of a precise role for clergy husbands appears to be a significant source of strain for husbands and their wives' transition to ministry upset the balance of power. Few of them openly express resentment or anger about the inequities of their household arrangements. Our findings and other similar studies speak not only of husbands' resistance to women's success in male-dominated occupations, but also to the resistance of the church. Like most other social institutions, the church has not altered its gendered expectations to accommodate the rising number of women and mothers entering ministry. Compared to other employed women, clergy women seem to face a prejudice of greater intensity, since the PCG model promote gender differentiation both as a matter of practice and policy.

The research examined the perceptions of clergywomen's views on how being a minister have influenced their marriages, specifically the negotiation and distribution of marital authority since their ordination. For instance, wives are often at a disadvantage in marriage simply because of the 'implicit hierarchy in worth' which assigns a greater value to men and masculinity's 'invisible power'. Feminists have often relied on Foucault's understanding of power to broaden traditional understandings (Foucault, 1977, p. 286). Rather than being held by persons, Foucault argued that power is reflected, reinforced, and executed through a complex set of processes. Power is articulated and exercised through the dominant discourse. Although a Foucaultian understanding separates power from any particular power holder, there remains the reality that power is not equally accessible or possessed. As with more tangible resources, power is unequally distributed. Feminists have argued that women often participate in the reproduction of power. Bordo, for example, suggests that girls and women 'voluntarily' disempowered themselves by engaging in oppressive and sexist practices, such as various forms of body or beauty enhancements (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]). It could also be argued that wives often participate in hegemonic representations of power by continuing to subjugate themselves to husbands in the areas of parenting, housework, and financial independence. Discourses of masculinity and patriarchy link

femininity to a narrow range of life choices, (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]).

Socially, the issue of women's rights has been affirmed by secular society and women's ability to perform well in a number of traditionally male occupations stands as a visible affirmation of these rights. At the same time, theological interpretations within the Christian tradition are often actively mobilized to support resistance to a female clergy. In addition to this, historical patterns within Christianity have been dominated by male imagery, which makes it difficult, on a cultural and cognitive level, for some laity to accept female ministers (Sintim-Adasi, 2013, pp. 115-117)

As the local church sorts through these issues, the female minister is often left in a vulnerable position. Another category had the subjection of married women to their husbands in mind. 'A woman cannot be a church leader because if she is married she is under the responsibility of her husband'. The Bible says she belongs to him and, therefore, cannot make an independent decision. It would therefore be difficult for congregations that are full of many men to consider her as a leader from who instruction can be taken. It could also be unfair to ordain single mothers (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]).

Some respondents accept the bible as authority behind women's subjugation. Thus every injunction against women is taken in its totality. In addition, the question of 'who is going to look after the home and the children?' is the frequently asked question. When asked how women manage to work in the home and aside in secular employments, the response was that Church ministry cannot be compared with secular employment because sources of authority are different. God's work cannot be mixed with house work.

5. Conclusion

These male stereotypes about women are present in all cultures of the world. The point being made here is that culture decides what women's work is and what men's work is. As girls grow up they are taught at home what women's work is. Cultural demands are interpreted as God's will for women. The place of a woman is in the home and her major roles are child-bearing and child-rearing. Patriarchal culture which is concerned with preserving ruling power in the hands of men at all cost is called upon here against women sharing leadership roles in the church. There are also the assumptions that in culture, under no circumstance do women have power over men. Another assumption is that in culture, women are responsible for tempting men and not the other way round (Cody-Rydzewski, [Accessed 24/09/2011]).

References

Books

- Adeoti, Grace. (1998). 'Culture and Women Ministry: Implications for the church' in Protus O. Kemdirim and Mercy A. Oduyoye (eds.), *Women, Culture and Theological Education*. Enugu: SNAAP.
- , (eds.) (2002). *Women Silence is no Longer an Option*. Accra: SWL.
- Dolphyne, A. Florence. (1991). *The Emancipation of Women: An African Perspective*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Foucault, M. (1977). *Power/Knowledge: Selected Interviews and other Writings*. New York: Pantheon Books.
- Govaart-Halkes, Tine. (1970). 'Ordination of Women' in Brigalia Bam (ed.) *What is Ordination Coming to? Report of a Consultation on the Ordination of Women held in Cartigny*. Geneva, WCC Press.
- Oduyoye, M. A. (1996). *Daughters of Anowa: African Women and Patriarchy*. New York: Orbis Books.
- _____. (1995). *Daughters of Anowa: African Women and Patriarchy*. New York: Orbis.
- _____. (1997). *Transforming Power: Women in the Household of God*. Accra, Sam-Woode.
- _____. (2000). *Hearing and Knowing: theological Reflections on Christianity in Africa*. Accra: SWL.
- _____. (2002). *Beads and Strands: Reflections of an African Woman on Christianity in Africa*. Cumbria: Paternoster Press.
- Sackey, Brigid. (2006). *New Directions in Gender and Religion: The Changing Status of Women in African Independent Churches*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Sarpong, Peter K. (1974). *Ghana in Retrospect: Some Aspects in Ghanaian Culture*. Tema: Ghana Publishing Corporation.
- _____. (2002). *Peoples Differ: An Approach to Inculturation*. Accra: Sub-Sahara.
- Sintim-Adasi, Grace. (2013) 'Ordained Women Ministers in the Presbyterian Church of Ghana: Roles and Challenges' *PhD Thesis*. University of Ghana, Legon.
- Yankah, Kwasi. (1995). *Speaking for the Chief: Okyeame and the Politics of Akan Royal Oratory*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.

Internet Sources

- Faulkner, Bob. [Accessed 21 July 2012]. 'The women of the new testament and the role they played.'
<http://ezinearticles.com>
- Josephine Kiamba. [Accessed 4 August 2012]. 'Women and Leadership Positions: Social and Cultural Barriers'

to Success.

[http:// appweb.cortlnd.edu/ ojs/ inde](http://appweb.cortlnd.edu/ojs/inde)

Oral Sources

- Ampadu Daduam Margret. (26 June 2011). Interview, Accra.
Adgyei-Dankyi, Mercy. (20 July 2011). Interview. Kumasi.
Atiemo, Abamfo. (14 June 2010). Interview, University of Ghana, Legon.
Ben-Naimah, Bridget. (18 April 2011). Interview. Accra.
Boama, Cynthia. (20 August 2011). Interview, PWC.
Kenchard, Lorna. (10 July 2011). Interview, Nima.
Kpobi, David. (12th June 2010). Interview, Trinity Theological Seminary, Legon.
Kumi Adu, Felicia. (11 July 2008). Interview, Abokobi.
Kwansa, A. L. (8 April 2011). Interview, Kom Clinic, Aburi.
Kyei-Anti, Alice. (12 December 2011). Interview. Tema.
Oduoyoye, Mercy Amba. (20 June 2011). Interview, Accra.
Ofori Owusu, Dora. (9 October, 2010). Interview, Kumasi.
Sintin Ofosuhene, Grace. (10 July, 2012). Interview, Koforidua.
Osafo Affum, Edith. (10 November 2011). Interview, Women's Centre, Abokobi.
Oteng-Yeboah, Lily. (5 July 2011). Interview, Adenta.
Prempeh, Samuel, (18 November 2010). Interview, Ramseyer Training centre, Abetifi Kwahu.
Samuel Prempeh, (18 November 2010). Interview, Abetifi.
Tsitsi Dangarembga. (2005). Interview, BBC News, Zimbabwe.

The Impact of Family Violence, Neglect and Support on Psychosocial Well-being of People Living with Disabilities in Ibadan Metropolis, Nigeria

Thomas G. Adegoke, Ph.D

Department of Social Work, Faculty of Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

E-mail: tgadegoke@yahoo.com

Abstract

The study examined the impact of family violence, neglect and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis. The study adopted the descriptive survey design, using a sample of 250 people living with disabilities randomly selected from five local government areas of Ibadan metropolis. Three validated instruments used for the study were author constructed questionnaires with 0.85, 0.81 and 0.73 reliability co-efficient respectively. The questionnaires were used to collect the requisite data. The data was analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistics. Results obtained showed that there was significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities ($F = 4.73$, $df = 20/250$, $P < 0.05$); there was also significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities ($F = 8.32$, $df = 20/250$, $P < 0.05$); and there was significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities ($F = 10.42$, $df = 15/248$, $P < 0.05$). Based on these findings, it was recommended that all possible efforts should be made by the government substantially accelerate the pace of employment for people living with disabilities. Also, the need for special support measures should be taken into consideration by the families for psychosocial well-being of their children with disabilities.

Key word: Family Violence, Family neglect, Family support, psychosocial well-being and disabilities.

Introduction

The United Nation Population information network estimates that there are almost 800 million people living in Africa, 50 million of who are disabled and the cause of such disabilities are due to congenital or perinatal disturbances, communicable diseases, and trauma/injury each day due to landmines that they encounter while working, farming, or playing, polio mellitus due to lack of availabilities of medical facilities and awareness, measles, living in dilapidated house and so on (UNICEF, 2003)

Disabled population has taken the vast majority of Africans, especially in Nigeria with the estimates 12.5 million persons living with disabilities and all these are suffering from deprivation from schools, skill acquisition, and opportunities to work. Despite the fact that few families with a member who has a disability are often highly adaptable and resilient, we still have greater rate of families in the society, who still have negative perception concerning those living with disabilities especially in Africa (including Nigeria), as we have them loitering all the streets in Ibadan metropolis begging for arms (Seligman and Darling, 2007)

It was reported that between 15 – 20 percent of the population has disabling condition that had a significant impact on families in the world, especially in United States. While few would argue that the way in which our society perceives and responds to the nature of disability can have a profound effect on neglect of the individual with disability and also affect the stability of marriages and families (U S Bureau of the Census, 2003; National Family Caregiver Association, 2005).

However, people who have mental, emotional, or behaviour disorder; intellectual deficiency or learning deficit; chronic illness; or other disabling condition are frequently overlooked by their family members and members of the community or kept on the periphery for a variety of complex reasons which especially can be attributed to their perception on the issue of disability which has a lot to do with their belief and education. Thus, many people living with disabilities have not experienced the collective caring and support from families or community members as they find themselves in what society seems to see as a predicament (Swinton, 2001)

It is important therefore, at this juncture to recognize that people with disabilities have much to contribute to the lives of their family members, and others within and beyond their immediate environment and community. Unfortunately, the gifts of these groups of people have often been overlooked without knowing that there is ability in their disability.

The social stigma associated with disability results in marginalization and isolation, often leading to begging as the sole means of survival. As far as there is still negative societal perception about which consequently affects even how the family of those unfortunate to be born disabled view them, there still need for the society to stand and fight for the freedom and equal right of their social family and individual perception and support for the disabled (Smart, 2002)

Disability has far reaching consequences on the lives of the affected individuals as well as the family members. The problems may range from economic and physical hardship to social isolation. The effects are cumulative and may make an already difficult situation, intolerable for the family with a disabled child. Poverty contributes to parents' inability to protect their children from exposure to harm and has systematic negative effects on the health and development, as well as impairment performance, possible delinquency, early child bearing and even adult poverty including homelessness only makes the situation of persons living with disabilities worse (Thomas, 1995).

In Nigeria, for example, with a joint family, most likely having the grandparents, uncles, nephew and niece in the house, messages to the child is most likely to be conflicting in nature, whereas in small nuclear family, there is likely to be greater compatibility. A child with disability may find a positive and rich atmosphere as well as a negative and restricted atmosphere depending on the particular time. Family characteristics have contributed to family violence especially for persons living with disabilities (Chimedza and Peters, 2001; Ajah, 2009).

This study therefore, examines the effects of family violence, neglect and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria.

Objectives of the study

The main objectives of this study are to examine the impact of family violence, neglect and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria.

Other specific objectives of the study are to:

1. Examine the impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.
2. Find out the impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.
3. Ascertain the impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.
4. Suggest ways of improving psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in our society.

Review of Related Studies

Family violence, in this context, refers to physical, psychosocial or sexual maltreatment, abuse or neglect of a woman with disabilities by a relative or caregiver. According to (Murphy and Leary, 2005). Violence against persons living with disabilities especially women can take many forms, which can occur at the same time. It occurs not only as deliberate maltreatment and abuse, but also in the more passive form of neglect:

- i. **Neglect** - denial of food, lack of or inappropriate personal or medical care;
- ii. **Physical abuse** – assault, rough or inappropriate handling, inappropriate personal or medical care, overuse of restraint, inappropriate behaviour modification, overmedication, confinement;
- iii. **Psychosocial abuse** – verbal abuse, intimidation, social isolation, emotional deprivation, denial of the right to make personal decisions threat of having her children taken away; and
- iv. **Sexual abuse** – denial of a woman's sexuality, denial of sexual information/education, verbal harassment, unwanted sexual touching, assault, forced abortion or sterilization; and misuse of financial resources

The impact that caring for a child with a disability has on families cannot be over-emphasized as there is general agreement that parenting a child with a disability is associated with higher levels of stress which often result to violence. In turn, this stress is likely to have impact on relationships and family functioning. However, denial, projection of blame, guilt, grief, withdrawal, rejection, and acceptance are the usual parental reactions which lead to violence on both the child as the prime cause and the both parents as contributing agents for bringing him to the world which may result to family disintegration or divorce (Keller and Honig, 2004).

Neglect generally refers to the absence of parental care and the chronic failure to meet children's basic needs. Once a child is born, neglect may involve a parent or care failing to provide adequate food, clothing and shelter; protect a child from physical and emotional harm or danger; ensure adequate supervision; treatment. It may also include neglect of, or unresponsiveness to, a child basic emotional need (Ajah, 2009).

Parents with low socio-economic status may be at high risk for neglecting children with disabilities, because they may feel more overwhelmed and unable to cope with the care and supervision responsibilities that are required. Neglect of people with disabilities includes negative parental perception among members of the family on the phenomena such as poverty, financial constraint, lack of financial support, stigmatization, family violence, lack of medical home, shame of reproach because of societal perception of the disabled, especially mentally retarded and failure to select appropriate place to care for the disabled child. Therefore, the causes of neglect of the disabled has been identified as stigmatization, lack of awareness, illiteracy, social perception of the phenomena, poverty, instability in government policy, etc (Nolan, et al, 2006).

(Nolan, et al, 2006) further observed that, misperceptions of people with disability especially mental illness include that it is shameful to be mentally ill, that people with mental illnesses are violent and dangerous,

or that people with mental illness cannot live with the rest of the society, they are being referred to as patients. Perceptions of people with physical disabilities is that they are wicked, unforgiving, having interior motive, regarded as a punishment from God for the families evils deeds. Any form of disabilities is looked upon as a curse that has been bestowed upon the family to atone for the sins committed by the person or the family members in their previous lifetimes.

According to Ajah (2009), many disabled in Ibadan metropolis of both sexes are left along the streets to beg, most times, they keep them out there without monitoring their activities, forgetting that disabled are prone and expose to HIV/AIDS more than any other people because of their disabilities, for example, the females among them are raped on daily basis. On daily basis the young ones and the reproductive ones give birth to babies besides the gutters, their female and male children who are assisting them to beg for arms sleep with each other and find them with babies even at a tender age.

There is effect of family violence on people living with disabilities. Family violence, in this context, refers to physical, psychological or sexual maltreatment, abuse or neglect of a woman with disabilities by a relative or caregiver. It is a violation of trust and an abuse of power in a relationship where a woman should have the right to absolute safety.

According to Reiss and Howe (1999), men living in poverty are at high risk of violence, and women living in poverty are at high risk of all types of violence, including sexual abuse. For instance, two thirds of poor mothers are at risk of severe violence at the hands of a childhood caretaker. However, the parents of children with disabilities perceive more problems in themselves and their family which adversely has consequences on the person with disability.

The presence of child with exceptionality, however, can have an impact on their relationship and interactions among parents. Many studies have indicated that having a child with disability can have a negative impact on the parent's marriage. For instance, a child's handicap attacks the fabric of marriage in four ways: (1) It excites powerful emotions in both parents; (2) It acts as a dispiriting symbol of shared failure; (3) It reshapes the organization of the family; and (4) It creates fertile ground for violence (Ajah, 2009).

Keller and Honig (2004) and Ajah (2009) observed that, some parents experience helplessness, feelings of inadequacy, anger, shock and guilt, whereas others go through periods of disbelief, depression, and self-blame. The siblings are not left out as they also experience feelings of guilt, shame, and embarrassment all these triggers violence in the family. Also, regulating the emotional consequences of the event of the presence of disability, such as "avoidance" of the person with disabilities can cause violence in the family as more negative outcomes than problem-focused coping strategies are seen more often than positive outcome which may take a long time to manifest.

Family support in this study refers to services provided to help a member of the family with a disability at home as the family is expected to provide services that are family-oriented and tailored to each member of the family. According to Ajah (2009), the home is typically the environment to grow up in, no matter the child's disabilities. Therefore, family support is often defined as "whatever it takes" to prevent a person from being placed outside the natural home.

Family support is needed to eliminate some of the stress that the individual with disability is passing through such as fear of the future, stigma, fear, shame, isolation, loneliness, ignorance and ability to function. This is so because family experience, in trying to meet the unique needs of a family member with disability in their natural home helps maintain their quality of life (Keller and Honig, 2004).

Though, the stress can be financially and emotionally overwhelming and families face critical situation in providing support. Yet, it is still believed that children, regardless of their disabilities belong to their families. Family support ranges from financial assistance to individualized care and supervision of each individual, guidance, training and care needed to ensure the individual, guidance, training and care needed to ensure the individual's health, and safety, assistance with daily living tasks such as bathing, dressing, grooming, food preparation, shopping, housekeeping, laundry and other tasks that ensure the person maintains a safe, healthy and stable living environment and ensure functionality (Donovan, 2003; Nowicki, 2006; Ajah, 2009).

Family support of an individual with disability includes the social standing of the family in terms of their income, education, and occupation because an individual's income, education, and occupational status are often closely interrelated in determining the quality of family support received by people living with disabilities. Therefore, issues of low socio-economic status and poverty affect individuals and families including those living with disabilities of all racial, ethnic and religious backgrounds all over the world (including Nigeria). It was also observed that, economic instability is biting hard on virtually larger percentage of the population in homes, where both male and female heads of household comprise the majority of poor families in Nigeria contributes to the poor or lack of family support of people living with disabilities (Reiss, Stainglass, and Home, 2002; UNICEF, 2003; Ajah, 2009).

Family support is interrelated with the family social status which implies that a higher socio-economic status family might have more resources available to provide support to a member of the family with disability,

while those with low socio-economic status are vis-à-vis. But according to Ferguson (2001), higher socio-economic status does not automatically guarantee better family support because, those families of lower socio-economic status may also have resources through donors at the onset of the disability, thereby offering early intervention than those of higher socio-economic status who had no previous knowledge of disability and are feeling shy of having an exceptional child.

Research Hypotheses

Following the introduction and review of related studies, these three null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance to achieve the objectives of this study:

- Ho₁:** There will be no significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of the people living with disabilities.
- Ho₂:** There will be no significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.
- Ho₃:** There will be no significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Methodology

Research Design

The study is on effects of family violence, neglect and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis of Nigeria. The descriptive survey design was used to examine the effects of family violence, neglect, and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis.

Participants

The participants in the study were people living with disabilities randomly drawn from five local government areas of Ibadan metropolis – Ibadan North, Ibadan North-West, Ibadan North – East, Ibadan South – West, and Ibadan South – East. A purposive sampling of 250 respondents of the study population was made. The respondents' ages range between 17 and 35 years old and above were selected from rehabilitation centres, schools, homes and households for the study in Ibadan metropolis.

Research Instruments

The three instruments used in this study were – Family Violence Scale (FVS), Family Neglect Scale (FNS), and Family Support Scale (FSS).

Family Violence Scale (FVS)

This scale was developed by Desmond K. Runyan (2006). This scale is made up of 10 items measuring the respondents' level of family violence. This is therefore adapted by the author to measure the level of family violence among the people living with disabilities. The respondents were asked to respond to a 4-point rating scale ranging from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1). The high scores indicating a positive overall effect of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

The scale has internal consistency of .90 and revalidation reliability of .85 when administered on 100 people living with disabilities. The instrument was considered valid, through the favourable comments from experts in psychometrics on the suitability of the items.

Family Neglect Scale (FNS)

This scale was developed by Adam Zolotor (2006). The scale is made up of 14 items measuring the respondents' family neglect as it affects their psychosocial well-being. This is therefore adapted by the author to measure the ways at which the respondents' were neglect and the effects of this on their psychosocial well-being. The respondents were asked to respond to a 4-point rating scale ranging from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1). The high scores indicating a positive overall effect of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

The scale has internal consistency of 0.76 and revalidation reliability of 0.81 when administered on 100 people living with disabilities. The instrument was considered valid, through the favourable comments of experts in psychometrics on the suitability of the items.

Family Support Scale (FSS)

This scale was developed by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet and Farley (1998). The scale is made up of 12 items measuring the respondents' family support of the people living with disabilities. This therefore adapted by the author to measure the family support of the people living with disabilities. The respondents were asked to respond to a 4-point rating scale ranging from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1). The high scores indicating a positive overall effect of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

The scale has internal consistency of 0.77 and revalidation reliability of 0.73 when administered on 100 people living with disabilities. The instrument was considered valid, through the favourable comments from experts in psychometrics on the suitability of the items.

Procedure

The questionnaires were administered through the help and support of the local government council workers in each local government area, which is the study area. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 250 were returned and well administered. This represents a return of 62.5, which is considered adequate, bearing in mind the sensitivity of the issues under investigation.

Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed, using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to examine the effects of family violence, neglect, and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Results

The results of the study obtained for testing the three hypotheses are presented in Table 1, 2 and 3 below.

Hypothesis 1

There will be no significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Table 1: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showing the impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F - Cal	F - Critical	P.
Between group variance	1796.093	20	94.531			
Within group Variance	4601.65	230	20.007	4.73	**1.57	*<0.05
Total Variance	6397.744	250				

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

**Table value = 1.57

Table 1 revealed the significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities. This is significant because F – Calculated value (4.73) is greater than F – Critical Value (1.57) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. The results have shown a significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis.

Hypothesis 2

There will be no significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Table 2: Analysis Variance (ANOVA) showing the impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities

Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F - Cal	F - Critical	P.
Between group variance	2606.642	20	137.192			
Within group Variance	3791.102	230	16.483	8.32	**1.57	*<0.05
Total Variance	6397.744	250				

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

**Table value = 1.57

The results in table 2 showed a significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis. This is so because the F – Calculated Value (8.32) is greater than F – Critical Value (1.57) at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. The results have shown a significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Hypothesis 3

There will be no significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Table 3: Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) showing the impact of family well-being of people living with disabilities.

Source of Variation	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F - Cal	F - Critical	P.
Between group variance	2667.825	15	166.739			
Within group Variance	3729.919	233	16.483	10.42	**1.67	*<0.05
Total Variance	6397.744	250				

*Significant at 0.05 level of confidence

**Table value = 1.67

Table 3 revealed that there is significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities. This is so because the F – Calculated value (10.42) is greater than F – Critical Value (1.67) at 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that their significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of the people living with disabilities; therefore the null hypothesis is rejected.

Discussion

The results on table 1 showed that there was significant impact of family violence on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis. This result supports the research finding of Reiss, Stainglass and Howe (1999), Keller and Honig (2004), Murphy and Leary (2005), Nolan, McCarron, McCallion and Murphy-Lawless (2006) and Ajah (2009) that family violence can happen when family members have different views or beliefs and these adversely affect psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities. For instance, these researchers found that higher levels of maternal stress, family strain, lower social support, family disintegration or separation caused by blaming one another, abandonment and greater use of avoidant coping strategies associated with parenting a child with disability.

However, they found that, some parents experience helplessness, feeling of inadequacy, anger, shock and guilt, while others go through periods of disbelief, depression and self-blame, and all these trigger violence in the family which eventually have significant impact on psychosocial well-being of their children living with disabilities. They stressed the point that the impact that caring for a child with a disability has on families cannot be overemphasized as there is general agreement that, parenting a child with a disability is associated with higher levels of stress which often result to violence. In turn, this stress is likely to have impact on relationships and family functioning.

On table 2, the results indicated that there was a significant impact of family neglect on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities. This study however, supports the research findings of Garbarino (1999), Rees and Siakeu (2004), Nolan, McCarron, McCallion and Murphy-Lawless (2006) and Ajah (2009) that neglect may involve failure to provide medical care, protection, or the necessities of life. Emotional and educational neglect can also result in serious harm, especially when parents have difficulty in establishing a strong bond with a child who has a disability.

They stressed the point that, the emotional distance of parents increases the risk of learning and behaviour problems in children living with disabilities. According to them, causes of neglect of children with disabilities are the same as those for all children; however, several elements may increase the risk of neglect for children with chronic illness or disabilities often place higher emotional, physical, economic, and social demands on their families. Nolan, McCarron, McCallion and Murphy-Lawless (2006) however, observed that parents with low socio-economic status may be at high risk for neglecting children with disabilities, because they may feel more overwhelmed and unable to cope with the care and supervision responsibilities that are required.

The results obtained from this study on table 3 revealed that there was significant impact of family support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis. This study therefore, is in agreement with research findings of Reiss, Stainglass and Howe (2002), Donovan (2003), UNICEF (2003), Nowicki (2006) and Ajah (2009) that, family support is needed to eliminate some of the stress that the individual with disability is passing through such as fear of the future, stigma, fear, shame, isolation, loneliness, ignorance and inability to function. This is so because family experience, in trying to meet the unique needs of a family member with disability in their neutral homes helps to maintain their quality of life.

The researchers observed that, family support of an individual with disability also include the social standing of the family in terms of their income, education, and occupation because an individual's income, education and occupational status are often closely interrelated to determining the quality of family support received by people living with disabilities. Therefore, according to UNICEF (2003), economic instability is

biting hard on virtually larger percentage of the population in homes where both male and female heads of household comprise the majority of poor families in Nigeria contributes to poor family support of people living with disabilities.

Implication of the Findings and Recommendations

The implications of the findings inherent in the study evidently indicate that family violence, neglect and support have significant impact on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan metropolis. However, as most families face changes within the household, previous schedule routines, and activities should be modified slightly and at the very least, adjusted to meet the combination of acceptance and psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities.

Furthermore, tasks such as medical attention, good nutrition, visits, feedings, dressing, bathing and toileting sessions, complex feeding regimens, and daily programmes of physical therapy, engage in leisure time activities together and interact socially more with friends, vacations, hobbies and attend social events should be extended to the people living with disabilities. All these will reduce having feelings of loneliness, social isolation, distance from friends, neighbours, and their communities of people living with disabilities.

Sequel to the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. To ensure the integration or re-integration of people living with disabilities into ordinary working life and thereby into society, the need for special support measures should also be taken into consideration. This should include the provision of aids, devices and other social services to the people living with disabilities, retain and advance in suitable employment.
2. More special schools and skill acquisition centre, such as rehabilitation centres should be established for people living with disabilities. For instance, government should pay more attention to the development of special education for the people living with disabilities. Most of these centres or special schools should train disabled people and resettle them on specials jobs.
3. Family members should be informed about the child's strengths and weakness. This will help them to attach realistic expectations with the child regarding general cleanliness, education, occupation and marriage. Also, financial support to the needy families of disabled children may be implemented by the three tiers of government and other volunteer agencies. For instance, a number of efforts have been made by government and individuals to educate people living with disabilities. Family members therefore, at any level should allow disabled people to promote their own ideas so as to give them a greater say in the family decision making.
4. The state mass media should be fully geared and utilized for building positive image of people living with disabilities, for their social integration and advancement. This will therefore, give them equal opportunity in life, especially in the matter of employment and economic resettlement and for their all-round development in society. In other words, arrangement for job settlement should be considered important by the government and non-government organizations for people living with disabilities. Also, adequate residential care services should be established for severe and profound mentally retarded people.
5. However, in order to avoid frustration among people living with disabilities, all possible efforts should be made by the government to substantially accelerate the pace of employment for people living with disabilities. The setting-up of organizations of disabled people and their families, starting at the community level, and with unions at national level be intensified.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study has examined the impact of family violence, neglect and support on psychosocial well-being of people living with disabilities. The study evidently showed that some families neglected their children living with disabilities by hiding them in their houses. They are denied the opportunity to mix with the larger society which should help them learn the norms that would make them lived happy lives. This study also highlighted that people living with disabilities should be considered as part and parcel of the society. Therefore, they need to be fully integrated into the society. In this respect, they will be able to contribute to the technological, economic, political and social development of the nation.

By and large, the study stresses the point that there should be full acceptance of people living with disabilities because their acceptance has implications for the eventual adjustment in society.

References

- Ajah, C. G. (2009): The effect of Family Characteristics and Neglect on the Social well-being of people living with disabilities in Ibadan Metropolis. An MSW project, Department of Social Work, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

- Chimedza, R. and Peters, S. (2007): Disability and special needs education in an African Context: Putting theory into practice from the perspective of different voice. College press Harare, Zimbabwe.
- Donovan, A. (2003): Family stress and Ways of Coping with Adolescents who have handicaps: Maternal Perceptions. *American Journal of Mental Retardation*, 92, 502 – 509.
- Family Caregiver Association (2005): Providing Care to persons with physical disability: Effect on family caregivers. *American Journal of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, 71, 140 – 144.
- Ferguson, P. M. (2001): Mapping the family: Disability studies and the exploration of parental response to disability. In Albrecht, G. L., Seelman, K. D. and Bury, M. (Eds.), *Handbook of disability studies*, 373 – 395. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Garbarino, J. (1999): *Maltreatment of young Children with disabilities. A practical guide to the evaluation of child physical abuse and neglect*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Keller, D. and Honig, A. S. (2004): Maternal and paternal stress in families with school-aged children with disabilities. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 74(3), 337 – 348.
- Murphy, N., and Leary, H. (2005): *Emerging Trends in Disability Discrimination. Cases Investigated under the Mckeever, R. (2006). Rethink Anti-Stigma Campaign in Northern Ireland: Public Information sheet on what is Stigma (www.rethink.org) People about Disability, London: Souvenir Press.*
- Nolan, L., McCarron, M., McCallion, P. and Murphy-Lawless, J. (2006): *Perceptions of Stigma in Dementia: an Explanatory study*, Dublin, The Alzheimer Society of Ireland.
- Nowicki, E. A. (2006): A cross-sectional multivariate analysis of children's attitudes towards disability. *Journal of Intellectual Disability Research*, 50, 335 – 348.
- Rees, G. and Siakeu, J. (2004): *Thrown Away: The Experience of Young People Forced to Leave Home*. London: The Children's Society.
- Reiss, D., Stainglass, P., and Howe, G. (1999): *The Family's Reorganization Around Illness*. In Cole, R. and Reiss, D. (Eds.), *How do families Cope with Chronic Illness?* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Runyan, D. K. (2006): Psychometric properties of the Multidimensional Scale of perceived family violence in Urban adolescents. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 28, 391 – 400.
- Seligman, M. and Darling, R. B. (2007): *Ordinary families, special children: A systems approach to childhood disability (3rd Ed.)*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Smart, J. (2002): *Disability, Society and the individual*. Austin, Texas: Pro-Ed (<http://www.specialolmpics.org>).
- Swinton, J. (2001): *Spirituality and mental health care: Rediscovering of "forgotten" dimension*. New York: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Thomas, J. (1995): *Violence, Conflict and Challenges: A Nursing Perspective*. *American Academy of Nursing Publications*.
- UNICEF (2003): *An overview of Young People Living with Disabilities UNICEF Inter-Divisional Workshop Group on Young People*. New York: 3 David Pfeiffer, "The Problem of Disability Defuction", Unpublished, Honolulu, 1998.
- U. S. Bureau of the Census (2003): *Disability Status: 2000 Census Brief*. Washington, D. C.
- Zimet, G. D., Dahlem, N. W., Zimet, S. G., and Farley, G. K. (1998): The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 52, 30 – 41.
- Zolotor, A. (2006): Psychometric characteristics of the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived family neglect. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 55, 610 -617.

Sociology of Landscape: Agricultural, Soil and Water Conservation in Calabar, Cross River State

Usang Eteng Eloma Ph.D

Centre for General Studies, Cross River University of Technology, Calabar
eloma01@yahoo.com.

Abstract

The magnitude of challenges created on the human environment in different parts of the earth surface today, is alarming. This has resulted to various environmental threats across the universe which are quite visible and have aroused the concern of sociologists-worldwide. This is seen in the scale of wildlife destruction, soil erosion, deforestation, air, water, and land pollution, increased temperature levels among others. Globally, we are confronted with massive human starvation, extinction of plants and animal species, dwindling biodiversity, drought and desertification, global warming, emission of carbon dioxide from burning of fossil fuels, depletion of the protective ozone layer by lethal chemicals and concomitant bombardment of the earth's environment by cancer-causing ultra violent radiation. Man's attempt to convert the environment for his development had produced the highlighted and if mans activities on the environment are not controlled it would seriously rendered the world landscape uninhabitable. This paper seeks to explore the various ways in which man's activities in the environment pose a threat to Agricultural soil and water conservation. It also highlights strategies to achieve sustainable environmental landscape balance.

INTRODUCTION

There are many challenges, problem and opportunities associated with the living environment today. Our only one earth and its beautiful landscape is experiencing a siege from all aspects of human activities. Misuse, abuse and degradation of the environment have become so easily spotted, with disruptions and livelihood practices are changing fast as a consequence of the realization that people have power to extract resources around them thereby defacing the natural landscape.

To face up to the future with vigor and optimism, would depend to some extent on how we are able to set the stage for handling the problem of defacing the environment. At the front burner of development are environmental issues. In Nigeria for instance, there is both cultural diversity, and ecological diversity which holds sewage to how landscape is handle within a given environment.

The measure of change created on the human environment in different parts of the world is quite visible and has aroused great concern to sociologists whose focus is on landscape and Agricultural, soil and water conservation. Research has revealed that the imprint created on the environment is principally a fall out of man's development activities and are attributable to limited efficiency of conversion mechanism. Limited efficiency results in the production of excessive waste which adds to the already over labored environment. Man's conversion of the environment for his development programmes has caused disorganization, which is bound to affect him negatively on the long run in terms of his health and welfare. It therefore follows that if man's activities on the environment are uncontrolled, his very existence on planet earth will be threatened.

At different spatial and time scales, vegetation cover helps in protecting the soil from harsh climatic conditions mostly soil erosion. The presence of dense vegetation affords the soil adequate cover thereby reducing the loss in macro and micro nutrients that are essential for plants growth and energy fluxes.

Iwara (2011), maintained that, the continuous conversion of vegetal areas to non-vegetal surfaces reduces soil productivity as a result of increased soil erosion and changes in moisture content. Indeed, the concentration of nutrient in the soil is depleted when vegetation is destroyed through numerous anthropogenic activities such as deforestation and land preparation for agricultural production, and road construction among others (Elliot 2003; Thornely and Cannely, 2000). The change in forest cover such as plantation and grassland result in the tremendous modification of canopy cover; thereby making the area affected susceptible to soil erosion; this affect the stock of Soil Organic Carbon (SOC). The conversion of forest ecosystem to other forms of land cover may decrease the stock to Soil Organic Carbon (SOC) due to changes in soil moisture and temperature requires and succession of plant species with differences in quantity and quality of biomass returned to the soil (Offiong and Iwara, 2012). Indeed, changes in land use cover have significant effect on the amount and diversity of biomass returned to the soil. It is perhaps a known fact that soil erosion intensity and amount of nutrient element loss varies depending on the vegetation type at a particular place and time. This is so because, the rate of nutrient element loss in both dissolved and sediment bound forms will depend on the ability of vegetation canopy to effectively intercept the direct impact of raindrops that strike the soil surface (Iwara, 2011). If the canopy is not dense enough or well developed, low quantity of nutrients will be returned to the soil as well as large quantities of nutrient will be removed from the soil surface during periods of heavy rainstorm when the

soil is saturated. Earlier studies have emphasized the negative effect of land use/cover-change on soil properties. For example, Agoume and Birang (2009) examined the impact of land-use system on some physical and chemical soil properties of an oxisol in soil the humid forest zone of southern Cameroon. Result showed that land-use system significantly affected the clay, the silt and the sand fractions. Sand and silt decreased with the soil depth whereas clay increased with it.

Soil pH, total nitrogen, organic carbon available phosphorus, exchangeable calcium, exchangeable Al, sum bases, ECEC and Al toxicity chromolaena odorata fallows presented relatives higher soil fertility, secondary forests and cocoa plantations the lower. Lal (1996) noted that land use change in tropical ecosystem could cause significant modification in soil properties. In stressing the effect of this phenomenon on the ecosystem, Sclipper and Sparling (2000) posited that land use change modifications are biologically and chemically more rapid than physically, as forest ecosystem are important both ecologically and economically forest soils are one of the major sequesters of carbon on earth due to their high organic matters status (Dixon et al, 1994), as such any land development efforts or landscaping activities such as what is obtainable in the study area must mimic the characteristics of forest ecosystem. It is only through such healthy practice that the ecological component such as soil can be enhanced and sustained.

Furthermore, Gol (2009) investigated the effects of land use change on soil properties and organic carbon at Dagdami river catchments in turkey. Result indicated that saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_{sat}), bulk density (BD), water stable aggregates (WSA), soil organic matter (SOM), soil organic carbon (SOC) and total nitrogen significantly changed with land use type and aspect.

In addition, the study reported significantly higher values of saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_{sat}) in natural forest top soil ($82.4\text{cm}^3\text{ h}^{-1}$ on average) and hazelnut garden soils ($11.5\text{cm}^3\text{ h}^{-1}$) and corn field soils ($30.0\text{cm}^3\text{ h}^{-1}$) WSA was greater in the pasture and forest soils than in cultivated soils.

In addition, K_{sat} had the highest value in the forest soils at all aspects while, SOM and SOC of forest soils were higher than other land use types.

Furthermore, the amount of SOM and SOC is soils of grassland hazelnut garden and corn field were low level and close to each other. Offiong et al (2009) compared soil properties in undisturbed secondary forest and soil adjoining the road in Tinapa, area of Cross River State. Result indicated that the level of organic matter, total nitrogen and cation exchange capacity were substantially higher in soils of the undisturbed secondary forest than in soil adjoining the road. Zhao et al (2008) studied the effect of land cover change on soil phosphorus fractions in southern Horqin sandy land, Northern China. Results showed that organic P dominated and was the principal source of availability P. the degradation of elm savanna to grassland significantly reduced soil pH and resulted in an overall reduction in soil fertility although slightly increased labile inorganic P grassland afforestation, had no significant influence on soil pH, organic carbon, and total N but significantly reduced total P. impacts of grassland afforestation on soil p. fractions depends on tree species. Natural elm savanna had higher soil p. conserving ability than artificial plantations. The study suggested the planting of tress with low nutrient demand (particularly p) and efficient nutrient cycling as being more suitable for ecosystem restoration.

The above studies reveal that change in land use/cover can cause significant variation in soil properties, terrestrial cycles and reduction in soil output.

Conception of environment

The concept “environment” can be seen from many perspectives. Such perceptive can give birth to several competing definitions and descriptions. It is what we see and find as land, water and air. It is an embodiment of the entire stock of plants, animals and human beings and indeed the complex ecosystems and life forms between and among these. The environment is the earth and all its fullness – the physical features, its structure and crust, space and fine as well as culture that also produces the built up environment and the entire human development. The environment may be seen as the living earth, the only place where life is known to be found and sustained. It is here that human exert extensive influence and control over the forces of nature. The living environment is the combination of solid, liquid and gas, sound, vibration, radiation, heat and their combination in varying degrees to influence the growth and development of organisms. The minerals in the bowels of the earth and the mountains, hills, valleys, rocks, forests, and woodlands and the fluffy and scenery vegetation cover. The economic and cultural space formed by human also constitutes the environment. It also refers to all natural resources joint property of man of which one man’s right of use must not adversely affect the right of use of other joint owners (Offiong, 2003, Verla 2003, Eni 2005; Obong, 2007 b). The current global awareness of the environment and has pivoted role to human endeavors and survival as stated in the mounting of the 1972 United Nation’s World conference on Human Environment.

As identified by Eni (2005), human beings have characteristically lived in two worlds. The first is the natural world of nature consisting of plants, animals soils, air, and water that precludes the existence of man by hundreds of millions years of which man is an integral and inescapable part, the second is the world of social institutions and artifacts (built world) that man deliberately creates for himself using science, technology, culture,

political organization and so forth.

Landscape Sociology

Landscape Sociology encompasses social and ecological systems associated with public open space, urban agriculture, the urban and peri-urban fringe, regional towns and rural landscape. Landscapes make visible the biophysical and social links between nature and culture, especially between natural resource management, conservation (biodiversity) and agricultural food systems. Landscape is a vernacular scene, the product of everyday practice. Landscape sociologists believe that the landscape is not neutral but constructed, and that from this theoretical position research is possible to understand the social practices that have contributed to how the landscape is now and how it might be different in the future. Following on from this, the communities who are responsible for the landscape they inhabit, research, or make policies about, are able to be active in understanding and changing them. For landscape sociologists landscape are both subject and object and a part of an environmental narrative.

Landscape Sociology focuses on the interaction of society and the environment in a landscape. This obviously includes all land managers, farmers and community groups such as land care. Less obvious, but no less important, are government employees who are responsible for policy and the delivery of services to the community. Landscape sociology offers insight into how each of these communities of practice, including those in the public service, pursue their own interests in the landscape. A significant context for this research is the moved away from productivity as the dominant mode of conceiving agricultural landscape' worth, towards complexity science, social and ecological systems and resilience. Making this change in policy work will require different social groups to collaborate and share their practices in new and unconventional ways.

The Landscape sociology group has developed research practice capacities in: social theory, social ecological systems, resilience studies, rural sociology, complexity science, interdisciplinary, landscape policy and planning, anthropology and natural resource management. Our methodological approaches include case study research, discourse analysis, qualitative analysis and survey methods. As a group, researchers have grappled with the construction of social ecological knowledge in placed-based communities and scientific knowledge in government agencies, the socio economic drives of land use change, social ecological resilience, risk communication and policy and the social (mal) adaptation to drought. Landscape sociology is an exciting area of research that is opening up original research space and ecological realities. Associate Professor Ruth Berlin leads the Landscape sociology group within the Melbourne School of Land and Environment.

However, there is an attitudinal dimension of the sociological approach to the study of landscape which requires the carrying capacity of the earth and change our attitude towards the non-human world and inculcate in people valuable actions and concern for nature.

What is however, important to sociology concerning the natural global landscape is how man sustains its beauty without defacing it to instinct. Sustainable landscape in society is the society itself, which pays attention to evidential improvement in the quality of human life, through acceptable conservation practices. This creates a goodness-of-fit between the economy and the ecology in mutually supportive way. Sociology of landscape therefore is a rational attempt to go beyond gambling for the survival of public open spaces in the ecosystem.

In order to maintain perfect landscape sustainability every body needs to be mobilized and carried along in the steam boat of the ecological balance. To succeed no country is expected to be left out from a sustainable ecological balance and nobody should be found standing aloof. There is a need for global alliances and sociological landscape cooperation which is capable of ensuring a universal equity relating to environmental conditions and the social integration of all users of the environment.

Methodology of the Study

Study Area

This study was conducted in Calabar, Cross River State which lies between latitude 50.251E and longitude 250.001E. The study area falls within the rain forest zone of CRS where they rainy season lasts for about months 10-11 months with the dry months having less than 60mm of rainfall in the south. It has temperature with average daily maximum of 35⁰c. The rainy season has a short dry period called "August Break" or short dry season which last between 2 to 4 weeks.

The topography of the area is inculcating with gradual rise and fall. The area is well drained such that run off water disappears 30 minutes after a typical rainstorm (Eze, 2008). The highest elevation is about 300meters and lowest of about 50meters above sea level. The soils in Calabar are generally deep, porons, weakly structural, well drained with low to moderate status and where vegetation cover is removed due to human activities, the soil is vulnerable to active sheet and gully erosion. The area serves as a corridor of development to complement the tourism development initiatives of the state. The area is currently undergoing rapid development and changes in vegetation cover as a result of the influx of people into the state and the increasing need for

housing. Presently, people prefer residing in the area as a result of its low social vices and serene environment.

Sampling procedure

This study evaluated the effects of vegetation cover on soil properties by comparing the properties of soils of road side vegetation and a secondary forest.

The roadside vegetation comprises a stretch of land dominated by grasses with few trees stands, while the secondary forest plot is characterized by a dense vegetation (tall trees/shorts) with numerous undergrowth, which is less than 3km from the roadside vegetation. The study sites have similar soil parent materials topography and climate field survey and soil sampling was carried out using the quadrant approach. In each identified and delineated land use cover, five plots of 5m by 5m were established after which soil samples were randomly collected from the 0-10cm layer of the soil using a soil auger, in all 15 soil samples covering collected.

Land use cover in Calabar CRS

In Calabar, Cross River State, just like in other parts of the state, change in land use cover is an emerging phenomenon as a result of the state government's drive to making the state the ideal tourism destination in Nigeria.

In this regard, a lot of landscaping works has been embarked upon by the government like the planting of grasses along road verges as a way of beautifying the state and to control soil erosion among other ecological services.

The landscaping activities are characterized by the introduction of sand in degraded areas to ease the planting exercise. In some areas, trees are felled to make way for grasses; such a practice could be ecologically unwise in terms of its ability to suppress soil erosion.

Different studies have examined the effects of land use. Cover change on soil physicochemical properties (Lal, 1996; Bosshyt et al; 1999, Eneji et al, 2003 Everndileka et a; 2004, Igne, 2007, Emadi et al 2008, Zhao et al, 2008; Agonme and Birang, 2009, Gol 2009; Offiong et al 2009). The studies nevertheless characterized changes in soil properties in relations to emerging land use/cover change in their respective ecosystem on this note, more studies are indeed to understand the effect of emerging land sustainability.

According to Gol (2009), land management practices provide essential information for assessing sustainability and monitoring environmental impacts. In Calabar, with the current changing patterns of land use cover, mostly the introduction of grass planting, there seems to be paucity of literature on the ecological implication of this emerging phenomenon on the soil. It therefore becomes perturbing to investigate the impact of this current land management practice on soil fertility in order to suggest possible ways through which the inherent land use system can be ecologically sustainable.

Laboratory Analysis

The soils were stored in zip-10c bags and placed in a cooler to keep the sample at moderate temperature. They were then taken to the laboratory for analysis of soil physical and chemical properties. Particle size composition was determined using the hydrometer method by applying Stoke's law for particle settlement in hydraulic medium. (Bouyoulos, 1926); organic carbon by the Walkey-Black method (1934); total nitrogen by the Kjeldahl method (Bremmer and Mulvaney 1982); available phosphorus was determined by the method of Bray and Kurtz (1945). The soil were leached with IM neutral ammonium acetate to obtain leachates used to determine exchangeable base and a soil cation exchange capacity, while pH values were determine using a glass electrode tectonic digital pH meter with a soil water ratio of 1:2.

Data Analysis

The obtained soil data were analyzed using tables averages Pearson correlation and one way analysis of variance. The one way analysis of variance was performed to determine if the properties of soil varied significantly among the various land covers, while Pearson's correlation was employed to determine the nature of association between the soil variables in order to understand the possible factors that affect their build up in the soil.

Result and Discussion

Physical Properties of Soils

The particle size composition of soil in the three land covers are depicted, the soils are principally sandy, with sand accounting for more than 75% of the inorganic mineral fragment in the soil. The proportion of sand was higher in the secondary forest and roadside soil.

This is so as the sandy area is a part of the coastal plain of southern Nigeria which is characterized by sandy soils over wide expanses of land (Awston and Eneruvbe, 2010). There was significant variation in sand content under soils of different land cover ($p < 0.01$), the amount of silt and clay in the three soil comities was small compared to the value obtained for sand; silt contents were higher in the secondary forest soil and a 16-

years old plantation soil with mean values of 8.22% and 8.20% respectively but in roadside soil the mean value was 4.6%. The increase in silt content in the secondary forest and 16 year old plantation soils is attributed to the development of dense cover which helps to suppress soil erosion, soil content varied significantly under soils of different land cover at ($p < 0.05$). Clay content was much higher in the roadside soil than in the other land covers with mean value of 16.80%. The high amount of clay in the roadside soil is attributed to road construction and landscaping activities, during which soil with probably large amount of clay is introduced. There was significant variation in clay content under soil of different land cover ($p < 0.05$). However, the particular size composition of soils in the different land cover is insignificant; as soil in the area are texturally similar, being loamy sand having been derived from the same parent materials (granite) under the same climate and topography.

Table 1: Physical properties of the soils: a soil properties

Secondary forest soil
 Rubber soil
 Roadside soil
 F –values

Sand (%)	Silt (%)	Clay (%)
85.80 ± 0.80	8.22 ± 0.49	5.78 ± 1.01
86.80 ± 0.20	8.20 ± 0.49	5.00 ± 0.49
78.60 ± 1.41	4.60 ± 0.80	16.80 ± 2.06
22.4 ψ	11.57 \pm	23.27 \pm

Field survey data analysis. Where;

a = value are means ± standard errors

ψ - difference between means is significant at 1% alpha level

+ - difference between means is significant at 5% alpha level

Chemical properties of soils

The chemical properties of soils under different land cover are shown in table 1 below:

The social of the area are acidic with a pH range of 4.06 to 5.20. The acidic nature of the studied soil is attributed to the high rainfall resulting in the leaching of some basic cations especially calcium from the surface horizons of the soils (Foth 2006, Abua et al, 2010; Iwara et al, 2011). The pH value obtained in this study agrees with the findings of Agbenede (2008) that the pH in Nigeria derived savanna and forest soils falls within the range of 4.5-7.5. The contents of organic carbon (OC) and total nitrogen (TN) were high in the secondary forest soil, and low in roadside soil with mean values of 1.93% and 0.46% as well as 0.97% and 0.24% respectively.

The mean OC contents of the studied soils ranged from 0.97% - 1.92% and were rated as low (below 2%) C^o Clude et al, (2011), Reid and Dirou, (2004). While, TN content of the soils ranged from 0.24 to 0.46% (table 2); this range of value was rated as medium when compared to the medium range of 0.10 to 0.45% recommended by Holland et al (1989).

This range is however, consistent with the works of Ukaegbu and Akmigbo (2005) who reported average total percentage of 0.08 in soils of the Cross River crastal plain sands. The increase in contents of OC and TN in the secondary forest soils is attributed to the increase in plant density and cover which provides large amount of biomass that decomposes to form nutrient in the soil. The proportion of OC and TN varied significantly under soils of different land covers.

Table 2: chemical properties of the soils: a soil properties

Secondary forest soil
 Rubber soil
 Roadside soil
 F –values

pH	OC	TN	AV. P (mg/kg)
4.07 ± 0.16	1.93 ± 0.28	0.46 ± 0.07	8.65 ± 0.99
4.06 ± 0.02	1.04 ± 0.19	0.025 ± 0.05	21.90 ± 6.31
5.02 ± 0.39	0.97 ± 0.05	0.24 ± 0.01	48.85 ± 1.68
8.80 ψ	7.31 ψ	5.31+	28.85 ψ

Field Survey Data Analysis 2003

CEC (Cmol/kg)	Ca (cmol/kg)	Mg (cmol/kg)	Na (cmol/kg)	K (cmol/kg)
4.45 ± 0.27	0.77 ± 0.05	0.23 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.02	0.08 ± 0.01
4.96 ± 0.22	0.38 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.01	0.72 ± 0.02	0.07 ± 0.00
7.47 ± 1.53	1.43 ± 0.09	0.75 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.01	0.49 ± 1.33
3.94 ns	63.84 ψ	4.47 ± 91 ψ	448.86 ψ	1.15ns

Field Survey data analysis 2003

a - values are means \pm standards errors

ψ – difference between means is significant at 1% alpha level

+ - difference between means is significant at 5% alpha level 3.5⁰

Ns - not significant at 5% alpha level.

The content of cation exchange capacity (ECE) happened to be higher in the roadside soil with a mean value of 7.47cmol/kg in other land cover soils. The high content of CEC in roadside may be attributed to road construction and landscaping activities resulting in the introduction of soil with high clay content. Reid Dirou, (2004) opined that both clay and organic matter serves as potential; matter have higher exchange capacities than sandy soils, which are usually low in organic matter.

Summary

In summation therefore, one may conclude that landscape issues need also to be mainstreamed into our developmental policies and schools in all areas of programme and curriculum implementation everybody as a stakeholder of landscape must be mobilized to participate in its protection for a sustainable living.

Sociology of landscape is therefore inevitable, as it helps man to examine human capabilities, exertion of creative knowledge and application of skills to attain greater freedom and enjoy higher level of well being in a sustained natural landscape as to meet the needs of man at the moment without destroying the environment as to affect its future needs and use.

The attempt to control the landscape can be on a sociological dimension, the processes, style and product which may be inappropriate and incapable of coping with long term ecological demands. Essentially therefore, sociological approach landscape sustainability is practically inevitable to achieve ecological balance.

Conclusion and Recommendations

As we create wealth from the environment for our economic boom, we must not credit waste to it for an ecological doom. We must deliberately attempt to consider most especially the landscape in order to keep it on a balance, otherwise it will boomerang back, so, in order to forestall this danger, we need to live in consonance with natural rules. We must as a matter of priority maintain, sustain and continue to have habitable communities. We need to protect the environment and the people who live in it. Our social institutions must change and be strengthened to protect the living environment and its beautiful natural landscape.

It is apparent from the study that changes in land use cover have significant impact on the availability of nutrient in the soil. This is evident as areas with sparse vegetation cover are susceptible to soil erosion process resulting in the loss of organic matter and other essential nutrients from the soil layer. This is observed in the roadside soil with low vegetation and sparse cover resulting in the low OC and TN contents.

However, it is equally important to note that human are utilizing all the world's major renewable natural resources agricultural soil, forest trees range grasses and ocean fishes at rates exceeding the natural ability to renew themselves and the high contents of CEC, available phosphorus, Ca, Mg, and K in the roadside soil are attributed to road construction and landscaping activities resulting in the introduction of sand with high clay content. The high quantities of OC and TN in the secondary forest soil ecosystem have significant effect on the build up of nutrients in the soil; this is because dense canopy cover helps in nutrient accretion in the soil by minimizing the loss of nutrients through soil erosion and leaching. It also enhances the production of more litter as well as provide the needed temperature for bacteria, fungi, micro-fauna and other soil microbes with a high level composition, that helps in facilitating organic matter decomposition, thereby facilitating carbon sequestration in the soil. However, to maintain the stock of soil organic carbon in soil in line with changing landscape, trees whose height are controllable should be planted along with grasses, instead of grasses alone as could be seen in major routes in Calabar. The planting of trees with controllable height will help in carbon sequestration and the maintenance of nutrient in the soil for continuous energy fluxes. It is therefore recommended that:

- Tree planting perhaps should be the major priority, proper afforestation of land according to Lal (2005) can reverse some of the degradation process and cause enhancement or sequestration of SOC stock and nutrient in the soil.
- Furthermore, residues from the cleaning of grasses undergrowth should be used to cover the soil surface in order to minimize the effects of erosion in relation to the addition of nutrients in the soil.
- The so called civilized and westernized life styles and consumption should be reviewed with a reversal to the traditional and natural compatible ways of doing things, since there is the lack of technological know how to cope with the westernized life style.
- Sociologists should develop an ecological system associated with public open space both for urban and rural agricultural development.

- Landscape sociologists should develop research practice capacities in landscape policies and planning in Nigeria via the world.
- Sociologists in collaboration with the world environmental summit should design research programmes targeted at man's interactions with his landscape, either for shelter, farming, mining, beautifications irrigation, fishing and the likes.
- Government of each country should be more interested on the fraudulent use of her landscape, by enacting policies that are geared towards the preservation of their ecosystem for a sustainable balance.

REFERENCES

- Abua, M. A., Offiong, R. A., Iwara A. I & Ibor, U. W. (2010): Impact of Newly Constructed Road on Adjoining Soils properties in Tinapa Resort, South-Eastern, Nigeria. *Annals of Humanities & Development Studies*, P. 176-184.
- Adeoye, G. O. & Agboola, A. A. (1985). Critical levels for soil pH, availability P, K, Zn and Mn and maize Ear-leaf content of P, Cu and Mn in sedimentary soils of south western Nigeria fertilizer research, 65-75.
- Agbede, O. O. (2008). Soil Husbandry. Life for national food secondary and economic Empowerment. An inaugural delivered on March, 19th 2008 at Nasarawa State University Kefi, Nigeria.
- Aweto, A. O. & Enarurbe G. O. (2010). Centenary variation on soil properties under oil palm plantation in south Western Nigeria *Ethiopian Journal of Environmental studies and management* 3(1), 1-7.
- Barym, R. G. and Chorley, R. J. (1976). *Atmosphere, weather and climate* (3rd Ed.) London: Methuen.
- Caino, A. Robb. (2001). *International Environmental Law Report (Trade & Environmental)*, Uk. Cambridge University Press.
- Centralinfo@nou.edu.ng.
- Emeh, J. U. Ntia, Usang E. U. & Enuokoha, O. I. (1995). *Philosophical issues in Environmental Education*. University Press Calabar.
- Eze, B. B. (2008). Maximizing the economic potential of the Calabar cultural carnival. Department of Geography and Regional Planning, University of Calabar, Calabar.
- Fertilizer Procurement and Distribution on Divisions (EFDD 1990): Literature Review of Soil.
- Foth, H. D. (2006). *Fundamentals of soils science*. 8th edition. New York John Wiley and son.
- Gamaliel Onosode (2003)
- Gol (2009). Effects of land use change on soil properties and organic carbon at Dagdami River Catchments in Turkey: *Journal of Environmental Biology*, 301-825-830.
- Holland, M. D., Allen R. K., G. Barten, D. & Murphy, S. T. (1989). Land Evaluation and agricultural recommendations for Cross River National Park, Oban, Division Report Prepared by the Oversees Development Resources Institute in collaboration with WWF for Federal Republic of Nigeria and Cross River State
- IUCN-UNEP-WWF (1980). *World conservation strategy. Living resources conservation for sustainable development*. Gland-Switzerland: IUCN.
- Iwara, A. I. (2001). Soil erosion and nutrient loss dynamics in successional fallow communities in a part of the rainforest belt south-southern Nigeria Ph.D proposal Ibadan Nigeria: July 2011.
- Iwara, A. I., Ewa, E. E., Ogundele, F. O., Adeyemi, J. A. & Otu, C. A. (2011). Ameliorating effects of palm oil mill effluent on the physical and chemical properties of soil in Ugep, Cross River State, south-southern Nigeria. *International Journal of Applied Science & Technology*, (5), 106-112.
- Jaya, S. O. (1995). *Planning and process in environmental management*. Ibadan: Macmillan Nigeria Publishers. Ltd.
- Lal, R. (1996). Deforestation and land-use effects on soil degradation and reliabilitation in Western Nigeria. *Soil physical and hydrological properties. Land Degradation and Development*, 7, 19-45.
- Okwudiba, Nnoli (1998). *Ethnic conflict in Africa*, Ibadan, University press.
- Peter, A. G., Reats, David Smile & Arthur W. Warrick (2009). *Environmental mechanics, water, mass and energy transfer in the Biosphere*. Washington D. C.
- Peter, A. Raats, Smiles, Warrick (2002). *Environmental Mechanics: water, mass and energy transfer in the Biosphere*. CSIRO Australia.
- Richard, Olu Sule (2003). *Fundamentals of Urban Planning, Theory and Practice in Nigeria*.
- Ukpong, E. M; Ntia, N. U., Obot A. & Usang, E. N. (1995). *Community Environmental Education*. Lagos Macmillan Nig. Ltd.
- Wachs, M. (2004). Reflection on the Planning process. Ins. Hanson, K. G. Guliano (Ed), *the Geography of Urban transportation* (3rd edition, pp. 141-161). The Guilford Press.
- www.nou.edu.ng.

Students' Engagement in the Self-Evaluation Process, is it a Useful Visible Step? Saudi Pilot Study

Rana Talal Abu-Huwaij

Quality & Audit Management Department, Saad College of Nursing & Allied Health Sciences, Al-Khobor-
Saudi Arabia

e-mail: rhuwaij@yahoo.com

Abstract

Purpose: to assess the visibility of the nursing students' engagements in the mission & objectives self-evaluation process as part of on going academic accreditation.

Methodology: A structured self-administered questionnaire developed by the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) was used for data collection. A pilot sample of senior students representative currently enrolled in 5-year Bachelor of Nursing Science was approached. The institutional mission and objectives standards were rated by the staff as part of ongoing process of accreditation as well as the students. Students' experience was evaluated quantitatively and qualitatively.

Findings: The students were able to perform the evaluation without having more difficulties than the staff and with no inflated scores. The students showed strong positive attitudes and reflections toward their experience in the self-evaluation process. Their experience increased their understanding and awareness of the mission and objectives of the institution as well as their role as responsible party in the education process.

Value: The students' experience provided a useful indicator that assured student maturity and willingness to participate in quality issues, and considered a potential candidate for future wider studies of larger number of students' engagement with different academic level.

Keywords: Students' engagement & perception, accreditation, self-evaluation, NCAAA.

1. Introduction

Accreditation is defined as the formal certification proved that the institution or the program meets required standards (Council for Higher Education Accreditation 2010). The purposes of accreditation in higher education have been described as: fostering quality assurance, facilitating access to state funds, engendering private sector confidence in higher education, and easing transfer of courses and programs among colleges and universities (Eaton 2009). An effective accreditation system is granted to an organization in higher education when it demonstrates certain activities that it is meeting the outset purpose of a program; it has defined mission, vision and objectives; it has standards; and it demonstrates that the program will continue to accomplish its purpose by ensuring to stay abreast of the newest and most up-to-date technologies, innovations and best practices in its field (Baker and Miosi 2010; Davis and Ringsted 2006; Nina et al 2008).

Stakeholder's engagement is a recurring theme in the accreditation process and a key driver in the acceleration of quality performance improvement. In the last decade across Europe, the student's role in the quality assurance of higher education has become recognized as being essential, beneficial and desirable (European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education 2006). Benefits of including individual students in the evaluation councils conducting institutional quality level have been acknowledged in several European studies (Froestad & Bakken 2004; H. Alaniska et al. 2006; Irish Higher Education Quality Network 2009)

In Saudi Arabia, The government recognized the important need of the quality assurance along with the accreditation system. Thus the National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (NCAAA) has been established in 2004 to accredit all post-secondary institutions and programs (NCAAA handbook 2009; Telmesani et al. 2011; Darandari and Hoke 2007). NCAAA encourages the development of internal quality system that has to work with tertiary education institutions, governmental authority, as well as stakeholders such as students, faculty and staff members.

NCAAA stimulated the self-study process with focusing on student engagement as a major stakeholder in the process (Al mughraby 2009). Self-evaluation was defined as students judging the quality of the work, based on evidence and explicit criteria, for the purpose of having better work in the future (Kastrati 2013).

Subsequently, the involvement of the student to improve and enhance their own learning needs has become increasingly noticed. Whether through providing feedback about the courses they are taking (Al Rubaish 2010 & 2011; Gravestock & Gregor-Greenleaf 2008), contributing to the learning and teaching development in their subjected areas through reflecting on their experiences (Abu-Moghli 2005), or presenting their views through representative body in decision making processes in the institution as the college council, the course committee and the student/staff consultative committee.

NCAAA developed 11 standards to be met for accreditation process. Mission & objectives is one of these standards which has to be self-evaluated in the Saudi institutions that are seeking for the national academic

accreditation. It aims to assure that the institution's mission statement is clearly and appropriately defines its principal purposes and priorities and be influential in guiding planning and action within the institution, and highly supported by the major stakeholders (NCAAA handbook 2010).

2. Significant & purpose of the study

A significant lack of studies in Saudi Arabia related to students' engagement in the self-evaluation process, and the absence of full understood by all actors on how and on which levels student should be involved, limit the courage for student engagements. Many programs in higher education are faced with the decision of whether or not to seek student participation in the self-evaluation process. Proponents argue that it is needed to be assured by stakeholders that specific academic programs have upheld quality standards and their engagement is the key to helping students understand their role as responsible party in the educational process (Alaniska et al. 2006). Others take the view that it is redundant and not needed when other stakeholders are already part of the accreditation. They often claim that the excessive efforts, the time required of quality staff to orientate and increase awareness of the students with the successful key points in quality implementation, as well as the expected anomalous input by the students outweigh the benefits. The student evaluation could be impulsive and inflate the scores due to immature judgment (Al mughraby 2009).

Being a quality minded academic institution that accepted the student representative as partner in the academic community, and had the ability to see the situation from the perspective of a student and a learner, because they often have a balanced view of the aim and mission of the academic institution; either on the political and cultural aspects of the academic community, on the institutions' role in society and on the future of the academic development. In addition to adopting Haworth and Conrad perspective of an engagement theory and the quality of an academic program, who highlighted the presence of particular academic area of shared interest will provide a greatest chance of long term success (Haworth & Conrad 1997; Rough 2002). Moreover, the student nurses as health care providers learnt how to apply the reflective thinking based on evidences to improve the care they provided, where reflection indeed is vital to their education as the bridge between experiences and learning (Chan Chong 2009; Ferguson & Day 2005; McGrath 2005; Penz & Bassendowski 2006). Based on the above, the purpose of this study was formulated to assess the visibility and validity of the nursing students' engagements in the mission & objectives self-evaluation process. This study might provide useful observations to other institutions having similar environments and seeking for academic accreditation in higher education.

3. Methodology:

3.1 Study Setting:

The study was conducted at Saad College of Nursing & Allied Health Sciences, Saudi Arabia. The college offers a 5-year Bachelor nursing science program in collaboration with the University of Ulster, with a student population of 450 students.

3.2 Sampling:

Pilot sample of four senior representatives' students currently enrolled in the Nursing Science program and thirteen staff were selected to evaluate the mission and objectives of the institution. Those students met the needed personality of leadership, honesty, and commitment over the role of at least 2 years as student representative. The students formulated a 24% of the total sample.

3.3 Ethical considerations:

The participants were asked to contribute in the mission & objectives standard self-evaluation as part of accreditation process in the institution. They were asked to do the evaluation based on the evidences which were collected and provided to them, and to reflect their experience quantitatively & qualitatively. They were given a written information sheet that explained the survey aims, process and confidentially and anonymously treatment. Informed consent from participants was obtained to assure that they will share their experiences voluntary and honestly and will discard any given documents after the study.

3.4 Instrumentation:

The study was conducted by two phases. The first part was to conduct the NCAAA self-evaluation of Mission and Objectives standard by the students as well as the staff. A detailed explanatory orientation was conducted to the participants to explain the process of the self-evaluation. Quality evidences on every requirement were provided. Scoring grid and the evaluation forms which were adopted from NCAAA were provided and well explained. Each participant performed the evaluation individually and independently and was given one week to finish it. The evaluation form covered five quality aspects; appropriate of the mission, usefulness of the mission statement, development and review of the mission, use made of mission statement, and relationship between mission, goals and objectives (NCAAA handbook 2009). The evaluation was based on five scales ranged from one to five stars in order to indicate whether the mentioned practices are followed in the institution or not, and to show how well that specific practice is performed as shown in table 1.

The second phase was to conduct the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the student's perceptions toward

their engagement experience. A student engagement perception survey was prepared. Mixed design was utilized in the survey to define the student perceptions through measurements of open and closed questions. The mixed approach provided the opportunity to efficiently generate greater understanding. Using quantitative approach in this study was useful to create categories and charts easily (Slater & Curwin 2008), while qualitative approach was useful in the open-question part which allowed further elaboration of personal thoughts and experiences (Carpenter et al. 2007). The closed questions measured five quality aspects; quality orientation, self-evaluation experience, quality student engagement, academic accreditation perception, and overall satisfaction. The students should check the closest answer that matches their opinion whether it is: strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree or uncertainty. While the open question was about the issues most commonly the students reflected from their experience.

Table 1 The Quality Star Scoring Grid approved by NCAA

Star Scores	Overall evaluation description	Detailed Description
1	Improvement Required	The practice is followed but this may be only done occasionally and the quality is poor
2	Improvement Required	The practice is usually followed but the quality is less than satisfactory
3	Good Performance	The practice is followed most of the time. Evidence of the effectiveness of the activity is usually obtained and indicates that satisfactory standards of performance are normally achieved although there is some room for improvement. Plans for improvement in quality are made and progress in implementation is monitored.
4	High Quality Performance	The practice is followed consistently. Indicators of quality of performance are established and suggest high quality but with still some room for improvement. Plans for this improvement have been developed and are being implemented, and progress is regularly monitored and reported on.
5	High Quality Performance	The practice is followed consistently and at a very high standard, with direct evidence or independent assessments indicating superior quality in relation to other comparable institutions. Despite clear evidence of high standards of performance plans for further improvement exist with realistic strategies and timelines established.

3.5 Data Analysis:

The arithmetic mean for an item was calculated to measure the core image of the distribution of agreement scores that are collected on an ordinal scale. The median and the first quartile were also measured to overcome the inappropriateness of the mean for skewed distribution. These measures for an item imply that at least 50% and 75% of respondents students respectively have assigned that score or higher for the corresponding item.

Given that the ultimate goal is to achieve agreement for each item by at least 80% of students, the performance grading criteria of Rubaish et al. (2010) as presented in table 2 was used to report every item at each of the five measures. The term % satisfied was calculated, it refers to the proportion of students that rated the questionnaire item at 4 or 5 on the 5-point scale.

Qualitative data was subjected to a content analysis in order to identify common themes that characterize the major common positive or negative students' perceptions.

Table 2. The performance grading criteria

Overall evaluation description	Mean	Median	Cumulative % of students satisfaction With score 4 or 5
Improvement Required	< 3	1 & 2	Less than 60
Acceptable	3	3	60 – 80
High Quality Performance	4 and above	4 & 5	80 & Above

4. Results & Discussion:

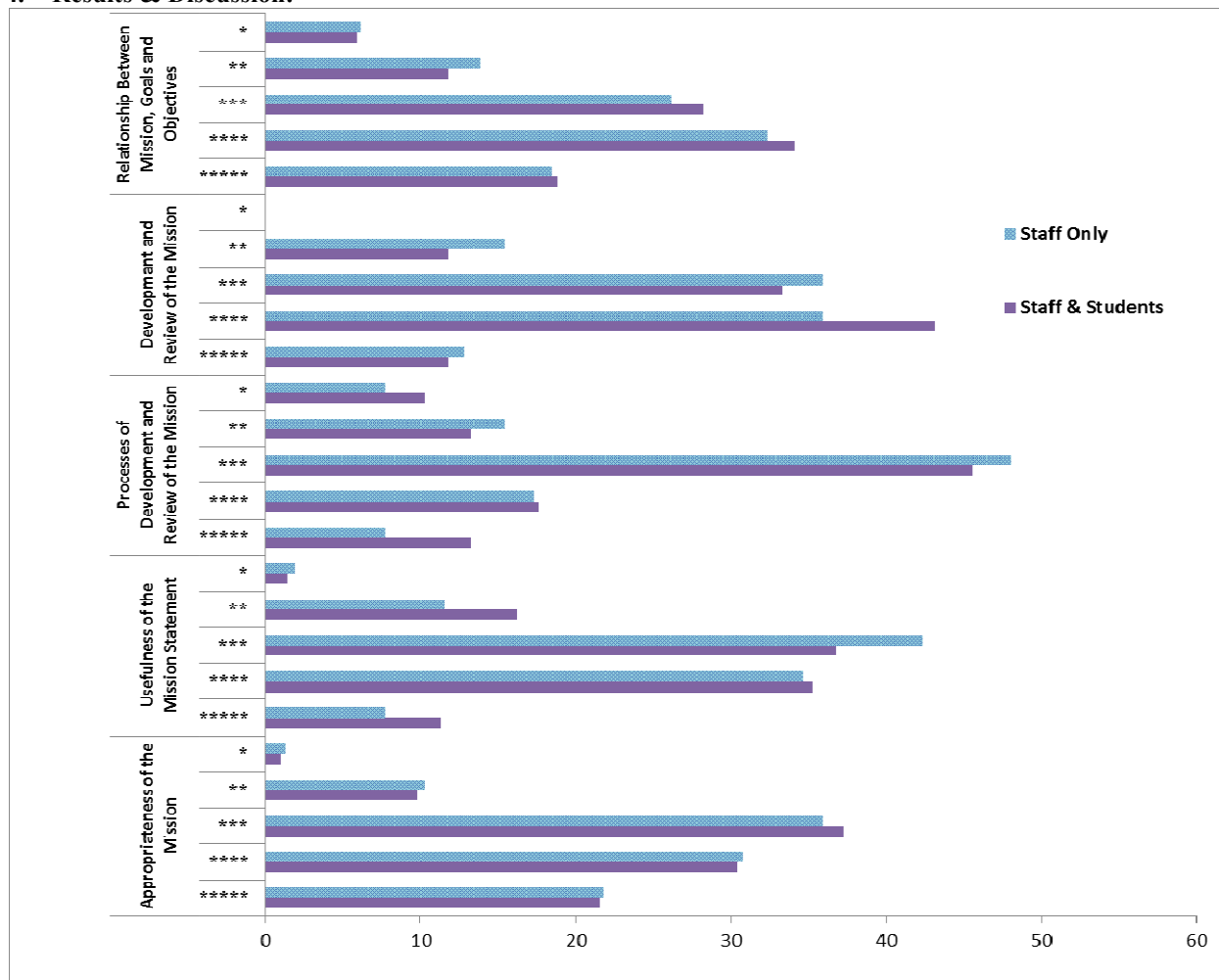


Figure 1. Average frequency percentage of the star rating of the staff and the students per each quality aspect of the mission and objectives standard

(* one star, ** two stars, *** three stars, **** four stars, *****five stars)

The arithmetic mean of the responses for each quality aspect was calculated to measure the core image of the distribution of agreement scores that were collected on an ordinal scale. Figure 1 shows the average frequency percentage of the star rating of the staff and the students per each quality aspect of the mission and objectives standard. Participants responded positively over the five quality aspects, where on average at least 77% of the responses had a score of 3, 4 or 5, while only at most 23% of the responses were rated 2 or 1.

Item by item analysis was used to derive more meaningful, more accurate and objective reflection of participants' satisfaction. Table 3 demonstrates the frequency of the staff responses with and without the students rating and the percentage of agreement to the listed items regarding the five quality aspects. Given that the ultimate goal is to achieve agreement for each item by at least 80% of students, the staff did not report any high quality of satisfaction, 18.2% (4 items) of acceptable satisfaction and 81.8% (18 items) of low quality satisfaction that needed improvement. However, adding the students' scores to the staff rated 1 item (4.5%) of acceptable satisfaction, 21 items (95.5%) that needed improvement and again none of high quality.

Based on the frequency of high quality satisfaction, it is very clear that the majority of the items needed improvements. All the cumulative percentage of satisfaction of the items were lower than 60%, that ranged from 40-60% for 11 items and <40% for 7 items.

Definitely, meaningful clues could be derived from such evaluations to develop and manage sustainable high quality institutional mission & objectives. All the items must be reconsidered. Much attention should be given for the process of mission and objectives development which attained the lowest satisfaction aspect. Staff as well as students responses revealed that the governing body role in reviewing, conforming or amending it in the light of changing circumstances was less than satisfactory and need improvement. Moreover, staff and students as major stakeholders had higher expectation on the quality of communication that kept them consulted and

informed about the mission and any changes in it.

The item that attained the highest satisfaction by the staff as well as the students was "The mission is consistent with the economic and cultural requirements of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia"

Four items showed acceptable satisfaction needed quality performance indicators with consistent monitoring and reporting to attain high quality of satisfaction. Those items were "The mission statement is consistent with the establishment charter of the institution", "The mission statement is consistent with Islamic beliefs and values", "Goals are stated with sufficient clarity to effectively guide planning and decisionmaking in ways that are consistent with the mission", and "Specific objectives for total institutional initiatives and for internal organizational units are consistent with the mission and broad goals for development".

Lowering the bar of satisfaction to at least 75% increased the high quality items slightly to 4.5% (1 item). Considering the median by lowering the bar of the satisfaction to at least 50% of the students improved the "acceptable" evaluation to "high quality" for 9 items (40.9%) rated by the staff and 12 (54.5%) items with students scores addition. Definitely, decreasing the bar of satisfaction increased the number of items with high quality of performance.

Obviously students engagement in the self-evaluation process did not inflate the scores. 5 items out of 22 had similar percentage of satisfaction for both students and the staff, 7 items attained less students' satisfaction than the staff, while only 10 items attained higher staff satisfaction. Students were confident enough to rate some items with the extreme values of 1 or 5 stars. Students expressed their perceptions honestly and frankly without overwhelming the scores, and deviating the results from reality. Moreover, a drastic positive effect on the students attitudes and institutional culture was obvious. This was very evident on the overall finding of students' perception toward their self-evaluation experience. They showed a high positive agreement in relation to all quality aspects measured. The students showed 100% satisfaction distributed between the agree and the strongly agree on all quality aspects measured. Their strong agreements on quality orientation, self-evaluation experience, quality student engagement and academic accreditation perception were 66.7%, 37.5%, 80%, and 50% respectively.

The students were self-confident and motivated to do the evaluation with high power and commitment to face the challenge. They showed high positive awareness toward the importance of their engagement at the level of their personality and at the institution level. Students were highly agreed on the clarity of the evidences and the scoring grid provided, and agreed on the smooth and the effectiveness of the self-evaluation process. Students were strongly agreed on that their engagement could provide an opportunity for the institution to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses, a better educational level, and a foster for the intellectual quality challenges. At the same time, the students agreed on the importance of the accreditation process which could enhance the institution image and provide the better job opportunities.

The qualitative reflective experience assured the positive attitude of the students toward their experience.

The participated nursing students were able to access, evaluate the evidences and reflect their own formulated decision of satisfaction. The students reflected that their experience increased the understanding and awareness about the mission, and objectives of the institution. It fostered the leadership skills of them. It fostered many morals as evidenced by the following representative quotes:

"It was an interesting experience to be a leader and to have responsibility toward my colleagues through representing them and speaking up for them. It was also an improvement step in my personal and professional abilities. It helped me to be more organized, focused and task-oriented".

"I felt that it was beyond my abilities as a student. However, at the time that I was involved in the process of evaluation, I overcame all the challenges by my perseverance, then I discovered that the evaluation process is not as hard as I thought. Actually, I used to deal with such issue in my practice as a student nurse, where the concepts of honesty, confidentiality and decision making are fundamentals requirements in nursing profession. Although I just participated in one standard of the elevens, it seemed that this evaluation is very effective for the improvement of my learning needs as a student. I gained more insight about the effort that my college does for support continuing quality improvement."

"Although, the experience itself was somehow frightening as I did not feel competent enough to evaluate the institution. However, after the initiation of the process, it came across my mind the importance of my opinion since students are a huge part of the stakeholders, and they are highly affected by any decision made by the quality improvement, as they are the target of their work."

"As a student representative for more than 2 years in the institution, I can literally state that our voices were well heard from all the departments, our issues were looked at and reviewed periodically and feedbacks were provided continuously. However, assessing the efficacy of students' participation in the quality evaluation is such an opportunity for us that can foster our perception and support our pre-occupied expectations in order to provide a professional and highly-qualified practice. Engagement in this project has challenged our abilities to re-call, assess, evaluate and re-assess how appropriate the institution mission for the objectives in the community in which it is implemented".

Although today students' voices being heard loudly and clearly and their views are being taken seriously and used for institutional planning and improvement (Al Mohaimeed 2012), a number of limitations of students' surveys have been reported (Yorke 2009). The study resolved that, while students' credibility could still be debatable with this small sample size, the impact of the experience that included the quantitative analysis, students' participation and feedback was clearly felt at all levels. The students' role in the self-evaluation was well-recognized for self-improvement at the institution for having a clear systematic approach that dictate the student involvement in this process. Their engagement was considered as the key to helping students understand their role as responsible party, and appreciate their perceptions that provide important useful information for quality improvement. Moreover, They were able to narrow the gap between the students and the institute administration and bringing quality issues of the education processes forward.

The last, with this engagement, the institution distilled several best practice tactics that were highlighted in the review of (Trowler 2010). It developed a shared understanding of institutional mission and objectives, advocated for shared governance, and ensured that students have a prominent voice in the institution governance.

The students' capability of assessing, evaluating and reflecting without having more difficulties than the staff, overcame the argument of some studies that postulated that the lack of students' academic experiences and the lack of understanding of some organizational aspects of an institution are reasons to withhold the students from being accepted as members in the expert committees. Despite the extra time and effort required to maintain student participation in self-evaluation, both parties have felt that it adds a great deal of value to the process.

5. Conclusion

The study presented an account of some of the initial impacts of the first accreditation exercise in the institution. It concludes that in an educational institute, competent students can play a role in quality assessment independently, and with adequate support and orientation can face the challenge with no more difficulties than the staff. Self-evaluation is only part of a continual journey of reflection and improvement, where student involvement in that journey is valuable. Students have shown resilience in their willingness to engage despite an array of obstacles. Students' expectations, what they can achieve and how the self-evaluation process works need to be addressed to enable and maintain their engagement.

6. Recommendations

The small sample size limits the quantitative studies validity. The current challenge is to get as many students involved as possible, in order for the project to become an on-going process. The future study should focus on having bigger sample with different academic level in order to generalize the findings. The institution should focus on having a systematic approach to increase the students' awareness and involvement from the start of their college life in the self-evaluation and the accreditation process. Students has to be encouraged for their engagement in quality improvement projects as part of their daily life in the institution. The institution can develop a web site of resource materials for student representatives and unions to be accessed, can conduct Quality Takes Time events to highlight the accreditation process and student's role, and can provide free hours for quality readings and engagement as part of extra-curriculum activities to avoid the feelings of unnecessarily pressure over and above their academic studies.

7. Acknowledgments

The author is thankful to Ms Hayat Al Mushqab for her active involvement in the data analysis, and the students Sukinah Al Fraish, Fatimah Al Nasser, Amal Qulli and Shaima Al Kathiry for their mature, balanced and objective response.

References

1. Abu-Moghli F., Khalaf I., Halabi J. & Wardam L. (2005). Jordanian baccalaureate nursing students perception of their learning styles. *International Council of Nurses, International Nursing Review*, 52, 39-45
2. Alaniska H. et al., (2006). Student involvement in the process of quality assurance agencies, Workshop reports 4, European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, Helsinki.
3. Al Mohaimeed A., Midhet F., Barrimah I., and Saleh M. (2012). Academic Accreditation Process: Experience of a Medical College in Saudi Arabia *Int J Health Sci (Qassim)*. January; 6(1): 23–29. PMID: PMC3523780
4. Al mughraby H. (2009). Quality Assurance in Newly Established Universities in Saudi Arabia. www.anqah.org/files/abu_dhabi.../Hussein_Maghraby.pdf
5. Al Rubaish A. (2010). "On the Contribution of Student Experience Survey Regarding Quality Management

- in Higher Education: An Institutional Study in Saudi Arabia,” *Journal of Service Science & Management*, Vol. 3, No. 4, pp. 464-469 .
6. Al Rubaish A. (2011). "The Usefulness of Global Student Rating Items under End Program Evaluation Surveys in Quality Improvements: An Institutional Experience in Higher Education, Saudi Arabia," *iBusiness*, Vol. 3 No. 4, pp. 353-358. doi: 10.4236/ib.2011.34047.
 7. Baker DN, Miosi T. (2010). The Quality Assurance of Degree Education in Canada. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 5(1):32-57.
 8. Carpenter R., Streubert J. and Speziale S. (2007). *Qualitative research in nursing: Advancing the humanistic imperative*. (5th edition) Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins. Page 88
 9. Chan Chong M. (2009). Is Reflective Practice a Useful Task for Student Nurses? *Asian Nursing Research*. September, Vol 3 ,No 3
 10. Council for Higher Education Accreditation. (2010). *Ask Before You Decide: Accreditation Matters*, Washington (CHEA)
 11. Darandari E. and Hoke T. (2007). A pilot study investigating the opinions of staff and faculty members about applying evaluation activities and quality assurance procedures at the Saudi universities and colleges. Paper presented at the Annual Conference for Saudi Educational and Psychological Association, Al-Qassim, Saudi Arabia.
 12. Davis D, Ringsted C. (2006). Accreditation of undergraduate and graduate medical education: how do the standards contribute to quality? *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 11(3):305-13
 13. Eaton J. (2009). Accreditation in the United States. *New Directions for Higher Education* , (145):79-86.
 14. European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (2006).
 15. Ferguson L. and Day R. (2005). Evidence-based nursing education: Myth or reality?, *Journal of Nursing Education*, 44(3), pp. 107-116.
 16. Froestad W., Bakken P. (eds.). (2004). Student involvement in quality assessments of higher education in the Nordic countries, *Nordic Quality Assurance Network in Higher Education*, Helsinki.
 17. Gravestock P. and Gregor-Greenleaf E. (2008). "Student Course Evaluations: Research, Models and Trends," *Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario*, Toronto.
 18. Haworth G. and Conrad F. (1997). *Emblems of Quality in Higher Education: Developing and Sustaining High Quality Programs*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
 19. Irish Higher Education Quality Network. (2009). *Common Principles for Student Involvement in Quality Assurance/Quality Enhancement*. December 2009. <http://www.iheqn.ie>
 20. Kastrati S. (2013). Student Self-Evaluation in Albanian Language. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*. Vol. 3, No. 7 . Doi:10.5901/jesr.2013.v3n7p431
 21. McGrath P. (2005). Critical thinking and evidence-based practice, *Journal of Professional Nursing*, 21(6), pp.364-371
 22. Nina Becket, Maureen Brookes, Gypsy Lane. (2008). Quality Management Practice in Higher Education – What Quality Are We Actually Enhancing? *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*. Vol. 7(1) pp. 40-45 DOI:10.3794/johlste.71.174
 23. Penz K. and Bassendowski S. (2006). Evidence-Based Nursing in Clinical Practice Implications for Nurse Educators. *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing*. November/December Vol 37, No 6
 24. Roug D. (2002). The Engagement Model for Effective Academic Advising With Undergraduate College Students and Student Organizations. *Journal of Humanistic Counseling, education and development*. Spring, volume 41
 25. Slater R. and Curwin J. (2008). *Quantitative methods for business decisions* (6th edition). London: Thompson Learning. Page 7
 26. Telmesani G, Zaini I. and Ghazi O. (2011). Medical education in Saudi Arabia: a review of recent developments and future challenges, *Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal*, 17 (8) pp. 703-707
 27. The National Commission for Academic Accreditation and Assessment (2009). *NCAAA handbook*, Saudi Arabia
 28. Trowler V. (2010). *Student Engagement Literature Review*. York: The Higher Education Academy
 29. Yorke M. (2009). "Student Experience Surveys: Some Methodological Considerations and an Empirical Investigation," *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, Vol. 34, No. 6, pp. 721-739. doi:10.1080/02602930802474219

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of participants' responses (staff and students) to the listed items across the

quality aspects, in addition to the percentage of agreement (%S).

Items	Staff Scores Alone						Staff & Students Scores					
	5	4	3	2	1	%S	5	4	3	2	1	%S
Appropriateness of the Mission												
The mission statement is consistent with the establishment charter of the institution (including any objectives or purposes in by-laws, company objectives or comparable documents)	15.4 (2)	46.2 (6)	38.5 (5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	61.6	11.8 (2)	47.1 (8)	35.3 (6)	5.9 (1)	0 (0)	58.3
The mission statement is appropriate for an institution of its type (eg a small private college, a research university, a girl college in a regional community)	30.8 (4)	15.4 (2)	46.2 (6)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	46.2	29.4 (5)	17.7 (3)	47.1 (8)	5.9 (1)	0 (0)	46.1
The mission statement is consistent with Islamic beliefs and values	23.1 (3)	53.8 (7)	23.1 (3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	76.9	35.3 (6)	41.2 (7)	23.5 (4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	76.5
The mission is relevant to needs of the community of communities served by the institution	23.1 (3)	23.1 (3)	38.5 (5)	15.4 (2)	0 (0)	47	23.5 (4)	29.4 (5)	35.3 (6)	11.8 (2)	0 (0)	52.9
The mission is consistent with the economic and cultural requirements of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia	15.4 (2)	30.8 (4)	46.2 (6)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	46.2	11.8 (2)	29.4 (5)	52.9 (9)	5.9 (1)	0 (0)	40.2
The appropriateness of the mission is explained to stakeholders in an accompanying statement commenting on significant aspects of the environment within which it operates (which may relate to local, national or international issues)	23.1 (3)	15.4 (2)	23.1 (3)	30.8 (4)	7.7 (1)	38.5	17.7 (3)	17.7 (3)	29.4 (5)	29.4 (5)	5.9 (1)	35.4
Usefulness of the Mission Statement												
The mission statement is sufficiently specific to provides an effective guide to decision-making and choices among alternative planning strategies	0 (0)	30.8 (4)	46.2 (6)	23.1 (3)	0 (0)	30.8	0 (0)	35.3 (6)	35.3 (6)	29.4 (5)	0 (0)	35.3
The mission statement is relevant to all of the institution's important activities	15.4 (2)	38.5 (5)	38.5 (5)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	53.9	11.8 (2)	47.1 (8)	29.4 (5)	11.8 (2)	0 (0)	58.9
The mission is achievable through effective strategies within the level of resources expected to be available	7.7 (1)	38.5 (5)	46.2 (6)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	36.2	11.8 (2)	29.4 (5)	47.1 (8)	11.8 (2)	0 (0)	41.2
The mission statement is clear enough to provide criteria for evaluation of the institution's progress towards its goals and objectives	7.7 (1)	30.8 (4)	38.5 (5)	7.7 (1)	7.7 (1)	38.5	11.8 (2)	29.4 (5)	35.3 (6)	11.8 (2)	5.9 (1)	41.2
Processes of Development and Review of the Mission												
Major stakeholders within the institution and the communities it serves have been consulted and support the mission	7.7 (1)	15.4 (2)	46.2 (6)	23.1 (3)	7.7 (1)	23.1	5.9 (1)	17.7 (3)	41.2 (7)	23.5 (4)	11.8 (2)	23.6
The governing body of the institution formally approved the mission statement	15.4 (2)	30.8 (4)	46.2 (6)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	47.2	23.5 (4)	23.5 (4)	47.1 (8)	5.9 (1)	0 (0)	47
The governing body periodically reviews the mission statement and confirms or amends it in the light of changing circumstances	0 (0)	15.4 (2)	46.2 (6)	15.4 (2)	23.1 (3)	15.4	11.8 (2)	11.8 (2)	47.1 (8)	11.8 (2)	17.7 (3)	23.6
Stakeholders are kept informed about the mission and any changes in it	7.7 (1)	7.7 (1)	53.9 (7)	15.4 (2)	15.4 (2)	15.4	11.8 (2)	17.7 (3)	47.1 (8)	11.8 (2)	11.8 (2)	29.5
Development and Review of the Mission												
The mission statement is used as a basis for a strategic plan over a medium term planning period. (normally five years)	15.4 (2)	38.5 (5)	46.2 (6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	53.9	11.8 (2)	41.2 (7)	47.1 (8)	0 (0)	0 (0)	53
The mission statement is widely publicized, known about and supported by faculty, staff and students	15.4 (2)	38.5 (5)	38.5 (5)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	53.9	17.7 (3)	41.2 (7)	35.3 (6)	5.9 (1)	0 (0)	58.9
The mission is used consistently as a guide in resource allocations and consideration of major program and project proposals and policy decisions	7.7 (1)	30.8 (4)	23.1 (3)	38.5 (5)	0 (0)	37.8	5.9 (1)	35.3 (6)	29.4 (5)	29.4 (5)	0 (0)	41.2
Relationship Between Mission, Goals and Objectives												
Medium and long term goals for the development of the institution and its programs and organizational units are consistent with and support the mission	23.1 (3)	30.8 (4)	30.8 (4)	15.4 (2)	0 (0)	53.9	17.7 (3)	35.3 (6)	35.3 (6)	11.8 (2)	0 (0)	53
Goals are stated with sufficient clarity to effectively guide planning and decision making in ways that are consistent with the mission	23.1 (3)	38.5 (5)	15.4 (2)	23.1 (3)	0 (0)	61.6	23.4 (4)	35.3 (6)	23.4 (4)	17.7 (3)	0 (0)	58.7
Goals and objectives are periodically reviewed and reaffirmed or modified as necessary in the light of changing circumstances to ensure they continue to support the mission	7.7 (1)	15.4 (2)	23.1 (3)	15.4 (2)	38.5 (5)	23.1	11.8 (2)	23.5 (4)	17.7 (3)	17.7 (3)	29.4 (5)	35.3
Specific objectives for total institutional initiatives and for internal organizational units are consistent with the mission and broad goals for development	15.4 (2)	46.2 (6)	23.1 (3)	7.7 (1)	7.7 (1)	61.6	11.8 (2)	47.1 (8)	29.4 (5)	5.9 (1)	5.9 (1)	58.9
Statements of major objectives are accompanied by specification of clearly defined and measurable indicators that are used to judge the extent to which objectives and the mission are being achieved	23.1 (3)	30.8 (4)	38.5 (5)	7.7 (1)	0 (0)	53.9	23.5 (4)	29.4 (5)	35.3 (6)	11.8 (2)	0 (0)	52.9

Teachers Attitude to Curriculum Change: Implications for Inclusive Education in Nigeria

Igbokwe Uche L. (Ph.D)

Department of Arts Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Mezieobi, Dan. I. (Ph.D)

Department of Social Science Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Eke, Callistus

Department of Arts Education, University of Nigeria, Nsukka

Abstract

The study investigated teachers' attitude towards implementing inclusive education in secondary schools in Owerri Education Zone of Imo State, Nigeria. The study adopted a survey research design and was guided by three research questions. The instrument for data collection was a researcher designed questionnaire of three parts. Part A dealt with teachers attitude towards inclusion (TAIS), part B dealt with teachers' views on inclusive education (TVIS) while the third part dealt with teachers barriers to inclusion (TBIS). The sample comprised 255 secondary school teachers from the zone. Data collected were analyzed using mean and standard deviation. Findings indicated that secondary school teachers in Owerri Education zone have positive attitude and views towards inclusive education. However, lack of training and instructional materials as well as disenabling environment were major barriers to the adoption of inclusive practices. It was recommended that teachers should be exposed to in-service training, workshops and conferences to equip them for the challenges of inclusion. Special education should also be a core subject in all teacher training colleges, Colleges of Education and Faculties of Education in Nigeria. Government should endeavour to restructure school environment to suit inclusive standards and also provide assistive technology in order to meet the UNESCO global objectives of inclusion.

Keywords: Attitude, Change, Implementation, Inclusive Education, teacher.

Introduction

Curriculum is a complex social and educational construct that leads itself to a plethora of definitions – some narrow, some broad. Scholars define it to suit their various view points. In general terms, however, curriculum is a systematically organized body of knowledge through which the goals of education can be achieved for the fulfillment of the needs and aspirations of any given society. Taner & Tarner (1980:18) defined curriculum as “planned and guided learning experiences and intended outcomes formulated through systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience under the auspices of the school for the learner’s continuous and willful growth in social competence”. This definition implies that curriculum enables students to gain knowledge and understanding as well as develop skills, attitudes, values while interacting with each other and with teachers. Curriculum involves all that take place in the lives of learners and the impact that these experiences have on the society.

Curriculum includes the sum total of school experiences, what is to be learned, the expected change in behaviour, the processes involved and the nature of techniques, approaches (methods) and other relevant equipment and facilities. But the school curriculum, like the society which it services is dynamic. Curriculum reflects societal changes. These changes accommodate needs which the society perceives as important and necessary for the wellness of the majority of people. Curriculum change therefore occurs as a result of review or reform in an existing curriculum consequent upon pressing need or lack of relevance of the old or existing curriculum in dealing with societal problems.

Curriculum change according to Pretorius (1999) encompasses goals, content, teaching and learning resources etc that take care of deficiencies and inadequacies in an already existing curriculum. Through curriculum change, new ideas which may be social, cultural, political, economic and technological are infused into the curriculum, leading ultimately to the strengthening of both internal and external processes of the school. Alibi and Okemakinde (2010) see educational reform or change essentially as a re-examination of the goals and objectives of education, as the worth of any educational system as an investment lies in its capability to continuously serve the stakeholders better and remain relevant to national development. This search for quality education for all citizens consequent upon the realization that the current curriculum is deficient in meeting global education needs made Nigeria to adopt the policy of inclusive education.

Inclusive education advocates the re-structuring of institutions (schools) classrooms and approaches to instruction to meet the needs of students with peculiar needs. Booth (1997:78) defined inclusion as “the process

of increasing participation of learners in, and reducing their exclusion from the curriculum, culture and communities of neighbourhood and mainstream centres of learning". This means that inclusion requires that all learners with or without disabilities or learning difficulties should study together and support each other. By so doing, all forms of discrimination will be removed thereby ensuring everyone's self worth. All children are majorly educable and no one should be denied the benefits of education. The definition of inclusion by UNESCO (2005) buttresses the above point. To UNESCO, inclusion is

a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning cultures and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education. It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies with a common vision which covers all children of the appropriate age range, and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children.

The foregoing definitions show clearly that inclusion differs from mainstreaming. The former advocates that all children should be educated alongside their peers in the same environment whereas the latter recommends separate schooling or separate learning centres (which may be in the same environment) for children with disabilities.

Inclusion is derived from the social model. The perspective of the social model is that it is society that is disabling not the individual. According to this model, it is the failure of society to adapt the environment to accommodate an individual's condition that is disabling (Kellert 2008:163). Educationally, this model requires that the physical environment, teaching styles and the teaching and learning processes be adjusted to meet the diverse needs of all learners. Though the developed nations have aligned themselves fully with this social model, most developing nations more or less incline themselves towards the charitable model which views disabled people as tragic figures who deserve pity and philanthropy. In a world fixated by the dynamics of economics where people struggle daily for existence, scarce resources should not be wasted on those who can hardly contribute to economic growth. Philanthropic organizations should take care of them. This idea informs the thoughts and beliefs of many citizens of the developing world and these feelings which are embedded in culture, constitute a huge obstacle to the full implementation of the inclusion programme. From all the foregoing, it is clear that for inclusive education to be successfully implemented, there must be an enabling environment. This environment includes teachers, materials, examination processes, school management. The schools (especially teachers) are central to the implementation of inclusive education. Were these central figures involved in the process of implementing, inclusive education in Nigeria?

Inclusive education was adopted into the Nigerian education system in 2008. It grew out as an off shoot of Education For All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MOGS). In an effort to accomplish EFA goals, Nigeria, in 2000, established the Universal Basic Education (UBE). In 2004, the National Assembly passed UBE into law. In 2006, the Federal Republic of Nigeria launched the National Action Plan (NAP) to back UBE and facilitate the achievement of EFA by 2015. This move was to ensure that all children in Nigeria are given equal access to education and the empowerment and privilege associated with it.

Implementing Curriculum Change in Nigeria

Nigeria has a chequered history of educational reforms/change. Though she is a signatory to many global declarations in education, Nigerians are yet to feel the impact of these educational reforms. Once a new policy is enunciated, the Ministry of Education and all other relevant agencies in the education sector receive it with a lot of enthusiasm necessitating a flurry of activities. But soon after, the enthusiasm wanes, usually after so much money has been expended. Consequently, the entire reform/change process is either half hazardedly pursued or in some cases outrightly abandoned, as no clear guidelines are given for its implementation. Finally, the innovation is either substantially scaled down or completely abandoned. In the 1980's Nigeria adopted the 6-3-3-4 education system. This system was intended to bridge the gap between primary and secondary education. Children were expected to spend six years in the primary school, three years in the junior secondary school, three years in the senior secondary school and four years in tertiary institutions. This change necessitated the introduction of a syllabus heavy with science and technology for the junior secondary school to enable students to learn skills for self sufficiency so that they could choose not to complete the senior secondary school. But the system totally failed because the proponents of the programme did not take into consideration important elements of implementation such as manpower, teacher training, laboratories and other equipment. Many of the equipment shipped into Nigeria at huge costs to tax payers lay abandoned in the offices of principals of schools. Some of the machinery are still in crates up to this day. In like manner, all other programmes like the computer education programme, entrepreneurship studies have also suffered the same fate. Even the UBE now practiced in Nigeria suffers from huge implementational problems.

Many reasons have been given by scholars why curricular changes fail. According to Yusuf & Yusuf

(2009) unsuccessful implementation is caused by inconsistency and lack of political will on the part of government, lack of adequate manpower (quantity and quality) poor funding, faulty monitoring policies. Most of these problems centre on the fact that the implementers of any change who are teachers are rarely involved in the formulation of change policies.

Implementation according to Mezieobi (1993) gives the curriculum document its real meaning via testing its workability. Implementation complements the curriculum document into the operating curriculum by the combined efforts of teachers, students and others. Bruner (1960:xv) opines that

A curriculum is more for teachers than it is for pupils. If it cannot change, move, perturb and inform teachers, it will have no effect on those whom they teach. It must first and foremost be a curriculum for teachers. If it has any effect on pupils, it will have it by virtue of having an effect on teachers.

The above statement clearly states that the teacher is the most important single factor in curriculum implementation as the success of any curriculum change depends on how it is perceived, understood and interpreted by the implementers (teachers). It is a matter of regret that in Nigeria, teachers' views, perceptions, conceptions are not considered in the introduction of any kind of curricular change. Barr cited in Banning (1954) pointed out that attitudes of teachers are central to curriculum change. This implies that teachers' views, interests, opinions, perceptions and attitudes towards any curriculum change must be sort for, in order to ensure effective implementation of such change in the educational system.

This is more so in any inclusive environment. An inclusive classroom must take care of cultural, intellectual, physical, social and mental diversities of all who teach and all who learn. Taking care of these diversities is bound to cause interactional and curricula problems. To support learning processes in inclusive classrooms, teachers must be trained in proper pedagogical and other communication skills. Research has shown that even in developed nations, implementation of new curriculum takes teachers a considerable amount of time to become competent and confident in its use (March 2006, Vica, 2008). According to Kellet (2008), teachers have tried to resist inclusion on the basis that they do not possess adequate skills to teach children who have emotional as well as behavioural problems, more so because their presence may seriously hamper the learning of other pupils. Teachers also complain about inadequate number of teaching and other support staff, poor funding, inadequate infrastructural facilities to implement the programme. These complaints affect the attitude of teachers to inclusion.

In Nigeria, the situation is more gloomy. Despite the fact that the National Policy on Education (NPE) (2008) contains curricular recommendations for adoption of inclusive education, very little provision has been made to actively involve teachers. Inclusive education involves all teachers yet teacher training institutions do not offer foundational courses in inclusive education to all teachers. For example the University of Nigeria, Nsukka has the largest Faculty of Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, yet her teacher education curriculum does not contain any core course in special education that is mandatory for all teachers. As a result universities and teacher training colleges produce unskilled and untrained teachers who are unable to face the challenges of inclusive education practices.

Many teachers resist the adoption of inclusive education simply because they are not trained in inclusive practice. Lack of training creates fear in teachers who as a result perceive themselves as unprepared to undertake the rigours of special needs students. As a result teachers develop low confidence as well as negative attitudes to inclusion (Ozaji 1998 and Obani 2002). Buttressing this fact, Okeke-Oti (2010) observed that training in special education increases teachers' understanding and attitudes to inclusion. The enabling and stimulating environment required for achieving the goals of inclusion can only be achieved if teachers adjust properly to inclusion.

An attitude is a point of view that someone holds towards an idea or object in every day life which invariably affects the individual's thoughts actions and beliefs. Anyone can develop positive or negative attitudes towards any idea. But for one to do any given task satisfactorily, the one must need to have a positive attitude towards it. Teachers' perceptions and attitude present the most formidable single obstacle to inclusion (Mitler, 2000).

Culture influences the attitude and behaviour of people towards societal problems. Each culture has its own unique characteristics which usually are only understood by its indigenous peoples. In spite of enormous exposure to education and civilization, many people from the developing nations still see disability as a curse which comes as a result of atrocities committed either by the disabled, or their parents and grand parents. Some regard disability as contagious. This perception is not restricted to illiterate people. Cases abound where the elite prevent their children from interacting, intermingling or marrying the disabled no matter the cause of the disability. Teachers are members of various communities where these disempowering perspectives of disability hold sway. These perspectives constitute a huge set back because teachers' attitude is considered as a major factor that guarantees the success of inclusion in school. Teachers with positive attitude will contribute positively to the success of inclusion while those with negative attitudes are likely to frustrate all the laid down processes and

proceedings for successful implementation of the inclusive practice.

Though Nigeria adopted inclusive education as a major reform in 2008, the nation has huge challenges of implementation arising from complex social, ethical, economic, religious and administrative problems. Of all the 36 states that make up Nigeria, including the Federal Capital Territory, only four states Imo, Delta, Akwa-Ibom and Oyo states have seriously started implementing the programme. These four states have made primary and secondary school, school free, compulsory and mandatory for all pupils irrespective of gender, religion, social class. Parents who fail to send their children to school stand the risk of being arrested and prosecuted. Because of this government policy, many disabled children who otherwise would not have been in school are now seen in many schools in the affected states.

Statement of Problem

In 2008, Nigeria adopted inclusive education as a major reform in her educational system. But ever since then, students with disabilities still suffer indignities both in and out of school. Their complaints range from inability to access the physical environment, the use of non inclusive teaching methods by teachers, non inclusive assessment strategies and inadequate provision for curricular and non curricular activities. Students also complain of poor attitude of teachers towards the disabled which they believe is responsible for most of the marginalization which the affected students experience. This study sets out to determine the attitude of teachers towards inclusive education practices in Imo state of Nigeria. Specifically the study sought to determine teachers views about inclusive education programme, teachers' attitude towards implementing inclusion and what teachers see as barriers towards full implementation of inclusive education.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study

1. What are the views of teachers in Owerri Elucidation zone towards inclusive education?
2. What is the attitude of teachers in Owerri Education zone toward inclusion?
3. What barriers do teachers in Owerri education zone perceive as militating against the implementation of inclusive education?

Research Method

The study adopted descriptive survey research method. A descriptive survey study seeks or uses sample data to document, describe and explain what is in existence and so was deemed appropriate for the study. The study was carried out in Owerri Education zone of Imo state, Nigeria. Imo state has three education zones and is one of the four states in the federation that has fully adopted inclusion as an educational practice. Owerri Education Zone has eleven (11) local government areas with a total of (154) secondary schools and 2,229 secondary school teachers. The instrument used was designed by the researchers and face validated by experts in Educational Psychology and Measurement and Evaluation from the University of Nigeria, Nsukka. The corrections and suggestions of the experts were used to sharpen the instrument. The instrument was made up of 3 sections. Section A with 17 questions sought information on the views of teachers about inclusion (TVIE) section B which has 12 questions sought information on teachers' attitude to inclusion (TAIS) while section C with 8 questions sought information about teachers' perceived barriers to inclusion (TPBIS). The instrument is a four point modified Likert Scale of Strongly Agree (SA=4), Agree (A=3) Disagree (DA=2) and Strongly Disagree (SD=1). The criterion mean of 2.50 was used. Mean scores of 2.50 and above were accepted (positive attitude in section B) while scores of 2.49 and below were rejected (negative attitude). Cronbach alpha was used to determine the internal consistency of the instrument which yielded a co-efficient reliability of 0.75, 0.80 and 0.72 for items on sections A,B & C respectively. A total of 229 copies of the instrument were administered with the help of four research assistants and 214 copies of the questionnaire were retrieved. Data were analyzed using mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions.

Presentation of Results

Table 1 Mean responses of secondary school teachers views on inclusive education (TVIE) n=214

Section A

S/N	Teachers Views on Inclusive education	Mean	SD	Decision
1.	The inclusion of special educational need students in my classes increases my work load.	3.25	.85	Accept
2.	All learners should be educated together in schools.	2.94	.94	Accept
3.	Inclusive education if properly planned should be adopted as an educational practice.	2.83	.91	Accept
4.	Students who are crippled or lame should be in regular classrooms.	2.73	.91	Accept
5.	Students who have slight mental impairment should be accommodated in classrooms.	2.57	.97	Accept
6.	Having all students irrespective of disability in the same class can be beneficial.	2.56	1.01	Accept
7.	If a teacher is resourceful, he/she can teach all categories of students in the same class.	2.17	1.00	Reject
8.	In general, inclusive education (inclusion) is a desirable educational practice.	2.72	.95	Accept
9.	Teachers should simplify lessons for disabled students.	3.25	.82	Accept
10.	Teachers should reduce the number of lessons of disabled students.	2.91	.90	Accept
11.	Special educational needs students should be given more time to complete assignments.	2.69	1.03	Accept
12.	Learners who are long or short sighted but who can read standard printed materials should be in regular classrooms.	2.67	.92	Accept
13.	Teachers should not modify assignments for the special educational needs students in subject areas.	2.60	.81	Accept
14.	Hearing impaired learners, but not deaf should be in regular classrooms.	2.33	.96	Reject
15.	Special educational needs students should not be enrolled in schools/classes until they attain a minimum level of proficiency.	2.12	.95	Accept
16.	Learners who cannot control movement of their limbs should not be in regular class.	1.93	.00	Reject
17.	Blind learners who cannot read standard printed materials should not be in regular classrooms.	1.93	.96	

Table 1 above shows that secondary school teachers are generally of the view that inclusive education be adopted as an educational practice. This is shown from their responses to questions 1,2,3,4,5,8,9,10,11 & 12 13 with mean scores of 3.25, 2.94, 2.83, 2.73, 2.57, 2.56, 2.72, 3.25, 2.91, 2.69, 2.67 and 2.60 respectively. They however are of the opinion that not all students who have disability should be in regular classrooms. This is evident from their responses as seen in questions 14, 15, 16 & 17. Teachers are of the view that seriously physically challenged learners, hearing impaired learners, deaf learners and blind learners, who have not attained minimal proficiency should not be in regular classrooms. They also feel that it will be good to simplify lessons for students with special needs, reduce their workload as well as modify their assignments (items 9, 10 & 11).

Section B

Mean responses of secondary school teachers' attitude towards inclusive education

S/N		Mean	SD	Decision
18.	I appreciate every child in my class irrespective of the physical or mental state.	3.52	.70	Positive
19.	I give special education needs students more time to complete their class work.	3.51	.68	Positive
20.	I pay attention to the complaints of special educational needs students in my class.	3.02	.66	Positive
21.	I am interested in receiving more training in special education.	3.01	.82	Positive
22.	I respect my special needs students.	3.00	.80	Positive
23.	I do not enjoy giving special needs students punishment.	2.55	.72	Positive
24.	I like giving special educational needs students less assignment than other students.	2.40	.67	Negative
25.	I grade the scripts of disabled students with general comments to avoid discouraging them with raw scores.	2.36	.078	Positive
26.	I encourage disabled students to attend and stay in school.	2.53	.95	Positive
27.	I like using different teaching methods in order to carry special educational needs students along.	2.35	.79	Negative
28.	Effort is more important than achievement for special learners.	2.82	.80	Positive
29.	Accommodating special educational needs students in classes creates a positive educational atmosphere and challenges teachers' abilities.	2.65	.95	Positive

Responses as seen from the table above show that teachers attitude to inclusive education is more positive than negative. Teachers appreciate students irrespective of status (item 18), give educational needs students more time to complete their work (item 19). Pay attention to their complaints (item 20) are willing to receive more training in inclusive practices (item 21) do not enjoy disrespecting or punishing disabled students (Items 22 & 23) encourage them to attend school (Item 26) and also adopt different teaching methods to help them learn (Item 27). However teachers exhibit some negative attitudes as seen from responses to items 24, 25 and 28. These items show that they have a patronizing attitude towards them. Teachers regard effort as being more important, give disabled students little homework and do not grade them like other students.

Table 3

Mean responses of teachers about perceived barriers to inclusive education.

S/N		Mean	SD	Decision
30.	Cultural perception of disability as a curse	3.78	.78	Accept
31.	Stress associated with planning for different groups of people.	3.67	.84	Accept
32.	Lack of sufficient knowledge on inclusive education practices.	3.54	.88	Accept
33.	Lack of in-service training on inclusive education programme.	3.51	.89	Accept
34.	Lack of inclusive laboratories for teaching special educational needs students.	3.49	.76	Accept
35.	Lack of proper incentives for accommodating the challenges of inclusive education.	3.24	.68	Accept
36.	Lack of instructional materials for teaching special educational needs students.	2.98	.67	Accept
37.	Lack of co-operation from other teachers and school administration.	2.85	.77	Accept

In table 3 above, secondary school teachers in Owerri Education Zone unanimously agreed that all the items in the table constitute barriers to teachers implementing inclusive education. They strongly agreed that cultural perception of disability (Item 30), stress associated with planning for different groups, (Item 31) lack of knowledge about inclusion (Item 32) lack of in-service training (Item 33), lack of incentives for teachers (Item 34), with mean scores of 3.78, 3.67, 3.54, 3.51, 3.24 were strong barriers to inclusion. They also agreed with items 35 (mean 3.49) item 36 (mean 2.98) and item 37 (mean 2.85). These last three items deal with lack of enabling environment for inclusion like laboratories, assistive technology and lack of cooperation from other staff. These items constitute serious impediments to individual teachers.

Discussion of results

Findings show that secondary school teachers in Owerri Education zone possess positive attitude and views towards inclusive education. This positive attitude includes appreciating every member of their class irrespective of the complaints, being interested in receiving more training on inclusive education practices. This could be as a result of the policy of Imo State Government toward students with disabilities. The disabled in the state are actively involved in many state affairs and receive a lot of state assistance. They also have a recognized union sponsored by the state government. This has a great impact on teachers' attitude towards this special group of learners.

Since secondary school teachers have positive attitude to inclusion, then one would expect the implementation process of inclusive education to be a smooth one without much difficulty in the zone. This is because the attitude of teachers to any educational innovation determines to a greater extent the level of implementation of that educational innovation. This finding agrees with Abrar, Baloch and Ghouri (2010) who pointed out that both principals and teachers demonstrated an optimistic and positive attitude towards inclusive education in Karachi, Pakistan. But this finding is against the views of Hussain, Ali, Khan, Ramzam and Quadeer (2011) which found out that majority of teachers do not have positive attitude towards inclusion.

Results also indicate that secondary school teachers identified lack of training, instructional materials and facilities, co-operation, cultural influence, stress and poor incentives as the major barriers to implementing inclusive education. The study also revealed the need for seminars, workshops, conferences and in-service training to help enhance teachers skills which will make them confident and ready to dispense their duties effectively. This converges with the findings of Okeke (1998) which found out that the major barrier in implementing inclusive education is lack of trained teachers.

Findings also revealed that secondary school teachers in Owerri Education Zone suggested that physically challenged learners, hearing impaired learners, deaf learners, blind learners and special educational learners who have not attained certain minimal proficiency should not be in the regular classroom while also suggesting that it will be good practice to accommodate visual impaired learners who can read standard printed materials in regular classroom, simplify lessons for special educational needs students, reduce their workload and also reduce as well as modify their assignments.

Conclusion

This study is a survey of secondary school teachers' attitude to curriculum change with regard to inclusion of special needs students in regular schools in Owerri Education Zone of Imo State, Nigeria. Based on the findings, the study revealed that secondary school teachers in Owerri Education Zone possess positive attitudes and views towards the implementation of inclusive education programme. However, the findings of the study also revealed that teachers identified training, lack of facilities and cultural perceptions as major barriers to the implementation of the programme in Owerri Education Zone. If teachers are not properly trained and equipped with knowledge and skills, no circular change can be successfully implemented. Teachers who are presently in service and those who will be recruited in future need to be trained and retained in emerging educational practices such as inclusion. The Nigerian government has taken a bold and laudable step by introducing inclusive education. The government should now take a step further by creating the positive environment that will enable the major actors

(teachers) to implement the desired change.

Recommendations

- Government and private organizations or individuals interested in education should pursue more vigorously comprehensive and qualitative sensitization programmes at all levels of education system on inclusive education. This sensitization programme should also include radio and television programmes for public awareness. Community institutions should also be used as agents to create awareness
- Attention should be focused on the need to give practicing teachers training on inclusive education practices through seminars and workshops. The curriculum of teacher education programmes in all teacher training institutions should be restructured to include compulsory (core) courses for all teacher trainees. Curriculum planners should also develop curriculum in all areas which will be flexible thereby accommodating the heterogeneous experiences that are bound to be seen in any inclusive classroom.
- The government should enter into partnership with Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) especially those from countries where inclusive education has taken root. This will facilitate aid in the area of assistive technologies such as braille, audio tapes etc. This is because it is only teachers who have the expertise and the right attitude, that can provide the necessary leadership and guidance for these special needs students in mainstream schools.
- The government should endeavour to restructure the school buildings and school plants as much as possible to accommodate special needs students. This will eliminate the various structural barriers to inclusion while ensuring a more inclusive friendly environment.

References

- Abidogun, B.G. (2006). *Education sector reforms, and childhood education for rural development in Nigeria*. Edo: Ress Publishers.
- Abrar, N., Baloch, G.A., & Ghouri, M.A. (2010). Attitude of secondary schools' principals and teachers toward inclusive education: Evidence from Karachi, Pakistan. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 15(4), 573-582.
- Adopuju, T.L., & Olaniyi, G.B. (1999). Innovation in primary school administration. *Studies in Pre-Primary School Education*, 1(1), 71-78.
- Alabi, A. O., & Okemakinde, T. (2010). Effective planning as a factor of educational reform and innovation in Nigeria. *Current Research Journal of Social*, 2(6), 316-321.
- Ali, A. (2006). *Conducting research in education and the social science*. Enugu: Tashiwa Networks Ltd.
- Banning, E. I. (1945). Teacher attitudes towards curriculum change: The effect of personal relationship on the degree of favourableness. *Journal of Experimental Education*, 23(2), 133-146.
- Booth, T. (1945). Gender differences in self-efficacy and attitude towards computers. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 12, 147-150.
- Booth, T. (1999). Viewing inclusion from a distance: Gaining a perspective from a comparative study. *Support for learning*, 14 (4), 164-168.
- Bruner, J.S. (1960). *The process of education*. Cambridge Massachusetts: Havrad.
- Heiman, T. (2001). Inclusive schooling-middle school teachers' perceptions. *School Psychology International*, 22(4), 451-462.
- Hill, J.L. (1990). Mainstreaming visually impaired children. The need for modifications. *Journal of Visually Impaired and Blindness*, 84, 354-360.
- Hodge, S.R., & Jansma, P. (2000). Physical education majors' attitudes toward teaching students with disabilities. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 23(3), 211-224.
- Hussain, S. (2004). *Effectiveness of teacher training in developing professional attitude of prospective secondary school teachers*. Unpublished Ph.D Dissertation, University of Arid Agriculture, Rawalpindi, Pakistan.
- Hussain, S., Ali, R., Khan, M. S., Ramzam, M., & Quadeer, M. Z. (2011). Attitude of secondary school teachers towards teaching profession. *International journal of Academic Research*, 3(1), 985-990.
- Kelet, M. (2008). Special educational needs and inclusion in education. in D. Matheson (Ed), *An introduction to the study of education*, 3rd Edition London: Rontledge.
- March, C.J. (2006). *Key concept for understanding curriculum* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge Flamer Jaylore Francis Group
- Meziobi, K.A. (1993). *Social Studies curriculum*. Owerri: White & White Publishers.
- Mitler, P. (2000). *Working toward inclusive education: Social context*. London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Obani, T.C. (2002). Prospects of special education for children with special needs in the 21st century. *The exceptional child*, 6, (4), 1-7.
- Okeke, B. A. (1998). Effective teaching for meeting students' special needs. In A. Adewole, J. Umulu & T. Oyetunde (Eds) *Innovative approaches to education and human development*. Jos: LECAPS.

- Okeke-Oti, B. A. (2010). *They have dignity and worth and therefore need restoration*. An Inaugural lecture of the University of Nigeria Nsukka, delivered on April 29.
- Ozaji, E.D. (1993). Disability awareness programmes, objectives and implications in Nigeria. *Journal of Special Education*, 3, (2), 30-37.
- Patterson, J. L, & Czajkowski, T. J. (1979). Implementation: Neglected phase in curriculum change. *Educational Leadership*, 37(3), 204-206.
- Pretorius,, F. (1999). *Outcomes-based education in South Africa*. Randburg: Hodder & Stoughton.
- Sheriff, C. W., Sherif, M., & Nebergall, R. E. (1965). *Attitude and attitude change. The social judgment involvement approach*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders.
- Taner, D & Taner, L. (1980). *Curriculum development theory into practice*. New York: Macmillan Pub. Co. Inc.
- UBE (2000). Universal Basic Education Programme Annual Report, Nigeria: Government Press.
- UNESCO (2005). Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all. Paris: UNESCO Publishers.
- Van Reusen, A. K., Shoho, A. R. & Barker, K. S. (2001). High school teacher attitudes toward inclusion. *The High School Journal* 84(20), 7-17.
- Vuca, P. (2008). The meaning of curriculum. Retrieved from (<http://www.vucapinhoiro.com/vucapage/meaning.htm>).

The Effect of Using Web-Site Games on Saudi Pupils' Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary Acquisition, and Motivation

Ahmad Bataineh

College of Education, Al-alBayt University, PO Box 130040, Postal Code 25113, Mafraq , Jordan

E-mail: amab88@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using web-site games on the route and the rate of Saudi pupils' reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and motivation quantitatively and qualitatively. The sample of the study consisted of forty male pupils from Madinah Directorate of Education. Anwar AL-Faihaa' School was randomly chosen from the total number of basic schools in that directorate in the first semester of the academic year 2011-2012. In that school, there were two sixth grade classes: Section (A) consisted of 20 students and it was assigned as an experimental group, while the other was decided to be a controlling group. It was also consisted of 20 students. Data were collected with twelve weeks via a pre-posttest design for equivalent group. The results of the study indicated that students who were taught using web-site games had better results than those who were taught using the traditional method. The researcher concluded that web-site games could facilitate pupils' reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition since they motivate students and make them involved in the teaching process. Accordingly, the Ministry of Education represented by the Directorate of Curricula should accompany the main English textbooks with links to web-site games that do not harm or contradict with our traditions and our culture. Additionally, there is a need for more computerized games to teach other language components and skills. Moreover, the educational philosophies, methodologies, and curricula should be rearranged to design other web-sites of educational games as integral strategies to meet the needs of the new age since they contribute to the development of students' language skills and mental growth.

Keywords: Web-Site Games, Motivation, Reading Comprehension, Vocabulary Acquisition, Saudi Pupils.

1. Introduction

Web-site games have an essential role in the teaching process because students feel relaxed while practicing language skills. Games have also an essential role in breaking the educational obstacles since teachers who adopt them must take into consideration individual differences among students. Using Language games requires teachers to plan in advance for what they have to do and to provide students with the necessary materials. Furthermore, teachers should provide students with the experiences which make the class more energetic and communicative (Atiyat, 1992). Betzm (1995) argued that games should not be considered as kinds of useless media in a classroom, but rather as tools which stimulate the communicative activities. Furthermore, Ersoz (2003) argued that in language teaching, it is preferable to use games. Teachers also help students to learn how to organize their thoughts through arranging a group of activities directed toward the students. Kim as well (1995) claimed that instructional games not only make learning a language possible but also allow the learners to enjoy themselves as they do that. She cited the following as some of many strategies of using instructional games in the classroom:

- The aims of the games must be in advance decided.
- The games must suit students' level and cognitive abilities.

The Saudi Ministry of Education has been spending a good deal of money on technology over the last two decades. Computers, networks, and CD Rom drivers are common sights in most Saudi schools, perhaps not in the numbers, many students, teachers or parents would like, but certainly in quantities which should suggest this investment is having an effect on teaching and learning.

Activities such as web-site games are practiced in the various language skills. They encourage learners to interact and communicate to create a meaningful environment for language use (Sutheo, 2004).

Some web-sites offer a flashcard maker or an online game like a crossword. These ways are also helpful because users have fun, but learning all at the same time. Games are used not only for fun, but also for the useful practice. They are motivating because they are amusing and interesting. They can be used to practice language skills (Sari, 2006).

If web-site games are worth paying attention to and implementing in the FL classroom as they motivate learners, promote communication competence, and generate fluency (Uberman, 1998).

Web-site games bring an authentic context into the FL classroom, enhance students' use of English in a flexible communicative way, accordingly, the role of games in teaching vocabulary cannot be denied (Huyen and Nga, 2003).

Furthermore, vocabulary learning through games improved learning and retention while making learning fun and arousing interest. The added advantage of using games is the opportunity to practice vocabulary informally

(Shaw, 2009).

Additionally, web-site games enable students to develop their communicative skills. Many experts of language teaching agree that playing games is a good way to learn vocabulary. In addition, it is one of the activities, which require students to communicate with their classmates, using their own English (Huyen & Nga, 2003).

Vocabulary learning through Web-Site games improves learning and retention while making learning fun and arousing interest. The add advantage of using games is the opportunity to practice vocabulary informally (Uzun, 2009).

With web-site games, language teachers can create contexts in which students ought to use language to communicate, exchange ideas and express their own opinions (Wright, Betteridge & Buck,1984).

In addition, Coleman (1990) regarded web-site games as one of the oldest and simplest techniques, which have a prominent role in the teaching to achieve the educational goals. Coleman considered educational games as integral strategies since they contribute to the development of the individual language skills and mental growth. According to Gardner (1998), web-site games have an effective role in the teaching process because students feel relaxed while practicing language skills. Games have also an essential role in breaking the educational obstacles since teachers who adopt them must take into consideration individual differences among students.

More importantly, using web – site games requires FL teachers to plan in advance for what they have to do and to provide learners with the needed materials. Furthermore, teachers should provide students with the experience, which make the class more energetic and communicative (Coleman, 1990).

Levy (1997) claimed that games should not be considered as kinds of useless media in a classroom, but rather as tools, which stimulate the communicative activities.

More importantly, (Mumtaz, 2001) argued that web-site games engage students in activities involving the targeted skills, and help them to achieve some desirable learning outcomes independently of a teacher. Furthermore, computer games provide learners with an environment in which they solve problems, accomplish tasks and so on.

Like others, Nagy (1989) found out that learning achieved via computers, audio books and multimedia facilities could positively influence students' vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.

Folse (2004) argued that it is a myth to say that learning vocabulary is not as important as learning grammar or other aspects of language learning, when in reality vocabulary learning has extremely important role in English language learning. This is because the more words students know, the more they are able to comprehend what they hear and read, hence the better they are able to say what they want when speaking or writing (Cited in Zuraina et al. 2012).

Although foreign language learning and teaching have been quite popular for a long time, little attention has been devoted to the use of games in language teaching. However, the emergence of new technological equipment, environments, and software has created a new generation of learners, namely digital natives (Prensky, 2001)

The new generation of students has grown to inquire about the necessity of schools, the efficacy of books and materials, the sufficiency of teaching methods, and the content that is taught. Moreover, they have realized how much and how well they can learn outside schools. The discussion of formal versus informal' and 'individual' versus social' learning have been hot topics within the educational environments (Wong and Looi, 2010). The anyone, anytime, anywhere learning as well as lifelong learning concepts have been emphasized and underlined recently (Gu et al., 2011).

Prensky (2003) has indicated that today's teachers, trainers, and educators are not as effective as they need to be and that digital environments and educational games might help to motivate students. (Cited in Levent, et al.2013).

It is clearly observed that many persons have noticed the flexible solutions that technology serves, and its advantage to enhance learning. There are several university programs that are run online. There are also a number of online web-sites and materials for FL learning.

Web-site games offer to unify these different interests and needs. In other words, because every person likes playing games letting people learn while enjoying themselves would be a great idea. Throughout this paper web-site games were used to investigate their effect on Saudi student's vocabulary growth and reading comprehension.

2. Statement of the problem

Foreign language learners find it uneasy to communicate openly in the target language. This might be due to the methods of teaching and the learning environment, which might be ineffective for learning a foreign language. In order to get a better idea about the attitudes of both teachers and students of the sixth grade toward using modern methods for teaching vocabulary and to judge the effect of such methods on students' communication skills, the researcher conducted two surveys, involved 56 students and 40 teachers. The major results of the surveys showed that about 53% of students stated that they prefer that the teachers adopt modern methods. About 75% of the students agreed that the method affect their achievement. Concerning the attitudes of students and teachers

toward using modern technology for teaching learning vocabulary, about 84% of the students and 86% of the teachers affirmed that they would use modern technology if they have a chance to use it. About 83% of the students, stated that they have the ability to use the web-site games which may have a positive effect on their communication skills.

These results showed the necessity for adopting modern methods such as using web-site games for teaching vocabulary and reading comprehension, which will help in the development of students' communication skills such as using web – site games and reading comprehension.

More importantly, the researcher has supervised FL teachers who taught textbook for the elementary classes' students and noticed that vocabulary was one of the major problems confronting students. The researcher attempts to find out the effect of using web-site games on students' vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.

3. The objectives and the questions of the study

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using web-site games on students' vocabulary use in meaningful contexts and reading comprehension since they suffer from some problems in the comprehension of what they read or hear.

Besides, the aim of investigating the effect of using web-site games on students' rote and rate of vocabulary learning, it also aims to determine if there is any effect of web-site games on helping the students' apply the words they have learned in like-life situations.

3.1. Questions of the study

- Do web-site games have any effect on students' acquisition of vocabulary
- Do web-site games have any effect on students' vocabulary use in contexts and reading comprehension.
- Do students respond positively and with motivation to the web-site games? Did they feel happy about these games?

4. The significance of the study

The present study offered pedagogical applications for teachers, students, as well as curricula designers. More importantly, the results might help teachers to have a better view on using a variety of activities as games in creating contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful.

Furthermore, the study assured the importance of using web-site games for learning vocabulary on students' communication skills development. In addition, it is expected that this study will help students in applying the words they have learned in real life situations.

English speaking sites provided excellent possibilities to meet authentic texts. On the other hand, the web is a medium in which students can be exposed to an authentic learning experience. (Stitheo, 2004).

Moreover, the significance of this study stems from the fact that it provides FL teachers with objective evidence about the usefulness of using web-site games in teaching vocabulary and reading comprehension to sixth grade students. It also helped teachers increase students' motivation towards learning vocabulary as they were taught through computerized games in a class full of enjoyment to excitement (Mumtaz, 2001).

5. The Hypotheses of the study

The study assumed that:

- 1: There are no significant differences in students' adequate use of vocabulary in contexts verbally and graphically due to the use of web-site games.
- 2: There are no significant differences in the extent effect of web-site games at $\alpha = 0.05$ on students' communication and reading comprehension.
- 3: Students have negative attitudes towards web-site games. They did not interact with happily and enthusiastically.

6. Literature review

A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of web-site games on learning vocabulary and reading comprehension. Some others indicated no effect for the web-site games and others suggesting the advantage of web-site games on students' vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension.

Yip and Kwan (2006) explained that students prefer learning that is supported by educational web-site games rather than traditional activity based lessons. According to their study, students who were provided with games became more successful in learning new words compared to those who learned the same vocabulary through activity based lessons.

In a study titled: 'learning Vocabulary through web-site games, conducted by Huyen & Nga (2003) tried to answer the following question " Do games help students learn vocabulary effectively, and if so, how?"

Concluded that learning vocabulary through games is an effective and interesting tool that can be applied in our FL classrooms. The results of this research suggested that games are used not only for mere fun, but, for the useful practice and review of language lessons, thus leading toward improving learner's communicative competence.

A study conducting by Ningish (2008) aimed at developing student's vocabulary by using web-site games with songs and pictures applied integratedly in teaching vocabulary for kindergarten students and to know the result of teaching vocabulary by using web-site games with songs. The result of the study shows that using web-site games with songs and pictures interestedly is more effective for teaching vocabulary for kindergarten students, because games with songs and pictures make the lesson enjoyable and help them learn vocabulary easily. Besides, games make the teachers handle the class better and make almost all student can practice their vocabulary.

Yip & Kwan (2006) examined the effectiveness of web-site games as a tool for teaching and learning English Vocabulary. The study aimed at investigating the usefulness of web-site games in vocabulary learning for some undergraduate students. Three teachers and 100 engineering students participated in a quasi-experimental study for approximately nine weeks. The experimental group learnt vocabulary from two selected web-sites, whereas, the control group learnt the same vocabulary through activity based lessons. A pre-test and post-test were conducted in the first and ninth weeks. The results appeared to suggest that learning conducted in the first and ninth weeks. The results appeared to suggest that learning with web-sites games is more effective than activity-based learning, also learners playing web-site games tend to learn better and could retain the learnt vocabulary for a longer period of time and retrieve more words than those simple attended face-to-face lessons accessing the vocabulary games.

By the same token, Alemi (2010) investigated the role of using word games in expanding the learner's vocabulary. The participants were selected randomly from a male /female group of third grade junior high school students studying at a private school. This study investigated one of the most important issues in EFL instruction, i.e., vocabulary development. It revealed that word games have a lot of potentialities, which can be of great use in EFL classroom settings.

Additionally, a scientific study aimed to draw attention to the use of web-site games in language teaching and learning. In a study conducted by Uzun (2009) suggested that using games, as a learning method is promising and has a potential to be quite effective. Also this study underlines the necessity to develop more educational games that can be used in CALL. The researcher affirmed that there is more need for empirical data related to the use and effect of games in FL teaching. From the results of his study, the researcher in the FL field recommended improving that accelerate learning of foreign languages.

Furthermore, in a study aimed to discuss the advantages of using online resources in language learning and to investigate the importance of vocabulary teachers. Soothe (2004), analyzed some web-sites in the light of their use in language teaching. She concluded that teachers benefit very much from using the World Wide (www) in language teaching.

Lingnau et al. (2003) claimed that web-site games have been played for the sake of entertainment for many years, whereas the application of simulation and games in the educational domain is a recent development. One of the main concerns of current approaches in education is how to change the traditional classroom atmosphere and the learning environment that had been characterized by the teacher as an authoritative transmitter and the student as a passive receiver. The aim was to create an active environment where the teacher is a facilitator and the student is an active participant.

Levy (1985) examined the computers' effect on the learning of new words. Eleven first grade children in the experimental group were taught specific sight words via the computer while eleven children of the control group were using flashcards in the classroom. Results indicated that the experimental group obtained a significantly higher score than those in the control group.

Coleman (1999) claimed that familiarity is a significant variable in recognition, learning, and recall. All foreign words are unfamiliar to the learner at their first learning. The more frequently a word is used, the more association value it acquires and the faster it is learned. He also said that the interaction within a group of words to be learned at the same time was reviewed in terms of serial position, semantic relationship, amount of intake, and context.

7. Population and the sample of the study

The population of the study was the sixth grade students at Madinah Directorate of Education. The approximate number of the male and female students in the sixth grade in that Directorate was thousand. Anwar AL-Faihaa' Elementary School for Girls was randomly selected as a sample of that study.

8. The Study instruments

Two instruments were applied during that study; including test and web-site games:

- 1- Test: This instrument was of three-parts test, the first part measured the students' use of vocabulary in context verbally and graphically and the student's ability for applying the words they have learned in a life like situation. The third part measured their reading comprehension.
- 2- The web-site games: This instrument was web-site games that are appropriate for the students' ages and levels. Certain games were included within the experiment.

The home page presents an opening screen including the title of the program, the class and the researcher's name the third screen consists of a table of contents buttons (next, back) and the Teacher's Overview. The Teacher's Overview is a menu that provides a concise lesson plan and offers teachers a list of the words, which appear in each game. Students can click on the icon that represents the game on which they wish to play. If the students want to quit an exercise and practice another one, they can click on the main button to go back to the table of contents. Another one, they click on the main button to go back to the table of contents. From this menu, students are able to choose which game like to enter.

The menu contains Vocabulary and spelling games. In the vocabulary games, students have to drag the suitable item and drop in its correct position, students, have three alternatives to answer.

The second consists of the spelling games, having the same background and buttons but the color of the background is different. In the spelling game there are four faces which will be crossed out gradually with every mistake students commit. The instructional games and designed around the certain topics that suit students' aptitudes.

8.1. Instruments validity

The first instrument (Test) was given to a jury of experts and a group of teachers of English in order to support its validity through their views about the accuracy, clarity and the appropriateness of the instrument. Then, the instrument was modified depending on their recommendations.

8.2. Instrument reliability

The reliability of the first instrument was calculated after testing and retesting technique. The Kuder – Richardson's Formula was used by the researcher to calculate the reliability coefficient of the results of the tests.

To determine the reliability of the test, the researcher used the test-retest technique. The test was administered twice to 27 students with a three-weeks period between the test and the retest.

The 27 students were not included in the sample. The reliability coefficient of the test was calculated using Pearson correlation. It was found to be (0.84).

9. The variables

The variables of the study included the teaching method (using web-site games) as independent variable. The students' post-test score (which measured students' reading comprehension and their ability to retain the words) as a dependent variable.

10. Study design and procedure

The experiment of the study was conducted for 12 weeks during the second semester of the academic year 2011/2012. The study sample consisted of 40 sixth grade students in two groups chosen randomly from Anwar AL-Faihaa' for Girls. The students sat to a pre-test in order to assure the students' levels and students' individual differences. Certain words were taught for the groups of the experiment. The control group's subjects were taught traditionally. The teachers participating in the experiments were 2 teachers with more than five years of teaching experience in teaching English for the primary stage. The teacher in the experiment group was with a good computer literacy. After conducting the classes and activities, a post-test was given to the students, then it was scored and the scores were tabulated and prepared for statistical analysis.

11. Limitations of the study

- The material of the study included certain words, which were stated in the students' book used by the Ministry of Education in KSA.
- The duration of the study was limited to a period of 12 weeks.
- Measuring the effect of using web-site games on students' efficient use of vocabulary in context verbally and graphically at the elementary stage, reading comprehension and motivation.
- This study was limited to the sixth grade students who learned English at the Madinah Directorate of Education in the second semester of the academic year 2011/2012.

12. Definitions of operational terms

- EFL students: Students who study English as foreign language.
- Web-site games: Web-sites stated on the world web specialized in introducing teaching and learning games.

- Traditional teaching material: They are materials for learning vocabulary without the aid of computers.
- The textbook: English textbooks for sixth elementary class pupils. The series combine structural and functional syllabi. Topics and tasks are based on the interest and skills of children in this age. The textbook resource materials are Activity Book, Teacher's Book, audio cassettes, flashcards, and CD – ROM.

Web-site games are games introduced to FL students. They are available on the World Wide Web specialized in introducing teaching and learning games for the purpose of motivating learners, encouraging them to communicate and facilitate the teaching / learning process (Yipand Kwan, 2006).

13. Findings of the study

This study aimed at investigating the effect of using web-site games on EFL sixth grade students learning of vocabulary and using them in communication compared to the traditional techniques of teaching vocabulary and using them in communication.

14. Quantitative statistical analysis

14.1. results and discussion

According to the quantitative analysis of the examinees' pre-test results, no significant differences existed between the subjects in the control group (mean score 52.08) and the experimental group (mean score 53.75). This indicated that the two groups were equivalent and homogeneous in their vocabulary growth. Because of the experiment based on the web-site games, there was clear progress related to the vocabulary knowledge of the subjects, with superiority of those in the experimental group (see Table 1).

Table 1. The Experimental and Control Group Students' Results on the Pre and Post Tests

Effect	Experimental Group		Effect	Control Group		Student
	Post-test	Pre-test		Post-test	Pre-test	
+8	62	54	+3	58	55	Student1
+8	63	55	+5	54	56	Student2
+8	65	57	+6	51	55	Student3
+7	60	53	+12	52	50	Student4
+7	61	54	+2	55	51	Student5
+11	68	57	+2	54	53	Student6
+8	60	52	+6	57	55	Student7
+9	60	51	+10	50	40	Student8
+8	64	56	+6	60	58	Student9
+9	59	50	+6	52	48	Student10
+10	63	53	+8	52	50	Student11
+9	62	53	+5	52	50	Student12
+5	63	58	+7	56	55	Student13
+10	65	55	+4	56	54	Student14
+8	59	51	+3	51	47	Student15
+8	58	50	+5	53	51	Student16
+7	60	53	+3	51	50	Student17
+8	63	55	+3	56	52	Student18
+10	66	56	+5	52	50	Student19
+8	60	52	+8	57	56	Student20
+8.3	62.05	53.75	+2.15	54.5	52.08	The mean score out of 100%

The results presented in table 1 demonstrated that the experimental group (+8.03) subjects exceeded the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of the control group (+2.15). This means that playing web-site games in the classes had a positive effect on student' L2 vocabulary acquisition of the students and their reading comprehension.

Table 2: Means and Standard Deviation for Both Groups on the Pre Test

Sig.	T value	DF	Standard Deviation	Mean	N	Group
0.881	0.205	38	13.25	52.8	20	Control-pre-test
			15.87	53,75	20	Experimental pre-test

The proper statistical means showed that the subjects in the control performed very similarly in the pre-test (M:52,8; SD:13,25) compared to the subjects in the experimental group (M: 53.75, SD: 15,87). An independent samples T test indicated that the difference between the subjects' test results in both groups in the pre-test was not statistically significant, $p > 0.05$. Therefore, it can be concluded that there were not any

significant differences in the subjects' vocabulary knowledge levels in the pre-test.

Table 3: Means and Standard Deviations of the Control and Experimental Groups' on the Post test

Sig.	T value	DF	Standard deviation	Mean	N	Group
0.000	2.030	38	11.51	53,95	20	Control-post-test
			13.63	62,05	20	Experimental post-test

The statistical analysis showed that students in the control group seemed to perform less successfully in the post-test (M:53,95; SD:11,51) than their counterparts in the experimental group (M:62,05; SD: 13,63). An independent samples T test was carried out to see whether the differences between the students' test results in both groups in the post-test were statistically significant. The results revealed that the difference between the groups' scores were statistically significant with a medium effect. Therefore, it can be concluded that the subjects in the experimental group scored statistically higher scores on the post-test in comparison with the students in the control group.

4.2. qualitative analysis

The researcher's observations indicated that the students in the experimental group were more motivated than control groups students. It was clear that students in experimental group were more co-operative with the instructor, and more comfortable during the examinations. According to their comments, the experimental group subjects commented indicated that the English course has become more exciting, and comfortable with the gaming sessions. They also added that playing with their classmates improved their social relationship and self-confidence, and were more ready for help and group work. They mentioned that they learned new lexicons that were not in their course book. Some sample responses of the subjects related to the question are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Students' Responses Regarding the Question " Did you feel happy about these web-site games?"

Student 1	I liked the games very much.
Student 2	I felt enjoyed.
Student 3	We were motivated
Student 4	I liked working with my friends
Student 5	We felt happy in this new experience.
Student 6	I feel happy with my English classes.
Student 7	It helped me to prepare for the examinations.
Student 8	I became encouraged to use these new words in situations.
Student 9	I train my brothers and sisters to play the game at home.
Student 10	We would like to play these games by our mobile phones.
Student 11	It was interesting and wonderful.
Student 12	I attended the classes with great fun.
Student 13	Really fantastic.
Student 14	My spelling is much better now.
Student 15	We hope to have such games in other classes.
Student 16	I hope to play these games with my family.
Student 17	It was a fantastic experience.
Student 18	My vocabulary has improved.
Student 19	These games help us in language learning.
Student 20	Section (B) envy us because they do not have this new experience.

14.3. Qualitative observations

In the present study, reveal the effects of using web-site games on the subjects' acquisition of English words, reading comprehension, and motivation. The experimental groups' comments and opinions regarding their new experience of using web-site games was given at the bottom of each answer sheet were a source of the qualitative dimension of the study to understand the students' opinions about their new experience.

To answer the question of the study " Are there any significant differences between the means scores of students learning English vocabulary, reading comprehension and motivation using web-site games and those learning the same material without the help of the computer." The researcher calculated the observed means and standard deviations.

The results of the study revealed that there is a positive effect of using web-site games on the experimental group. The results may be due to the fact that students feel more confident as they feel free to choose the subject and the activity which they wish to practice.

Moreover, web-site games change the teacher's role from a manager to facilitator, that is, the teacher provides the students with help to accomplish their tasks.

According to the researcher' qualitative analysis and interpretations of the experimental group students'

responses to the question " Did you enjoy these web-site games?" , he might be allowed state that the experimental group subjects felt happy while working on computers, they were clapping, and smiling.

Moreover, computer games broke the routines. For instance, students shouted, clapped, sang, and enjoyed their time. They also cooperated with each other.

In addition, they liked sounds and music. Web-site games created a relaxed atmosphere, which encouraged the learners to interact and communicate.

Furthermore, web-site games gave the shy students a chance to express themselves freely without fearing of being watched or observed. Students were happy and willing to play these games. Teachers who taught the web – site games said that they themselves liked the games.

More importantly, the role of teachers may be focused more strongly on developing the social aspects of their students such as critical thinking, and a sense of empathy.

15. Conclusion

To sum up, the researcher examined the effectiveness of web-site games in vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension and motivation of Saudi students, and proposed a model for material development. The researcher's observation was that FL students can benefit significantly from even traditional games.

Additionally, from the results of this study, it can be concluded that the use of web-site games motivates students towards positive learning and creates a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. It also enhances the students' reading comprehension and learning of vocabulary and using them in life – like situations within contexts weather graphically or verbally. They also facilitate the teacher's job by changing his role from a manager to a facilitator. So, web-site games can be judged better than traditional games in teaching English vocabulary items and using them in contexts.

16. Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, the following recommendations are made:

- Further similar studies for other classes can be conducted in order to make the results more valid and more widely applicable. Undergraduate students can be given courses on using web-site games in teaching English.
- The Ministry of Education can activate the role of web-sit games and adopt them in its curricula.
- The Ministry of Education should train teachers by giving workshops on using web-site games.

References

- Alemi, M. (2010). Educational games as a vehicle to teaching vocabulary. *MJAL* 2:6 October 2010 ISSN 0974-874.
- Atiyat, I. (1992) *The effect of computer Assisted instruction upon tenth Grade students mastering of English vocabulary*
- Betzm, J.(1995) computer games: increase learning in an interactive multidisciplinary environment. *Journal of Educational Technology System*.
- Colemam, R. (1999) Language learning through computer adventure games. *Simulation and Gaming*, 21 (4): 443-451.
- Ernoz, A. (2000). Six games for EFL/ESL classroom. *The TESL Journal*, Vol. VI. No. 6. Huyen, Nguyen, Th. , Nga, K. & Thi Th. (2003). Learning vocabulary through games /The effectiveness of learning vocabulary through games. *Asian –EFL-Journal*, Vol 5 , Issue 4.
- Huyen, N. Thi Thanh & Nga, Khuat Thi Thu, (2003). Learning vocabulary through games /The effectiveness of learning vocabulary through games. *Asian –EFL-Journal*, Vol 5 , Issue 4.
- Kim, S. (1995). Creative games for the language class. *'Forum'* Vol. 33 No, 1 *January-March*, page 35.
- Levent U. Ugar, C., Sedat, K. & Umut, S.. (2013). *Developing and Applying a Foreign Language Vocabulary Learning and Practicing Game: The effect of VocaWord*.
- Levy, M. (1997). *Computer-assisted language learning*. Oxford: Clarendon paperbacks.
- Lingnau, A.,Hoppe, H.U., & Mannhaupt, G.(2003). Computer supported collaborative writing in a early learning classroom. *Journal of computer Assisted learning* 19, 186-194
- Ningsih, W. (2008). *Developing students' vocabulary by using games with songs and pictures*. Unpublished research paper, school of teaching training and education Muhammadiyah university of Surakarta.
- Rababh. Gh.(2003). Communication problems facing Arab learners of English: A personal perspective. *TEFL Web Journal Vol 2 No. 1* : King Saud University.
- Sari ,Gh. (2006). *Using games in teaching vocabulary*. University. University of Delaware.
- Shaw, E. (2009). *The effectiveness of games and activities in teaching vocabulary to Adult learners of English as a second language (ESL)*. Unpublished research paper, Caldwell college
- Sutheo, C. (2004). *Using online resources in teaching vocabulary*. Unpublished master thesis, Berzsenyi Daniel

College.

Uberman, A. (1998). The use of games for vocabulary presentation and revision. *'Forum'* Vol. 26 No 1 , January –March page 20.

Uzun, L. (2009). An evaluation checklist for computer games used for foreign language vocabulary learning and practice: Vocaword sample. *Novitas-ROYAL*,2009, Vol.: 3(1), 45-59.


Wright, A. Betteridge, D. & Buckby, M. (1984). *Games for language learning*. Cambridge university press.

Yip, M.& Kwan, M, (2006). *Online vocabulary games as a tool for teaching and learning English vocabulary*. Educational media international, Vol. 43, No. 3, pp. 233-249.

Zuraina, A. Jayakaran, M., Roselan, B. and Ahmad,F. (2012). *Second Language Learners' Attitudes towards the Methods of Learning Vocabulary*. www.ccsenet.org/elt English Language Teaching Vol. 5, No. 4; April 2012

Acknowledgement

My full indebtedness is for my students who were very cooperative and helpful throughout this study. I especially thank Dr. Saffa Habbeeb for this guidance in the statistical part of the study. I gratefully acknowledge my deep indebtedness to my wife for her support and encouragement that was at most behind the whole of my success. Special thanks to the team of examiners for their unexhausted efforts.

Dr. Ahmad M. Bataineh Amman Jordan Mobile:00962796400687 , E-mail: amab88@yahoo.com	
--	---



Autobiography

Ahmad M. Bataineh is an associate professor of applied linguistics. He worked as a member of English curricula at the Ministry of Education from 1999-2002. He is a member of the National Team of Curricula. He worked as a member of a committee for promoting teachers working at the Ministry of Education in Jordan. He evaluated more than 80 English language books taught at Jordanian private schools, and prepared reports for the Council of Education for approving or disapproving the teaching of these books. He was a member in the Jordanian National Team for preparing new English curricula and text books for grades from 1-12. He participated in editing and revising English language text books taught in Jordan. He has a number of research papers in English language and literature, methods of teaching Eng, as well as designing its curricula. He worked on the preparation of English learning plan and its adaptation by the Institute of English language in (Oregon) USA to Americanize teaching English in Jordan. He gave seminars on foreign language teaching and testing, and the integration of language and culture at local and international different universities. He gave seminars on machine translation, Muslim-Christian dialogues, human rights and peace. He Teaches MA and PhD courses at his university and at Amman Arab University. He has supervised on PhD students at different universities. He worked as a head of the Conferences Department at AL-al Bayt University. He is works as a head of Quality Assurance Department. He has multi – experiences in curricula, teaching English as global language, teaching English as foreign language, methodology, conferences, quality assurance, Muslim-Christian dialogues, human rights and peace. He has new orientations towards having change in foreign language classes, because he strongly believes that language is an ear and a tongue. He believes in teaching language with its culture, because language can be regarded as a body and its culture is a soul.

The Equivalence and Shift in the Indonesian Translation of English Adjective Phrases

Mutiari Fitri Dewi^{1*} Lia Maulia Indrayani² Elvi Citraesmana³
English Linguistics Department, Faculty of Humanities, Universitas Padjadjaran
Jalan Raya Bandung-Sumedang KM 21, Jatinangor, Sumedang 45363, Indonesia
*E-mail of the corresponding author: mutiar19@gmail.com

Abstract

The aims of this study are investigating and analyzing the equivalence and shift found in Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases in magazine articles. This study employed descriptive qualitative method. There are 50 data as the sample of the study. From the data, there are 72% data of equivalence and 28% data of shift. The dominant equivalence is textual equivalence (70%) while dynamic equivalence is only 2%. There is only one kind of shift found in this study, i.e. class shift which is subcategorized into two: SL phrase is translated into TL word with 6 data or 12% and SL phrase is translated into TL three words with 8 data or 16%. From the result of the study, it can be concluded that textual equivalence indicates the similarities of function of the adjective phrase in both English and Indonesia. However, the occurring shift indicates the translators to get natural translated text in TL by made linguistic changes without changed the meaning.

Keywords: Equivalence, Shift, Adjective phrases, Translation

1. Introduction

Translation, according to Larson (1998:3), is simply defined as a process to transfer meaning of a source language (SL) into meaning in a target language (TL). He further describes that translation involves studying lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of a SL text, analyzing the meaning of those aspects, and then reconstructing the meaning in appropriate form in TL.

In a similar vein, Nida and Taber (1982:12) propose another definition of translation. According to the two experts, "Translating consisting of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style."

The definition proposed by Larson has an implication that in translating, translators should bear in mind that they not only transfer a message but also reconstruct meaning in TL. Meanwhile, the definition proposed by Nida and Taber contains some elements that should be taken into account by translators in performing their task namely reproducing the natural message, closest equivalence, meaning priority and also translation style.

From the above explanation, it can be inferred that the core of translation lies on form and meaning. Consequently, translators have the main task to achieve translation equivalence of SL text message in TL texts. However, sometimes, due to the difference of structure and culture between SL and TL, translation results in shifts.

The writer conducts this study to find out the equivalence and shift in the Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases. It focuses on identifying the equivalence and shift in the Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases found in *National Geographic Magazine* articles.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Translation Concept

Many linguists have defined translation in their own way. Newmark (1988:7) defines translation as "a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language." In line with Newmark, Larson (1998:3) states, "translation is basically a change of form. In translation, the form of the source language is replaced by the form of receptor (target) language".

Hatim and Munday (2004:6) define translation as "the process of transferring a written text from source language (SL) to target language (TL)". In this definition, they emphasize translation as a process.

In regards to translation types, Larson (1998:15) divides translation two types: literal translation and idiomatic translation. Literal translation refers to a form-based translation attempting to follow the form of the SL. On the other hand, idiomatic translation refers to a meaning-based translation that makes every effort to communicate the meaning of the SL text in the natural form of the TL.

2.2 Equivalence

In relation to equivalence in translation, Baker (1992:77) used the notion of equivalence for the sake of convenience and it is variously regarded as a necessary condition for translations, an obstacle to a progress in translation studies, or a useful category for describing translation. Vinay and Darbelnet (as cited in Munday, 2010:58) state, "equivalence refers to cases where languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or

structural means”.

Popovic (as cited in Bassnett, 2005: 33) proposes the classification of equivalence. According to him, there are four types of equivalence as follow.

1. Linguistic equivalence, where there is homogeneity on the linguistic level of both SL and TL texts, i.e. word for word translation.
2. Paradigmatic equivalence, where there is equivalence of ‘the elements of a paradigmatic expressive axis’, i.e. elements of grammar.
3. Stylistic (translational) equivalence, where there is ‘functional equivalence of elements in both original and translation aiming at an expressive identity with an invariant of identical meaning’.
4. Textual (syntagmatic) equivalence, where there is equivalence of the syntagmatic structuring of a text, i.e. equivalence of form and shape.

Furthermore, Nida (as cited in Munday, 2010:42) divides equivalence into formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content ... one is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. By dynamic equivalence, it means that the relation between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message.

2.3 Shift

Catford (as cited in Venuti and Baker, 2004: 141) stated that ‘shifts’, is departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL. Catford divides shifts into two major types: level shifts and category shifts.

1. Level shift is SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level. It would be something which is expressed by grammar in one language and lexis in another.
2. Category shift is a departure from formal correspondence in translation. Category shift occurs if the source language (SL) has different forms from the target language (TL). This shift is subdivided into four kinds:
 - a. Structure shift is to be the most common form of shift and involve mostly a shift in grammatical structure.
 - b. Class shift occurs when the translation equivalent of SL item is a member of a different class from the original item. This comprises shift from one part of speech to another.
 - c. Unit-shift means change of rank – that is, departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL, is a unit at a different rank in the TL. ‘Rank’ here refers to the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme.
 - d. Intra-system shift is a departure from formal correspondence in which (a term operating in) one system in the SL has as its translation equivalent (a term operating in) a different – non-corresponding-system in the TL.

2.4 Adjective Phrase

Adjective phrase (AP) is a phrase which the head word is an adjective. For example, in the phrase *very important*, the head word is *important* (an adjective). This is in line with Greenbaum’s (1996:288) definition that “the adjective phrase has as its head an adjective, which may be preceded by premodifiers and followed by postmodifiers”. Moreover, Greenbaum (1996:290) lists the functions of adjective phrases as follow.

1. Premodifier of a noun
Well, it's a *much less popular* route.
2. Subject predicative
I mean Auden was *extraordinarily ugly*.
3. Object predicative
He's opening his mouth *very wide* just now.
4. Postmodifier of a pronoun
There would still be eyes watching and wondering from a distance but, briefly, there was no one *close*.
5. Postmodifier of a noun
To outsiders London seems one of the most vibrant cultural capitals of the world, a city *bright with theatres cinemas ballet opera art galleries and great museums*.
6. Nominal adjective
Tonight I hope you'll not mind if I eschew *the academic* and pursue a more earthy albeit reflective tack analyzing the soil within which citizenship can root and thrive.
7. Complement of a preposition
Kaye doesn't finish till *late*.

Brinton (2000:172) describes the expansion of adjective phrase as can be seen in the following table.

Table 1. Expansion of Adjective Phrase (AP)

AP →	A	fierce
	Deg A	very pierce
	Adv A	fiercely barking
	Deg Adv A	very fiercely barking
	A PP	dear to me, tired of him, glad about that

For Indonesian adjective phrase, Alwi, et al. (2003:178) describe adjective phrase as a phrase in which the head of the phrase is an adjective. The adjective, as the head of the phrase, can be bounded by various markers such as modality marker as in *sudah harus tenang* (*sudah harus* is a modality marker to the adjective *tenang*). The Indonesian adjective phrases are also marked by degree of quality or intensity and degree of comparison. The markers like *benar, sangat, terlalu, agak, and makin* express degree of quality. Meanwhile, the markers like *lebih, kurang, and paling* state the degree of comparison.

3. Methodology

This study is a qualitative descriptive study. It describes the equivalence and shift in the Indonesian translation of English adjective phrases.

As stated earlier, the data for this study are adjective phrases taken from *National Geographic* Magazine articles both in English and Indonesian editions (March and April 2014 editions). The English articles are the source texts, meanwhile the target texts are their Indonesian translations.

The procedures of collecting the data are identifying the SL data consist of English adjective phrases. Next, identifying the TL data consists of Indonesian translated adjective phrases from English (TL). The last is putting together the data of the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) side by side in a list.

After collecting the data, the writer analyzes the data by classifying them into equivalence category and shift category. The writer uses Popovic's and Nida's model of equivalence. For analyzing shifts, the writer employs Catford's classification of translation shifts.

4. Data and Analysis

In line with the focus of this study, there are two main categories used in analyzing the data. The equivalent category is subcategorized into:

1. Textual equivalence dividing into two sub-categories:
 - a. SL AP subject predicative is translated into TL AP subject predicative.
 - b. SL AP postmodifier of a noun is translated into TL AP postmodifier of a noun.
2. Dynamic equivalence

There only one type of shift found in this study, i.e. unit shift which is subdivided into:

- a. SL phrase is translated into TL word.
- b. SL phrase is translated into TL clause.

In this study, there are 50 data, consisting of equivalence and shift. There are 36 data of equivalence or 72% and 14 data of shift or 28%. It shows that the equivalences occur more often in the articles than the shifts.

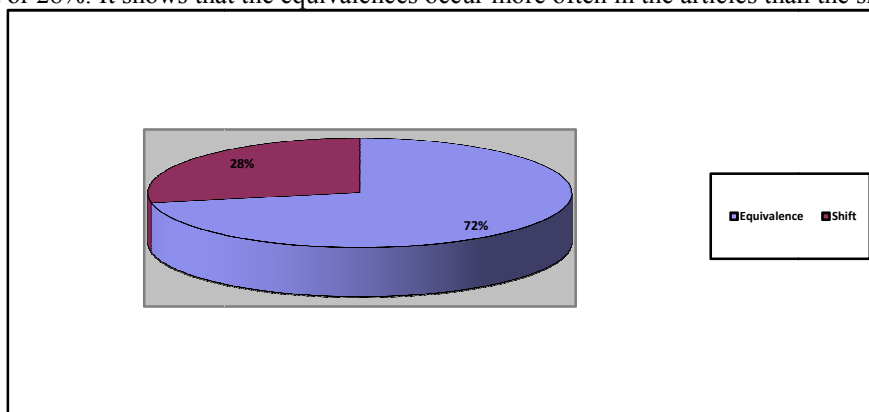


Figure 1. The Main Categories of Equivalence and Shift in the Indonesian Translation of English Adjective Phrases

4.1 The Analysis of Equivalence

Table 2. The Equivalence in the Indonesian Translation of English Adjective Phrases and its Subcategories

No	The Equivalence and Its Subcategories	Number of Data	%
1	Textual Equivalence		
	a. SL AP subject predicative is translated into TL AP subject predicative.	33	66
	b. SL AP postmodifier of a noun is translated into TL AP postmodifier of a noun.	2	4
2	Dynamic Equivalence	1	2
	TOTAL	36	72

From the table 2, there are 36 or 72% data of Textual Equivalence which is divided into two subcategories namely SL AP subject predicative is translated into TL AP subject predicative with 33 data or 66% and SL AP postmodifier of a noun is translated into TL AP postmodifier of a noun with 2 data or 4%. There is also 1 or 2% data of Dynamic Equivalence.

4.1.1 Textual Equivalence

SL AP subject predicative is translated into TL AP subject predicative

- | | |
|--|--|
| SL | TL |
| (1) The barge was <i>almost intact</i> . | (1) Tongkang itu boleh dikatakan <i>masih utuh</i> . |

Sentence (1), SL adjective phrase ‘almost intact’ is translated into TL adjective phrase ‘masih utuh’. Here, the word ‘almost’ is the degree marker (adverb) modifying the English adjective ‘intact’. In the TL, the word ‘masih’ is the degree marker modifying the Indonesian adjective ‘utuh’. SL ‘almost intact’ and TL ‘masih utuh’ are adjective phrases function as subject predicative. Since they have the same function, then, it can be concluded that this textual equivalence, i.e. equivalence of form and shape.

SL AP postmodifier of a noun is translated into TL AP postmodifier of a noun

- | | |
|---|---|
| SL | TL |
| (2) ... a black hole, a collapsed star <i>so dense</i> that even light could not escape its thrall, ... | (2) ... lubang hitam, bintang runtuh <i>yang begitu padat</i> sehingga cahaya pun tak lolos dari cengkramannya, ... |

Sentence (2), SL adjective phrase ‘so dense’ is translated into TL adjective phrase ‘yang begitu padat’. In the SL, ‘so dense’ modifies ‘a black hole’ and in the TL ‘yang begitu padat’ modifies ‘lubang hitam’. The two phrases function as postmodifier of noun. Thus, they have the same function in the same position and it can be considered as textual equivalence.

4.1.2 Dynamic Equivalence

- | | |
|--|--|
| SL | TL |
| (3) Venting CO ₂ from a smokestack is <i>usually free</i> . | (3) Membuang CO ₂ dari cerobong asap <i>biasanya gratis</i> . |

Sentence (3), SL adjective phrase ‘usually free’ is translated into TL adjective phrase ‘biasanya gratis’. It can be seen that they are dynamic equivalence because the word ‘free’ is translated into ‘gratis’. The word ‘gratis’ in Indonesian concept has the same meaning with ‘free’. Both of them mean ‘without paying anything’. If the translator translated ‘free’ literally as ‘bebas’, it will change the meaning and it sounds unnatural in Indonesian context.

4.2 The Analysis of Shift

Table 3. The Shift in the Indonesian Translation of English Adjective Phrases and its Subcategories

No	The Shift and Its Subcategories	Number of Data	%
1	Unit Shift		
	a. SL phrase is translated into TL word.	6	12
	b. SL phrase is translated into TL three words.	8	16
	TOTAL	14	28

From the table 3, there are 14 or 28% data of the shift which is divided into two subcategories namely SL phrase is translated into TL word with 6 data or 12% and SL phrase is translated into TL three words with 8 data or 16%.

4.2.1 Unit Shift

SL AP is translated into TL word

SL

TL

- (4) Time and black holes have a ***very strange*** relationship.
(4) Waktu dan lubang hitam memiliki hubungan yang ***aneh***.

Sentence (4), SL adjective phrase ‘very strange’ consists of two words. It is translated into TL word ‘aneh’ which is an adjective. Here, there is a shift namely *unit shift* means a change of rank which is a unit at one rank in the SL, is a unit at a different rank in the TL, for example from ‘a phrase’ to ‘a word’. In the example, the unit shift occurs from an adjective phrase in SL into a word in TL.

SL phrase is translated into TL three words (Addition of a word in TL AP)

SL

TL

- (5) Something not just small but also ***imaginably heavy***.
(5) Sesuatu yang bukan hanya kecil tetapi juga ***amat sangat berat***.

Sentence (5), SL adjective phrase ‘imaginably heavy’ consists of two words. It is translated into TL three words ‘amat sangat berat’. In this example, the unit shift occurs from an adjective phrase consist of two words in SL into three words in TL with addition of a word in TL adjective phrase.

5. Conclusion

This research found that in the translation of English adjective phrases into Indonesian in the National Geographic magazine articles the equivalence is more dominant than the shift. It is because there are similarities of function of the phrase both in English and in Indonesia. Both in English and Indonesian, the AP can function as subject predicative and postmodifier of a noun. However, in order to get natural translated text in TL, the translators made small linguistic changes known as shift. Those shifts can be accepted because they do not change the meaning.

6. Acknowledgements

This research is dedicated for those who are concerned and interested on translation study. Thank you to my supervisors, Dr. Lia Maulia Indrayani and Dr. Elvi Citraesmana for their suggestions and also Dr. Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna for her review during this research.

References

- Alwi, H, et al. (2003). *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (Edisi Ketiga). Jakarta: Balai Pustaka, (Chapter 5).
- Baker, M. (1992). *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation*. New York: Routledge, (Chapter 3).
- Bassnett, S. (2005). *Translation Studies* (3rd ed.). London & New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library, (Chapter 1).
- Brinton, L. J. (2000). *The Structure of Modern English: A Linguistics Introduction*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, (Chapter 7).
- Farrokh, P. (2011). The Equivalence and Shift in the Persian Translation of English Complex Sentences with wh-Subordinate Clauses. *English Language and Literature Studies*. Vol 1 (2), 74-81. <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ells/article/view/13314/9185>.
- Greenbaum, S. (1996). *The Oxford English Grammar*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc, (Chapter 5).
- Hatim, B and Munday, J. (2004). *Translations: An Advance Resource Book*. London & New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library, (Chapter 1).
- Larson, M. L. (1998). *Meaning-Based Translation: A Guide to Cross-Language Equivalence* (2nd ed.). United States: Oxford University Press, (Chapter 1 and 2).
- Munday, J. (2010). *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications* (2nd ed.). London & New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library, (Chapter 4).
- Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc, (Chapter 1).
- Nida, E and Taber, C. R. (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill, (Chapter 1).
- Retnomurti, A.B. and Imran, I. (n.d.). The Equivalence and Shift in the English Translation of Indonesian Noun Phrases [Online] Available http://www.gunadarma.ac.id/library/articles/postgraduate/letters/Artikel_95107017.pdf (April 9, 2014).
- Venuti, L and Baker, M. (2004). *The Translation Studies Reader*. London & New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library, (Chapter 10).

Trends in KCPE Performance: Their Function in School Effectiveness and Improvement in Gitugi Education Zone, Murang'a County, Kenya

Karongo Violet WANJIRU¹ and Professor John Aluko ORODHO²

Ms. Karongo Violet Wanjiru

Doctorate student in Department of Educational Management, Policy and Curriculum Studies, Kenyatta University, Kenya. karongov@yahoo.com

Prof. John A. Orodho

Department of Educational Management, Policy and Curriculum Studies, Kenyatta University, Kenya.(corresponding author) orodhojohn@gmail.com or orodhojohn@yahoo.com

Abstract

This research sought to find out whether and how the analysis of the mean scores as utilized in Gitugi zone impact on the schools' effectiveness and improvement with regard to performance in KCPE. The research had three objectives, namely) to determine whether there is any significant difference between the KCPE mean scores among the schools,ii) to determine whether there is any significant difference between the KCPE mean scores among cohorts and,iii) to find out whether or how summative and formative evaluation can be used to improve performance in KCPE in Gitugi education zone. Nine out of the fifteen schools were chosen through systematic random sampling. Document analysis was done for both the summative KCPE results and the formative evaluation in class eight, 2011. Piloting was done in one school in the zone. The data collected is presented in tables and graphs and, analyzed using inferential statistics using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient. The schools show a downward trend in performance in KCPE in the zone except two from 2007 to 2011. There is significant difference in the KCPE means among the nine schools, while there is no significant difference across cohorts. This ANOVA results point to differences between schools which need further investigation to explain the observed consistent differences in KCPE performance. Annual calculations of mean scores and ranking continue to generate anxiety without addressing the causative agents. It is recommended that analysis of trends in KCPE performance should be embraced as a useful tool in examining the differences among schools and cohorts and also used to develop strategies to raise schools' effectiveness geared towards enhancement of KCPE scores in Gitugi education zone, Murang'a County, Kenya. [281 words]

Keywords: trends in KCPE performance, ranking of schools, schools' effectiveness, schools' improvement

I. INTRODUCTION

Background of the study

The high premium attached to the quality of education measured using academic and no-academic indicators in secondary education in Kenya is neither achievable nor sustainable without the continuous assessment of these indicators on how they influence the delivery of quality education by school systems in the country (Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012). Demand for educational quality is also increasing, as the Government of Kenya views the satisfactory performance of her basic education systems not only instrumentally but also strategically in relation to economic development and international competitiveness (Orodho,2014).

Internationally, schools' effectiveness is deduced most often from performance in national examinations. The standards that are set by stakeholders for the schools are rarely met thereby generating misunderstanding between the schools and the stakeholders (Kellaghan & Greaney, 2003; The Open Institute, Dec. 2013; Chantanavich,A et al, 1995). In Africa, low performances in national examinations have raised great concern over the years. In Ghana between 1992 and 1996 more than fifty percent of candidates failed the national criterion-referenced tests. More than forty percent in Ethiopia fail grade eight annually while in Mozambique, more than half fail national examinations (Kellaghan & Greaney, 2003).

In Kenya, national examinations provide an indicator of achievement at the end of a cycle. The Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) examination at the end of the 8-year primary school cycle is the first national examination in the school system. The national performance is used to gauge how effective teaching and learning was that year nationally, at county level, district level and school level. At individual level this performance determines the type of secondary school the primary school graduate will join which to a very great extent influences further upward mobility with regard to further education, careers and occupations (Onderi & Croll, 2008, Wasanga & Kyalo, 2007). National performance in KCPE is below fifty percent. Data available from the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) shows that the mean performance from 2006 to 2011

was at 49.17 in 2006 and 49.12 in 2011. The highest mean score achieved was 49.66 in 2008 (The Open Institute, Dec, 2013).

Not surprising then, performance in KCPE is of utmost concern to all stakeholders in the Kenya education system. The demand to improve mean scores weighs heaviest on school heads and the teachers. The demand from parents and the government for teachers and schools to improve their performance, and for the government to provide sufficient teaching human, material and physical resources reverberates across the country every year after the results are released (Nyangosia, 2011; Daily Nation, Dec. 2010).

In Gitugi education zone with most schools posting very low KCPE mean scores every consecutive year, the education office in the zone faithfully analyses the results, discusses them with the school heads and with the teachers, and organizes subject workshops in an effort to stimulate improvements in the schools. Often the school heads are transferred from one school to another within the same zone. A detailed study of the possible cause or causes of the resultant poor performance is not done, neither are attempts made to study the past experiences that may be influencing the observed present performance. The school, the head teacher and the teachers are assumed to be wholly responsible for the poor performance.

Literature review

The education production function postulates that quantities of measured inputs to a school should map onto an equivalent measure of student outputs like test scores (Hanushek, 2007; Krueger, 1999). A school that conducts self study regularly would be able to identify desired students' achievement outcomes thus continue to adjust policies and practices that hamper attainment of the desired outcomes. This would ensure increased effectiveness and continued improvement in the school (Barnes, 2004).

According to Haris & Bennet (2001), school effectiveness is premised upon measurement of school outcomes which often focus on performance in examinations. It also focuses on quantifying differences in performances of different schools. An effective school is one whose performance in examinations is high, while an ineffective school posts low grades in examinations.

School improvement addresses the different ways that can be used to raise the outcomes so to raise the effectiveness of a school. Comparison of performance between different schools in common examinations, and in all other characteristics of the schools would highlight what one school has that is presumed to facilitate better performance. It is presumed that the poorer performing school would improve if it is provided with similar facilities (Haris & Bennet, 2001; Onderi & Croll, 2008).

In an effort to provide all schools with adequate teaching and learning resources for effectiveness, the government introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2003. This was meant to ensure equity and thus equality in performance in all public schools. Projects like SPRED (Strengthening Primary Education), KESSP (Kenya Education Sector Support Program), SMASE (Strengthening of Mathematics and Science Education), capacity building for all staff, review of the Education Act and continuous review of the curriculum are some of the efforts made to raise effectiveness and improvement in public schools.

Despite these efforts, performance in KCPE has remained below average for the larger percentage of candidates every year. Public schools' performance remains persistently below that of private schools, girls' performance continues to be below the boys' (except in languages) and the dissatisfaction among many stakeholders continues unabated (Daily Nation, Dec. 29th & 30st, 2010).

Assessment is often regarded as an important tool to measure the progress of individual learners. It also allows communities and countries to track the quality of schools and education systems (Brann et al, 2006). They point out that if there are no consequences attached to a test, it will do little to motivate healthy change within the education system. If the consequences are too high, it may result in negative undesirable outcomes like narrowing of the curriculum and teaching for tests. This unfortunately is a current practice in schools in Kenya today (Daily Nation, Dec, 2010). Such practice may eventually lead to undermining the integrity of the assessment system as well as the education system itself (Brann et al, 2006; Barnes, 2004).

Test scores when used to gauge effectiveness of schools and education systems are premised on the assumption that all schools operate under the same conditions. It is also assumed that learners in the schools and in all years across which the tests are taken are similar. This is often not the case since it is observed that there are differences regionally, in types of schools (public and private) and in availability of resources (Chantanavich et al 1995; Haris & Bennet, 2001). Chinagah, (2000) points out that inequalities in opportunities to learn among different groups are reflected in corresponding disparities in performance. He observes that differences in the language of instruction, language of assessment and the native language are factors that influence test outcomes in nations with many language groups.

Wayman and Stingfield (2004) strongly suggest that analysis of student performance data is the first critical tool required in the development of strategies to enhance effectiveness and improvement of education systems and schools. A report for the Ministry of education, Netherlands, 2012, states that review of evaluation and assessments is critical for improving school outcomes. They opine that examination systems and results can be

used to improve quality especially if the examinations replicate what is required in the classroom. Kellaghan and Greaney (1992). They however caution that public examinations intended to raise quality cannot be the same as those for selection. This is because examinations for selection into careers, secondary or higher education often do not take into account the needs of the majority who do not proceed to the next level. The authors also point out that teachers are not adequately equipped with skills to use the examinations results data analysis for improvement of teaching and learning.

Data available from the Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC) is detailed with trends in enrolments, absent candidates, gender parity, cheating in exams, county populations and analysis of the examination appropriateness. No data was found showing performance trends over any span of years. In this study all the schools studied being public schools are presumed to have similar resources and have learners with similar economic backgrounds. It is also contended that if the schools regularly analyse their performances in all examinations they should be able to develop strategies that would enhance performance in KCPE.

Statement of the problem

Performance in KCPE in Gitugi education zone has been poor consistently for many years. Despite the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) by the government in 2003, performance in the majority of the schools has remained poor. The primary objective of FPE is to allow all Kenyan children access education, ensure quality education by providing requisite resources to all schools equitably and thus allow for performance that is commensurate with the inputs therein (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Since performance in national examinations is the common denominator across all schools in the country, it becomes equally effective at assessing performance nationally when it is assumed that all schools operate under the same conditions through FPE.

In Gitugi when this condition is assumed to be true, the 15 schools (all of which are public schools with one being private) in the zone should show similarity in performance, which they do by the majority performing below the zonal mean. Three of the schools (one of which is the private school) however consistently perform better with mean scores above the zonal mean. An increase or decrease in the mean scores in consecutive years does not seem to alter the ranking. This creates the problem of what the schools need to do to improve their performances thereby develop effectiveness in teaching and learning.

Purpose and objectives of the study

The purpose of this study was to analyze trends in students KCPE performance with a view to examine their function in school effectiveness and improvement in Gitugi Education Zone, Murang'a County, Kenya. Since KCPE performance is analyzed every year in Gitugi education zone this study sought to analyse the trends in performance over a span of five years and use the same to assess their usefulness in stimulating improvement through increased effectiveness at school level. The analysis was fashioned to ascertain whether there are underlying differences among the schools that result in the continued similarity in performance which results in maintenance of similar ranking across the years.

The study had three fold objectives, namely:

1. To determine whether there is any significant difference between the KCPE mean scores attained by the schools in the zone for five consecutive years, 2007 to 2011
2. To determine whether there is any significant difference between the KCPE mean scores attained by the different cohorts in five consecutive years.
3. To establish whether or how trends in summative and formative evaluation performances can be used to raise schools' effectiveness and trigger schools' improvement.

Research hypotheses

Three hypotheses were proposed as predictive statements highlighting the relationship between KCPE mean scores of the schools across the five years and across the cohorts in the schools. The independent variable is the KCPE examination that is administered to all candidates in all the schools in the five years, while the dependent variable is the resultant performance indicated by the mean scores for every school

H0₁: There is no significant difference between the KCPE mean score performances among the schools in Gitugi education zone for five consecutive years 2007 to 2011.

H0₂: There is no significant difference between the KCPE mean scores across cohorts in Gitugi education zone between 2007 and 2011.

H0₃: There is no significant relationship between KCPE evaluation mean scores and formative evaluation scores in Gitugi education zone to impact on effectiveness and improvement in the schools.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Descriptive survey was used in which performance data was collected from the schools. Nine out of the fifteen

schools were chosen through systematic random sampling. Gitugi education zone is in Gitugi administrative division of Mathiyoia sub-county, Murang'a County. There are fourteen public primary schools and one private school in the zone. The schools are evenly spread across the 51.2 square kilometers.

Nine out of the fourteen public schools were used as the sample which represents sixty percent (60%) of the total number of schools in the zone. A cohort in the study was regarded as the group of learners that sat the KCPE exam each year, and whose results are the ones posted as the mean scores for that year. The trend in performance in the schools is presented in graphs and compared against the national performance between the years 2007 to 2011.

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test whether there is any significant difference between the KCPE mean scores of five years, 2007 to 2011, among schools and across the years. The Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient r_s was used to test the significance of 2011 KCPE performance with formative evaluation. The formative evaluation examinations used were the mock examination, 2011 and end-of-year examination 2010. These three formative examinations were thus done by the same candidate.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Figure 1 graphically depicts the trend in national mean score performances in KCPE from 2007 to 2011 in the study locale.

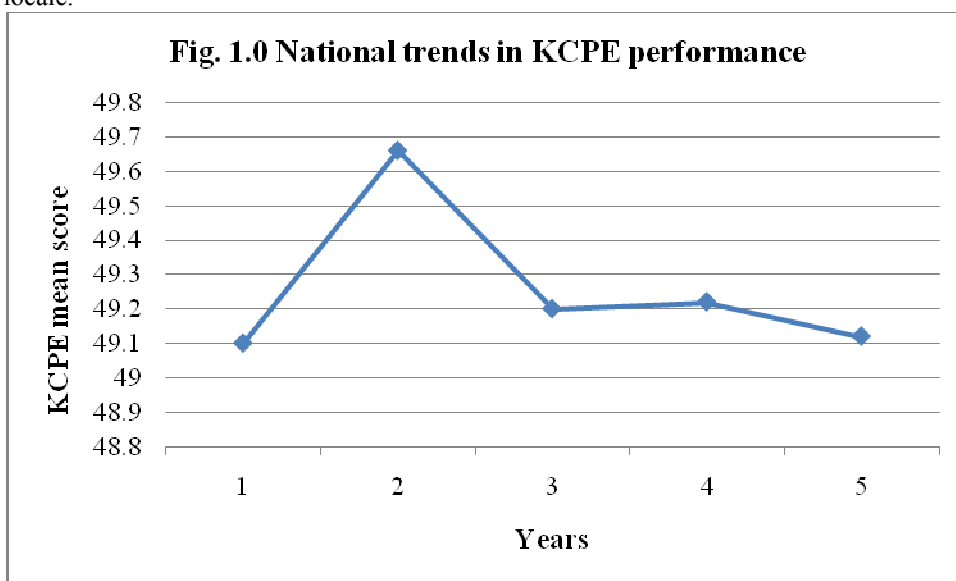


Figure 1: The National examination performance profile in Gitugi Division

An examination of the performance profile in the study locale indicates that the performance sharply increased from the first to second year and suddenly dropped during the the third year under study. The poor performance has remained consistently low over the years, especially from 2009 to 2011.

Table 2 carries data on the KCPE mean scores for the nine sampled schools from 2007 to 2011 in the study locale of Gitugi Division, Murang'a County. A part from only two schools that have recorded some remarkable improvement over the years, the rest of the schools have either remained constantly low or dropped drastically over the period under review. The schools have generally performed below the national average over the period under review.

Table 2: KCPE Mean scores for the nine sample schools

School	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Githendu	249.35	293.33	287.39	273.91	304.38
Kiuu	244.94	262.14	252.64	239.9	238.69
Ngutu	220.29	214.67	232.02	234.43	232.71
Nyangiti	213.62	221.07	226.1	226.3	222.19
Chui	233.92	244.04	221.47	219.47	212.11
Mihuti	223.18	193.45	212.96	237.12	209.4
Ruiru	178.18	195.3	235.67	241.94	205.2
Gitugi	202.95	216.79	209.35	206.52	202.42
Kambara	215.82	223.41	226.92	222.19	200.96

The study also posited three hypotheses, namely:

H0₁: There is no significant difference between the KCPE mean score performances among the schools in

Gitugi education zone for five consecutive years 2007 to 2011.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between the KCPE mean scores across cohorts in Gitugi education zone between 2007 and 2011.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between KCPE evaluation mean scores and formative evaluation scores in Gitugi education zone to impact on effectiveness and improvement in the schools.

The test on the significance of the differences in the KCPE mean scores between 2007 and 2011 produced an F ratio of 10.80. The critical value from the table, $F_c = F_{8,36;0.05} = 2.21$. Since the calculated F value of 10.804 is greater than the critical value of 2.21, we reject the null hypothesis **H₀₁** that there is no significant difference in the KCPE mean scores among the schools for the five years. We thus conclude that at least one mean differs from the others.

The calculated F value for the second hypothesis **H₀₂** that there is no significant difference between the KCPE mean scores for the different cohorts between 2007 and 2011 was 0.117. The critical value from the table, $F_c = F_{4,40;0.05} = 3.40$. Since the calculated value is less than the critical value, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the KCPE mean scores across the cohorts in the five years studied is not rejected.

On the third null hypothesis **H₀₃**, the Spearman rank correlation coefficient r_s calculated for KCPE 2011 and mock exam 2011 was 0.85. The critical value at a significant level $\alpha = 0.05$ and degrees of freedom (df) of 9 is 0.7.

The calculated coefficient for KCPE scores and 2010 entry exam is 0.733. Since the two calculated values of significance are greater than the critical value of 0.7, the null hypothesis **H₀₃** that there is no significant relationship between KCPE performance and formative evaluation is rejected. We conclude that there is significant relationship between performance in KCPE and formative evaluation.

Discussions

Gitugi education zone appears to portray similarity in trends with national performance in KCPE from 2007 to 2011. There was a marked improvement from 2007 to 2008 both nationally and at the area of study. The next three years show a downward trend nationally and in the zone. Two schools in the zone however marked improvements in the two years which may explain the statistical test result that there is difference in at least one of the means.

The findings show that there is significant difference in the KCPE mean scores among the nine schools in the zone. This implies that there is a greater difference between the different schools than within each individual school itself. If it is presumed that the schools operate under similar conditions then it can be surmised that there are other underlying differences among the schools that result in the observed differences in performance in KCPE. The fact that ranking across the years remains almost unchanged may point to the maintenance of similar practices in individual schools thereby resulting in little or no competition among the schools. Nevo (1995) indicates that the function of students' evaluation is to provide information for the improvement of learning. These findings can thus provide a basis upon which inquiries can be made into how strategies can be developed that increase effectiveness in teaching and learning.

Across cohorts the low significance value indicates that the difference in performance across cohorts is less than within individual cohorts. This agrees with the first observation since performance within a cohort includes performance among the different schools in that year. This strengthens the supposition that there are differences among the schools that result in the differences in performance in KCPE in Gitugi education zone.

According to Barnes (2004), analyzing students' performance creates habits of inquiry, reflection and actions that fuel continuous school improvement. A report for the Ministry of Education (2012) in the Netherlands explains the critical importance of analyzing assessment and evaluation scores for improvement of the school systems and student achievement scores.

The Spearman rank coefficient indicated that there is significant relationship between performance in KCPE and formative evaluation in the schools. According to Chiarellot (1994) and Renner (1978), formative evaluation provides feedback for improvement. It indicates a student's relative position at the time so that the students' efforts can be directed more profitably.

In a report to UNESCO, it is emphasized that school improvement strategies that are based on analysis of students' evaluation data are the most effective (UNESCO, 2004). It would thus be helpful if schools developed effective formative assessment and evaluation policies that would more effectively address their unique circumstances. The analysis of such evaluation would highlight more clearly what the school needs to change to facilitate improvement in test scores.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary goal of this study was to determine the efficacy of analyzing performance trends in KCPE as a tool for enhancing effectiveness and improvement in schools in Gitugi education zone. The results show that there are differences among schools across the five years studied whereby there is greater difference between

schools than within individual schools. These results point to differences among the schools that need to be unearthed to help explain the observed poor performance, and the differences that result in maintenance of near the same ranking.

There are many impediments to progress towards improving performance in schools. Limited resources and facilities, insufficient capacity, inefficient resource allocation and wastage are possible hindrances towards improvement (Brann,2006). Although the trends in Gitugi seem similar to those posted nationally, it is important for the stakeholders in the zone to compare favorably locally. The zone has a mean far below that of the province and district in all the five years which were 250.25 and 234.11 respectively in 2010.

The inconsistency in performance may also be studied to highlight the issues that oscillate within the community or the schools. This would lead to inquiries on how best to protect schools against any adverse external or internal occurrences, thus improve effectiveness. It may also persuade stakeholders to analyze each examination for each year, and the characteristics of each cohort that sits the exam to understand the dynamics that influence their performance as they prepare the next cohort for the next examination.

The posting of annual KCPE results generates anxiety which most often produces knee-jack reactions without addressing the past from which the results derived. Equally comparing learners from different cohorts using different examinations may result in distortion of how schools should improve.

In conclusion analysis of trends in KCPE performance in gitugi education zone is helpful as it points out that there are differences in the schools, that some schools are not doing as well as they should across the years and, that there is continued decline in performance at the final stage of learning in class 8. Effective use of formative evaluation analysis would help to improve performance. There is need to conduct detailed studies on what may be the influencing factors that result in the prevailing trends in KCPE performance observed in the zone. Performance in examinations is only one indicator of the state of a school.

REFERENCES

- Barnes, D.F. (2004). *Inquiry and action: Making school improvement part of daily practice.* *annerberginstitute.org*
- Brann, H., Kanjee,A., Bettinger,E. & Kremen, M. (2006). *Improving education through assessment , innovation and evaluation.* Cambridge: American Academy of Arts and Sciences. www.amacad.org
- Chantanavich,A., Chantanavich,C., & Fry, G.W. (1995). *Evaluating Primary education: Qualitative and quantitative policy studies in Thailand.* Ottawa: International Research Centre.
- Chinapah, V., H'ddigu, M., Kanjee, ., Falayojo, W., Fomba,C.O., Hamissou,O., Rafalimanana, A. and Byamugisha,A. (2000). *Wjith Africa for Afric: Towards quality education for all.* Pretoria: Human Science Research Council. www.amacd.org .
- Chiarellot,L., Davidman,L &Ryan, K. (1994). *Lenses on teaching: developing perspectives on classroom life.* London: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Daily Nation, 29th December, 2010. 'Overall KCPE grades decline for yet another year.' At ssringi@ke.nationmedia.com
- Daily Nation, 30th Dec. 2010. "How schools rank" at newsdesk@ke.nationmedia.com
- Hanushek, E.A. (2007). *Education production function.* Palgrave encyclopedia. Stanford University.
- Haris, A. & Bennet, N. (2001). *School effectiveness and school improvement: Alternative perspectives.* London: Continuum Publishers.
- Kellaghan, T. & Greaney, V. (2003). *Monitoring performance: Assessment and examination in Africa.* ADEA, Mauritius.
- Krueger, A.B. (1999). "Experimental estimates of education production functions".*Quarterly journal of economics* 114, no. 2 (May): 497 – 532.
- Ministry of Education, Netherlands. (2012). *OECD Review on evaluation and assessment frameworks for improving school outcomes.* www.oecd.org/edu/evaluationpolicy.
- Nevo, D. (1995). *School-based evaluation:A dialogue for school improvement.* Israel: ElsevierScience Ltd
- Nyangosia, P.A. (2011). *Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE): Exam results analysis,* Provincial Education Board, Central Province.
- Onderi, H. & Croll, P. (2008). *Factors associated with differential school performance in Gucha District of Kenya.* *Research in education: an interdisciplinary research journal.* No. 80 pp 15 – 25. University of Bradford, Bradford.
- Kampala: Uganda Bookshop Press.
- Orodho,A.J.(2014).Policies on Free Primary and Secondary school Education in East Africa: Are Kenya and Tanzania on course to attain education for All (EFA) Goals by 2015? *International Organization of Scientific Research(IOSR) Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences.Vol.19,Issue1,Ver.V(Jan,2014),pp11-20* www.iosrjournals.org
- Orodho ,A.J. ,Waweru ,N.P., Ndichu,M.,&Nthinguri,R.(2013).Basic education in Kenya: Focus on strategies

- applied to cope with school-based challenges inhibiting effective implementation of curriculum. *International Journal of Education and Research*. Vol.1.No.11 November2013. www.ijern.com
- Renner, J.W., Shepherd, G.D. & Bibbons, R.F. (1973). *Guiding learning in the elementary school*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers.
- Republic of Kenya, (2005). MoEST, Sessional paper No. 1, 2005. Policy framework for education, training and research: Nairobi, Government printer.
- Republic of Kenya .(2013). The Basic Education Act 2013 No.14 Of 2013. Nairobi.
- Republic of Kenya/UNICEF(2012).Education for All (EFA) End of Decade Assessment (2001-2010). Ministry Of Education and INICEF. Nairobi.
- The Open Institute. (2013). The state of primary education in Kenya. At <http://globalopendatainitiative.org>
- UNESCO (2004). School evaluation for quality improvement. <http://www.unesco.org/iiep>.
- UNESCO (1996). *A Report on Study of Education Sector in Rwanda*. Kigali: UNESCO.
- Woodford, K., Jackson, G., Gillard, P., Harley, A., Cranz, D. and Glennon, D (Eds.). (2003) *Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Young, B. L. (1982). *Teaching Primary Science* (4th Ed.). London: Longman Press.
- Wasanga, P.M. & Kyalo, F. (2007).National assessment initiatives and their impact on quality of education. Kenya National Examinations Council.
- Wayman, J.C. & Stigfield, S. (2004). Software enabling school improvement through analysis of student data. John Hopkins University. Baltimore.

The IISTE is a pioneer in the Open-Access hosting service and academic event management. The aim of the firm is Accelerating Global Knowledge Sharing.

More information about the firm can be found on the homepage:
<http://www.iiste.org>

CALL FOR JOURNAL PAPERS

There are more than 30 peer-reviewed academic journals hosted under the hosting platform.

Prospective authors of journals can find the submission instruction on the following page: <http://www.iiste.org/journals/> All the journals articles are available online to the readers all over the world without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. Paper version of the journals is also available upon request of readers and authors.

MORE RESOURCES

Book publication information: <http://www.iiste.org/book/>

Recent conferences: <http://www.iiste.org/conference/>

IISTE Knowledge Sharing Partners

EBSCO, Index Copernicus, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, JournalTOCS, PKP Open Archives Harvester, Bielefeld Academic Search Engine, Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek EZB, Open J-Gate, OCLC WorldCat, Universe Digital Library, NewJour, Google Scholar

