Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DISCLAIMER

All the contributions are published in good faith and intentions to promote and encourage research activities around the globe. The contributions are property of their respective authors/owners and ASSRJ is not responsible for any content that hurts someone's views or feelings etc.

No Save Place for Girls: Study on Sexual Harassments and Violence Against Girls in Indonesia

Dr. Bagong Suyanto
Department of Sociology, Faculty of Social and Political Sciences
Airlangga University. Jl. Airlangga 4-6, Surabaya 60286, Indonesia

Abstract
This study investigates the incidents of sexual harassments and violence against girls in Indonesia. Based on this research, girls are more likely to become victims of harassment and sexual violence due to their socially weak position and the domination of patriarchal culture. Therefore, they are easily intimidated, violated, and fooled by the perpetrators. Basically this paper is resulted from a qualitative study by analyzing news data from two mass medias (Jawa Pos and Surya) during January 2012- August 2013, and previous studies on sexual harassment against children. In order to provide a comprehensive analysis, this paper uses the concept of gender-based power relations. Using the news media coverage and field study in this area, this paper examines types of harassments and violences against girls in Indonesia and analyse the causes of sexual violences against teenage girls in contemporary Indonesia. I also argue that the patriarchal values and gendered bias system appear to be the main hurdle for women, especially teenage girls, in Indonesia to resist and being saved from the violence actions sexually and predominantly done and accused by the men, especially the girls' father. When wise words saying "the kindest and safest man for girl is her father," this words seem do not occur for unfortunate girls studied in this paper."

Keyword: sexual harassment, violence, patriarchal culture

INTRODUCTION
Indonesia is currently in emergency child protection. This statement is not exaggerating because cases of violence against children, especially sexual abuse, reported in mass media are getting more devastating. Almost everyday the mass media report sexual violence against girls. Statistically, in Indonesia it is estimated that on the average, 5 to 6 women are raped per day or in other words at least one case of rape occurs every 4 hours. It is even more alarming that often the victims are children. There was even a victim who was not even 2 years old.

In his research conducted in Indonesia within the period of 1994 to 1996, Irwanto et. al. (1999) found that the majority of rape victims were children. In fact, it was estimated that 60% of rape victims were girls under the age of 11. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Kalyanamitra Foundation involving 9 printed media in Java found that during 1994, 75% of 185 cases of rape occurred to girls under the age of 17 (Edriana, Kompas, August 1, 1995). Most of the perpetrators (74%) were known by the victim. Some rapes involved more than one perpetrator. A study conducted by Hariadi & Suyanto et al (2000) in which the data were taken from Jawa Pos during 1993 to 1994 found that as many as 49.1% of rape victims were children under the age of 14, and even 14.2% of them were under the age of 8.

Why are girls potential victims of sexual crimes? In addition to the perpretator's mental depravity, psychologically and physically children are generally very vulnerable and can easily become the victims of rape. A study conducted by the Institution of Research and Community Service of Universitas Airlangga in East Java (1992) found that mostly sexual violence involved

threat and forcefulness (66.3%). However, some rapists usually tried to persuade their victims (22.5%) or used drugs (5.1%). Often, a thousand to five thousand rupiahs or candy was enough to persuade the children. The rapist then tricked his victim so that the perpetrator could molest or sexually assault his victim (Hariadi & Suyanto 2000).

Data from the Indonesian Child Protection Committee (KPAI) in 2011 showed that in Indonesia there were 2,275 cases of child abuse, in which 887 cases were sexual ones. In 2012, as many as 3,871 cases of violence against children were reported, and 1,028 of them were sexual violence against children. During January-February 2013, the KPAI recorded a total of 919 cases of violence against children, in which 216 cases were sexual violence.

This article does not only aim to identify the profile of the perpretators and children as the victims of sexual violence but also examine the area of sexual violence and the problematic situations emerging as girls deal with male superiority.

METHODS

This research is qualitative descriptive study utilizing and analyzing news in mass media and previous studies on sexual violence against children. Purposively, the mass media determined as the sources of information in this study were Jawa Pos and Surya. Both daily news were selected as they intensively published features and news related to sexual harrassment and violence against girls.

Data on sexual violence analyzed in this study were limited to the cases reported in mass media during the year of 2012 to August 2013. The cases of sexual harrassment and violence analyzed were limited to the ones in which the victims were girls under the age of 18. In order to simplify the process of data collection and tabulation, a semi-structured instrument of data collection had been prepared prior to data collection. Thus, although the possible answers or types of case had been determined, new categories and types of classification might be proposed in accordance with the data obtained. This study has successfully resported 116 cases of sexual harassment and violence against girls occurred during the year of 2012 to August 2013 in a variety of areas reported in Jawa Pos and Surya.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sexual harrassment and rape to girls are basically two forms of sexual violence and violation of children's rights, yet ironically sexual harrassment and rape to girls continue to occur and may occur to anyone. Sexual harassment here is defined as giving oral, written or physical sexual attention to woman; the attention is involuntary, yet it must be accepted as fairness (Marzuki et. al. 1995). Rape is forcible sexual intercourse which harms the victim. In other words, rape can be defined as an attempt of a man to vent out his sexual lust to the victim (usually female) in a way that violates the moral and/or applicable laws (Wignjosoebroto 1991). Thus, rape is forcible sexual intercourse to a woman without consent or conscious will of the woman.

To the victim, rape is an affliction that is more painful than just losing property. The victim generally experiences untold psychological trauma and get a stigma as a rape victim. A study conducted by Linda E. Ledray to rape victims found that 2-3 hours after the rape: 96% of victims suffered from continuous shaking and shivering, 68% experienced dizziness, 68% had severe muscle spasms, and 65% got severe headache and pain. Meanwhile, for the period of post-rape, it was found that: 96% of the victims had anxiety, 96% suffered experienced psychological fatigue, 88% had continuous anxiety, 88% perceived that they were threatened, and 80% perceived that they were terrorized by their situation (Marzuki et. al. 1995).

Furthermore, if the victims of the rape are children, then, chances that they can recover is even smaller. They are likely to suffer from severe trauma (Gelles 1982). Their future is destroyed, and for those who can not bear the burden, committing suicide appears to be the only option. In most cases, the victims can no longer have proper sexual intercourse as they suffer from vaginismus, in which the vaginal wall muscles are always contracting during sexual intercourse, making penetration difficult. In fact, dyspareunia may occur in some cases; pain that emerges during sexual intercourse (Setiabudi, Kompas, 1 August 1995).

Sexual harrassment and rape are not merely crimical case. In order to have an in depth understanding on the causes and impacts of sexual violence on women, this matter should be placed in a broader context, in which the position of women and their behavior are socially defined and controlled. It means, the causes behind a rape are not only an expression of male's unbearable depraved lust but also the feeling of being stronger and more powerful over women (Jackson & Jones 1998).

Theoretically, it can be said that sexual harassment and violence against women by men are basically an extremely complex phenomenon, growing in gender-based power relations, sexuality, self-identity, and influenced by social institutions developed in the community (Sularto 2000). Sexual violence is, in many ways, understood and considered as an extension of the belief continuum that entitles men to control women's behavior, making women lack of freedom of sexual life and reproductive roles, as, as in the symbolic representation and the ritual of sexual intercourse (Brooks 2008).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In terms of morality, values and social norms, and laws, sexual harassment and rape are clearly despicable, and thus should be eradicated. Eventhough rapists are sentenced to jail for decades even to death, the number of such cases is not decreasing. Such crime becomes more brutal and inhumane. Children as the victims of rape are not only sexually abused and taken their virginity or forced not to report the crime but sometimes are also persecuted, mistreated, and even killed to eliminate clues leading to the perpetrator. Rape and murder are crimes that are often carried out in sequence.

The potential victims of rape are not always women in sexy dress. Rape and the victims are just like what an advertisement says: "it can happen anytime, anywhere, and to anyone". However, cases of sexual harassment and rape are generally potential to happen to women who are physically and psychologically weak. Evidences suggest that girls are always more at risk than adults to be victims of sexual assault. A study conducted by Kalyanamitra (1999) during 1994-1996 found that approximately 60% of the victims of rape reported in media were children. In addition, it turned out that rape was likely to happen in victims' own house instead of a desolate, dark and dangerous place. Mosse (1993) clearly stated that the most dangerous place for women, around the world, is their own house. In short, previously rape was seen as a crime committed by abnormal man who was unable to control his sexual lust, now it is increasingly recognized that rape can be committed by anyone, including normal man, because basically the motive is the mechanism of control and intimidation.

Until today, the exact number of cases of sexual violence has never been clear. Many cases of sexual violence against women were never revealed publicly, making it a dark number. However, a criminologist, Purniati Mangunsong, estimated that at least 1,500 to 2,000 cases of sexual violence occur every year in Indonesia (Irwanto et. al. 1999). As stated by Kalyanamitra that 60% of rape victims in Indonesia were children, it was estimated that the number of rape occurred to children in Indonesia was no less than 900 to1200 cases (Irwanto et. al. 1999).

However, this is not 100% accurate. Yet, if all women were honest and had the courage to report harrassment or sexual violence occurred to them or around them, the number could be much greater. For instance In USA, in which the women movement is advanced, it is reported that rape occurs every six minutes.

Apart from the question of the accuracy of the presented data, sexual abuse and rape as a form of sexual aggression with forcefulness as well as threat is basically a form of crime that is very disturbing, creating traumas for the community-especially for the victims. In many identified cases, it needs to be realized that sexual violence generally is not only about sexual behavior and assault directly addressed to the victims but also the expression of sexual signs and language. On the other hand, harassment and sexual violence against children may be in a form of trading girls for sexual purposes, commercial sexual exploitation of children, or obvious direct sexual abuse and assault in the form of rape (Suyanto et. al. 2000).

Rape is not always preceded by threat and violence. Evidences have shown that rapists always use a variety of reasons and ways to deceive their victims such as seduction, threat to stop funding creating financial dependency on the rapists, fraud, and if it all fails, threat of violence. As reported in mass media, rape victims generally do not perform physical resistance due to fear and helplessness. Commonly the victims are relatively weak, unprotected, or unable to protect themselves. In fact, they may even have a predisposition to let themselves under the control of the rapist. They are, for example, easily persuaded, seduced and invited to events that do not seem harmful. Such situations put the victims in a very vulnerable position (Jackson 1986). It can be understood if a naive country girl, in her first time in a big city, is unsuspecting a stranger who offers to escort her. The stranger may seem kind hearted but he is acually a bad guy. Similarly, how could 7-10 year old girls refuse an offer of delicious sweets from their neighbors whom they have known or from their own teacher they respect.

Sexual harassment and rape are basically a part and forms of gender related violence. It means, the two forms of violation of women's rights are performed not only due to spontanity or a desire to vent out the libido of depraved men but also due to the value or gender ideology that put women and girls in marginal and subordinate position. In many cases of rape, the one to blame by the public is the victim as they are considered as temptress or women who can not take care of herself. Although the public also blame the rapists for what they do, the public regard the rape as men's 'normal' mistake. (Saptari & Holzner 1997, p. 232).

Commonly, people identify potential victims of rape as those having been labeled as "not a good girl" or those who deserve it. Even when the victim is "a good girl", the public question: how the victim dressed at the time of the rape, how the attitude of the victim is. In short, the questions are always about the sexual morality of the victim – in this case, women. As the rapist is a man, rape is usually accepted as something normal. The rapist is considered as being out of mind or unable to control his sexual lust at the time he commits the crime.

In fact, it has to be as admitted that sexual abuse and rape can happen to anyone, anywhere and at anytime. It means that the accusation that women, as the victims, more or less contribute to the occurence of rape as they are flirty is unjustifiable. Sexual harassment and sexual assault to woman, in many cases, occur due to the position of the victim which is structurally weak, vulnerable or helpless, making the perpetrator who wants to express his masculinity in an extreme way commit rape. All this time, many evidences suggest that the potential victim of sexual harrassment and sexual assault is generally girls instead of women. In some cases, rape even occurs to elder women. These facts break the prejudice saying that

the victims are commonly beautiful and sexy women since the victims of sexual assault are girls, even toddlers who have absolutely no relation to sexiness and lust (Suyanto 2013).

Why are girls more likely to become victims of sexual harrasment and violence? The answers to this question are relatively varied and often cumulative. Girls are more likely to be the victims of sexual violence because their position is socially weak; they are easily fooled, and psychologically easily deceived by the perpetrator who tantalizes them with sweets or coins. Moreover, girls are easier to be scared. Many cases show that girls who are the victims of rape experience severe trauma, which turns them into introvert and uncommunicative person real quick, making the incident unknown to people, including their own parents. In addition, perpetrators believe that committing sexual harassment and violence against girls is less risky and likely to be unrevealed.

Table 1: Status and Profession of Rapist

No.	Perpetrators of Sexual Violence to Girls	Mass Media Coverage	
		Frequency	%
1	Law enforcement officers	3	2,6%
2	Father	13	11,2%
3	Grandfather	4	3,5%
4	Sibling/Relatives	13	11,2%
5	Public school teacher	10	8,6%
6	Quran recital teacher	4	3,4%
7	Neighbor	23	19,8%
8	Friend	2	1,8%
9	Other	44	37,9%
	Total	116	100,0%

Source: Jawa Pos and Surya (2012 to August 2013)

Generally, we imagine the perpetrators of sexual harrassment and rape are a cruel person, suffering from mental disorder or having psychological problems, immoral, having no faith in religion, stranger to the victims, savage criminal, and so on. In fact, frequently the perpetrators are common people who appear normal, having a good attitute, known by the victims and even close to the victim. Out of 185 cases of rape investigated by Kalyanamitra, it was found that in most cases (74%), the rapist is known by the victim - friend, boyfriend, relatives, husband, father, etc – while in 15% of the cases, the rapist is a stranger to the victim (Taslim et. al. 1998, pp. 34-41).

Objectively, the rapist could be anyone - whether he is a stranger to the victim or not, whether he has a cognation to the victim or not – the most important thing is the rapist is a man and in a society whose social values put women in a subordinate position, any man could commit planned or unplanned rape. Many evidences and studies suggest that rape or other violence against women generally occurs in a society whose social relations are patriarchal and tend to reduce the role of women. Patriarchal here is an ideology in which men hold higher position than women; women should have been controlled by men because women are part of men's property (Prasetyo & Marzuki 1997).

The study suggests that the status and profession of rapist varies from stranger, teacher, grandfather, relatives, friend, and police officer to victim's own father. Interestingly, the

perpetrators of harrassment and rape - regardless the status and profession – are generally socially superordinate to the victim. Almost no sexual harrassment and rape reported in mass media committed by the victim's younger brother, the victim's son, the victim's students or those whose status, role and position are subordinate to the victim. Based on in depth investigation, most rapists are superior to their victims, having the power and able to control the situation, such as teacher, father, adult, so it is not exaggerating if it is said that violence against women is basically a reflection of men's power, or the embodiment of women's vulnerability in the presence of men, and even a portrayal of injustice to women. In order to understand the background of the harrassment and rape to girls, the matters should be placed within a broader social context, in which women's position and behaviour are socially defined and controlled (Jackson & Jones (eds.) 1998).

As in child abuse, the perpetrator is not always a criminal or someone who enjoys himself in a prostitution complex. The data taken from the mass media show that the rapist is often a person who is familiar to the victim, whether he is the victim's neighbor, sibling, relative, teacher, or even the victim's own grandfather or father.

The study suggests that approximately 10% of harrassment and rape is committed by the victim's own father. Most rapists are the victim's neighbor, sibling, relative, grandfather, and teacher, be it Quran recital teacher or school teacher. Unlike the cases of sexual harrassment in the working environment mostly committed by the employer or boss (Collier, 1998), the results of the study on the cases of rape of girls are similar to previous studies. Previously, it has been evident that approximately 75% of molesters are close to the victim, whether they are the victim's relative (43%), acquaintance (33%) or the member of the victim's nuclear family - including father. Ironically, since the perpetrator is someone who is close to the victim and having a more superior position, especially when the perpetrator is the victim's own biological father, the rape occurs repeatedly over a period of years because the victim does not have the courage report the rape. It is even more appalling that a rape was reportedly committed by the victim's own father with the victim's own mother (Santoso 1999, p. 99).

Generally, sexual abuse takes place in four places. First, the sexual abuse takes place in a place secured from the surrounding's surveillance, particularly in the victim's home. Second, it takes place in a completely open space, away from the reach of social control, such as on a street, in a public place, in a quiet courtyard, in a graveyard, and so on. Third, it takes place in a school or in a lodge. Fourth, it takes place in a 'gray' area in which permissive life is common, such as prostitution complex, hotel or homestay. Prior to rape cases that occur in such area, the victim is deceived, either by persuasion, threat or deception, and then taken to a place in which the social control is sociologically loose.

CONCLUSION

Sexual harassment and violence are not only a crime, rather they are a product of the culture of gender bias and patriarchal society. Often, rape itself is evidently not a spontaneous act of lust due to the attractiveness of the victim who wears sexy dress or seeks danger by taking a walk in a deserted place.

The assumption that accuse that rape occurs because of the victim's seduction is not true as evidences suggest that the victims are not always a beautiful woman with hourglass-shaped body. The victims, as we all know, are sometimes an old woman, and often innocent children, even toddlers.

Unlike the assumption that the rapists are those with pathological properties and behavior, the study found that the rapists are often ordinary people who seem normal in their daily lives, are kind, well known and even close to their victims, whether they are the neighbors, siblings, relatives, teachers, or even the victim's own grandfather or father. Moreover, rape does not only take place in a troubled place, rape often takes place at home and be done with careful planning. Rape does not only take place in a deserted area beyond the control of the community, rather it often takes place at home which is supposed to be the safest place for girls.

As a social issue, we realize that sexual harrassment and violence are still vague, due to the lack of thorough data regarding the number and the crime scene. Possibly, almost all cases of adultery, rape and other crimes against public decency exposed by the media have been handled properly by law. However, other cases remain unsolved and have not been reported to apparatus (dark number) – just like an iceberg: only few cases are reported, but the real number is much greater – all of them have not been handled properly.

There is a strong impression that in some cases of rape, especially when the rapist is the victim's relatives, or incest, the victim's family usually prefers to keep it low as they believe that the family would be disgraced if the rape is known by public. However, the feeling of the victim and its impact on the victim's future is generally not considered. By keeping it low, the disgrace of the family may not be revealed and slowly be forgotten. However, the psychological pain felt by the victim as a result of sexual violence can never be swept away if it is not taken care by a competent party or institution since early. Cases of women who experience molestation in sexual intercourse, withdrawn herself, or even commit a suicide, often correlate to the victim's dark past -buried for years without proper completion.

It needs to be ascertained that, in order to deal with the victim and prevent further crime against public decency, it does not require a moral action or merely a temporary sympathy to the victim, rather a real action supported by components of the society. Massive campaign against all kinds of violence against girls and the commitment of the government on the future of the victims are required. If the commitment to resolve case of rape is only a discourse, it is like an empty slogan (***).

References

Brooks, Ann (2008). Posfeminisme & Cultural Studies. Yogyakarta: Jalasutra.

Collier, Rohan(1998). Pelecehan Seksual: Hubungan Dominasi Mayoritas dan Minoritas. Yogyakarta: Tiara Wacana.

Gelles, J.R. (1982). "Child Abuse and Family Violence", in: Newberger, E.H. (ed). Child Abuse. Boston: Little, Brown and Co.

Irwanto, Farid, Muhammad & Anwar, Jeffry (1999). Anak yang Membutuhkan Perlindungan Khusus di Indonesia: Analisis Situasi.Jakarta: Kerjasama PKPM Unika Atmajaya Jakarta, Departemen Sosia, dan UNICEF.

Hariadi, Sri Sanituti & Suyanto, Bagong (eds.) (2000). Anak Perempuan Korban Kekerasan Seksual. Surabaya: Lutfansah Mediatama.

Jackson, Margareth(1986). "Fact of Life or Eroticization of Women's Oppression, Sexology and the Social Construction of Heterosexuality", in: Pat Caplan (ed.). The Cultural Construction of Sexuality. London and New York: Tavistock Publication.

Jackson, Stevi & Jones, Jackie (eds.) (1998). Contemporary Feminist Theory. New York: New York University Press.

Kalyanamitra (1999). Menghadapi Pelecehan Seksual. Jakarta: Kalyanamitra, Pusat Komunikasi dan Informasi Perempuan.

Marzuki, Suparman, Prasetyo, Eko & Martha, Aroma Elmina (eds.) (1995). Pelecehan Seksual, Pergumulan Antara Tradisi Hukum dan Kekuasaan. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Pelajar.

Mosse, Julia Cleve (1993). Half The World, Half a Change, An Introduction to Gender and Development. Oxford: Oxfam.

Prasetyo, Eko & Marzuki, Suparman (eds.), (1997). Perempuan Dalam Wacana Perkosaan. Yogyakarta: PKBI Yogyakarta.

Suyanto, Bagong et al., (eds.), (2000). Tindak kekerasan Terhadap Anak: Masalah dan Upaya Pemantauannya. Surabaya: Kerjasama LPA Jatim dan UNICEF.

Suyanto, Bagong, (2013). Masalah Sosial Anak. Jakarta: Kencana, Prenada Media Group.

Sularto, St., (2000). Seandainya Aku Bukan Anakmu. Jakarta: KOMPAS bekerjasama dengan World Vision Indonesia.

Saptari, Ratna & Holzner, Brigitte (1997). Perempuan, Kerja dan Perubahan Sosial, Sebuah Pengantar Studi Perempuan. Jakarta: Grafiti Press.

Santoso, Topo (1999). Krisis dan Kriminalitas Pasca Reformasi. Jakarta: Sinar Harapan.

Taslim, Adrina et al.,(1998). Bila Perkosaan Terjadi. Jakarta: Kalyanamitra, Pusat Komunikasi dan Informasi Perempuan.

Wignyosoebroto, Soetandyo, (1991). "Wanita dalam Masyarakat yang Didominasi Pria dan Perubahan Jaman", Makalah. Seminar Wanita dan Perkawinan pada Pusat Penelitian/Studi Wanita (PPSW) Lembaga Penelitian Universitas Airlangga, Surabaya.

Human Rights Violation Conundrum: Asouzu's Ibuanyidanda Ontology As A Remedy

Bisong, Peter Bisong
Department of Philosophy
University of Calabar Nigeria

Etta, Peter Tawor
Department of Philosophy
University of Calabar Nigeria

Abstract

On a daily basis one hears of killings, rapes, kidnapping and all other sorts of human right abuses from all quarters of the world. This has continued in spite of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) and the various attempts by different bodies and government to halt this trend. It is the believe of the researchers that if the tenets of Ibuanyidanda philosophy are applied and adhered to, human rights violations would reduce to the barest minimum. Ibuanyidanda is a term coined from Igbo language of Nigeria and literarily translates to 'no load is insurmountable for the ant". This means that when the ants work in unison, there are capable of carrying loads that appear heavier and bigger than them. It also means that when humans work in complementarity, they would be capable of doing things that they ordinarily would not have succeeded to do. When this understanding take root in individuals, that is the moment, everybody would understand, that the other person is not an 'external other' but a 'complementary other' upon whom he ought to depend on to live meaningfully. This work urges the various government and agencies in charge of human right protection, to device ways to drum this message to all individuals. It is when everybody see the other in the eyes of complementarity (an extended part of the self), that he would be less likely to violate the rights of the other.

Key Words: human right, Ibuanyidanda, missing links, complementarity

INTRODUCTION

This work acknowledges the existence of wide spread cases of human rights abuses in spite of the fact that, the Universal Declaration of Human Right has been ratified by all the countries of the world with their individual constitutions reflecting these ideals in different degrees. The euphoria that greeted the arrival of the Declaration in 1948, made everybody believe that the ideals it preaches would be imbibed and put to practice by people all over the world, but it has never been the case.

A day never passes without the occurrence of human right abuses like imprisonment or detention without trial, torture, arbitrary arrest, judicial murder, rape, oppression, forced prostitution and a host of other inhumanity ditch out to man by his fellow man.

This work also acknowledges the fact that the UN has developed different measures to ensure that the fundamental human rights of man are accorded respect by man; and that these measures are not very effective as the constant violations of human rights in the world attest to. The work therefore, attempts to point to the UN, what the researcher perceives as the best option that could provide a turnaround for good as regards human right abuses. Thus, the

work would be attempting the application of Asouzu's thoughts on missing links of realities as a solution to the biting problem of human rights violations,

Human Rights And Its Violations

Like in so many subjects in the academic world, there is no generally acceptable conception of human rights. For instance Madison defines it as, "those rights that belong to people simply by virtue of the fact that they are human beings" (15). Iwe defines it as the "moral faculties of powers, deriving directly from the personal nature of man, by virtue of which powers; he may have or do, or require something from others for the development of his personality" (33). The United Nations defines it as, "those rights which are inherent in our nature and without which we cannot live as human beings" (Etim 114). Harold Laski sees it as, "those conditions of social life without which no man seek, in general, to be himself at his best … our rights are not independent of society, but inherent in it. Therefore man's rights are derived from man's membership of society" (93). The first three conceptions see human rights as derivative of human nature, while the last one sees it as derived from membership of a society. Laski conception of human rights could be said to be a reflection of how the traditional African conceives it. This is confirmed by Menkiti who claims that in traditional Africa, it is "the community that defines a person as a person, not the static quality of rationality, will and memory" (172). Olatunji also supported this view when he asserted that, "the state of being of the community determines what the lot of individuals becomes, irrespective of the values cherished by the individual" (102). Laski's conception of human rights therefore, mirrors the traditional African conception of it while Madison's, Iwe's and the United Nation's conception of it mirror the Western conception of it. This paper on its part sees human right as those rights which cannot be said to have been given to man by man but are earned by man for being a human because there are necessary for his continuous happy existence with himself, his fellow man, and for participation in the society.

The ancient era did not have the concept of universal human rights, though they had elaborate systems of duties, conceptions of justice, political legitimacy and human happiness that sought to realize human dignity and well-being entirely independent of human rights. There are several arguments that exist showcasing the origin and development of the ideas of universal rights. Our concern in this paper is however, not on these arguments. Our concern is on The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) which remains the primary internationally acceptable articulation of the fundamental and inalienable rights of all humans – this was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) represents the first comprehensive agreement among nations as to the specific rights and freedoms of all human beings. essentially the entire world's countries have ratified it since then (http://www.unac.org/rights/actguide/uder). The Universal Declaration was originally intended as a "common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations" but over the past fifty years, it has become a cornerstone of customary international law and all government now apply its principles. This is perhaps because, the Universal Declaration successfully encapsulates all legal, moral and philosophical beliefs held true by all peoples (http://www.udhr.org/history/question.htm). Thus, Prime ministers, Presidents, Legislators, Judges, Lawyers, Legal scholars, Human Right Activists and ordinary people throughout the world have accepted and endorsed the Universal Declaration as an essential legal code. For instance, dozens of legally binding international treatises are based on the principles set forth in the UDHR, and the document has been cites as justification for numerous United Nations actions, including actions of the Security Council.

The rights outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) include: right to life, freedom from torture, freedom from slavery, right to fair trial, freedom of thought, conscience and religion, freedom of speech. Others include right to food, clothing, housing and medical care, social security, work, equal pay for equal work, right to form trade unions and right to education.

Because these rights are considered universal and as central and integral part of our international legal structure, the Universal Declaration is widely accepted as an indispensable tool in upholding human rights for all. It is however, unfortunate that the challenges that the UDHR came up to address in 1948 are still very much in existence in our world today. There is still in existence as it were in those days gross abuse and violations of human rights by both the government and private individuals. The torturing and murdering of individuals because of their beliefs, ethnicity or their opinions have continued unabated. On the 27th of February 2002 for instance, it was reported that a Muslim crowd attacked a train filled with Hindu activists in Indian city of Godhra. The event triggered a violent spiral of religious revenge that saw the killing of 2000 Muslims and the destruction of many Mosques and other properties (http://www.news.softedia.com). This kind of violation of freedom of religion is very much evident in countries like Nigeria, Afghanistan, Algeria, Brazil, Burundi, Columbia, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Liberia et cetera.

Apart from the freedom of religion, all other rights of human are violated incessantly on a daily basis all over the world. On a daily basis we hear of kidnappings, killings, enslavements, torturing, threatening and murdering of journalists and other varieties of inhumanities meted out to man by man. Not a day goes by without reminders of racism and the crime it spawns, intolerance and the excesses it breeds (Ghali 2). Women especially have suffered abuse, dehumanization, oppression from the male dominated society. Women are victims of rape, wife battering, genital mutilation, kidnapping, force prostitution, female infanticide, sex tourism, dowry burning, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy and discrimination in legal status, health care and education. Children like their mothers have also suffered tremendously from the claws of perpetrators of crime. School children everyday face sexual harassment which leads to teenage pregnancy and exposure to sexually transmitted diseases. Girls are compelled to marry below the age of consent. Some 130 million children lack access to primary education. About 160 million children suffering from malnutrition. Many children are abandoned in orphanages, while about 250 million children are engaged in various forms of child labour (Etim 118). In 2002, the number of children found in the power of the Lord Resistance Army in northern Uganda was 20000 – these children were kidnapped and trained as soldiers.

The United Nations has created a number of channels and procedures to implement these rights. The commission on Human Rights is the primary international forum for addressing human rights violations. The commission has created a number of specialized bodies to monitor and report on human rights problems such as torture, free expression, violence against women and religious freedom. It has sub commission on the status of women and recently the UN created the post of High Commissioner for Human Rights. This establishment is aimed at making human rights even more central to the work of the UN by giving these issues the political stature and voice they need in the international arena. The UN has also established a permanent international court that will hold violators accountable and vigorously pursue justice for the individual victims of genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity. Finally, the UN strives not only to protect human rights, but to promote them as well. The UN offers technical assistance to countries publishes human rights information and makes human rights counsellor and educators available at the request of government. Many of the UN specialized agencies like the UNICEF, UNESCO, the International Labour Organisation

and the UN High Commissions for Refugees are currently engaged in human rights issues as a component of their work (http;//www.udhr.org/history/question.htm).

In spite of these intervention measures by the UN to ensure the respect of the rights of man by man, there still exist violations upon violations of human right all over the world. The persistence of this teething problems lay credence to the fact that these measures laid down by the UN to quench the fire of violence in the heart of man has not lived up to expectations and thus need to be reviewed. The researcher believes the ideas contained in Asouzu's Ibuanyidanda philosophy would be the better solution to this malady.

Asouzu's Ibuanyidanda Ontology

Asouzu's conception of the world through is idea of missing links of realities has the assumption that the world would be a better place if the divisive mindset in which people operate with is bridged. He believes that human conditions present themselves in ambivalences and due to the activities of the instinct of self-preservation, man seeks to elevate himself to an absolute instance whereby his advantage would be met regardless of what happens to what he considers as the opposite other. For him the instinct of self-preservation and what he calls the phenomenon of concealment makes man to see himself as important and the other unimportant. He sees himself as substance and the other as accidents after the divisive mindset of Aristotle. This divisive and bifurcating mindset with which man is guilty of (sometimes unintentionally made possible by the instinct of self-preservation) gives rise to all the negative tendencies like violence, killings all other sort of abuses meted on man by man. Ibuanyidanda philosophy represents an attempt to redefine, refine, reconstruct and free our system of thought from all bifurcating and polarizing mindset that makes the mind tend to exalt its existence over and above that of others. it therefore, advocates for the training of the mind to overcome its ambivalence and see the world in a global and totalizing mindset and not as absolute mode of existence. Ibuanyidanda philosophy admonishes all humans to "never elevate a world immanent missing link to an absolute instance" (Ibuaru 197). Rather, being is to be captured "in a comprehensive, total and future referential and proleptic manner" (Complementary Reflection 316). Asouzu believes that when being is captured this way, the battle of the UN to have a world free of human rights abuses would end. When being is captured this way, we would have a world of our dreams, where all stakeholders seek to preserve the interest of the perceived other.

The main thrust of Asouzu's Ibuanyidanda ontology is therefore, the obliteration of all sorts of bifurcating mindsets. It is geared towards the eradication of the we-them mentality that has plagued the mind of mankind. Asouzu believes that all realities are windows to other realities; all mode of beings (both the substance and accidents) are essential; that the other person is as essential as you are, the other's idea is as important as yours, the other person has the same rights as you have; and more importantly the other person is not an opposite other but an extension of the self. This is the idea he encapsulates in his concept of "missing links of realities". It means the other person is not inconsequential but a missing part of the self without which the self cannot define its existence. He believes that " it is within the context of missing links that all human experiences of the world get their full meaning and can be expressed positively" (Ibuanyidanda 269).

However, for the heart of man to begin to capture being in terms of missing links of reality, Asouzu believes transcendent existential conversion must occur first. Transcendent existential conversion according to him is "a process through which human consciousness attains the highest level of experience or intuition of being, as that on account of which anything that

exists serves a missing link of reality" (Ibuanyidanda 329). At this point of existential consciousness he believes, the mind no longer sees reality as absolute fragments but would begin to operate in keeping with what he calls 'transcendent categories of unity of consciousness.' These categories include "fragmentation, unity, totality, universality, comprehensiveness, wholeness and future reference" (Ibuanyidanda 323). Thus, when existential conversion takes place in an individual according to Asouzu, the mind would no longer operate in a divisive and polarizing mindset but tend to grasp being in its fragmentation, unity, totality, universality, comprehensiveness, wholeness and future reference.

Grasping being in keeping with the dictates of the transcendent categories is aided by what Asouzu calls the 'harmonizing faculty'. This is "a faulty that harmonizes all forces that tends toward bifurcation and exclusiveness" (Ibuanyidanda 316). It therefore means that, when the harmonizing faculty is active in a man, the tendency of the mind to be led astray to conceive of violence and abuses of his fellow man would not be there. This is because the harmonizing faculty harmonizes all differences, leaving no chance for polarization and bifurcation which are the root causes of all forms of abuses and violation of human rights.

When being is grasped in keeping with the transcendent categories through the aid of the harmonizing faculty, then the mind could be said to be operating in a global mindset. It is from operating through this global or transcendent mindset Asouzu claims, that we are capable of grasping the opposite other in its otherness and embrace this otherness as an extension of the self without discrimination. It is from operating in this mindset, that the mind could begin to perceive the other as essential as he is, possessing equal dignity and freedom as he does. It is from operating in this mindset that the mind would begin to realize that harem done to the other is indirectly done to the self; because the other is nothing but an extension of the self.

Asouzu Ibuanyidanda Ontology As A Remedy To Human Rights Abuses
Asouzu is of the belief that if the mind of man can be attuned to see the others as serving a missing link and not as fragments of existence, then the world would become a better place – free from human rights abuses and violations. As no one would deliberately hurt himself/herself, he/she would also not hurt the other, if he sees himself not as an opposite other but as an extension of the self. When man begins to see reality this way that is when he would realize that hurting the other is like shooting oneself on the foot; he would realize the futility of trying to place the other person in disarray in order to advance his own existence. Destroying the other, would come to mean not destroying an enemy or removing a stumbling block but destroying an essential aspect of one's existence and thereby rendering the self bereaved of the service this destroyed missing link would have rendered to it. The moral of these assertions is captured vividly in a traditional African story of Ananse the tortoise. The village in which Ananse lived experienced a great famine. Everybody was helplessly hungry and mourning. Thus, one day Ananse set out on a journey in search of food to quench his hunger. After a long and near futile walk, he came across a tree full of ripe fruits with hundreds of birds feasting on it. With all the strength he had left, he cried out to the birds for help. The birds filled with compassion, flew down to him and offered him a feather each so as he could fly to the tree to enjoy the fruits with them. Ananse ate to his fill and was very happy. But being a dubious character, he immediately started searching for a way to claim the tree for himself. He therefore, formulated a story and told the birds that the tree belonged to the uncle of his great grandmother and by successful bequeath now belonged to him. The birds on hearing the story were sad and disappointed but decided to honour the hereditary rights of Ananse. But before they left they collected back their feathers and Ananse who is a defender of sole rights could not resist this. Ananse was overjoyed by the success of his intrigue but his joy was short lived. He soon became thirsty. Beneath the tree flowed a stream. The problem was how to descend to

it. The birds had taken their feathers away and Ananse had no means of going down to the stream below. He dad exchanged one evil for a worse – hunger for thirst. Had he not decided to be egoistic; had he allowed the birds a fair share of the fruits; had he continued to see the birds as missing links of realities both he and the birds would have lived happily outside the pale of hunger and thirst.

If Ananse had seen the birds in the light of Asouzu missing links of reality, he would have sought to preserve the interest of the birds and all of them would have lived happily in complementary mode. Also, if all human beings start seeing the other a missing link (an essential part of the self) and not as a rival and thereby seek to preserve their interests, the world would be totally free from human right abuses.

CONCLUSION

Seeing the world in terms of missing links of realities or as complementary modes of existence as Asouzu propose is a fantastic way of ending all the violence that is ravaging the world today. Seeing the world in terms of missing links would mean there is a complementary relationship existing among all humans, such that when this link is bridged, the foundation of our existence is shaken. When Mr. A is destroyed, a link of reality is broken, thereby leaving the destroyer incomplete. The effect of the bridge of this link may not be felt directly but it would surely be felt. Production and sales of fake drugs for instance, may not affect the seller directly but it may claim the life of his child, relative or someone who is supposed to be of help to him tomorrow. Looting of the common treasury may enrich the looter but may end them in road accidents, because the roads the money was supposed to be used to repair has been carted away. it could also end them or their love ones in violence like arm robbery attack, kidnapping etc. Citizens who are not catered for in terms of good education, health facilities and better living conditions (because the money that is supposed to be used for these, have been carted away by some individuals) are always susceptible to violence. This is the case with the recent Boko Haram pandemonium in Nigeria. Whenever we deprive the other of one right or the other, it always turn back to hurt us indirectly. This is because we are bound in a complementary relationship. If Mr. A is killed, the services he would have provided to Mr. B would be denied him, making Mr. B to be rendered incapable of providing the best of service to Mr. C and this effect would continue in a long chain to the killer.

If all human beings realize this intrinsic connectedness that exists between all beings, they would tend to shun all abuses of the right of others. if the UN would turn its effort in the education of the mind of man to see reality in this complementary mode, it would surely achieve a remarkable impact in its quest to end human rights abuses in the world.

Works Cited

Asouzu, Innocent. The Method and Principles of Complementary Reflection in and beyond African Philosophy. Calabar: University of Calabar Press, 2004.

Asouzu, Innocent. Ibuanyidanda: New Complementary Ontology Beyond World-Immanetism, Ethnocentric Reduction and Impositions. Zweigniederlassung Zurich: Litverlag Gmbh & Co. KG Wien, 2007.

Asouzu, Innocent. Ibuaru: The Heavy Burden of Philosophy beyond African Philosophy. Zweigniederlassung Zurich: Litverlag Gmbh & Co. KG Wien, 2007.

Etim, Okon. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights: Legal and Philosophical Appraisal. Sophia: An African Journal of Philosophy, 7(2), 2005.

Eze, Osita. Human Rights in Africa. An African Journal of Philosophy, 7(2), 2005.

Ghali-Bountros, Boutros. Openeing Address of Human Right. Vienna, 1983.

Iwe, N.S. The History and Contents of Human Rights. New York: Peter Lang, 1986.

Laski, Harold. A Grammar of Politics. London: George Allen & Unwin, 1966.

Madison, G. The Political Economy of Civil Society and Human Rights. London: University Press, 1998.

Menkiti, Ifeanyi. "Person and Community in African Traditional Thought." African philosophy: An Introduction (3rd edition). Ed. R.A.Wright. Lanham: University Press of America, 1984.

Olatunji, Oyeshile. "The Individual-Community Relationship as an issue in Social and Political Philosophy". Issues in African Philosophy. Ed. O. Oladipo. Ibadan: Hope Publications Ltd, 2006.

Role of Human Resource Management in Governance on the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector, Kenya

Meshack Okoth Makongoso
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kenya

Dr. Robert Gichira
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kenya

Dr. George Otieno Orwa
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agricultural Technology, Kenya

Abstract
Agricultural cooperatives, as member-owned and controlled agribusiness enterprises play an important role in upgrading socio-economic status of members, however, they experience a myriad of hitches including mismanagement and inadequate innovation raising questions about quality of governance. The concern is legitimacy of boards, scanty expertise and effectiveness of managers in supervising and protecting members. They are practical example of collective entrepreneurship but pay little attention to entrepreneurship and seldom enhance their business dimensions through it for competitiveness. They decline in performance due to poor governance, weak capability building and human resource management practices. There is inadequate research on the role of human resource management in governance on the collective entrepreneurship in agriculture sector. The study sought to investigate the role of human resource management in governance on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector. A descriptive research was adopted where multi-stage sampling technique and questionnaire was used to collect data from selected respondents in the coffee cooperatives in Kenya. Data were analysed using multiple regression statistical method. It was found that human resource management positively influence the growth of collective entrepreneurship and policy strongly mediates relationship between them. The study recommended implementation of strategic human resource management practice to enhance the agricultural cooperatives' level of progress and performance since functional human resources management affected only individual performance and turnover.

Key words: governance, human resource management, growth, collective entrepreneurship, agricultural cooperatives

INTRODUCTION
Background information
Governance is the system by which firms are directed and controlled. It is a process, influenced by the board of directors or management and other personnel assigned to provide reasonable assurance and achievement of objectives in effectiveness and efficiency in all operations, reliability of financial reporting and compliance with applicable laws and regulations Frank & Sundgren [14] It is how one gets to act, through different types of interactions and the extent to which the actors adhere to collective decisions Kemp & Parto, [26]. Good governance stems from clearly defined roles and responsibilities of the board of directors, committees and senior managers. It also inaugurates codes of conduct from which directors and staff at every level

signs and completes their task, Shaw [45]. In order to attain coordinate, strike a complex balance, motivate mechanisms in any governance of market structure, hierarchy and network, directors need to balance the organization's short, medium, and long-term interests. Governance is not only about doing but also ensuring things done in regards to best practices. Deployment of an efficient system which ensures that things are done is implied as governance Bijman & Doorneweert [5].

Good governance as prescribed by the codes of best practices has a significant bearing on capacity of both human and level of governance within an organization Waelchli & Loderer [47]. At all levels of governance whereas, Functional Human Resource Management (FHRM) practices lead to superior and crucial role on general performance, Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) enhances innovation, task accomplishment and performance and they indeed influence organisational performance Wang & Zang, [48]. Agricultural cooperatives being formal organizations must practice good governance to enhance efficient management, utilization and increasing employees' abilities so as to achieve both individual and organizational development. Good governance rewards on performance and competences, enhances innovation and creativity to improve competitiveness Sayl & Sahin, [42]. Internal governance derives its' quality from favourable policies designed and implemented to drive and improve the cooperative sub sector whose growth is for the performance of the overall economy Odhiambo, Nyangito, & Nzuma [32]. The legal environment and appropriate government policies are important because they strongly influence the establishment and development of farmer cooperatives. The implementation of such specific laws standardizes and speeds up establishment of farmer cooperatives Garnevska, Liu, & Shadboltc [15].

A cooperative business model applies to any business activity where one billion individuals are members and has generated over 100 million jobs worldwide. In Kenya, they are organized by economic sectors and classified into both agricultural and non-agricultural, Wanyama [49]. Study by International Cooperatives Alliance [ICA], [23] indicate that 1 out of every 5 or 5.9 million people is a member of a co-operative and that 20 million Kenyans directly or indirectly derive their livelihoods from the Co-operatives. The cooperatives contribute about 45 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 31 percent of National Savings and Deposits (NSD), controls 70 percent of the coffee market (CM) and employs more than 300,000 people. Agricultural cooperatives considered as economic and social organizations play a significant role in rural development and poverty reduction Aref [3]. Agricultural production often experiences a boom, especially in the crop, besides, the volatile prices of farm inputs and outputs, risk to producers resulting to the agricultural cooperatives and agribusinesses to add assets to the service needs of production Kenkel & Park, [27]. Management is therefore a crucial factor for cooperatives to succeed or fail where indicators used to measure economic, business outcomes and success include, increased income, marketing capability, business planning and management Garnevska, Liu, & Shadboltc, [14]. Agriculture sector's vision of food secure and prosperous nation is not only appropriate, but also in tandem with vision 2030 of a globally competitive and prosperous nation in addition to ensuring food security and nutrition. The sector is expected to generate income and employment especially in the rural areas through an innovative and commercially oriented modern agriculture, ensure that farmers, producers, processors and marketers employ contemporary methods and technologies (Republic of Kenya [ROK], [37].

Entrepreneur co-operatives being the options that farm entrepreneurs have for survival must maintain high levels of income to enable small-scale farmers sustain rural livelihoods. They must encourage democratic decision-making processes, leadership development and education practices, in order for the directors to gain the skills of running businesses Crambo

[12] A strong cooperative must overcome difficulties by offering variety of services which range from access to natural resources, information, communication, input and output markets, technologies collective purchasing, warehouses receipt systems innovation (Food and Agricultural Organization [FAO], [13]. Entrepreneurship is considered important for economic development; however, producer owned firms has not given much attention to it. The agricultural cooperatives which are for collective entrepreneurship because of their multiple producers who jointly own the firm, have not embraced it Branstad [9]. Bijman and Doorneweert [5] in their study indicated that collective entrepreneurship which dates back to Emelianoff (1942), involves an income-generating organization governed by a plurality of stockholders, assigned with voting rights and distribution of income in proportion to stockholdings. The primary aim of all cooperatives is to improve economic, social and cultural position of the members as they aspire to maximize benefits, achieve higher prices, sell large volumes, offer better services and minimize production costs Burress & Cook [10]. The cooperatives can utilize resources more efficiently through collective entrepreneurship as a powerful tool for increasing intra-firm efficiency, reducing collective decision-making and agency costs Panagiota & Nastis, [34].

In developing countries, responses to competitive forces include the growing trend of members leaving their cooperative to join out growers. In Africa, the agricultural co-operatives practice agricultural input supply and output marketing as they organize joint sales of farmers' produce and coordinate exchange of goods and services between farmers and purchasers. As intermediary firms, they seek suppliers, find and encourage purchasers, organize transactions, keep records, hold inventories and supply liquidity. This requires professionally trained managers and other technically competent personnel recruited and provided with relevant cooperative training. The managers must acquire an appropriate competence in order to manage the businesses effectively Pinscher & Rouse [35]. Agricultural cooperatives, play an important role in upgrading socio-economic status of members, however, majority of them face problems, undermining their existence. In order to surpass the situation, the members often enhance their business dimension through collective entrepreneurship. Collective entrepreneurship empowers members' profits, local and regional development by adopting basic mechanisms like, strategic alliances focusing on common marketing plans, accessing technological innovations and resources Panagiota & Nastis, [33]. Individual entrepreneurship does not add up to collective entrepreneurship, but can influence the behaviour and attitudes of subordinates to create collective entrepreneurship. It directs the attention of the entrepreneur to focus on the work team, bearing in mind the fundamental aspects of creativity and innovation Soriano & Martinez, [46]. Collective entrepreneurship focuses on ownership structure and explores inter organizational gains that can be achieved through strong cooperation and organizational hybrids networks in markets. It boosts innovation, commercialization, growth, and empowers members to integrate economic, social cultural and political goals. They include non-profit organizations, cooperatives and social movements geared towards serving the members' interests and needs (Burress & Cook [9]. In Kenya, collective entrepreneurship is predominant in agricultural cooperatives where small producers work together to lower transaction costs, establish, monitor contracts and practice quality control of products through collection, sorting and grading Muradian & Mangnus [30].

Statement of the problem
Despite the significant contribution by the cooperatives which dominate the agriculture sector in Kenya, they face survival challenges because of governance problems leading to questioning the management committees' governance quality and collective entrepreneurship. Majority of the management committee members and senior staff have inadequate ability to lead and

monitor business operations causing wrong developments, mismanagement and heavy losses (Pozzobon & Filho [36]. Study by Sitaram [43], indicated that 70 percent of agricultural co-operatives fail due to poor governance because the management committees either encouraged short-term thinking, risk averse or saw it happening but ignored the consequences.

In Kenya, the share capital for coffee co-operatives decreased, by 35 percent in 2009 and 12 percent in 2010, market share dropped by 8.2 percent in 2010 and the overall share declined by 20.2 percent in 2010 compared to 22 percent in 2009. This was due to weak capability building systems, production and marketing systems Republic of Kenya [ROK], [39]. The value of marketed coffee contracted by 13.5 percent but the gross prices per 100 kg paid to farmers decreased by 47 percent in 2012 Republic of Kenya [ROK], [40]. The management boards and senior staff increasingly imitate governance structures, leading to low entrepreneurship Maghsoudi, Hekmat & Davodi [29]. As the governance weakens, the cooperatives become susceptible to bankruptcy and eventually collapse. There is inadequate studies on governance and human resource management on collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector. The general objective therefore was to investigate the role of human resource management in governance on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya. The study employed null hypothesis thus human resource management does not influence the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya; the study covered agricultural coffee co-operatives that have been in the business for at least 20 years and have between 10 and 99 employees.

Limitations of the study

Generalizability of the findings was reduced only to a sub sector in the larger agriculture sector and the study drew inferential conclusions only from a sample size taken from a population. The study did not cover all the determinants of governance affecting various businesses and the growth of collective entrepreneurship in agriculture sector, but concentrated on the basic yet significant ones. The information presented may lack the details beyond the conclusions offered because the study may have omitted any important details and evidences. The authors of secondary source may have described the results incorrectly but the findings formed a framework upon which further related studies may be conducted. Some of the respondents were not reachable and that illiteracy levels hampered the clear version of the expectations. The study recommends a future study to establish the other determinants of governance and the strength of their influence on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in other sectors.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Human resource management

Strategic human resource goal of any business is workforce alignment. A firm with an aligned workforce has the right type of people in the right places at the right times, doing the right things right. They have employees with the knowledge and skills necessary to achieve its goals and effectively utilize them. They are more likely to develop and deliver high quality products, services, and new products, satisfy customers, effectively market products or services, achieve sales growth, operate profitably, and capture market share than those with less aligned workforces Collins, Ericksen and Allen [11]. A firm can ensure, it has the right type of people by hiring the right type where the strategies used include, emphasizing on the person-job fit, person-organization and person-future fit where the latter works best because it strongly and positively relate to workforce alignment. Firms that emphasize person-future fit are more likely to have aligned workforces than those that emphasize either person-job fit or person-organization fit. The most important way is to manage effectively by emphasizing formal processes and procedures for job duties and descriptions. In so doing the employees will

know their roles, responsibilities and do direct monitoring. Firms can also rely on professional standards, emphasize culture and peer pressure where employees to track one another and provide feedback.

The best strategy is formal processes, procedures and professional standards since they strongly and positively relate to workforce alignment Collins, Ericksen and Allen, [11]. The primary human resource management functions are to effectively acquire, develop and retain human capital for all business units in an organisation. The human resource intelligence (HRI) software embedded with business information and business analytic tools automates the processes and helps organizations identify, foresee their workforce needs for high skills and take intelligent action plans Hall, Hutchinson, & Michaelas [21].

Functional human resource
Among most of human resource management practices, there are mainly two dimensions thus functional human resource management practices and strategic human resource management practices. The former is more related with the daily operations while the latter is more linked with company-level progress or organisational performance. Human resource management practices are different across business ownership, joint venture and partnerships which link with organisational performance indicators Wang & Zhang [49]. Economic theory suggests that businesses that serve local markets gain competitive advantages by responding quickly to customers, whereas dynamic economic theory suggests that growth requires strategic flexibility and the ability to introduce new products or new markets.

The Cooperative Organisations are only driven by what the current market wants, they lack innovation and may not abandon producing their traditional products in the near future. Those that recognize their specialized resources are less likely to shift from one product to another because they specialize in those products that make use of their specific expertise and competencies. Those that do not are more likely to make decisions based on what the market wants and may never achieve economic profits Gehlhar, Stefanou, Zouma, & Regmi, [16]. Study by Boland, Hogeland, and Mckee [7] indicated that attracting and maintaining quality human resource is important for agricultural cooperatives and those directors and chief executives are essential for strategy development with planning role as the management team. In cooperatives, the management boards represent the membership and are accountable for any actions. Their succession is difficult because they are elected, however inadequate remuneration to them often leads to continual turn over.

The success of agricultural cooperatives is immensely contributed by their employees since they are the primary means by which a member interacts with their firm, and therefore the managers must emphasize principles of training and personnel development so as to successfully implement their strategies. All firms face competitive pressure that can shape their strategies and as competitors must improve efficiency, adopt the same technology (leftward direction), differentiate products (rightward direction) or compete for the current market (upward direction). In order to achieve higher margins, brand image alone is not sufficient; firms must have competencies in marketing, product and process innovation. The study established that product differentiation gives firms a competitive advantage because of unique attributes and capabilities which are not easily duplicated by competitors. The study concluded that the image of enduring quality gives consumers trust and loyalty and so the firms must constantly have innovative products to compete Gehlhar, Stefanou, Zouma, & Regmi [15].

Strategic human resource

Study by Sayl and Gormus, [41] indicated that high competition, environmental changes, accelerated trends and new management techniques have caused enterprises to evolve in structure, culture and human resource management. In addition, use of technology requires hiring highly skilled employees leading to higher and   increased expectations. The study established that human resource management plays a major role in increasing satisfaction, loyalty and relationship between employees and employers. They indicated that the new functions of human resource management include; efficient management, utilization of employees, increasing abilities, rewarding performance and competences and enhancing innovation and creativity. The others are to apply new approaches, redesign job processes, achieve technological integration, improve careers and mobility, empower and improve relations with employees. They concluded that such functions help bridge the gap between employees and employers and develops a dialogue and cooperation culture within organizations.

Study by Tanaka [48] indicated that far sighted management boards, invest for the future, engage in long-term employment and offer vocational trainings, but short sighted management boards apply wages based on seniority, performance and ability and engage in just in time hiring. The study concluded that management who favour short sighted type insist on economic globalization, train employees just to meet needs, apply just-in-time strategy by hiring people needed and linking their wages with the organisation's performance. They would rather hire part-time than full time workers. The study recommended that firms should hire based on the management principles and policies, give preference on long-term perspective, discourage excessive hiring, establish work rules and standardize wages.

Collectively owned enterprises are under transformation into shareholding or multiple-ownership systems with entrepreneurial approaches to start new businesses, renew human resource strategies, develop high-performance culture, and have several employees and rapid businesses. Team-based firms mostly transform from collective-systems to shareholding firms with entrepreneur team development, multi-businesses, diversified business models and practice competitiveness and innovativeness. An organisation's high level of pay and / or benefits relative to that of competitors can ensure attraction and retention of high quality employees; elicit specific activities and performance from the employees (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright [31].

An existence of human resource management practice ensures job satisfaction with pay being a strong determinant in addition to seniority and individual performance related schemes. Paying higher wage increases workers' loyalty, productivity and reduces firms' turnover and recruitment costs. If employees have high wages organizations will have lower levels of turnover meaning that they are less likely to leave the organization and the higher the satisfaction or financial rewards, the lower the level of turnover Booth & Hamer [8]. Kapoor and Sheriff [25] established that despite the current economic downturn and unemployment, most countries face long term talent shortages mainly due to ageing and retirement. There are more workers retiring than entering the labour force and the shortage is predicted across most industries. They established that innovations can be duplicated easily and quickly with effective human resource management and recommended that organizations need to place greater emphasis on attracting human capital rather than financial capital since the latter is broadly available from investors and lenders.

Study by Ajah [1] established that in order to realise good governance in the agricultural cooperatives, farmers' abilities need to be enhanced so as to understand and evaluate new

production techniques. They realised that exposure to education increases the farmer's ability to obtain, process and use information relevant to the adoption of improved agricultural technologies. They can acquire knowledge, make better use of natural resources, protect the environment facilitating a change in attitude and this encourages increased production. Study by Imonikhe [24], indicated that education enhances farmers' ability to make accurate and meaningful management decisions. This is possible because the level of education of a farmer is an important factor that determines his/her ability to understand the policies and programmes that affect farming. Empirical evidence attests that education has impact on agriculture, increased productivity with additional benefits in the form of increased modernization of agricultural production incentives, marketing facilities, and distribution of seeds, fertilizers and access to extension programmes. Gibcus, deKok, Snijders, Smit and Linder [17] in their study indicated that agricultural cooperatives highly need entrepreneurial expertise and skills of human capital , managers and the board members with specific business skills and knowledge and concluded that education is important for economic development, embedment of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship.

Policy
Despite the important role played by the agriculture sector in economic development in Kenya with past efforts to steer it, the sector has continued to perform poorly due to various constraints that include inappropriate and outdated legal and regulatory framework. The others are trade and effective competition, mismanagement of most institutions, affordable credit to only a small proportion of smallholder farmers to high lending rates and multiple numbers of taxes from local authorities and government departments. These have contributed to a reduction of the net farm incomes and created distortions in marketing structures. In addition, high cost and increased adulteration of key inputs have made farmers substantially reduce the use of quality inputs such as seed, fertilizer, and pesticides. They have also experienced escalating international prices, high cost of agricultural inputs due to high transportation cost, an inefficient marketing, and distribution systems Gitau, Kimenju, Kibaara, Nyoro, Bruntrup, & Zimmermann [19].

King and Ortmann [28] in their study of agricultural cooperatives realised that inadequate access to resources and the poor availability of social services are some of the causes of cooperative failures. It is not sufficient, for the government to play a proactive role in creating a legal and institutional environment that helps promote private initiatives and mobilize capital and formation of agricultural cooperatives. The study realised that agricultural marketing information and infrastructure are poorly organized and institutionalised. The domestic market is small, fragmented and lacks an effective marketing information system and infrastructure. The study recommended that the government should commit itself to creating a favourable environment for cooperative development, focus scarce resources on physical, legal infrastructure, reduce transaction costs and risks and improve access to inputs.

The key factors that influence the successful development of cooperatives include legal environment and government policy, governance, training and education. A stable legal environment and appropriate government policy are important for the successful development of the agricultural cooperatives. The implementation of the law speeds up and standardizes the establishment of farmer cooperatives. The cooperatives would successfully develop only if members work for the community instead of just for their own gains. The government continues to support such policies aimed at fostering the agricultural cooperative development but some farmers only join without being fully committed to the cooperative and its operations Garnevska, Liub,& Shadboltc [15].

The development of the industry is affected by a number of cross cutting legal measures such as taxation, foreign exchange, labour regulation, land control, competition law, intellectual property rights and registration of businesses, among others. The Coffee Act provides for regulations of the coffee industry and for control of production, marketing and export of coffee Republic Kenya [ROK], [37]. The Cooperative Society's Act sets out the functions and status of cooperatives, the right of members as well as allocation of profits and arrangements for indivisible funds. The government at all levels regard it as their responsibility to support farmers' cooperatives in order to realise national policy goals. The legislation stipulates the role of the government in creating policy and legal framework for the development, improving the growth and providing the requisite services for their organization Wanyama [51].

Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in Agricultural Cooperatives
Study by Henehan and Pelsue [22] indicated factors that significantly and consistently place an individual cooperative on a growth group are described as relative growth with indicators as number of employees, members, sales volume, assets, earnings, and return on investment and those of   absolute growth are market share, price, leadership, innovation, and market value of stock. Growth is considered to be an indicator of innovative activity and is measured in terms of change in employment, sales or assets over a period of time. Firms that do survive tend to exhibit higher rates of growth and innovative activity, being the main performance criteria for entrepreneurship Audretsch [4].

Study by Panagiota and Nastis [33] indicate that viability of cooperatives is difficult, mainly because they have yet to adapt quickly to a constantly evolving globalized environment. Their main efforts are to access local markets, promote products, and acquire strong brand names as well as tangible and intangible resources. The study concluded that they are the impetus for the transformation of traditional cooperatives in form of collective entrepreneurship for approaching the new markets. The study recommended that agricultural cooperatives must have the objective of achieving sustainable development and creating new opportunities for growth and empowerment. Globalization confronts cooperatives with new challenges relating to competition and market demands. Cooperatives can insulate members from such competitions by fostering product differentiation and providing market access, being the difference between survival and death (Boland, Hogeland and McKee, 2011).

Business Development which include delivery of services such as training, advising, transporting and communicating is one of the factors that affect the business performance of collective entrepreneur cooperatives. The availability of access to efficient high-quality products and business development are essential for the co-operative entrepreneurs to acquire new skills, products, know-how, technology and markets in an increasingly competitive domestic and global environment Amha [2].

Study by Ritossa and Bulgacov [41] indicate that for cooperatives to suceessfully compete in a global system they must take advantage of opportunities and enhance members services and earnings. The study established that cooperatives enjoy potential advantages in global system as they are perceived reliable, quality suppliers and ethical business partners with easier working relationships. They cocluded that designing products to fit the demand niches created within global system require decentralised decision making, innovation and creativity, production, distribution and network, instead of tying to domestic resources that inhibit international investment. The study recommended that diversification of agricultural activities is needed to increase surplus, competitive entry to new markets, overcoming barriers, obtaining better prices and adding value to traditional commodities.

The future of cooperatives depends on the ability of managers to create a structure to match competition by offering multiple commodities and high value products on a global basis. The segments however, have concentrated on the sale of unprocessed products with low level of processing and limited possibility of growth but those with differentiation products find greater rewards. The study recommended that the cooperatives should place themselves closer to consumers and reach higher levels of the value chain through diversification motivated by increased demand, productivity and technological advances Ibid [41]. Birchall [6] suggested two strategic alternatives, firstly, think locally and act globally meaning that cooperatives need to act globally while expanding beyond national borders through joint ventures, mergers and acquisitions. Secondly, think globally and act locally in order to collect enough to neutralize global competition, customize local demands, develop   structures, share services and adopt aggressive growth strategies.

Study by Gijselinckx [18] indicated that networking is a crucial innovative strategy where cooperatives broaden their basis for human capital exchange information, learn jointly, engage in research and improve on inputs and outputs so as to significantly benefit the members. Study by Oke [33] indicated that the underlying impetus of innovation management is the need to create an environment where employees are motivated to contribute to innovation. The study established that an effective human resource policy that supports innovation and encourages the development of an innovative organization is needed. The study recommended that firms should focus on norms that support creativity and build an innovative culture that rewards employees. Study by Grunfeld, Jakobsen, Kalaoudis, Skogli and Olsen [20], indicated that the most commonly applied performance and capability indicators based on numbers of new products, patents, services are important output indicators because they measure the main results that can be reached in an innovation perspective and easy to quantify. The study concluded that   improved entrepreneurship capabilities, firm survival, commercialization, break troughs in the market, improved   recruitment, increased job satisfaction of employees and technology are the other measures that clearly represent goals and performance indicators.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a positivist position because it is deductive, rather than inductive and theory building, rather than theory. It is characterised by the testing of hypothesis developed from existing theory, hence deductive or theory testing relates very well in the organisational context, as it assumes that what truly happens in organisations can, only be discovered through categorisation and scientific measurement of the behaviour of people and system Scotland, [44] The study applied descriptive research design, which in essence describes data and characteristics about the population or phenomena being studied. The target population was 421 coffee growing cooperative societies and a multistage sampling technique was used to arrive at 121 respondents. Questionnaire was applied because of its ability to collect primary data from a large group within a short period. Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient ranged from 0.742 to 0.988. The sample adequacy under the Kaiser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sample adequacy showed that human resource management and growth of collective entrepreneurship are on the middling above 70 percent, whereas policy is on the meritorious 80 percent of the variance meaning that they were neither miserable nor unacceptable.

The main objective was to investigate the Role of Human Resource Management in governance on the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in Agriculture Sector in Kenya. The study applied both regression and correlation analysis to arrive at logical conclusions. The study set out to establish   whether   Human   Resource   Management   influence   the   growth   of   collective

entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya. A simple linear regression model was fitted and the two variables x and y linear regression model took the form of:

$$y = \beta 0 + \beta 1 x 1 + \varepsilon ....\text{Equation [1]}$$

Where: y = the response variable, x1 = the explanatory variable and ε =   was an error term with task to fit the model, find the optimal values of the regression coefficients β0 and β1 and comment on the behaviour of ε. The impact of the moderating on the explanatory variable was sought. ANOVA on the regression coefficient and a post hoc analysis on the regression coefficient were carried out and used a Multiple Regression Model with a moderating variable in the form of:

$$\text{Predicted Y1} = \text{B1*X*Z}..\text{Equation [1]}$$

Where: - Y - Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship, X - Human Resource Management and Z - Hypothesised Moderating Variable (Policy) assumed to have linear relationship with the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship. For the dependent variable Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used thus PCA..........Equation [2]

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS
Correlation Analysis

The study applied Pearson's correlation 2-tailed to determine the extent of correlations. Table 4.1 shows the correlation between human resource management at 0.468 (46.8 percent). The study therefore concluded that since the correlation is significant at 0.000 levels (2 tailed) as revealed in the table, there is a strong and positive correlation between human resource management and the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agricultural cooperatives.

Table: 4.1   Correlations between the Human Resource management and Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Factor	Correlations	Human Resource Management	Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship
Human Resource Management	Pearson Correlation	1	.468[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	105	105
Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship	Pearson Correlation	.468[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	105	105

Table 4.2 shows the results after the moderator Policy was introduced. The study established that the strength of the correlation between human resource management and growth of collective entrepreneurship increased. The result shows that the increase in the strength of relationships was up to 0.560 (56.0 percent) from 0.468 (46.8 Percent) with   a significance level of 0.000. This shows that human resource management practices together with favourable policies play an effective role in the governance of co-operative organizations and contributes to the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector.

Table 4.2   Correlation between human resource management, growth of collective entrepreneurship and policy

Control Variables			Human Resource Management	Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship
Policy		Significance (2-tailed)	.874	.000
		Df	102	102
	Human Resource Management	Correlation	1.000	.560
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000
		Df	0	102
	Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship	Correlation	.560	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.
		Df	102	0

Regression Analysis

The model summary Table 4.3 shows that R square value was 21.9. This means that 21.9 percent of the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector is influenced by Human Resource Management. In addition, coefficients Table 4.5 shows $\beta0$ = 2.453 and $\beta1$= 0.308, so the growth of collective entrepreneurship Y = 2.453 + 0.308 X1. The study sought to find out how Human Resource Management influences the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya. Given by the model Y = $\beta0$ + $\beta1$X1, where Y is the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship, X1 is the Human Resource Management for every value of X1, the value of Y changes by 0.308 but in the absence of X1, Y value remains at 2.453 as depicted by the constant value. This shows that Human Resource Management contributes significantly to the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya which dominated by the cooperatives.

Table 4.3   Model summary for Human Resource Management

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.468[a]	.219	.211	.30167

a. Predictors: (Constant), X_1 (where x_1 = human resource management)

The study sought to test the hypothesis thus:-

H0: Human Resource Management does not influence the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya.

H1: There is a relationship between Human Resource Management and the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya.

From the ANOVA Table 4.4 the results indicate that the model fitted was significant with p-value 0.000 < 0.05, indicating a strong influence therefore the null hypothesis was rejected by the study and adopted the alternate hypothesis thus: H1 Human Resource Management influences the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya.

Table 4.4 ANOVAb for Human Resource Management

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.623	1	2.623	28.826	.000[a]
	Residual	9.373	103	.091		
	Total	11.997	104			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Human Resource Management

b. Dependent Variable: Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Table 4.5   Coefficients[a] for Human Resource Management

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.453	.170		14.449	.000
	Human Resource Management	.308	.057	.468	5.369	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Table 4.6 shows the effects of Human Resource Management together with policy on the growth of collective entrepreneurship. The study realised that when policy is introduced the strength on the effects of human resource on collective entrepreneurship increase as shown by the R square value of 49.9 up from 21.9 .This shows that with an introduction of policy 49.9 percent of the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector is affected by human resource management.

Table 4.6 Human Resource Management with Policy and the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.707[a]	.499	.494	.24148

a. Predictors: (Constant), x_1z (x_1 = Human Resource Management, Z= Policy)

Table 4.7 shows the ANOVAb of human resource management with policy. The study sought to establish whether the model fitted was significant. The result show that the significant level of 0.000 < 0.05 and since the P value 0.000 < 0.05, this shows that there is a significant relationship between human resource management with policy and the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector. The study therefore concluded that human resource management with policy enhances the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya.

Table 4.7   ANOVAb of Human Resource Management with Policy

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.990	1	5.990	102.725	.000[a]
	Residual	6.006	103	.058		
	Total	11.997	104			

a. Predictors: (Constant), x_1z (x_1 = Human Resource Management, Z = Policy)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.990	1	5.990	102.725	.000[a]
	Residual	6.006	103	.058		
	Total	11.997	104			

a. Predictors: (Constant), $x_1 z$ (x_1 = Human Resource Management, Z = Policy)

b. Dependent Variable: Y(y= Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship)

Table 4.8 show the coefficients of human resource management with policy on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector. The result show that 2.274 + 0.092 X3Z, which shows that there is a high relationship between human resource management with moderator policy to the extent that for every unit value of X3Z the value of y increases by 0.092. The study therefore concluded that policy has a positive effect on the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the Agriculture Sector in Kenya.

Table 4.8   Coefficientsa of Human Resource Management with Policy as Moderating

	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.274	.109		20.905	.000
	$X_1 z$	.092	.009	.707	10.135	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y (Where Y= the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship, X_1 = Human   Resource Management and Z= Moderating Policy

Table 4.9 shows the coefficients of human resource management and the growth of collective entrepreneurship. The model given by the formula Y = β1X1 where Y = Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship and X1= Human Resource Management. From table 4.9 the result show that β0 = 0.235, β1= 0.318 therefore the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship (Y) = 0.235 + 0.318X1. From the model it can be deduced that for every unit of X1 there is an increase of Y by 0.318 (31.8 percent). On the other hand with a zero increase in X1 units the growth of collective entrepreneurship is   fixed at the value of 0.235. The study therefore concluded that the human resource management affect the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agricultural sector.

Table 4.9   Coefficientsa Human Resource Management and the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

	Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.235	.230		1.024	.308
	Human Resource Management	.318	.038	.483	8.388	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Table 4.10 shows that Human Resource Management practices with policy has more influence on the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector up to the extent of 76,8 percent as depicted by the value of R square.

Table 4.10   Model Summary of the Moderator Policy on the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship

Model R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate
3 .876^c	.768	.761	.16613

C. Predictors: (Constant), Y= B_1X_1Z

The study sought to test the hypothesis: *Thus H$_0$: The policy does not moderate the role of human resource management in governance of the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya.*

H$_1$: The   policy moderates the role of human resource management in governance of the Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya

Table 4.11 ANOVA shows that, the model fitted is significant. The p value shows that $0.000 < 0.05$. Since the P value $0.000 < 0.05$ the study therefore rejects H$_0$ and adopts H$_1$ which states that policy moderates the role of human resource management in governance on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya.

Table 4.11 ANOVA^d of the moderator policy on the factors influencing the growth of collective entrepreneurship

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9.209	3	3.070	111.229	.000^c
	Residual	2.787	101	.028		
	Total	11.997	104			

c. Predictors: (Constant), x_1z,

d. Dependent Variable: YG

Table 4.12 indicates that x_1= Human Resource Management, z = Policy and Y= Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship indicates therefore that Y = 1.650 + 0. 054X_1. This means that for every unit of x the value of y increases by 0.054, this shows that the model is fit.

Table 4.12 Coefficients^a of the moderator policy on the growth of collective entrepreneurship

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.650	.097		16.983	.000
	X_1z	.054	.007	.411	7.372	.000

Dependent Variable (Y) Growth of collective entrepreneurship

The table shows the coefficients where:

β0 = constant

X3 = Human Resource Management

Y= Growth of Collective Entrepreneurship and

Z = Policy as the moderator

CONCLUSIONS

There is a strong and positive correlation between human resource management and the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya. The strength of the correlation increases with an introduction of policy as moderator. The study established that 21.9 percent of the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector was influenced by Human Resource Management and increases to 49.9 percent with an introduction of policy. The study therefore rejected the H0 hypothesis and adopted the H1 hypothesis which states that Human Resource Management influence the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya.

There is a high relationship between Human Resource Management with policy and the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya to the extent that for every unit value of Human Resource Management with policy, there is an increase in the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya. The study rejected H0 and adopted H1 which states that policy moderates the influence of human resource management in governance on the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector in Kenya.

Area of further study
The study recommends a future study to establish the other significant determinants of governance that influence the growth of collective entrepreneurship in the agriculture sector

Reference

Ajah, J (2012). Effects of Farmers' Level of Education and Cooperative Membership on Access to Agricultural Extension Services in Abuja, Nigeria. Trends in Agricultural Economics, 5: 104-114.

Amha, W. (2006). Business development services (BDS) in Ethiopia Status, prospects and challenges in micro and small enterprise sector. International Journal of Emerging Markets, 1(4), 305-328.

Aref, F. (2011). Agricultural cooperatives for Agricultural Development in Iran . Life Science Journal retrieved from http://www.lifesciencesite.com at 11.29 pm., 8(1). Retrieved 10 10, 2012

Audretsh, D. B. (2012). Determinnats of high growth entrepreneurship: Report prepared for the OECD/DBA International Workshop on High growth firms, local polocies and local determinants. Copenhagen.

Bijman, J., & Doorneweert, B. (2008 august 26-29). Entrepreneurship, Collective Entrepreneurship and the Producer-Owned firm XIIth Congress European Association of Agricultural Economics. Ghent Belgium.

Birchall, J. (2005). Co-operative principles ten years on. Review of International Cooperation, 98(2), 45-63.

Boland, M., Hogeland, J., & Mckee, G. (2011). Current Issues in Strategy for Agricultural Cooperatives. Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics Association, 26(3).

Booth, S., & Hamer, K. (2007). Labour turnover in the retail industry predicting the role of individual, organisational and environmental factors. International Journal of Retail & DistributionManagement, 35(4), 289-307.

Branstad, A. (2008). Exploring Collective Entrepreneurship through a case Narrative."Insight Encounters- Regional Development and Practice - Based learning" Conference on Regional Development and innovation Processes. Porvo- Borga Finland.

Burress, M. J., & Cook, M. L. (2009). A primer on collective entrepreneurship: a Preliminary Taxonomy. Working Paper AEWP - 4.

Collins, C. J., Ericksen, J., & Allen, M.(2005). Human resource management practices, workforce alignment and firm performance (CAHRS working paper No.05-05). Ithaca: NY.

Crambo, S. A. (2009). Agricultural Cooperatives: Role in Food Security and Rural Development. Expert Group on Cooperatives. New York.

Food and agricultural Organization [FAO]. (2012). Agricultural Cooperatives: Key to feeding the World.

Frank, P., & Sundgren, S. (2012). Determinants of international governance quality:evidence from Sweden. Managerial Auditing Journal, 27(7), 639-665.

Garnevska, E., Liub, G., & Shadboltc, N. M. (2011). factors for succesful Development of Farmer Cooperatives in North West China. International Food and Agribusiness Management Review, 14(4), 1.

Gehlhar, M. J., Stefanou, S. E., Zouma, B. L., & Regmi, A. (2009). Brand Leadership and Product Innoovation as firm stratgies in global food markets. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 18(2), 115-126.

Gibcus, P., deKok, J., Snijders, J., Smit, L., & Linder, B.(2012). Effects and Impact of entrepreneurship program in higher edcuation . Report prepared for the European Commission . retrieved on 20-06-2013 ec.europa.eu/enterprise policies/sme/ promoting entrpreneurship.

Gijselinckx, C., & Bussels, M. (2012). Support for Farmers' Cooperatives;Case study Report Human Capital Building in Agricultural Cooperatives: Belgium and Canada Supportive Policy Measures. Wageningen: wagennigen UR.

Gitau, R., Kimenju, S., Kibaara, B., Nyoro, J., Bruntrup, M., & Zimmermann, R. (2009). Agricultural Policy-Making in Sub Sahara Africa: Kenya's Past Policies. Nairobi: Tegemeo Institute of Agricultural Policy & Development.

Grunfeld, L.A., Jakobsen, E.W., Kaloudis, A. Skogli, E., & Olsen, D.S.(2011). Key Innovation Indicators, Learning from principles and Practices applied by Professionals and Industrial players and investors. A Nordic Innovation Publication, 2011(1)

Hall, G. C., Hutchinson, P. J., & Michaelas, N. (2004). Determinants of the capital structures of Euopean SMEs. Journal of Business Finance and Accounting, 31(5/6), 711-728.

Henehan, B.M. & Pelsue, N.H. (1986). The use of Discrimaninat Analysis in measuring cooperative growth factors. Journal of Agricultural and Research Econmics , 15 (2),178-184

International Cooperative Alliance [ICA]. (2012). The Cooperative Statistical Information. Cooperative Organisations.

Imonikhe, G.A. (2010). Impact of Katsina State Agricultural Project [KSACAP] on income and productivity. International Journal Agricultural Rural Development, (1) 115-124.

Kapoor, B., & Sherif, J. (2012). Human resources in an enriched environment of business intelligence. Regular Journal Section Kybernetes, 41(10), 1625-1637.

Kemp, R., & Parto, S. (2005). Governance for sustainable development: Moving from theory to practice. International Journal on Sustainable Development, 8, 1-2.

Kenkel, P., & Park, J. (2011). Critical Issues for Agricultural Cooperatives. The magazine Food, Farm and Resources Issues, 26(3).

King, R. P., & Ortmann, G. F. (2007). Agricultural cooperatives II: Can they facilitate access of small-scale farmers in South Africa to input and product markets. Agrekon, 46(2), 219-240.

Maghsoudi, T., Hekmat, M., & Davodi, H. (2012). Supporting the entrepreneurship development in the agriculture production cooperatives. African journal of Business Management, 6(10), 3639 - 3647.

Muradian, R., & Mangnus, E. (2011). the challenge of entrepreneurship in agricultural cooperatives. IDP stationsweg 28-2312 AV Leiden - The Netherlands.

Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. M. (2006). Human Resources Management: Gaining A Competitive Advantage 5th Edition. New York: McGraw- Hill/Irwin.

Odhiambo, W., Nyangito, H. O., & Nzuma, J. (2004). Sources and Determinants of Agricultural Growth and Productivity in Kenya,. Productive Sector Division. Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis.

Oke, A. (2007). Innovation types and innovation management practices in service companies. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 27(6), 564 - 587.

Panagiota, S., & Nastis, S. A. (2011). Collective Entrepreneurship in Agriculture and its Contribution to sustainable Rural Development in Greece. Journal of the Geographical institute " Jovan Cviji'c" SASA, 109-128.

Pinscher, J. D., & Rouse, J. G. (2004). New strategies for mobilizing capital in Agricultural Cooperatives. Rome: Food and Agricultural organization[FAO].

Pozzobon, D. M., & Filho, C. A. (2007). In ssearch of Cooperative Governance: A Brazillian Agricultural Cooperative stdy,VI International PENSA Conferrnce 'Sustainable Agri food and Bioenergy Chains/ Networks Econmics and Management. . Sao Paulo.

Republic Kenya. (2007). Industrial Policy. Nairobi: Government Printer.

Republic of Kenya [ROK]. (2009). Agricultral Sector Development Strategy. Nairobi: Governement.

Republic of Kenya[2011]. (2011). Statistical abstract, Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. Nairobi: Government.

Republic of Kenya[ROK]. (2013). Economic Survey. Nairobi: Kenya National Bureau of Statistics.

Ritossa, C. M., & Bulgacov, S. (2009). Internationalization and diversification strategies of agricultural cooperatives: a quantitative study of the agricultural cooperatives in the State of Parana. http://www.the freelibrary.com retrieved on 12-06- 2014 at 3pm.

Tanaka, K (2013). Japanese employment practices viewed from a trade union perspective. http//jil.go.jp.Retrived on 20-10-2013 at 9pm

Sayl, H., & Sahin, A. (2009). Border role of Human Resource Management to which side does the pendulum of Human Resource Management swing: employer or employees? -the case of Turkey. management, 14(2), 43-59.

Sitaram, D. (2009). Effective o-operative Governance: The key to cooperaive success, Canadian cooperative Association. Canada.

Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms. English Language Teaching, 5 (9), 1916-4750.

Shaw, L. (2007). Overview of Corporate Governance Issues for Co-operatives: Global corporate Governnce forum for the Working of meeting in corporate Governance and Co-operatives. London.

Soriano, D. R., & Martinez, J. M. (2007). "Transmitting the entrepreneurial spirit to the work teams in SMEs: the importance of leadership". Journal of Management Decision, 45(7), 1102-1122.

Tanaka K (2013). Japanese employment practices viewed from a trade union perspective. http//jil.go.jp.Retrived on 20-10-2013 at 9pm

Waelchli, U., & Loderer, C. F. (2011). "Firm age and governance' available at http:/ssrn.com/abstract 1938635 retrieved on 03-03-13 at 9.30 p.m.

Wang, Z., & Zang, Z. (2005). Strategic human resources, innovation and entrepreneurship fit. A cross- regional comparative model international journal of Manpower, 26(6), 544-559.

Wanyama, F. O. (2009). Surviving Liberalization: The Cooperative Movement in Kenya. International Labout Office.

Sanctity of Life and Human Dignity as Human Rights Values Vis-À-Vis The Death Penalty: A Religio-Ethico Reflection

Dr. Nico P. Swartz
University of Botswana. Faculty of Social Sciences
Dept of Law. Private Bag 00705. Gaborone.

Abstract

The paper aims to presents a consistent argument and ideology of life. The study proposes capital punishment as an earthly creation, born out of man's attempt to find justice according to his own standards – in complete opposition to what God's perfection intends. Capital punishment is based on the conviction that man must set the ultimate standard of what is right and what is wrong, and that God's authority is irrelevant to these moral decisions. The paper opted for an exploratory study using literal sources, which the author generated and on which he draws. The article is based on a serious inquiry of original data on the issues of the death penalty, sanctity of life and human dignity. The paper presents a strong, current and relevant theoretical or conceptual framework within which the inquiry is located. The opposition to capital punishment reflects a consistent ethic of life that is evident throughout the Scriptures. The paper finds that sanctity of life and human dignity have become the central argument against the death penalty. It suggests that these two concepts (sanctity of life and human dignity) establish a line that humans or states cannot cross. Every other kind of means which brings human life to a premature end would therefore count as wrong. The research results may lack generalisability in that it focused mainly on a Christian framework. But it can also be viewed as an opportunity for other researchers to test the proposed propositions further, to expand it to the domain of other denominations. But subject to the condition to make this ethic of life that this research holds dear part of their own views.

INTRODUCTION

Both these terms, the "sanctity of life" and 'human dignity" have religious, ethical and legal roots. This does not mean, however, that this term may only be used within the confines of these disciplines. The term "sanctity of life" means more than life's freedom from injury. The situation is similar for the term "human dignity," the origins of which lie partly in the Christian idea of imago dei. With regard to human dignity, each human being should be exempted from human interference. From this religious context, the idea of an inherent human dignity becomes part of modern philosophy and law.

There is something within human nature that causes us to appreciate the basic sanctity of individual human life. It is the image of God (imago Dei) that is written on our souls. A general knowledge of God reflects a universal dignity that is present in all people no matter what their actions or environment may be.   But there are others who do not accept these truths as axiomatic. Their faith is dependent on those things that they can see or touch or otherwise quantify in the material world. For them, discussions of divine purpose are irrelevant. They frame their discussions of philosophical ethics in arguments that rely exclusively on pragmatic results and material rewards.

Support of the capital punishment ideology is not based on a moral appreciation for life, but rather in new legislative-like principles of individual entitlement. Capital punishment is an

earthly creation, born out of man's attempt to find justice according to his own standards – in complete opposition to what God's perfection intends. It is based on the conviction that man must set the ultimate standard of what is right and what is wrong, and that God's authority is irrelevant to these moral decisions. We have an unfortunate habit of placing our worldly concerns of politics and economics ahead of our spiritual concerns of faith and morals. Some current judicial systems do not even pretend to follow these standards. If capital punishment is to be allowed, this research emphasizes, we would see the end of a system of justice based on the rule of natural law. The only way we can avoid this fate is if we present a consistent argument and ideology of life.

The state has a duty to protect "human dignity" and the citizen's "right to life." In other words, it has a duty to "protect the dignity and integrity of all human beings." This view is echoed in articles 2 and 3 of the European Convention for Human Rights and in article 1 of the Bioethics Convention of the Council of Europe.

The concept of "human dignity" has also been used by the Supreme Court of the United States in connection with the Eight and Fourteenth Amendments. Human rights are anchored in the "inherent dignity" of the human being. Bayertz asserts that the protection of human life is one of the highest priorities of a modern state.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT? AN ANACHRONISTIC CONCEPT

Capital punishment was tolerated as a necessary tool for an archaic age that was still blind to consequences of a society based on force. Yet, it must never be viewed as a permanent solution to the problem of violent crime.

The 12th century judge was limited in his options of punishment. Without sophisticated prison systems or reliable judicial apparatus, there was no conceivable solution to the problem of repeated offenders.

There were no police networks to actively protect against marauding bands of outlaws, nor was there a prison system set up to ensure the safe isolation of dangerous individuals. Oftentimes, the options were death, maiming, exile or freedom. A prison sentence might be interpreted as a temporary delay of escape. If the criminal was not killed, he very well may threaten the well-being of society, especially if his crimes are violent by nature.

Fortunately, these conditions simply do not exist today. We can protect society without killing its worst offenders. Other nations throughout the world, have completely outlawed capital punishment with no serious consequences. Capital punishment is no longer a utopian expectation.

Today, we have the means and opportunity to isolate a dangerous criminal in such a way as to never place the society in danger again. Escape is rare and virtually unknown in the highest security prisons. The police network of modern societies is so advanced that even if a criminal does escape, they will have to voluntarily remove themselves from society if they are to avoid recapture. It simply is no longer necessary to kill someone in order to provide society with sufficient protection against direct attacks in the future.

In the twentieth and the twenty-first centuries we believe that each individual is entitled to the basic rights of life and dignity. Governments ought to exist to protect those rights. Our nations

was founded on the enlightened reasoning of John Locke and others who argued that if government fails to uphold its duty, then the people must seek to alter or abolish it.

In our modern jurisprudence, there is no way that we can find justification for capital punishment. As a result, modern cities of man have come closer toward a sense of justice than ever before. Criminals are housed in secure facilities and whenever possible given the necessary help to bring them into a new and reformed lifestyle. This research stresses that on the strength of these facts is that if criminals and offenders can be dealt within means short of execution, we must seek to do so. The message this paper would want the global community to know, is, to demand the criminal's life when his removal from society is sufficient reflects an earthly pursuit of vengeance. As Christians (and other denominations), we must resist this temptation.

USURPATION OF GOD'S AUTHORITY BY THE ARROGANT HUMAN BEING

The root of man's sin stems from his desire to assume God's authority. Man always falls astray when he begins to place himself in a role of judgment meant for God. However, man must never assume authority over that which he does not know. When he takes away a man's life from his physical body, he is clearly over-stepping his bounds of authority. The stamp of God is found in our souls (imago Dei). The Scriptures tell us that we have been created in the image of God. Therefore our lives are claimed by God alone, and no man has authority over them. Capital punishment denies the redemption of Christ by requiring material punishments based on our own judgment. Capital punishment is therefore contrary to Christian faith and other faiths that uphold an ethic of life.

When confronted with issues such as capital punishment, Christians tempted to fall into a purely empirical discussion. They would prefer arguments that are more reasonable and pragmatic, than those that are strictly religious. This problem comes in two flavors: those who ignore their sources of faith altogether, and those who use material definitions to interpret their sources of faith in the way that best suits their needs.

Those in the first grouping make their arguments in favor of capital punishment based on crime statistics, economic issues and a basic need to guarantee the authority of the state as the sole executor of justice. This group prefers to fall back on an argument that supports the separation of church and state. Then they follow up with a distinction between moral issues and political issues, each with their respective domain – that capital punishment is relegated to the political domain, and therefore should not be approached by articles of faith. We must recognize that there is a clear distinction between spiritual matters and worldly matters, but the gist of this paper exerts that we must remember that divine truth transcends all.

We find that capital punishment is not only contrary to Biblical principles and Judeo-Christian theology, but it also defies any reasonable argument based on faith in a single loving God.

In the Papal Encyclical, Donum Vitae (1987), it is written: "The inviolability of the innocent human being's right to life from the moment of conception until death is a sign and requirement of the very inviolability of the person to whom the creator has given the gift of Life," and subsequently, "Human life is sacred... God alone is Lord of life from its beginning until its end: no one can, in any circumstances, claims for himself the right to destroy [a human being]." In destroying human life, the document states: "By acting in this way the [state] usurps the place of God; and, even though [the state] may be unaware of this, [it] sets [itself] up as the master of the destiny of [human beings] inasmuch as [it] arbitrarily chooses whom [it] will allow to live and whom [it] will send to death [...]"

Keenan upholds that killing is forbidden in that it usurps a divine prerogative and violates divine rights. In simpler terms, "nobody can ever bestow the right to kill [another person]. This would amount to a violation of a divine law, an offence of the dignity of man, and an attack against the human race." This is so, because life is God's gift to man.

The abrogation of capital punishment: An ethic of life acceptance
Our Lord specifically rebuked the standard of "eye for an eye." When our neighbor strikes us, Jesus asked that we turn the other cheek and let him strike that as well. He told us to love our enemies, and to pray for those who persecute us. In fact, the only specific reference Jesus ever made to capital punishment was a negative one. When the men brought forth the adulterous woman, He said, "[Let] him who is without sin, cast the first stone of her death." If we choose to ignore these sources of inspiration, then it is, quite likely that we are not really interested in the truth at all. Instead, we might be using the material rules of the Scriptures to satisfy our personal opinion – to justify our own personal agendas. The opposition to capital punishment reflects a consistent ethic of life that is evident throughout the Scriptures.

"SANCTITY OF LIFE"
The principle that human life is holy and inviolable is an argument which runs through religion and ethical debates from Ancient Times to the present day. Since then, the "holiness of human life" has become the central argument against the death penalty.

There is something within human nature that causes us to appreciate the basic sanctity of individual human life. As mentioned earlier in the paper, it is the image of God (imago Dei) that is written in our souls. On the strength of this notion, the "sanctity of life" informs us that we as humans cannot violate a life. The sacred quality of life establishes a line that humans or states cannot cross. God alone, the author of life, has absolute dominion over it.

If one does not want to refer to the authority of the Bible, one may interpret the principle of the "sanctity of life" more mundanely as the principle of the absolute value of human life as per the gist of this research. According to this principle (sanctity of life) every other kind of bringing human life to a premature end would count as wrong.

Keenan allows Aquinas's inquiries into the liceity of Abraham's intention to kill his son and answers, "God is Lord of death and life, for by His decree both the sinful and the righteous die. Hence who at God's command kills a man does not sin, as neither does God whose behest he executes."

"Sanctity of life" requires us to uphold life. The maxim neminem laedere (do no harm) forbids us to "do to others what we do not want to be done to ourselves." The idea behind this maxim is better articulated by saying that we should never do to others what they do not want to be done to them.

The "sanctity of life" principle holds that every life is of equal value regardless of condition.

HUMAN DIGNITY
What is human dignity?
Human dignity can be connected with legal personality and legal right. It plays a central role in the contemporary law of human rights. The 20th century law of human rights gives human

dignity place of pride. Luban makes mention of the preamble to the UN Charter's, which states: "[Faith] [...] [is] the dignity and worth of the human person..."

Article 1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights begins, "[All] human beings are free and equal in dignity and rights." The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union begins with Article 1 entitled "Human Dignity" that reads simply, "Human dignity is inviolable. It must be respected and protected." Principle VII of the Helsinki Accords asserts a philosophical proposition that all human rights initiatives derive from the inherent dignity of the human person."

In the U.S., the concept of human dignity is not part of the Constitution, but it has nevertheless been used by the Supreme Court in connection with the First, Fourth, Sixth, Eight and Fourteenth amendments. Within the Preamble of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations on 10 December 1948, recognition of the "inherent dignity" of all human beings is characterized as the basis of freedom, justice and world peace". Art. 1 of the Declaration states: "All human beings are born free, equal in dignity and human rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood."

Human dignity identifies with autonomy, which is an offshoot for the freedom of choice, while paternalism lies in the violation of autonomy. Honoring human dignity means refraining from overriding those commitments for paternalistic reasons (by the state). Having human dignity means being an individual self who is not entirely subsumed into larger communities. Honoring human dignity requires not humiliating people, because humiliation is an affront to my dignity.

Dignity goes with rank. Indignity occurs when someone is treated below their rank. To violate someone's human dignity means to treat them as if they were a being of lower rank, as an animal, as a handy but disposable tool, as property, as an object, as a subhuman or as nothing at all.

Significance of human dignity: Christian grounding of human dignity
The concept of human dignity did not emerge as a creatio ex nihilo. It is rooted in Ancient philosophy as well as in Christian theology. Christianity interpreted the dignity of all human beings theologically. The latter's origins may be attributed to the special position which the human being assumes within creation as imago Dei. Human dignity is viewed in this research as a reflection of the dignity of God.

The question of the reflection of the dignity of God, is buttressed by an understanding of the person before we can ponder what he/she deserves as a person. Rawls, for example, affirms that you and I as human beings derive our value from social institutions and not from our ontological status as human beings. This is, under the tenor of this research, rather a blatant instrumentalist view of people. In the thought of Rawls, humans are no longer seen as valuable and worthy by government and social structures. Inasmuch as Rawls's theory is moving in this direction, he is impinging on the value and dignity of the human individual. Rawls' approach does not present us with a satisfying picture of the person or human dignity and so cannot compel allegiance with this research.

The aura of significance attaching to human beings is recognized through, for example, the covering of dead bodies with a sheet, certain funeral rituals, and the occasional respect accorded the site of a loved one or venerated figure's death. The realization of the sui generis

importance of human life was exemplified in the burial service arranged for two newborn infants who separately washed up on the shore of Orange County, California, beaches in March 1995. The newborn infants had been abandoned just hours after their births and were thrown into the ocean. Father Patrick Callahan of St Matthew American Catholic Church in California, Orange County, arranged the service. Explaining why he did so, he said, "I really feel it would be unfortunate for these children to be just cremated and placed in a common grave as if they never existed... There should be some awareness that they were here, even though they only lived for a brief period of time, maybe only a matter of hours... I think [the memorial service] is the respectful thing to do. It celebrates the dignity of children."

This is a deed that demands not only condemnation, but damnation in the full religious meaning of the word. Although the deed is so vile, so heinous, and so essentially evil, the perpetrator (and the victim(s) of crime) possessed human dignity. Every human self is perhaps composed of an intrinsic human dignity and worth. The awareness of human dignity is similar to the innate human knowledge and experience of a Creator.

It is also true that mankind is able to break through the knowledge of universal dignity and mistreat his fellows. Human dignity, disrespected by custom, is easily trampled under the ruthless wheels of bigotry, pride, violence and selfishness. Human individuals can be blatantly used as mere means for utilitarian ends as seen within the context of Rawls' exposition.

Man's dominion is not a license to exploit creation (other human beings) but rather a charge to rule as God would rule. All life, since it comes from God, has a sacredness about it and demands respect for it. The special dignity and sanctity of human life comes from bearing the image of God and the responsibility to rule like God. On the basis of this principle, human rights have to be claimed and defended.

The death penalty is the most profound assault on human dignity. In the absence of a solid and stable understanding of the sui generis and inviolable value of every human being, abuses of human life are a very likely.

The religio-ethico philosophy this research wants to bring forth is that the abiding belief in God humanizes us. By focusing on God, we will become more concerned about people. By recognizing God, we come to a greater valuation of earthly relationships by understanding them as a sacred gift to be cherished. The general Christian grounding of human dignity is summarized as follows: "It is because God has assigned worth to man and woman that human dignity is established." It is because mankind bears the image of God (imago Dei) that he enjoys such an exalted rank in the nature of things. From his creation to his redemption, man's dignity is preserved. Human dignity articulated in this religiously way can serve as an ordering concept for contemporary and social life. The fact that it currently does not function as a civil unifying theory is not itself sufficient ground for deeming the Christian architectonic of human dignity and sanctity of life anachronistic.

RESPECT FOR HUMAN DIGNITY BY THE STATE

"Regard for dignity implies respect for every individual's right to life..." Respect for human dignity reflects the role of the state and the legal system. The questions that can be asked in this regard are, should the state guarantees the inviolability of human dignity? and should it (the state) serves as an advocate and guardian of the sanctity of life?

The notion is that the state is to remain morally neutral and to protect the individual's freedom of choice. It is the duty of the state to secure the peace for its citizens, and not to assert a mandatory ideology. All action and legislation of the state is subjected to the principle of the inviolability of human dignity and it must therefore refrains from action infringing on human dignity. No one must tolerate violation of his/her dignity by another or being subjected to the discretion and whims of another without the right of legal contestation. A human being, as person, has legally guaranteed rights and can demand of the state that it deter infringement upon his/her dignity. The positive guarantee of human dignity requires a corresponding order of government. If all the organs of state are obliged to respect and protect human dignity, then the state can fulfill his obligation which is founded upon democratic and social welfare principles. The principles of a state founded upon respect for the law, social welfare and democracy can be derived from the fundamental norm of human dignity and the sanctity of life. Only a state based on respect for the law can guarantee its citizens legal protection. The deterrence of humanly degrading affliction can only be expected from a state which acknowledges its responsibility to take precautionary measures to ensure the welfare of its citizens.

Human dignity cannot be limited. Even prisoners, the legally incapacitated or those incapable of making decisions do not forfeit their human dignity and have the right to be recognized as persons. The appeal to human dignity sets out certain limits. When human dignity is infringed upon, these limits are overstepped. The death penalty is therefore incompatible with human dignity and the sanctity of life.   Human dignity as a reference point sets limits to arbitrary behavior. If a human being is not recognized as a bearer of rights, then his inalienable dignity will in no way either be recognized or respected. The recognition of human dignity is to be understood both as a fundamental moral norm and as a legally guaranteed fundamental right. It is the responsibility of the state to protect human rights.

The dignity of man is inviolable. All the powers of state must respect and protect it. Constitutional control over the powers of the state should result from respect for human dignity and sanctity of life. The Constitution must be utilized in order to make the protection of the individual the basis for the state's action.   The state is therefore obliged to recognize and protect the individual.

Respect for human dignity demand legal protection of an individual's right to life. A state which refuses to enforce this demand has lost the right to Christian morals. Protecting human dignity is essential for the legitimatization of state power. Respect for human dignity serves as an orientation point and a critical norm insofar as it provides fundamental orientation and lends purpose to moral and legal debate.

SENTIMENTS AGAINST THE DEATH PENALTY

Justice Chaskalson, had found in the Constitutional Court case of South Africa, S v Makwanyane 1995 (3) SA 391 (CC), that there was no proof that the death sentence was a greater deterrent than imprisonment. He quoted police statistics that in the previous five years on average 20,000 murders were committed and out of the 9,000 murder cases brought to trial only 243 death sentences were imposed with 143 of these being confirmed on question: Would the carrying out of the death sentence on these 143 persons have deterred the other murderers or saved any lives? Similarly in Nigeria studies on murder and armed robbery have demonstrated that the death penalty does not act as a deterrent. The deterrent effect of the death sentence thus remains questionable.

Given the vast majority of persons charged with capital offences, many will not be able to afford the services of advocates. In the interest of justice an accused person should be entitled to be represented by an advocate at public expense. The question that can be posed, is whether such a person would receive satisfactory representation. Evidence suggests that in general, advocates taking on "pauper briefs" are noted neither for their caliber nor for their commitment. Hatchard & Coldham buttress this notion, when they wrote, "In Tanzania, in a case where the constitutionality of the death penalty was raised, the trial judge pointed out that the risk of executing the innocent is increased by the fact that 'most poor persons do not obtain good legal representation, as they are defended by lawyers on dock briefs who are paid only T Shilings 500 (the equivalent of US $1)'"

In Nigeria there had been a number of appeals against convictions for murder on the ground that the accused's counsel had failed to discharge his professional duty in a proper manner. The Nigerian Robbery and Firearms Decree of 1984 provides for a special tribunal for the trial of offences of robbery, attempted robbery, etc. The tribunal can impose the death sentence for armed robbery. While the sentence has to be confirmed by the Military Government, there is no provision for appeal to the courts, nor are the tribunals bound by the normal rules of evidence and procedure.

The Malawian Traditional Courts Act of 1969, which was not governed by either the Criminal Procedure Act or the Evidence Act, did not allow lawyers to appear before it. Murder and treason as capital offences were tried before these courts. During certain trial processes none of the defendants called witnesses of their own and many failed to offer any defences other than a simple denial. Defendants had also little idea how to conduct their cases and the courts, instead of assisting them, created rather an intimidating environment. This unfair situation was as a result removed under the new constitution of Malawi.

Discrimination upon the race of the offender and race of the victim seem to be problematic. In the United States of America, black offenders who kill white victims are more likely to be sentenced to death than white offenders who kill black victims under similar circumstances. The death penalty system discriminates on the basis of the sex of the offender, because women are less willing to be subjected to the death penalty than men.

Poverty level of the offender and victim also determines in part the outcome. An offender from a lower economic and social strata who murders a victim from higher economic and social strata, stands the greatest chance of being sentenced to death and actually executed. These and other legally irrelevant factors cause these literally life-and-death decisions to be made in a discriminatory manner.

In, for example, the USA a capital defendant's attorney should be experienced in capital cases and should devote major portions of his time and energy to the case. The particular attorney should be aided and supported by legal assistants, investigators, and other members of a complete defense team. This is the sort of team effort that the prosecuting attorney has, so the defense attorney should have a comparable team. Only rarely does the defense team equal the prosecution team in numbers, experience, and funding. The mismatch between prosecution and defense often results in a denial of a full and fair consideration of the defendant's guilt and sentence. Capital defendants with inadequate defense teams may receive the death penalty, while essentially identical cases result only in a prison sentence, with the only difference being the quality of the defense attorney.

An often-heard argument, which will be embraced by pro-death sentiments, for executing the offender is that it saves the cost of providing room and board in a maximum security facility for the rest of the offender's life. The total expenditure might well be in the range of a million dollars. The surprising fact is that the death penalty is much more expensive than life imprisonment. The long death penalty process - coupled with the rarity of it ending in actual execution - results in a very high cost-per-execution. Research has shown that the average cost-per-execution is several million dollars, much more than the cost of keeping that executed prisoner in prison for several lifetimes. This is counterintuitive to those who argue that we shouldn't use precious tax dollars to feed and house convicted murderers. Many more of those tax dollars are required to execute the prisoner than would be needed to keep him in prison.

The executing of a person who can show that he is innocent comes perilously close to murder, according to Justice Blackmun in Herrera v Collins 506 U.S. 390, 113 S.Ct. 853, 122 L.Ed.2d 203 (1993): "[We] have executed the innocent nonetheless, either because he could not "show that he is innocent" or because we would not believe him." In a speech in July 2001, Justice O'Connor expressed our worst fears: "If the statistics are any indication, the system may well be allowing some innocent defendants to be executed." Justice Souter expressed this concern in Kansas v Marsh 548 U.S. 163, 126 S.Ct. 2516, 165 L.Ed2d 429 (2006): "The period starting in 1989 has seen repeated exonerations of convicts under death sentences, in numbers never imagined before the development of DNA tests." Any government system operated by imperfect human beings and handling thousands of cases each year is bound to make mistakes. If the mistake was to convict and imprison an innocent person, we can correct and perhaps even compensate him for his years in prison. If we execute an innocent person, however, no form of compensation or correction seems adequate to correct error.   Erroneous convictions and the fact that most poor defendants did not receive adequate legal representation, made capital punishment, cruel, inhuman and degrading.   Research has revealed that two thirds of death sentences are eventually overturned on appeal. This situation is due to the inadequacy of defence lawyers available for poor and black people.   The death penalty system is operated and controlled by human beings who are not immune to human error. As are evident under the case law discussed, innocent people are sentenced to death and, in some cases, they are actually executed.   Whether for or against the death penalty, almost no one wants innocent people executed.   A system operated by human beings operating under intense political pressures is bound to make mistakes. The overarching issue is how many death penalties for innocent persons are too many?

Hugo Bedau stated that it is assumed that no political candidate in, for example, the United States can hope to run for president, governor, or other high elective office if he or she can successfully be targeted as "soft on crime." The candidate's position on the death penalty has become the litmus test.

CONCLUSION

In this research Christ's Words find a new and particular echo: "What you do to one of the least of my bretheren, you do unto me." (Note 117). In line with this Biblical phrase, this research finds that all life comes from God and has a sacredness about it and demands respect. Within this notion and with regard to the tenor of the research, the death penalty is to be regarded as the most profound assault on human dignity and sanctity of life. By defending man against the excesses of his own power, this research reminds mankind of the reasons for his true nobility. Only in this way can the possibility of living and loving with that dignity, which derive from respect for the truth be ensured for the men and women of tomorrow.

With this instruction, this research, in fulfilling its responsibility to promote and defend human rights in so serious a manner, addresses a new and heartfelt invitation to all those who, by reason of their role and their commitment, can exercise a positive influence and ensure that, in society, due respect is accorded to the right to life and human dignity.

This research addresses this invitation to those responsible for the formation of consciences and of public opinion, to jurists and politicians. It hopes that all will understand the incompatibility between recognition of the dignity of the human person and contempt for life, between faith in the living God and the claim to decide arbitrarily the origin and fate of a human being.

Bibliography Books

Bayertz, K. (Ed.). 1996. Sanctity of Life and Human Dignity. Kluwer Academic Publishers. Dordrecht.

Hodgkinson, P. & Rutherford, A (Eds). 1996. Capital Punishment. Global issues and Prospects. Waterside Press. Winchester.

Honecker, M. Part Five: The Role of the State. On the Appeal for the Recognition of Human Dignity in Law and Morality. In Bayertz, K. 1996. Sanctity of Life and Human Dignity. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Netherlands.

Keenan, James F., S.J. Part One: Sanctity of Life. The Concept of Sanctity of Life and Its Use in Contemporary Bioethical Discussion. In Bayertz, K. 1996. Sanctity of Life and Human Dignity. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Netherlands.

Lenzen, W. Part One: Sanctity of Life. Value of Life vs Sanctity of Life – Outlines of a Bioethics that Does without the Concept of Menschenwűrde. In Bayertz, K. 1996. Sanctity of Life and Human Dignity. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, Netherlands.

Luban, D. 2007. Legal Ethics and Human Dignity. Cambridge Studies in Philosophy and Law. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.

Stetson, B. 1995. Human Dignity and Contemporary Liberalism. Westport Connecticut, Praeger. Greenwood Publishing Group. United States of America.

Streib, V. 2008. Death Penalty in a Nutshell. Third Edition. West. A Thompson Business. United States of America.

Zorea, A. W. 2000. In the Image of God. A Christian Response to Capital Punishment. University Press of America, Inc. Lanham, Maryland.

ARTICLES

Hatchard, J. (1994). Capital Punishment in Southern Africa: Some Recent Developments. The International and Comparative Law Quarterly, 43(4), 923-934. Doi: 10.1093/iclqaj/43.3.493.

Hood, R. (2001). Capital Punishment. A Global Perspective. Punishment and Society, 3(3), 331-354. Doi: 10.1177/1462474501003003001.

International Conventions And Protocol Instruments

Bioethics Convention of the Council of Europe.

European Convention for Human Rights.

Principle VII of the Helsinki Accords.

The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948).

CASE LAW

Herrera v Collins 506 US 390, 113 S.Ct. 853, 122 L.Ed 2d 203 (1993).

Kansas v Marsh 584 US 163, 126 S.Ct. 2516, 165 L.Ed 2d 429 (2006).

S v Makwanyane 1995 (3) SA 391 (CC).

STATUTES
The Malawian Traditional Courts Act of 1969.
The Nigerian Robbery and Firearms Decree of 1984.

Notes
Note 91. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 39.

Note 92. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 41.

Note 93. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 67.

Note 94. Donald H. Wallace and Jonathan R. Sorensen. Comparative Proportionality Review: A Nationwide Examination of Reversed Death Sentences. American Journal of Criminal Justice. Vol. 22, no. 1, 1997: 13-40: 13.

Note 95. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 44.

Note 96. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 44.

Note 97. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 44.

Note 97. Short Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies (1999) 739.

Note 98. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (1999) 293.

Note 99. Short Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies (1999) 738.

Note 100. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 294.

Note 101. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell 92008) 294-5.

Note 102. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutherford Capital Punishment . Global Issues and Prospects   (1996) 162.

Note 103. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutherford Capital Punishment (1996) 164.

Note 104. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutherford Capital Punishment (1996) 164.

Note 105. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutherford Capital Punishment (1996) 165.

Note 106. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutherford Capital Punishment (1996) 165.

Note 107. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 18-9. The Black Codes of the South imposed death sentences for many more crimes by blacks than by whites. In the early 19th century, Virginia law authorized the death penalty for black slaves committing any of about 70 crimes, but had only five death penalty crimes for whites. Georgia required the death penalty for a black male who raped or attempted to rape a white female, but a white male who raped a black female was punished by only a fine and/ or imprisonment. The race of the offender and the victim continued to be important determinants of who did and did not get the death penalty.

Note 108. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 19.

Note 109. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 19.

Note 110. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 21.

Note 111. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 24.

Note 112. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 261-2.

Note 113. Hatchard & Coldham, chapter 7. Hodgkinson & Rutheford Capital Punishment (1996) 172.

Note 114. Hood Punishment and Society (2001) 344.

Note 115. Streib Death Penalty in a Nutshell (2008) 21.

Note 116. Hood Punishment and Society (2001) 343.

Note 117. Matt 25: 40.

A Study of Patterns of Gender Representation and Job Performance among Academic Staff of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Adeniyi A. B.
Department of Management and Accounting
Faculty of Administration. Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Adeniyi, W. O. (Ph. D)
Department of Educational Foundations and Counselling
Faculty of Education. Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Abstract

The thrust of this paper was to examine the gender representation vis-à-vis the perception of undergraduates toward the job performance of male and female academics. The study adopted both the survey and expo-facto research designs. A total of 987 undergraduates from Parts 2-4 were selected using convenience sampling technique from 10 randomly selected faculties from the Obafemi Awolowo University, lle-Ife, Nigeria. A self-developed instrument titled "Gender and Job Performance of Academic Staff" GJPA was used to collect information. Also, the information on academic staff strength of the university was obtained from the Budgeting and Planning Unit of the school (O.A.U., 2014). The instrument yielded test re-test reliability coefficient of r = 0.82 at 0.05 level of significance. The results showed that in 2010/2011 academic session, male academics accounted for 630(82%), while female academics had 134(18%). Tit was shown that in 2012/2013, 392(88%) of male academics were in senior ranks, while, 55(12%) of female academics were in senior ranks. Further, the results showed that there was no significant difference in the perception of undergraduates towards the academic competency of male and female academics (t = 0.083, p > 0.05). Lastly, the results showed that there was a significant difference in professional attainment of male and female academics (t-test = 0.667, p < 0.05). The study concluded even though male academic staff were more represented at the senior ranks and management positions, yet, this did not place them above their female counterparts when compared their academic competency.

Key words: Gender, representation, job performance and academic staff

INTRODUCTION

Gender representation and job performance in the nation's ivory towers are important issues that can not be handled with levity. Considering the fact that university education serves as the peak of formal knowledge, the place where the nation's future minds are nurtured. It is therefore important that effort should be made to ensure that her products are built to become more productive, self-fulfilling and attain self-actualization.

In recent years, there has been complaint about the quality of graduates being turned out yearly in Nigerian's tertiary institution. It has variously been uttered by the public that academic staff are no longer devoted and committed to the job. To the public, it seems the academic staff who are able to produce a bevy of honoured societal fundamental worth such as honesty, inconspicuous nature, steadfastness, promptness, commitment and loyalty are not

zealous and dedicated to their job. Okebukola (2002) alleged that universities in Nigeria are performing below expectation. Therefore, this scenario stands to jeopardize the ultimate objective of the National Policy on Education for tertiary education (NPE, 2004) which is to develop a high level manpower within the context of the needs of the nation. Especially, if her academic staff are not well proactive in their professional duties.

However, for the realization of the above objective; there is a need for the provision of university lecturers who will not only be in quantity but also in quality. It also means that our universities be equipped with lecturers who are proactive, facilitative and imaginative classroom managers (Henson & Eller 1999). This is because, according to Malik (2010), the efficiency of the university is dependent upon the spur of its employees. Hence, the efficient and competent lecturers are the one who will excel in the three core academic duties which are teaching; research and community services (Adeniyi, 2012).

In the education sector, women account for a good percentage of the teaching force especially in the nursery, primary and secondary school levels. However, at the tertiary level, the proportion of female to male academic staff is astronomical. Although, Pereira (2002) believed that despite the fact that the Nigerian University system preaches gender neutral terms, yet the effects of their workings are far from gender neutral. This might not be divorced from the observed gender attributes which regards the lecturing as a masculine profession (e.g. Egunjobi (2009).

In the meantime, a study of gender and performance within the university is important not only because until recently, gender inequality in academia has been largely ignored both in the literature and also the wider public arena (Acker, 1992; Knights & Richards, 2003), but also because of their pivotal role in developing organisations' management cadres (Chepator, Thomson & King, 1996; Starkey & Tempest, 2005). It is also important because of the conscious or subconscious messages it conveys to staff and students about the roles of men and women in organizations Mavin and Bryant (1999). The type of information which the above scenario tends to convey is that one may perhaps come to a conclusion that male academic staff are more productive than their female counterpart. This is an indication that the service of male may be considered more useful than that of female.

A cursory look at the history of education in Nigeria showed that the first female academic staff was employed in 1960 in the Department of History at University of Ibadan. Despite the earlier remark by Onokala and Onah (1998) that there has been an increase in the number of female academic staff recruited into Nigerian Universities, yet, Abiola, (2003) and the Federal Ministry of Education (2006) opined that thirty-six years after the employment of the first female lecturer, the female participation among the academic staff of all tertiary institutions is still low. In corroborating the above, the trio of Adeleke (2003), Duyilemi (2007) and Adegun (2012) confirmed that the percentage of females in the academic sector is still very low and that in tertiary institutions most females are in junior cadre of administration.

A preliminary survey of the staff strength of most universities revealed that there are more male than female academic staff. For instance, in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria, it is believed that in every ten lecture rooms, there are eight male and two female academic staff. Even at the management level, the story still remains. This therefore calls for the investigation on the patterns of gender representation among the academic staff and at the management level as well as the effect these may have on their job performance.
Ridgeway's (1997) study on staff productivity showed that men traits are generally viewed as more valuable than women's and men are mostly judged as more competent. Also, Perma

(2001) perceived female academics as being "less productive and / or incapable of succeeding in full time academic work. This explains why females' job performance in academic area is being subjected to both more scrutiny and higher standards than comparable to their male counterparts (Williams 2004).

Apart from the fact the female academic staff are regarded as less-productivity; some scholars argued that the academic profession should rather be exclusive for male than female. For instance, Mason and Goulden (2002) opined that women academics with children are less productive than non-parents. The duo of Mason and Goulden believed that nursing mothers are prone to having less time to present in the classrooms and other academic duties like their peers. The above point may justify the reason why the employers of academic staff prefer to work with male staff than female. The fact remains that an employer facing female and male applicants that are equally qualified will employ the male applicants. The notion that academic work is somehow strenuous has therefore created gender discrimination in the academic circle.

Apart from the above point, the previous studies on the relationship between gender and job performance has indicated that organizational policies on women contribute to cultural biases and values which invariably affect their performance in the work place (Cascio & Aguinis, 2005). In most cases, these original rules, policies, and practices have been modified very little to account for the enormous influx of diversity into the workplace, resulting in reduced opportunities for the women in the organization. This is why Kawakami, White and Langer (2000) were of the opinion that gender could affect the job performance of administrators in the university. A key premise of the current research is that job performance can be affected by the combined effects of gender-role stereotypes held by job raters thereby creating negative consequences for job performance among academics women in the university.

Even among the students, female lecturers are perceived as being less knowledgeable as compared with their male counterparts, Nasir (2001) and Yolonfoun (2003).The conclusion is that women do not possess requisite skills and knowledge to take up the academic profession. In view of this, female have to work twice as hard in order to legitimize their positions and authority. They also go as far as developing masculine heart in their approach to academic work in order to live up to expectation.

In their contribution, Poole, Bornholt and Summers (1997) believed that there is a demonstrated pattern of difference in academic work associated with lecturer's gender. Poole, et al (1997) further affirmed that women spend more time on teaching and administration than their men counterparts. In the contrary, Damian (2005) opined that sex of the lecturers has no effect on their academic practices There is even sufficient research indicating that appointment committees, research committee and other organization apparatus are dominated by males (Morley, 1994; Dines 1993; Lie & Malik 1994). It is therefore unclear whether male lecturers are better than female lecturers in O.A.U. Ile-Ife.

The importance of quality research cannot therefore be overlooked; quality research exposes academic staff to new information and sharing of socio-cultural ideas with others. Research attainment of someone is determined by the number of published articles in referred journals and conferences proceedings of repute (Oloruntoba & Ajayi, 2006). This implies that research publication is very significant for academic staff promotions. It increases the social prestige of the academic staff status to the rank of a professor irrespective of their gender. Yusuf (2005) noted that the cliché "publish" or perish" is quite popular in the university setting. It

constitutes a key criterion for the promotion of academic staff (Forster, 2000). Although, Davis and Astin, (1999) remarked that despite the fact that women are been regarded as less productive than men are, the result is still not conclusive. But, Asmar (1999); Duyilemi (2007) and Adegun (2012) stated that there is dearth of female lecturers at senior levels in most of universities. The argument is that female lecturers find it more convenient to devote more of their time on teaching than to expend it on other professional duties such as research and community service. There is even sufficient research evidence that management positions are dominated by males (Morley, 1994; Lie and Malik, 1994).

Consequent upon the above arguments, it is necessary to establish how the female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria, are placed beside their male counterparts in terms of professional attainment and quality. This is therefore the trust of this paper.

Objectives of the Study
The objectives of this study were to:
   a. ascertain the pattern of distribution of male and female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria;
   b. investigate the numbers of male and female academic staff at the senior ranks and in the management positions;
   c. examine the perception of the undergraduates towards the teaching competency of male and female academic staff; and
   d. assess the perception of the undergraduates towards the professional attainment of male and female academic staff.

Research Questions
   1. What is the pattern of distribution of male and female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo   University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria?
   2. What is the numbers of male and female academic staff at the senior ranks and in the management positions?

Hypotheses
   1. There is no significant difference in the perception of the undergraduates towards teaching competency of male and female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.
   2. There is no significant difference in the perception of the undergraduates towards the professional attainment of male and female academic staff.

METHODOLOGY
The study adopted both the survey and expo-facto research designs. A total of 1,000 undergraduates from Parts 2-4 selected using convenience sampling technique were selected from 10 randomly selected faculties from the Obafemi Awolowo University, lle-Ife, Nigeria. A self-developed instrument titled "Gender and Job Performance of Academic Staff" GJPA was used to collect information from the undergraduates on their perception towards academic competency and professional attainment of male and female academic staff. GJPA comprised three sections. Section A requested information that were related to students' demographic variables such as faculty, department, level etc. Section B was divided into two sub sections. Each of the sections contained 14 items; and they contained questions on their perception towards the academic competency of both male and female academic staff, while the section C of the instrument contained two sub sections of nine items each. Each sub section requested the students to respond to the items on professional attainment of male and female academic staff. Also, the information on academic staff strength of the university was obtained from the

Budgeting and Planning Unit of the school (O.A.U., 2014). The instrument was validated through the assistance of the experts' judgment. The reliability of the instrument was determined using test re-test which yielded a reliability coefficient of r = 0.82 at 0.05 level of significance. This confirmed the appropriateness of the instrument.

RESULTS

Research Question One: What is the pattern of distribution of male and female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria?

Table 1: Pattern of Distribution of Male and Female Academic Staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

STAFF STRENGTH									
Academic Session									
	2010/2011			2011/2012			2012/2013		
Faculties	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**
Administration	45 (83%)	9 (17%)	54	45 (83%)	9 (17%)	54	63 (82%)	14 (18%)	77
Agriculture	53 (74%)	19 (26%)	72	53 (74%)	19 (26%)	72	76 (80%)	19 (20%)	95
Arts	100 (83%)	21 (17%)	121	139 (86%)	23 (14%)	162	139(86	23 (14%)	162
Basic Medical Science	43 (84%)	8 (16%)	51	56 (86%)	9 (14%)	65	56 (86%)	9 (14%)	65
Education	54 (70%)	23 (30%)	77	52 (63%	30 (37%)	82	52 (63%	30 (37%)	82
Environmental Design and Management	72 (92%)	6 (8%)	78	86 (92%)	7 (8%)	93	86 (92%)	7 (8%)	93
Law	30 (86%)	5 (14%)	35	32 (89%)	4 (11%)	36	32 (89%)	4 (11%)	36
Pharmacy	36 (72%)	14 (28%)	50	41 (72%)	16 (28%)	57	41 (72%)	16 (28%)	57
Social Sciences	82 (86%)	13 (14%)	95	103 (89%)	13 (11%)	116	103 (89%)	13 (11%)	116
Technology	115 (88%)	16 (12%)	131	114 (92%	10 (8%)	124	114 (92%	10 (8%)	124
Total	**630 (82%)**	**134 (18%)**		**721 (84%)**	**140 (16%)**		**762 (84%)**	**145 (16%)**	

Table 1 above showed the pattern of distribution of male and female academics in the ten faculties selected. It was shown that male academic staff were more represented in all the selected faculties and in all the years selected than the female academic staff. For instance, during 2010/2011, 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic sessions the percentages of male academic staff in the Faculty of Administration were 45(83%), 45(83%) and 63(82%) while that of female academics were 9(17%), 9(17%) and 14(18%). Also, in the Faculty of Agriculture, percentages of male to female academics in the number sessions considered were 53(74%), 53(74%), 76(80%) and 19(26%), 19(26%) and 19(20%). The overall results showed that the percentage of male academics in 2010/2011, 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 academic

sessions were 630(82%), 721(84%) and 762(84%) while the overall percentages for female academics for the periods were 134(18%), 140(16%) and 145(16%). From the above, it can be inferred that male academics greatly outnumbered the female academics.

Research Question Two: What is the numbers of male and female academic staff at the senior ranks and in the management positions?

Table 2a: Numbers of Male and Female Academic Staff of O. A. U at the Senior Ranks

Career Progression								
Academic Session								
	2010/2011			2011/2012			2012/2013		
	Professor, Reader and Senior Lecturer			Professor, Reader and Senior Lecturer			Professor, Reader and Senior Lecturer		
Faculties	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**	**M**	**F**	**Total**
Administration	29 (94%)	2 (6%)	31	29 (93%)	2 (17%)	31	37 (92%)	3 (18%)	40
Agriculture	27 (77%)	8 (13%)	35	27 (84%)	5 (16%)	32	45 (88%)	6 (12%)	51
Arts	48 (86%)	8 (14%)	56	67 (87%)	10 (13%)	77	67 (87%)	10 (13%)	77
Basic Medical Science	21 (84%)	4 (16%)	25	27 (87%)	4 (13%)	31	27 (87%)	4 (13%)	31
Education	30 (81%)	7 (19%)	37	32 (80%)	8 (20%)	40	32 (80%)	8 (20%)	40
Environmental Design and Management	23 (92%)	2 (18%)	25	30 (94%)	2 (6%)	32	30 (94%)	2 (6%)	32
Law	9 (82%)	2 (18%)	11	15 (88%)	2 (12%)	17	15 (88%)	2 (12%)	17
Pharmacy	20 (87%)	3 (13%)	23	25 (78%)	7 (22%)	32	25 (78%)	7 (22%)	32
Social Sciences	31 (78%)	9 (22%)	40	55 (90%)	6 (10%)	61	55 (90%)	6 (10%)	61
Technology	45 (92%)	4 (18%)	49	59 (89%)	7 (11%)	62	59 (89%)	7 (11%)	62
Total	**283 (85%)**	**49 (15%)**	**332**	**366 (87%)**	**53 (13%)**	**419**	**392 (88%)**	**55 (12%)**	**447**

From Table 2a above, the results showed male were more represented in senior cadre than their female counterpart. For instance, in 2010/2011 academic session, 283(85%) of male were from Senior Lecturer and above, while only 49(15%) of the female were in the same position. Also, in 2011/2012 academic session, 366(87%) of academic staff in senior cadre were male while 53(13%) were female. Finally, in 2012/2013 academic session, 392(88%) out of the 100% of those in senior cadre were male while the remaining 55(12%) were female. Judging from the above results, it can be concluded that more male academics were more in the senior cadre than female academics.

Table 2b: Numbers of Male and Female Academic Staff in the Management Positions

	Academic Session											
	2010/2011				2011/2012				2012/2013			
	HEADSHIP POSITION											
	Dean		HOD		Dean		HOD		Dean		HOD	
Faculties	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Administration	1	0	4	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	4	0
Agriculture	1	0	5	1	0	1	5	1	1	0	4	2
Arts	1	0	8	1	1		7	2	1	0	7	2
Basic Medical Science	0	1	5	3	1	0	4	4	0	1	3	5
Education	1	0	6	1	1	0	5	2	1	0	5	2
Environmental Design and Management	1	0	6	1	1	0	5	2	1	0	4	3
Law	1	0	4	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	4	0
Pharmacy		1	4	2	1	0	3	3	0	1	3	3
Social Sciences	0	1	7	1	0	1	7	1	1		0	7	1
Technology	0	1	8	1	1	0	8	1	0	1	7	2
Total	6 (60%)	4 (40%)	57 (84%)	11 (16%)	8 (80%)	2 (20%)	52 (76%)	16 (24%)	7 (70%)	3 (30%)	48 (71%)	20 (29%)

Table 2b revealed the distribution of management positions between male and female academics during the three academic sessions considered. The results showed that in 2010/2011 academic session, 60% of the Faculty's Deans were male, while the remaining 40% were female. In 2011/2012, 80% of the Faculty's Deans were male and 20% were female. Also, in 2012/2013 academic session, 70% of the Faculty's Deans were male and the remaining 30% were female. For the position of Head of Departments, in 2010/2011 academic session, the percentage of male occupied the position was 84%, while the female was 16%. Furthermore, in 2011/2012, male had 76% and female had 24%. Lastly, in 2012/2013, 71% out of 100% were male while the remaining 29% were female. Arising from the above, it can be summarized that female were sparsely represented in the administrative positions.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference in the perception of the undergraduates towards teaching competency of male and female academic staff in Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife.

Table 3: t-test Analysis on the Perception of the Undergraduates towards the Teaching Competency of Male and Female Academic Staff

Teaching Competency	**Academic Staff**	**N**	**Mean**	**S.D**	**df**	**t-test**	**p**
	Male	987	23.39	11.74			
	Female	987	29.13	5.46	985	0.083	> 0.05

Not Significant at $p > 0.05$

Table 4 showed the perception of undergraduates towards the academic competency of male and female academics. From the results, the mean and standard deviation values of male academics yielded 23.39 and 11.74 while female had mean and standard deviation values of 29.13 and 5.46 respectively. The t-test result indicated that t = 0.083; df = 985, p > 0.05. The result implied that there was no significant difference in the perception of undergraduates towards the academic competency of male and female academics. This accepted the null hypothesis.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference in the perception of the undergraduates towards the professional attainment of male and female academic staff.

Table 4: t-test Analysis on the Perception of Undergraduates towards the Professional Attainment of Male and Female Academic Staff

Professional Attainment	Academic Staff	N	Mean	S.D	df	t-test	p
	Male	987	28.7	4.9			
	Female	987	29.3	5.6	985	0.667	< 0.05

Significant at p < 0.05

Table 4 showed the perception of undergraduates towards the professional attainment of male and female academics. The results showed that male academics had mean and standard deviation values of 28.7 and 4.9. The mean and standard deviation values of female yielded 29.3 and 5.6. Also, the t-test value yielded 0.667 at p < 0.05. The result implied that there was a significant difference in professional attainment of male and female academics. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

DISCUSSION

The study has examined the pattern of gender composition and job performance of academic staff. Even though, Onokala and Onah (1998) revealed that there has been an appreciable in the number of female academic staff. This however negated the findings of this study. For instance, the findings showed that there were more male lecturers than female lecturers in all the ten faculties selected for the study. This findings has buttressed the previous studies e.g. FME (2006), Duyilemi (2007) and Adegun (2012) views that the female lecturers are under – represented in the academic profession. This is an indication that male are preferred in academic profession than female even when the two sexes have the same qualification. It is also supported the observation that the lecturing job is a masculine profession (Egunjobi, 2009). From the above, it can be inferred fact that employers of labour considered female lecturers as less competent like their male counterpart. Probably because it is assumed that they are preoccupied with domestic chores; and this might inhibit them from pursuing full-time academic work.

Again, the findings revealed that senior ranks and management positions in the Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife were dominated by male. Asmar (1999) and Adegun (2012) explained that there is dearth of female lecturers at senior ranks in most of universities. There has been evidence e.g. Mason and Goulden (2002) that women especially the nursing parents are less productive in academic profession because of the need to take of their family. At the same time, their inability to be proactive in other academic endeavours (research and community service) as limited their progression in management positions (Deans and Head of

Departments). A key factor in this is that most female academic staff still have poor self-concept about their ability to compete favourably with the male in the field.

Furthermore, the findings on the hypothesis one revealed that there was no significant difference in the perception of undergraduates towards the teaching competency of male and female academic staff. The findings has upheld the previous findings of Damian (2005), who considered sex of the lecturers as not relevant to their academic performance. In this case, the notion that female lecturers are less knowledgeable has been disapproved. Conversely, the result contradicted the findings of the trio of Poole, Bornholt and Summers (1997) that academic difference is associated with lecturer's gender. The above scholars might be conceived with the impression that women do not possess the requisites skills and knowledge to take up the job. But the findings from Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife might suggest that female lecturers see themselves as having possessed self-efficacy to operate under the same level with their male counterpart.

Lastly, the findings has indicated that there was significant difference in the perception of undergraduates toward the professional attainment of male and female academics. A common saying "publish or perish" in the university circle has revealed the incompetency of the female academic staff to be measured up to the male counterpart. For instance, Asmar (1999) and Mason and Goulden (2002) corroborated the findings by revealing that female academics have less time to attend to other academic duties. The earlier position that females are competent in teaching has clearly showed that they find it more convenient to teach than to share their time on other professional duties such as research and community service. Thus, it can be concluded that female lecturers, especially the nursing mothers greatly find it difficult to combine the task of teaching with other academic matters.

CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATIONS

The inference from the study is that because of the nature of academic job, more males take and enjoy lecturing job than females. Because of this, more males are in the senior ranks and management positions than their female counterpart.

It is therefore recommended that the female academics should consider themselves as being capable of achieving greater height like their male counterparts. They should consider other aspects of academic duties as very necessary for their professional growth.

Lastly, the university authority should believe that what is good for goose is also good for gander; therefore they should stop gender discrimination in the recruitment of male and female academics. Instead, a kind of academic waiver can be given to female academics in order to assist them because of the dual gender roles they performed.

References

Abiola, O. (2003). Women in higher education in Nigeria, MCGILL Journal of Education, 38 (3).

Adegun, O.A (2012), "Gender factor and labour participation among academic Staff in tertiary institutions in Ekiti State, Nigeria", European Journal of Educational Studies 4(2), 242.

Adeniyi, W. O. (2012). Personality traits, emotional intelligence as determinants of administrative effectiveness of secondary school principals in Southwestern, Nigeria. Unpublished Ph. D. dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Education, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Adler, L. (1991). Women in cross cultural perspective. New York: Praeger.

Agars, M. D. (2004). Reconsidering the impact of gender stereotypes on the advancement of women in organizations. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 28, 103-111.

Arvey, R. D. (1979). Unfair discrimination in the employment interview: Legal and psychological aspects. Psychological Bulletin, 86, 736–765.

Asmar, C. (1999). Is there a gendered agenda in academia? The research experience of female and male PhD graduates in Australian Universities. Higher Education, 38(3), 255–273.

Bush, T. (2006) Theories of Educational Leadership and Management 3rd Edition, London; Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd.

Cascio, W. F., & Aguinis, H. (2005). Applied psychology in human resource management (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Duyilemi, A. N. (2007) Girl-Child education and empowerment, keynode address presented at workshop for senior secondary school female students teachers and education officers in Ondo South West Senatorial Districts Okitipupa.

Egunjobi, O.A (2009), "Women in academics: The untold story of gender inequality and discrimination against women in the Ivory Tower". Lead Paper Presented at the Seminar Organized by National Association of Women in Academics (NAWACS), University of Ado-Ekiti Chapter, Ado-Ekiti.

Federal Ministry of Education (2006). Education sector situation Analysis, Abuja: FME.

Henson, K. T. and Eller, B. F. (1999). Educational psychology for effective teacher. Wadsworth Publishing Company, U.S.A.

Kawakami, C., White, J. B., & Langer, E. J. (2000). Mindful and masculine: Freeing women leaders from the constraints of gender roles. Journal of Social Issues, 56, 49-63.

Knights, D. and Richards, W. (2003). Sex discrimination in U.K Academia, gender work and organisation, 10(2): 213-238.

Mason, M and Goulden, M.(2002).Do babies matter? Academe.Vol.88 (6):21-27.

Mordi, C., Simpson, R, Singh, S & Okafor, C (2010); "Motivation to be a female entrepreneur in Sub-Saharan Africa", Gender in Management, an International Journal, 25 5-25.

Morley, L. (1999). Organizing feminism: The Micro politics of the Academy. New York: St. Martins.

Nasir, J. (2001). Human rights of women, in H.Sani (ed.) Women in National Development, Ibadan: Spectrum Books, 52-60.

Okebukola, P. A. O. (2002). The state of universities in Nigeria, Ibadan: Heinemann, Publishers.

Oloruntoba A, Ajayi, M.T (2006). Gender and research attainment in Nigerian Agricultural Universities. JHEA/RESA: Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa, 4(2): 83-98.

Onokala PC, Onah FO (1998). Women in academic positions in the universities in Nigeria. Paper submitted to the Association of African Universities (AAU).

Onokala, P.C & Onah, F.O (1998); "The gender pattern of students enrolment into the university as a constraint to the development of university education in Nigeria". In issues in higher education: Research evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa, Lagos; Bolabay Publishers.

Pereira, C. (2002). What methodologies for analyzing gender in the University system?Congress paper presented at the 8th International Interdisciplinary Congress on Women. Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.

Poole, M., Bornholt, L., & Summers, F. (1997). An international study of the gendered nature of academic work: Some cross cultural explorations. Higher Education, 34(3), 373–396.

Robbins S.P (2001). Organizational behaviour (9th ed.). New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

Strakey, K. and Tempest, S. (2005). The future of the business school-knowledge challenges and opportunities, Human Relations, 58(1), 61-82.

Williams, J. (2004). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment, a Sloan Work and Family. Encyclopedia entry. Retrieved May 10, 2007, from the Sloan Work and Family Research Network website: http://wfnetwork.bc.edu/encyclopedia_entry.php?id=244&area=academics.

Yonlonfun, V. E. (2003). A comparative analysis of the performance of male/female personnel in management position in Nigeria Universities,Unpublished PhD Thesis, University of Ibadan.

Yusuf, MO (2005). Integrating information and communication technologies (ICTS) in Nigeria tertiary education. The African symposium: An Online J. Afr. Educ. Res. Network, 5(2): 43 – 50.

Students' Gender and Their Satisfaction with Service Delivery in Federal Universities in South-South Nigeria

Dr. Roseline M. Akpoiroro
Dept. of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria.

Dr. James E. Okon
Dept. of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria.

Abstract

An investigation into the gender determination of students' satisfaction with service delivery in federal Universities in south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria was the subject of this study. To execute the study, the hypothesis was formulated and literature reviewed. Using the stratified random sampling technique 1,700 students out of a population of 70,808 formed the study's sample. They were Years One, Two, Three, and Four regular undergraduate students of the 2008/2009 to 2011/2012 academic years in federal universities in south-south Nigeria. Data collected for this study was obtained through a face-validated, 35-item Students' Satisfaction with Service Delivery Questionnaire (SSSDQ) with test-retest reliability estimate of .71 to .83. The instrument was administered to the 1,700 respondents, but only 1,450 copies were properly filled and used to assess students' satisfaction with service delivery in their universities based on their gender. Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics and independent t-test analysis. The major findings of the study pointed to the significant difference between male and female students in their satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services. Based on the findings, the conclusion was drawn. It was recommended that gender sensitivity to service delivery to university students should be observed.

Key words: Sex, male, female, service delivery, students' satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION

The primary goal of a university is to provide tertiary level education to students irrespective of gender. The place of education in the political and socio-economic development of any nation cannot be over emphasized. Theoretical and empirical evidence based on the study by Hannum and Buchman (2005) has acknowledged that it is only when men and women of any country are well educated and appropriately trained will the attainment of rapid natioal economic and social development be ensured. This could apply to federal university students in the south south geopolitical zone of Nigeria.

It is, however, to be noted that the issue of the men and women of a given country undergoing university education for the purpose of self-act-actualization is hinged on the availability and quality of the various services that are "inputted" into shaping, training, and modeling the type of students who could become the graduates "outputted" to the society. These services are highlighted in this study to include educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and information and communication technology (ICT) services.

Given that "...high standards in the quality of ...services" should characterize the Nigerian university system, as articulated by the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013:27), this paper intends to investigate gender of students and their satisfaction with service delivery in federal universities in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria. In order words, the study is on the difference that exists between male and female university studentship.

Numerous studies have been conducted to examine the influence of gender or students' satisfaction. Researchers like Umbach and Porter (2002); Perry, Sekelsy and Skarsten (2003), Sax and Harvey (2003), and LPC (2009) found that gender has significant influence on students' satisfaction levels. Others like Dirkin, Mishra and Altermatt (2005), Mupinga, Nora and Yaw (2006), Witowski (2008), Ilias, Abu Hasan, Rahman and Yosoa (2008), and Strayhorn and Saddler (2009) found no significant difference between male and female students regarding satisfaction.

Askar, Atun and IIgaz (2008) in their study on blended learning, reported that no significant differences were found between females and males with respect to their satisfaction. However, female scores were statistically higher than the males for face to face environment. Similar findings were reported by Adas and Abushmais (2011) with no significant differences in terms of gender even though the highest means were in favour of the females. On the other hand, AbouNnaji, Nachouhi and Ankit (2012), in their study on blended learning in a gender-segregated environment focusing on undergraduate students, found that there was a significant difference between male and females students in their satisfaction. Male students were more satisfied with blended learning than female students.

Tessema, Ready and Malone (2012) carried out a study on the effect of gender on college students' satisfaction and achievement. Their goal was to empirically text the effect of gender on some college outcomes, namely students' Academic Competencies test (ACT) scores, satisfaction with major curriculum and GPA. Their findings showed that gender has a statistically significant effect on the above three variables. Male students were found to have slightly higher ACT scores than female students; female students were found to rate their satisfaction with major curriculum higher than male students; and female students tended to have high GPAs than male students.

AIshurideh (2012) conducted a study to identify the most important factors that predicted students' level of satisfaction with the hostels they were living in. he found out that out of eight factors that were studied, boys were satisfied in five factors such as mess, cleanliness and hygiene, infrastructure, sports facility and supporting services, while girls were more satisfied in interaction seniors and wardens, electricity and miscellaneous services. From the overall satisfaction results, it was observed that boys were more satisfied than girls. Therefore, it was concluded that there is significant differences of satisfaction of all factors between males students and female students residing in the hostel.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The attribution theory by Fritz Heider (1958) appears germane to this study. The theory has it that behavior can be accounted for by two classes of factors – personal or demographic and environmental or external forces. The attribution theory by Heider (1958) is based on the proposition that a consumer who attributes the cause of a good purchase to internal factors (for example his/her gender) will exhibit higher satisfaction than a consumer who attributes a good purchase to external causes (for example a sales persons recommendation). As maybe applied to this study, a students who attributes his/her satisfaction with services delivery by a

given university to his/her gender expresses a higher level of satisfaction than a student who attributes his/her satisfaction to external causes.

THE PROBLEM

Quality service delivery in Nigeria's south south federal universities has generated concern from the government, employers of labour, and the general public particularly in the face of decline in the quality of graduates of public tertiary educational institutions in Nigeria. Allegations of poor quality of graduates churned out of from south south federal universities (as part of the Nigerian University System), has been rife. Pointers are to poor infrastructural facilities for teaching and learning, proliferation of programmes in universities, and inadequate manpower has perennially affected the reputation of Nigerian universities over the years (Saint, Harnett, Strassner, 2004).

Another interesting details which buttresses male and female students' dissatisfaction with service delivery in federal universities in the south south geopolitical zone of Nigeria was the riots witness in 2011 in the University of Calabar; in 2012 in University of Port Harcourt; and in 2013 in University of Uyo all of which are in south south, Nigeria. The three riots, respectively had to do with increase in school charges to take care of services; insecurity on campus; and, dissatisfaction with linked inter-campus transportation charges by the university.

Poor service delivery, in the long run, could lead to anomalies including poor academic performance, examination malpractice, "sorting" for marks, and the production of half-booked graduates who cannot cope with contemporary world of work. An examination of the foregoing tends to attract the question, "could there be a difference between male and female students in their satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services, in federal universities in south-south Nigeria?"

Research question

How does gender influence students' satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services in south-south Nigeria universities?

Hypothesis

H0: There is no significant difference between male and female students' in their satisfaction with the delivery of educational services, library services; medical services; transport services; security services; hostel services; in information and communication technology service (ICT) services.

METHODOLOGY

The Ex-post factors design was used for the study. The population of the study consisted originally of 70,808 regular undergraduate students in 238 departments in 46 faculties in the 2008/2009 to 2011/2012 academic years in the six federal universities in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria. But this was further limited to 12 faculties in the Universities of Calabar, Port Harcourt, and Uyo after using the random sampling technique. The sample of the study was 1,700 students. Owing to attrition, 1,450 questionnaire copies were returned filled. A four point likert-type scale (questionnaire) was used for date collection for the study. It was known as Students Satisfaction with Service Delivery Questionnaire (SSSDQ). It had parts 1 and 2. While part 1 concentrated on respondents' demographics which took care of the independent variables, part 2 elicited responses on the dependent variables. The positively worded items were scored on a scale of Strongly Agreed = 20 points; Agreed = 15 points;

Disagree = 10 points; Strongly Disagree = 5 points. This was reversed for negatively worded items. The 35-item instrument was face-validated by two experts in measurement and evaluation in the University of Calabar.

The reliability of the instrument was ascertained through the conduct of a trial test on 50 students sampled from the University of Calabar. The 50 students were from a faculty exempted from the main study. The instrument was administered twice to this sample at two weeks interval. Data from the responses were obtained and used in preparing an item-person matrix with which text-retest reliability estimate was done. Test-retest reliability estimates ranging from .71 to .83 were obtained for the subsets of the questionnaire. This made the instrument to be good enough for the study.

RESULTS

Research Question
How does gender influence students' satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services in south-south Nigerian universities?

The analysis of the research question is detailed in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of descriptive statistics showing the delivery of student-related services in the study (n=1450)

S/N	Variables	N	$\bar{x}$	SD
1	Educational services	1450	12.84	2.72
2	Library services	1450	11.83	2.38
3	Medical services	1450	12.05	2.75
4	Transport services	1450	12.46	2.54
5	Security services	1450	11.77	2.92
6	Hostel services	1450	12.94	2.58
7	ICT services	1450	12.87	2.75

Source: Statistical package for Social Sciences

The descriptive statistic was used as a basis for computing the independent t-test of the influence of gender on students' satisfaction with service delivery.

Hypothesis
H0: There is no significant difference between male and female students in the satisfaction with the delivery of educational services, library services, medical services, transport services, security services, hostel services, and ICT services

The hypothesis was analyzed in Table 2.

S/N	Variables	Gender	N	$\overline{X}$	SD	T
	Table 2: Independent t-test of the influence of gender on students' satisfaction with service delivery					
1	Educational Service	Male	674	13.49	2.85	8.596*
		Female	776	12.28	2.47	
2	Library Services	Male	674	12.47	2.42	9.894*
		Female	776	11.27	2.19	
3	Hostel Services	Male	674	12.23	2.96	2.405*
		Female	776	11.88	2.52	
4	Transport Services	Male	674	12.17	2.48	2.628*
		Female	776	12.62	2.74	
5	ICT Services	Male	674	12.50	2.17	4.826*
		Female	776	11.43	3.22	
6	Security Services	Male	674	12.50	2.17	6.292*
		Female	776	13.34	2.84	
7	Medical Services	Male	674	12.46	2.32	5.337*
		Female	776	13.23	3.05S	

Source: Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

Results of the analysis in Table 2 show that the calculated t-value for all the sub-variables of students' satisfaction with service delivery were each higher than the initial t-value of 1.96 at .05 level of significance with 1448 degrees of freedom. This means that there is a significant difference between male and female students in their satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services. The group means show that it was male students who were more satisfied with service delivery than the female counterparts with regards to educational library, hostel, and ICT services while the female students were more satisfied with transport, security, and medical services than their male colleague. Based on these results, the null hypothesis was rejected.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study that there is a significant difference between male and female students in their satisfaction with the delivery of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel and ICT services is in agreement with the study of Tessema, Ready and Malone (2012) who found that gender had a significant effect on ACT scores, major curriculum and GPA. Again, it corroborates Alshurideh (2012) study which noted that out of eight hostel-related factors studied, male students were more satisfied with five while female students were more satisfied with three.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, it could be concluded that in universities in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria, there is a significant difference in students' satisfaction with educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT services based on the gender of the students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusion of this study it is recommended as follows:

1. Federal Universities in south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria should take cognizance of gender differences in the provision of services by taking the feelings of students (based on gender) into account

2. University authorities should, from time to time review its service delivery modes, modalities and functionality by enquiring from male and female students what would best serve their satisfaction in terms of service delivery in line with global best practices adjusted to suit local conditions of south-south federal universities.

References

Abou Naaji, M., Nachouki, M., & Ankit, A. (2012) Evaluating students satisfaction with blended learning in a gender segregated environment. Journal of Information Technology Education: Research Vol. 11(4), 186-200.

Adas, D. & Abu Shmais, W. (2011). Students' perception towards blended learning environment using the Occ. An-Najah University Journal for Research-Humanities, 25(6), 1681-1710.

Alshurideh, M. (2012). The factors predicting students' satisfaction with universities health care clinics' services: A case study from the Jordanian Higher Education sector. Research Journal of International studies, Issue 23, 173-188.

Askar, P. Altun, A. & LLgaz, H. (2008). Learner satisfaction on blended learning (E-leader conference), Krakow, Poland.

Hannum, E. & Buchmann, C. (2005). Global Educational Expansion and Socio-economics development: An assessment of findings from the social services. World Development, 33(3): 333-354.

Harvey, L. (2003). Student feedback. April 2003. Quality in Higher Education. 9 (1), 3-20.

Ilias, A. L., Abuttasan, H. F., Rahman, R. D., & Yosoa, M. R. (2008). Student satisfaction and service quality: Any differences in demographic factors? International Business Research, 1 (4), 131-143.

LPC. (Las Positas College) (2009). Research Brief Office of Research and Planning. Retrieved on December 28, 2011 from http://www.laspositascollege.edu/

Mupinga, D. M., Nora, R. T., & Yaw, D. C. (2006). The learning styles, expectations and needs of online students. College Teaching, 54(1), 185-189.

Perry, M. J., Sekelsy, M. J., & Skarsten, F. (2003). University of Michigan-Flint Student satisfaction surveys Results. Retrieved October 29, 2011 from http:www.vca.umflint.edu/

Umbach, P. D. & Porter, S. R. (2002). How do academic departments impact students' satisfaction understanding the contextual effects? Education, 43(2), 209-234.

Witowski, L. (2008). The relationship between instructional delivery methods and students learning preferences; What contributes to students' satisfaction in an online learning environment? Ph.D Dissertation. Retrieved on August 11,2011 from http:/gradworks.umi.com3310726.pdf.

Socio-Economic Status and Satisfaction with Service Delivery among Students in Federal Universities in South-South Nigeria

Dr. James E. Okon
Dept. of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria.

Dr. Roseline M. Akpoiroro
Dept. of Educational Administration and Planning
University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria.

Abstract

The study was designed to investigate the level of students' satisfaction with service delivery in federal Universities in South-South geopolitical zone of Nigeria on the basis of their socio-economic status. To carry out the study, the hypotheses was formulated and literature reviewed. Using the stratified random sampling technique 1,700 students out of a population of 70,808 formed the study's sample. They were Years One, Two, Three, and Four regular undergraduate students of the 2008/2009 to 2011/2012 academic years in federal universities in south-south Nigeria. Data collected for this study was obtained through a face-validated Students' Satisfaction with Service Delivery Questionnaire (SSSDQ) with a test-retest reliability estimate of 71 to 83. The instrument was administered to the 1,700 respondents, but only 1,450 copies were properly filled and used to assess the students' satisfaction with service delivery in their universities based on their socio-economic status. Data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics and a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The major findings was that student's socio-economic status significantly influenced their satisfaction with educational, library , medical, security, transport, hotel, and ICT services. Based on the findings, it was recommended that the quality of services rendered to students should constantly be monitored and upgraded to meet up with their satisfaction across socio-economic statuses.

Key words: Socio-economic status, services, students' satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

No matter the socio-economic status of students who populate a given university, they have been categorized as the primary beneficiaries of university-mediated service delivery and so should be treated as customers. Within the higher education sector, university students' satisfaction is an important component of attracting and retaining high achievers who in turn increase the reputation and standing of the university.

Universities in Nigeria are expected to maintain "…high standards in the quality of facilities, services and resources…" (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013:27). The implication of this is that universities that intend to produce competent students who would be able to do the jobs diligently upon graduation, must deliver quality services without much ado about the students' socio-economic status. When quality services are delivered, it would lead to satisfaction among students.

There are several services which federal universities, such as those in south-south Nigeria, could render to their students. These could be educational, library, medical security, transport, hostel and information and communication technology (ICT) services. In this study, the researchers were out to investigate whether or not students' satisfaction with university service delivery was dependent on students' high, average or low socio-economic status.

The socio-economic status of a learner is most commonly determined by combining parents' educational level, occupational status, and income level (Jeynes, 2002). The level of satisfaction for every student is very subjective due to their culture, background and status. Some students might be satisfied after using the facilities provided by the university because of their family background/socio-economic status. Students from the low and middle classes might be satisfied with the basic facilities provided by the universities while a student from the high class or a rich family might have higher expectations on facilities provided (Alshurideh, 2012).

Socio-economic status is also important in determining students' residential satisfaction. As stated by Parkers, Kearns and Atkinson (2002); Frank, and Enkawa (2009), individuals with higher income can afford to live in the affluent residential areas. For students, socio-economic status can be judged through their family backgrounds or other financial supports such as scholarship, study loan or part-time work. Amole (2007), and Thomsen and Eikemo (2010) posited that students with higher socio-economic status could afford to rent rooms with better qualities provided in the students housing as they desire. According to Curtis and Klapper (2005), students who come from wealthy families usually chose to stay in rented houses or flats rather than in the university's student housing. This scenario shows that students with high socio-economic status are not usually satisfied with university hostels. Connor, Pearson, Pollard, Tyers and Willison (2001) in their study on making choice of university, found that students' from higher socio-economic groups with greater levels of family income were generally more satisfied with their choice of institution.

THE PROBLEM

Behind some troubles, riots and violent eruptions in the academic environment, students' dissatisfaction with service delivery reflective of their socio-economic status may be responsible. The fact that students of federal universities in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria actually rioted against service delivery in 2011, 2012 and 2013 portrays the fact of their discontent with university-provided services. Cases in point were the riot in the University of Calabar in 2011 against increased school charges, the disruption of academic activities in the University of Port Harcourt in 2012 against insecurity in the university environment, and the unruly behavior recorded by students of the University of Uyo in 2013 against hiked and inappropriate inter-campus transport arrangement for them. In all three cases, the universities closed for weeks if only to avert more disaster. The students who rioted cut across all socio-economic backgrounds.   This had undesirable consequences for the universities in question.

Poor service delivery to students has been observed to beset the academic atmosphere of federal, public universities in Nigeria over time such as those mentioned above. Educational, library, medical, security, transport, hostel, and ICT services to students, whether concentrated in the universities or outsourced, have been hardly satisfying to them. The dimension of students' socio-economic status and their satisfaction with service delivery has been noted in literature and from the researchers' personal experience and thought to be a potential problem if not addressed. The problem therefore seems to be located around the question, "Are students' satisfaction with universities service delivery contingent upon their socio-economic status?"

Research Question

How does students' socio-economic status influence their satisfaction with the delivery of different services?

Hypothesis

Ho: Students' satisfaction with the delivery of educational services, library services, medical services, transport services, security services, hostel services, and ICT services does not significantly depend on their socio-economic status (high, average, low).

METHODOLOGY

The Ex-post facto design was used for the study. The population of the study consisted originally of 70,808 regular undergraduate students in 238 departments in 46 faculties in the 2008/2009 to 2011/2012 academic years in the six federal universities in the south-south geopolitical zone of Nigeria. But this was further limited to 12 faculties in the Universities of Calabar, Port Harcourt, and Uyo after using the random sampling technique. The sample of the study was 1,700 students. Owing to attrition, 1,450 questionnaire copies were returned filled. A four-point likert-type scale (questionnaire) was used for data collection for the study. It was known as Students Satisfaction with Service Delivery Questionnaire (SSSDQ). It had Parts 1 and 2. While Part 1 concentrated on respondents' demographics which took care of the independent variables and its sub- variables. Part 2 elicited responses on the dependent variables. The positively-worded items were scored on a scale of Strongly Agree = 20 points; Agree = 15 points; Disagree = 10 points; Strongly Disagree = 5 points. This was reversed for negatively-worded items. The 35-item instrument was face-validated by two experts in Measurement and Evaluation in the University of Calabar.

The reliability of the instrument was ascertained through the conduct of a trial test on 50 students sampled from the University of Calabar. The 50 students were from a faculty exempted from the main study. The instrument was administered twice to this sample at two weeks interval. Data from the responses were obtained and used in preparing an item-person matrix with which test-retest reliability estimate was done. Test-retest reliability estimates ranging from .71 to .83 were obtained for the subsets of the questionnaire.

RESULTS

Research Question

How does students' socio-economic status influence their satisfaction with the delivery of different services?

The analysis of the research question is captured in Table1.

Table 1: Summary of descriptive statistics showing the delivery of student- related services in the study (n=1450)

S/N	Variables	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
1	Educational services	1450	12.84	2.72
2	Library services	1450	11.83	2.38
3	Medical services	1450	12.05	2.75
4	Transport services	1450	12.46	2.54

5	Security services	1450	11.77	2.92	
6	Hostel services	1450	12.94	2.58	
7	ICT services	1450	12.87	2.75	

Source: Statistical package for social sciences

The descriptive statistics were used as a basis for computing the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with service delivery.

Hypothesis
Ho: Students' satisfaction with the delivery of educational services, library services, medical services, transport services, security services, hostel services, and ICT services does not significantly depend on their socio-economic status (high, average, low).

The independent variable in this hypothesis is students' socio-economic status classified into three (High, Average, and Low) while the dependent variable is students' satisfaction with service delivery classified into seven services. A One-way analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical test was employed in testing the hypothesis. Results of the analysis were presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with service delivery

S/N	Variables	Socio-economic status	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
1	Educational services	High	309	12.94	3.27
		Average	940	12.89	2.61
		Low	201	12.49	2.21
		Total	1450	12.84	2.27
2	Library services	High	309	12.52	2.02
		Average	940	11.65	2.48
		Low	201	11.58	2.19
		Total	1450	11.83	2.38
3	Hostel services	High	309	11.90	3.20
		Average	940	11.87	2.58
		Low	201	13.12	2.50
		Total	1450	12.05	2.75
4	Transport services	High	309	12.06	1.87
		Average	940	12.67	2.66
		Low	201	12.03	2.69
		Total	1450	12.46	2.54
5	ICT services	High	309	12.22	2.76
		Average	940	12.27	2.86
		Low	201	11.81	2.60
		Total	1450	11.77	2.92
6	Security services	High	309	13.77	2.10
		Average	940	12.64	2.54

	Low	201	13.08	3.10
	Total	1450	12.94	2.58
	High	309	13.42	2.89
7 Medical services	Average	940	12.59	2.45
	Low	201	13.30	3.58
	Total	1450	12.87	2.75

Source: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

Table 3: One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) of the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with service delivery

S/N	Variables	Source of variation	SS	Df	$\overline{\text{MS}}$	F
1	Educational services	Between Within Total	28.981 10664.536 10693.517	2 1447 1449	14.491 7.370	1.966
2	Library services	Between Within Total	187.909 7998.988 8186.897	2 1447 1449	93.954 5.528	16.996*
3	Hostel services	Between Within Total	270.402 10656.219 10926.621	2 1447 1449	135.201 7.364	18.395*
4	Transport services	Between Within Total	128.673 9190.586 9319.586	2 1447 1449	64.336 6.352	10.129*
5	ICT services	Between Within Total	978.684 11376.212 12354.897	2 1447 1449	489.342 7.862	62.242*
6	Security services	Between Within Total	299.726 9335.860 9635.586	2 1447 1449	149.863 6.452	23.228*
7	Medical services	Between Within Total	204.391 10780.712 10985.103	2 1447 1449	102.196 7.450	13.717*

*Significant at .05, critical F =3.00

Source: Statistical Package for social Sciences

Results of analysis in Table 2 meant that it was students from high socio-economic status that were more satisfied with library services (x = 12.52), security services (x 13.77), and medical services (x = 13.42) than their counterparts from average and low socio-economic status. This implies that, the higher the socio-economic status of the students the more satisfied they were with library, security and medical services. The results also showed that students from low socio-economic status were more satisfied with hostel services than their counterparts from high and average socio-economic status. This revealed the lower the socio-economic status of students the more satisfied they were with hostel services in their schools.

Results of analysis in Table 3 show that the calculated F-ratios for the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with library (16.996), hostel (18.359), transport (10.129), ICT (62.242), security (23.228), and medical (13.717) services were each greater than the critical F-ratio of 3.00 at .05 level of significance with 2 and 1447 degrees of freedom. This means that students' socio-economic status significantly influenced their satisfaction with the provision of those services enumerated above. Based on these results, the null hypothesis was rejected. The results however showed that there was no significant influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with educational services (1.966).

Since the results were significant for some of the variables compared with levels of socio-economic status, a post-hoc comparison among group means was carried out using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) method to determine the pair-wise group means difference(s) responsible for the influence. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Fisher's LSD of the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with service delivery

S/N	Variables	Socio-economic status	High (n=309)	Average (n=940)	Low (n=201)
1	Library services	High	12.52[a]	0.87[b]	0.94
		Average	5.65[c]	11.65	0.71
		Low	4.48	0.38	11.58
2	Hostel services	High	11.90	0.03	1.23
		Average	2.89*	11.87	1.26
		Low	4.96*	5.93*	13.12
3	Transport services	High	12.06	0.61	0.35
		Average	3.70*	12.67	0.64
		Low	1.54	3.28*	12.03
4	ICT services	High	10.22	2.05	1.58
		Average	11.39*	12.27	0.46
		Low	6.22*	2.02	11.81
5	Security services	High	13.77	1.13	0.69
		Average	6.78*	12.64	0.44
		Low	3.00*	2.23*	13.08
6	Medical services	High	13.42	1.13	0.69
		Average	6.31*	12.59	0.44
		Low	2.79*	2.07*	13.30

*Significant at .05
Source: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

a) Group means are along the principal diagonals
b) Differences among group means are above the principal diagonals
c) t-values are below the principal diagonals

Results of analysis in Table 4 show significant pair-wise group differences as follows: library services-High versus Average (t = 5.65, p <05) and High versus Low (t = 4.48, P<.05), Hostel services-High versus Low (t = 2.89, p<.05), and Average versus low (t = 4.96, p<.05); Transport-High versus Average (t = 3.70, p<.05), and Average versus Low (t = 3.28, p<.05); ICT

services – High versus Average (t = 11.39, p<.05), High versus Low (t = 6.22, p<.05), and Average versus Low (t = 2.02, p<.05); Security services – High versus Average (t = 6.78, p<.05), High versus Low (t = 3.00, p<.05), and Average versus Low (t = 2.23, p<.05); Medical services – High versus Average (t = 6.31, p<.05) and Average versus Low (t = 2.79, p<.05).

DISCUSSION

The results of analyses in this study show that the calculated F-ratios for the influence of students' socio-economic status on their satisfaction with library (16.996), hostel (18.359), transport (10.129), ICT (62.242), security (23.228), and medical (13.717) services were each greater than the critical F-ratio of 3.00 at .05 level of significance and with 2 and 1447 degrees of freedom. This means that students' socio-economic status significantly influenced their satisfaction with the delivery of those services enumerated above. The results however showed that there is no significant influence of students' socioeconomic status on their satisfaction with educational services. Students from high socio-economic status were more satisfied with library, security, and medical services while those from average socio-economic status were more satisfied with transport and ICT services, and those from low socio-economic status were more satisfied with hostel services. These findings agree with the work of Alshurideh (2012) who posited that the level of satisfaction for every student is very subjective due to their socio-economic status. Some students might be satisfied after using the facilities provided by the university because of their socio-economic status. Students from low and average classes tended to be satisfied with basic facilities while students from the high class might have higher expectations of facilities provided. Thomsen and Eikemo (2010) also noted that students with high socio-economic status were not usually satisfied with university hostels, for example.

CONCLUSION

From the findings of the study, it could be concluded that the socio-economic status of students influenced their satisfaction with university service delivery reflective of their socio-economic bracket. Students from low socio-economic background could be easily satisfied with the services and facilities in federal public universities. But high socio-economic status students may be hard-to-please in terms of service delivery owing to their socio-economic status.

Recommendation

Based on the conclusion of this study, the recommendation below is made:
1. In order to meet students across socio-economic statuses, the quality of educational, library, medical, transport, security, hostel, and ICT facilities and services should be of standard, be constantly upgraded, and be maintained rigorously by federal university authorities.

References

Alshurideh, M. (2012).The factors predicting students' satisfaction with universities' health care clinics' services: A case study from the Jordanian Higher Education sector. Research Journal of International Studies, Issue 23, 173-188.

Amole, D. (2009), "Residential satisfaction in students' housing". Journal of Environment Psychology, 29 (1), 76-85.

Connor, H., Pearson, E., Pollard, C. T., & Willison, R. (2001). Making the right choice: How students choose universities and colleges. Universities UK, London.

Curtis, S. & Wapper, R. (2005). Financial support systems: the student experience in England and France. International Journal of Social Economics, 32,121-132.

Federal Government of Nigeria (2013). National Policy on Education (6th Edition), Abuja: NERDC press.

Frank, B. & Enkawa, T. (2009). Economic drivers of dwelling satisfaction, evidence from Germany. International Journal of Housing markets and Analysis, 2(1), 6-20.

Gronroos, C. (1984). A service quality model and its marking implications. European Journal of Marketing 18(4), 36.

Parkers, A., Kearns, A., & Atkinson, R. (2002). What makes people dissatisfied with neighborhoods. Urban studies, 39(13), 2413-2438

Thomson, J. & Eikemo, T.A. (2010). Aspects of students housing satisfaction: A qualitative study. Journal of Housing and the Built Environment, 25(2), 273-293.

Living with my folks: Emerging adults and their parents under one roof

Asnat Dor, Ph.D.
Department of education and behavioral sciences,
Emek Yezreel Academic College, Emek Yezreel 19300 Israel.

Abstract

This qualitative study focuses on Israeli emerging adults who live at home with their parents, and explores their feelings and thoughts as to the benefits and difficulties of the situation. Semi-structured open interviews were conducted with 18 Jewish non-religious emerging adults who live at home with their parents. Findings reveal that most of the participants experience ambivalence: the comfortable and secure living conditions at home and freedom from financial stress are accompanied by conflicts with their parents. Some participants chose this living arrangement for practical reasons, like saving money for later stages, while others chose to postpone dealing with adult responsibilities and enjoy being care for. The findings reveal that alongside the benefits, emerging adults face substantial challenges in living with their parents while they are on an extended journey toward adulthood.

Keywords: Emerging adults, cohabitation with parents, parent-child conflict, parent-child relationship

The current study is an examination of the perspective of Israeli emerging adults who live with their parents. Emerging adults are people age 18-30 whose transition to adulthood is prolonged. They are in search of self-identity, lack stability, and defer assuming long-term personal and professional commitments. Their employment, love, and worldview experiences delay marriage, parenthood, and professional and career decisions (Arnett 2000, 2001, 2004; Juang and Silbereisen 2001; Shulman and Ben-Artzi 2003; Shulman, Feldman, Blatt, Coken, and Mahler 2005).

Emerging adults and their parents

The asymmetrical parent-child relationships of childhood and adolescence, when parents are the figures or authority and influence, gives way to a more reciprocal, equal, and symmetrical relationship when the children become young adults (Buhl 2007; Tanner 2006). As adolescents move into emerging adulthood, their relationship with their parents usually becomes more stable and closer; communication is more open, mutuality increases, and conflicts decrease (Aquilino 1997; Lefkowitz 2005; Morgan, Thorne, and Zurbriggen 2010; Van Wel, Ter Bogt, and Raaijmakers 2002). Parents learn to see their child as an autonomous individual (Aquilino 2006), while young people learn to see beyond their parents' parenting role and view them as individuals with their own needs, weaknesses, and life histories (Aquilino 2006; Birditt, Fingerman, Lefkowitz, and Kamp Dush 2008; Vassallo, Smart, and Price-Robertson 2009; Youniss and Smollar 1985).

However, this shifting perspective is not always achieved, and relationships may be accompanied by ongoing conflicts (Clarke, Preston, Raksin, and Bengtson 1999), although these tend to decrease as the children enter adulthood, especially after they move out of the

parents' home (Berman and Sperling 1991; Buhl 2007). However, when the young adults are financially dependent on the parents, relationships may be tense (Aquilino 2006; Vassallo et al. 2009).

Emerging adult's residential status
Tense relations between parents and their adult children come to the fore when, as is becoming increasingly prevalent, young adults continue to live with their parents (Arnett 2001, 2004; Aquilino 2006; Settersten and Ray 2010; Vassallo et al. 2009). Recent data reveal that over 50% of 18-24 year olds in Europe and the United States live with their parents (Coleman and Brooks 2009; Kloep and Hendry 2010; U.S. Census Bureau 2011). Some do so because they have prolonged their studies, other because of the high cost of living, and some for the convenience in delaying coping with economic issues. In some cases it is parental separation anxiety (Kins, Soenens and Beyers 2011), or disturbances in separation-individuation (by parents or adult children), that delay grown children from leaving the parents' house (Kins et al. 2011; Kloep and Hendry 2010). In Western society, leaving home has been seen as an important component of entering adulthood, yet recent research revealed that whether individuals live with their parents or away from them is not the sole indication of achieving their self-developmental tasks (Kins et al. 2011; Yanir 2007). Kins et al. (2011) claimed that it is important to note the reasons for the emerging adult's residential status, and that living with one's parents is not a sole indication of success or failure in managing developmental tasks. These researchers stated that   "there are cultural differences in expectations and traditions of young people leaving home and becoming independent" (Kloep and Hendry 2010, p. 818). However, regardless of the underlying reasons for remaining in the parents' home, this arrangement impacts upon parent-child relationships. Thus, 21-year-old adults, who live with their parents or not far from them, reported having poorer relationships with their parents than their counterparts who had moved out and away (Dubas and Petersen 1996). This is consistent with Aquilino's (1997) findings that transition to college or full-time employment, as well as cohabitation or marriage, were associated with closer, more supportive, and less conflicted parent-child relationships.

Parent-child relationships are determined by the child's life circumstances (Fusternberg 2010). Thus, these relations are better when children in their mid-twenties who reside with their parents study, work, or seek employment, than those where the children struggling with independence. In all cases, parents and adult children living together requires both parties to adjust to new patterns of interaction to meet everyone's needs and demands (Yanir 2007). This is the time in parents' lives when they must deal with the changes and challenges of midlife, begin facing their own aging (DeVries, Kerrick, and Oetinger 2007), and perhaps deal with the realization that they had not – nor will they – accomplished all their goals, and the ensuing disappointment. Parents experience slowing down physically and changes in their sexual drive; increasingly around them relatives and friends are diagnosed with various illnesses, and some die (Colarusso and Nemiroff 1987), and many continue to hold full-time jobs which they combine with caring for their children and their own parents (Fingerman, Pitzer, Chan, Birditt, Franks, and Zarit. 2011; Gautun and Hagen 2010).

Parents of adult children are ambivalent in their role perception, and the way parents in their 50s or 60s handle young people's prolonged dependency of with their children leaving home (Hendry and Kloep 2007), has an impact on their own psychological adjustment and their future relationships with their adult children (Kloep and Hendry 2010). It can be assumed that the macro social changes that affect the life trajectories of emerging adults, affect their parents' lives as well (Kloep and Hendry 2010).

Emerging adults in Israel

Middle-class Israeli Jewish emerging adults are very similar to their North American counterparts (Mayseless and Scharf 2003; Schwartz 1994; Shulman et al. 2005). Both groups s attribute importance to individualistic values, and tend to postpone the assumption of adult roles like marriage, parenthood, and vocational decisions. The rate of young adults who live with their parents is similar – 45% of 20-30 year olds in Israel live with their parents and receive a monthly allowance from them (Ben-Naftaly 2008).

However, while the numbers may be similar, the reasons are different. At age 18, most Jewish Israeli men and women are drafted. During their two or more years of service, they are often exposed to high levels of responsibility, independence, and emotional maturity (Mayseless 1993; Mayseless and Scharf 2003), all this while they continue to reside at home when not on base. However, exposure to a highly demanding and rigid authoritarian system, one that controls the enlisted person's life, may contribute to delaying full adulthood (Shulman, Blatt, and Walsh 2006). Thus, personal growth within the military may also increase dependent behavior and interfere with the natural experimentation processes of emerging adults (Gal 1986; Mayseless and Scharf 2003; Shulman et al. 2006; Yerushalmi 1997). Assuming adult responsibilities is further delayed by a custom that began developing in Israel in the mid-1980s, whereby, following discharge from the army, many young Israelis go on an extended journey. They are on the road for six months or more, usually in the Far East or South America, a journey that has come to "characterize part of the transition to adulthood among Israeli young people" (Shulman et al. 2006, p. 232). To help the transition to independence, all discharged soldiers receive a one-time stipend (equivalent to $4,000-$10,000, depending on length and type of service), for   paying for higher education, purchasing a home, starting their own business, or marriage (Division for Discharged Soldiers 2012).

Research scope and objectives

The timing and demography of leaving home are well known to researchers, but little is known about how young adults manage the longer period of co-residence and economic dependency (Furstenberg 2010). The present study is an attempt to expand knowledge about emerging adults' views of their experience of living with their parents in the parents' homes, with Israeli emerging adults as the research population. The research tool was a three-question protocol, based on a research protocol designed to explore the experience of parents who live with their emerging adult offspring (Dor 2013). The original protocol focused on the parents' point of view, and for this study, the questions were adapted to reveal the way emerging adults feel and handle this period in their lives.

METHOD

Participants' Characteristics

The research literature defines the lower end of emerging adulthood as age 18. However, this study takes under consideration Israeli reality – two to three years of compulsory military service, during which the young adults live at home when not on base. Therefore the youngest participants in this research are 21 years old.

The participants in this qualitative study were 18 Jewish non-religious unmarried emerging adults (10 women, 8 men) who lived in their parents' home in northern Israel. Participants were 21-30 years old (M = 24.6.45, SD = 4.4); of middle to upper-middle socioeconomic status, all honorably discharged from the army. All had a separate room in their parents' houses, and two had a separate living unit with a private entrance. Five of the emerging adults lived with one parent only – four with a divorced parent, one with a widowed parent. Five of them had

younger siblings who still lived at home as well. Sixteen of the 18 were employed, mostly part time (e.g., waiting tables, customer service, and sales), and two were job hunting. Sixteen planned to pursue higher education and planned on preparing for the required psychometric exams, 12 were either planning on going on an extended journey or were back from it. Ten of the 18 emerging adults had already made specific plans for the future and planned on saving money, with four having moved out in the past and living in rented apartments, only to return to their parents' home due to financial difficulties.

Sampling Method, Procedure, and Data Collection

The snowball method, through the researcher's friends, was used to reach participants for this study. The initial inquiry yielded four participants, who referred the researchers to other possible participants, of whom eight more were recruited. Six additional participants came through Facebook. Participation was voluntary, and participants were guaranteed confidentiality, and were also told that they could withdraw from the study at any stage. The one-on-one, 45-70 minute interviews took place in the participants' homes, at their convenience. The interviews were audio recorded with participants' permission. Pseudonyms were assigned to maintain anonymity.

Research Instrument and Data Analysis

For this qualitative study, a semi-structured open interview was used, a tool that enables interviewees to expand and clarify their answers, and to give examples. The interviews followed a three-question research protocol (Dor 2013), aimed at exploring the emerging adults' feelings and experiences relating to living with their parents. The questions were: (1) Generally speaking, how would you describe your feelings about living at home? (2) Are you coping with any difficulties that are directly related to your living at home? (3) Are there any benefits or advantages to living at home?

A thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke 2006; Sandelowski & Barroso 2003) was used to analyze the interviews, with the aim being to derive distinct themes regarding each of the questions. To establish thematic reliability, two researchers began by separately searching for systematic, recurring, visible, and direct content; they referred back to this content by frequency of appearance and their interpretation of their significance to the interviewees. During the interpretation process, the researchers divided the content (which they had agreed upon) into groups, identified prominent themes, and named each theme.

RESULTS

The findings were analyzed according to their content. For each interview question, the themes are listed in the order in which the questions were asked (in some cases, the interviewees gave more than one answer). Table 1 presents the themes identified in every question, by participants' gender.

Table 1. Themes identified in every question, by participants' gender

Question	themes	N=18	
		Women n=10	men n=8
General feeling	Secure	8	6
	Stuck	6	5
	Rational thinking	8	7
Difficulties	Intimate relationships	4	5
	Arguments over financial issues	3	3
	Lack of privacy	6	4
	Chores	4	5
	Arguments over Future planning		4
Benefits	No financial worries	7	4
	Full convenience	3	6

Question 1. Generally speaking, how would you describe your feelings about living at home?

As seen in Table 1, three groups of themes were identified for this question: feeling secure (8 women, 6 men), feeling stuck (6 women, 5 men), and rational thinking (8 women, 7 men).

Feeling secure. Seven of the participants, claimed that living at home made them feel secure. They were never alone, they did not worry about money issues, and they always could turn to their parents for advice or help:

> It's good to come home and to know that someone is waiting for me, listens to me and sees if I need some help. I'm not alone. My family is with me (Mali, woman, 22).

I am always in a safe and warm environment, no matter what. It keeps me constantly on a safe track (Odem, woman, 21).

Feeling stuck. This theme, expressed by 11 participants, presented the emerging adults' impression that they were too dependent on their parents, more than they should be at this stage of their lives. While they enjoy the comforts of living in the parents' home, they also feel that the arrangement somehow holds them back and does not encourage them to move on and take charge of their lives.

I Believe I'm too dependent. If my parents were to go away for two weeks, I'd probably not cook or clean the house, unless I really had to (Sara, woman, 21).

If my mom spoils me that much, I don't feel that I have to give so much. I believe she spoils me too much. I wouldn't do it to my child. But I kind of enjoy it, and I got used to having all of this. My mom does everything in the house and never asks for help. I don't offer any help myself, they don't expect me to (Eran, man, 26).

The basic needs that are fully met in the parents' house hold back the emerging adults from initiating participation in everyday responsibilities (e.g., paying bills or doing household chores). In many ways the participants describe their life with their parents in term reminiscent of life during childhood, with the differences that they are now free to come and go at will, and socialized with people of their choice.

Rational thinking. Fifteen of the participants referred to their living with their parents as the best option for that time, one that helps them handle the high cost of living. Although living with their parents was not their first choice, a rational view of their situation and at the range of available options led them to conclude that living with their parents was right move for the present, allowing them to save money for a future of independence.

I work and save money. If I lived on my own, I wouldn't be able to save. I'll move when I'll have a girlfriend and we'll decide to live together. Right now it's a good time to save (Ron, man, 23).

It seems that future orientation occupies some of the emerging adults, and this orientation is what makes them continue living with their parents. They choose to refer less to their feelings about living with their parents and more to the financial circumstances that make them choose to delay moving out. Those of them who work long hours claim that it would be a waste to move out and to pay for an apartment that they will hardly use anyway.

Question 2. Are you coping with any difficulties that are directly related to your living at home?

As seen in Table 1, this question yielded five themes, the highest number of themes of the three research questions. The themes were intimate relationships (4 women, 5 men); arguments over financial issues (3 women, 3 men); lack of privacy (6 women, 4 men); household chores (4 women, 5 men); arguments over future planning (4 men).

Intimate relationships

This theme pointed to a difficulty that some the participants experienced in intimate relations, and this difficulty was more prevalent among participants who were not in a steady relationship at the time of the interview. They spoke of the inconvenience of going out on a date and meeting new people in the presence of parents:

> *Each time I bring a girl home, they have something to say…. Sometimes I meet someone, I want to bring her to the house, we want to have sex. It might be someone I don't want my parents to meet. I might give up just to avoid this and to spare her all the questions. It's an embarrassment (Or, man, 24).*

These situations, which could interfere with the emerging adults' privacy, could cause them to go out on fewer dates and have these dates out of the house. The parents, who express their opinions on their child's new friend, might prevent the emerging adult from entering into intimate relationships. The need to "pass the parents' test," perhaps even on the first date and before the emerging adults themselves have formed an opinion on this relationship, could be a serious hindrance to developing a relationship.

Arguments over financial issues. In this theme the participants claimed that their parents expected them to manage their finances in a certain way, and that they were being criticized if they did not meet these expectations.

Last month I bought myself a new cell phone. Naturally, I used my own money.. It was quite an expensive one. My mom didn't approve. She said I always spend too much (Revital, woman,23).

Although 16 of the 18 participants were employed, they felt that their parents did not always approve of the way they spent the money they earned. In some cases they felt that their parents thought that they (the emerging adults) did not earn enough and should look for a better-paying job, and at times the parents interfered with their children's financial decisions.

Lack of privacy. This theme expresses the challenge that the emerging adults face in that they must put up with their parents' questions, requests, and criticism. They do not always get the quiet they need, and sometimes feel they are being interrupted by their parents.

Suppose I'm sitting in my room after I get home from work. Suddenly my mom enters without knocking. She just wants to bring me clean laundry or something. That freaks me out. Sometimes I can be rude to her because of that…. (Or, man, 24).

The need for privacy is manifested in many other ways, among them the desire not to be asked too many questions about work, future plans, friends, and intimate relations. In some cases emerging adults want to be left alone after work or a date, but living with their parents puts them in a position where their need for privacy is not always met.

Household chores. This theme is also one of the challenging issues in the lives of the emerging adults who live with their parents. When expected to give a hand with chores, emerging adults may find themselves arguing with their parents about what has to be done and when. These arguments make them feel like little children again as they know that their parents still have the say at the house.

I have to do a lot around here. My father never helps around the house, so even if I'm tired after a crazy day at work, I still have to clean or buy groceries for the house. If I lived on my own I'd just skip it (Cheli, woman, 24).

The emerging adults are aware of their duties in their parents' house, and carry them out in order to avoid confrontation. It's a give-and- take relationships in a way, however it is also a platform for potential conflict when a new task comes up, or when the parents disapprove of the way a task was.

Arguments over future planning. This them illustrates the potential conflict between the emerging adults and their parents. Although most of the participants in this study had jobs, albeit low-paying, unskilled occupations, they describe arguments with their parents about their plans for the future.

My parents have a lot to say about the way I live my life. They don't think highly of my job [telemarketing]. They don't approve of my life style. They say I spend too much money just to have fun. They want to know what I plan to do with myself in the future. At this point I don't plan on going to university. Who knows, maybe someday? But this issue pops at least twice a week (Adi, man, 25).

The participants who referred to this theme felt that they had to be tolerant of their parents, who constantly express their expectations and doubts regarding their children's future. As they have chosen to live with their parents, they learned to live with their parents' remarks, but sometimes they argue and answer back. While they know that their parents mean well, it is not easy for them to hear "When I was your age…," and would be satisfied not to hear that criticism so often.

Question 3. Are there any benefits or advantages to living at home?
As can be seen in Table 1, two main themes were identified regarding this question: no financial worries (7 women, 4 men) and convenience (3 women, 6 men).

No financial worries. This theme represented the emerging adults' need to invest their time and money in ways that suit their wishes and aspirations. As the high cost of living in the "real world" entails expenses they are not ready or able to assume, they see the great financial advantage that comes with living with their parents.

Rents are too high in this area, and the rent is just the beginning. You also have to pay for gas, electricity, groceries, municipal taxes and much more. Here I don't have to worry about all this. And I prefer to save money for later (Yair, man, 27).

It was also clear from the participants' answers that they valued the relatively high standard of living they had in their parents' home. They somehow knew that they would have to settle for much less if and when they moved out and lived on their own. At this stage they prefer to spend their own money on things other than household expenses, and living with their parents gives them that option.

Convenience. This theme demonstrates that some emerging adults still enjoy being cared for even at this stage of their lives. Although they are perfectly capable of taking care of their own basic needs (like food preparation) and also are capable of taking care of the house maintenance, they still enjoy that all that is done by someone else – their parents.

I can call on my way home from work, and ask my mom to fix me dinner. Everything is ready by the time I get home (Hadar, woman, 21).

When you don't have to worry about paying taxes, preparing food, doing laundry, etc., all's really comfortable and there's no stress at all. I know I'll have to do it all one day, but I enjoy not doing it for now (Gal, man, 26).

The emerging adults who participated in this study seem to admit that they enjoy postponing the day when they will assume responsibilities over certain domains in their lives. They chose to stay with their parents, who can offer them the conditions to postpone dealing with duties that they see as adults' duties.

Summary of the research findings
Overall, most of the participants in this study experience ambivalence: Along with comfortable and secure living conditions at home and no financial tension, they enter conflicts with their parents over various issues such as household chores, expenses, future plans, and need for privacy. Some of them chose this living arrangement for practical reasons, like saving money for later stages, while others chose to postpone dealing with adult responsibilities and enjoy being taken care of for a little longer.

DISCUSSION

The current study focused on emerging adults who live with their parents, and examined their feelings and perceptions of this arrangement. Emerging adulthood as a developmental stage has been of interest to researchers since the 1990s. However, there is little research about the ways emerging adults manage this prolonged period of co-residence and economic dependence (Furstenberg 2010).

The findings in this study indicate that the emerging adults express ambivalent feelings. Along with the comfort and security of living at home, and the lack of financial stress, they have conflicts with their parents over issues such as household chores, expenses, future plans, and need for privacy. Of the three research questions, the one about the difficulties of living with parents was given the highest emphasis by the participants.

It seems that emerging adults must handle several kinds of conflicts with their parents, one of which is their parents' expectations regarding their children's future plans. The parents criticize when they feel that their children's plans are inappropriate for their chronological age. This finding is consistent with previous research (Furstenberg 2010), which revealed that mutual accommodation of parents and with children in their mid-twenties is smoother when the children are employed or studying, than when the emerging adult shows no drive toward future independence. According to Dor (2013) and Furstenberg (2010), parents are more accepting and less judgmental of the children living at home if they believe that their children are moving in a positive direction toward achieving the developmental tasks of their age. Interestingly, the vast majority of the participants in this study had jobs and earned their own money, perhaps indicating that they were showing signs of moving toward future independence. Nonetheless the arguments over future plans that some of the participants mentioned, may imply that having a job alone does not satisfy the parents, and does not prevent them from being judgmental and less accepting of their children's condition. To be more accepting, it seems that some of the parents must be under the impression that their children are moving in an age-appropriate direction, one that holds benefits for their future. A part-time job, such as waiting tables, is not necessarily a suitable situation.

Part of the parents' criticism entails the parents' comparing themselves to the children, stating that "at your age" they were autonomous financially and psychologically, a statement that seems to add tension to the relationship. In many ways the parents do not consider the social, economic, technological, and cultural changes that have also made changes in the lives of families (Furstenberg 2010). Many of the jobs that young people would like involve university or college education, and such schooling takes time, whereas in the parents' generation it was easier to earn a living and support a family with a high-school diploma only. As a result, we witness dramatic delays in the age of leaving home, marriage, and starting a family. Arnett (2004) claims that young people in contemporary Western societies view the traditional aspirations of adulthood – job security, marriage, and a family – as obligations that are not their top present priorities. While they view adulthood and its obligations as offering security and stability, they also perceive them as a one-way path that closes the option to all other possibilities. According to Cohen, Kasen, Chen, Hartmark, and Gordon (2003), living with the parents may inhibit emerging adults from creating intimate relations, and without such relations, they are slow to commit and form a family.

The findings show that the emerging adults who live with their parents do so mostly because it gives them a sense of security, in addition to the fact that they believe that financially it will be too difficult to live on their own. They believe that the high cost of living and their limited

income will lead them to a hard financial struggle in their daily life. At the same time they are also under the impression that getting all their needs from their parents, holds them back and delays their independence. While they know that they could manage somehow on their own, they realize that this independence comes at the cost of a substantial lowering of their standard of living, and entails a less comfortable life and fewer savings for the future – conditions which they are unwilling to accept. It is possible that this delay encourages parents to expect more maturity and responsibility from their children while they are at home, and this, in turn, might increase potential conflicts, as seen in this study. The emerging adults themselves prefer to pay the price of having conflict with their parents, dealing with lack of privacy and interference in their intimate relationships, or arguing with their parents about chores, rather than handle the effort and responsibility that accompany living on their own. Indeed, living as an emerging adult with one's parents, is apparently not an easy task. Better relationships with the parents are documented especially among those who had moved farther away from home, while poorer relationships reported among emerging adults who live at home (Aquilino 1997; Dubas and Petersen 1996).

The two-three year mandatory military service in Israel creates a unique situation. Parents and their 18-year-old children had already undergone a gradual separation while the children were in the army. Upon the children's discharge, the family must learn to readjust to living together, a move that requires special accommodation in families where the soldiers served away from home and came back on leave. At this stage the children are a few years older and might have gone through some changes that parents view with disapproval.

Interestingly, until approximately the mid-1990, social norms in Western countries called for children to leave home early, and young people felt uncomfortable if they stayed at the parents' home beyond their mid-twenties, because it seemed to be a mark of poor socialization (Schnaiberg and Goldenberg 1989). When emerging adults live with their parents, there often is a heavy burden that families bear in (Settersten and Ray 2010), and not all families can afford to support another adult at home, financially and emotionally. Because this is an individual process that an emerging adult undergoes, and because it might take a few years, it is quite possible that some conflicts will develop between parents and their emerging adult children a result of this heavy burden. Setterstern and Ray (2010) have recommended that social institutions will have to deal with this issue and not assume that parents can be responsible for their children for an unlimited period of time. However, as emerging adulthood now extends into the fourth decade of life, perhaps it is the emerging adults themselves who should take the initiative and move out of the uncomfortable comfort zone into full adulthood.

Research limitations
Although the findings of the current study add to current knowledge about emerging adults, some of its limitations should be noted. First, as a qualitative research, the extent to which we can generalize these findings to the entire Western population is limited. Second, it is quite possible that due to the sensitive topic of this study, not all participants felt comfortable enough to open themselves and may have held back during the interviews. Third, the participants were not asked about their perception of their level of maturity. According to Klope and Hendry (2010), these perceptions have a great deal to do with the parents' willingness to "let go." In addition, the late leaving home of the participants in the current study was not examined through the prisms of over-parenting and over-controlling. Munich and Munich (2009) who examined over-involved parents, found that "overparenting includes an excessive involvement with and concern about the child's mental state and adaptive capacity that leads to a relative absence of space for the development of structuralized self and object relations" (p. 228), and it is possible that over-parenting is an issue in some of the cases.

Fourth, the interviewees were all middle-class people, and it is likely that interviews with participants in different areas, and from different social backgrounds, might have led us to other results and insights. Fifth, we need to recognize that families in which co-residing was extremely conflicted and negative are not likely to continue it for long, thus we may not be picking them up in this sample. Finally, based on the present research it is not possible to determine whether emerging adults who live at home where there are younger siblings, stay home longer. This is an issue for future research. Nonetheless, we hope that the participants were honest in their answers to the interviewers' questions and their authentic voices are a main contribution of the current study, which overall represents a significant opportunity for a deeper understanding of the experience of emerging adults, in the extended journey toward their adulthood.

Note: The author wishes to thank Arie Baruch for the data collection.

References

Aquilino, W. S. (1997). From adolescent to young adult: A prospective study of parent– child relations during the transition to adulthood. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 59, 670-686. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/353953

Aquilino, W. S. (2006). Family relationships and support systems in emerging adulthood. In J. J. Arnett & J. L. Tanner (Eds.), Emerging adults in America: Coming of age in the 21st century (pp.193-210). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/11381-008

Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. American Psychologist, 55, 469-480. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0003-066X.55.5.469

Arnett, J. J. (2001). Conceptions of the transition to adulthood: Perspectives from adolescence through midlife. Journal of Adult Development, 8, 133-143. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1026450103225

Arnett, J. J. (2004). Emerging adulthood: The winding road from the late teens through the twenties. New York: Oxford Press.

Ben-Naftaly, D. (2008). Comprehensive study of the lifestyle of 20-30 year olds in Israel. Globes, 19 May, 2008. Retrieved from http://www.globes.co.il/news/article.aspx?did=1000343267 (in Hebrew).

Berman, W. H., & Sperling, M. B. (1991). Parental attachment and emotional distress in the transition to college. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 20, 427-440. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF01537184

Birditt, K. S., Fingerman, K. L., Lefkowitz, E. S., & Kamp Dush, C. M. (2008). Parents perceived as peers: Filial maturity in adulthood. Journal of Adult Development,15, 1-12. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10804-007-9019-2

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006) Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3 (2), 77-101.

Buhl, H. M. (2007). Well-being and the child-parent relationship at the transition from university to working life. Journal of Adolescent Research, 22, 550-571. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0743558407305415

Clarke, E. J., Preston, M., Raksin, J., & Bengtson, V. L. (1999). Types of conflicts and tensions between older parents and adult children. The Gerontologist, 39, 261-270. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/geront/39.3.261

Cohen, P., Kasen, S., Chen, H., Hartmark, C., & Gordon, K. (2003). Variations in patterns of developmental transmissions in the emerging adulthood period. Developmental psychology, 39(4), 657-669.

Colarusso, C. A., & Nemiroff, R. A. (1987). Clinical implications of adult development theory. American Journal of Psychiatry, 144, 1263-1270. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/000306518703500106

Coleman, J. C., & Brooks, E (2009). Key data on adolescence. Brighton: Trust for the Study of Adolescence.

DeVries, H., Kerrick, S., & Oetinger, M. (2007). Satisfactions and Regrets of Midlife Parents: A Qualitative Analysis. Journal of Adult Development, 14, 6-15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10804-007-9024-5

Division for Discharged Soldiers (2012). Retrieved from (http://www.hachvana.mod.gov.il/pages/hok/hok_pikadon_ishi.asp (in Hebrew).

Dor, A. (2013). Don't stay out late! Mom, I'm twenty-eight: Emerging adults and their parents under one roof. International Journal of Social Science Studies, 1(1),37-46. http://dx.doi.org/10.11114/ijsss.v1i1.35

Dubas, J. S., & Petersen, A. C. (1996). Geographical distance from parents and adjustment during adolescence and young adulthood. In J. Graber & J. Dubas (Eds.), New directions for child development: Vol. 71. Leaving home: Understanding the transition to adulthood (pp. 3-20). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fingerman, K. L., Pitzer, L. M., Chan, W., Birditt, K., Franks, M. M., & Zarit, S. (2011). Who gets what and why? Help middle-aged adults provide to parents and grown children. Journal of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences & Social Sciences, 66B(1), 87-98. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbq009

Furstenberg Jr., F. F. (2010). On a new schedule: Transitions to adulthood and family change. Future of Children, 20(1), 67-87.

Gal, R. (1986). A portrait of the Israeli soldier. New York: Greenwood Press.

Gautun, H., & Hagen, K. (2010). How do middle-aged employees combine work with caring for elderly parents? Community, Work & Family, 13, 393-409. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13668800903360625

Hendry, L. B., & Kloep, M. (2007). Conceptualizing emerging adulthood: Inspecting the emperor's new clothes? Child Development Perspectives,1, 74-79. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-8606.2007.00017.x

Juang, L. P., & Silbereisen, R. K. (2001). Family transition for young adult women in the context of a changed Germany: Timing, sequence and duration. American Behavioral Scientist, 44, 1899-1917. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00027640121958212

Kins, E., Soenens, B., & Beyers, W. (2011). Why do they have to grow up so fast? Parental separation anxiety and emerging adults' pathology of separation-individuation. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 67, 647-664. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20786

Kloep, M., & Hendry, L. B. (2010). Letting go or holding on? Parents' perceptions of their relationships with their children during emerging adulthood. British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 28, 817-834. http://dx.doi.org/10.1348/026151009X480581

Lefkowitz, E. S. (2005). "Things have gotten better": Developmental changes among emerging adults after the transition to university. Journal of Adolescent Research, 20, 40-63. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0743558404271236

Mayseless, O. (1993) Identity formation and emotional maturity of released soldiers in Israel. Tel Aviv: Israel Foundations Trustees.

Mayseless, O., & Scharf, M. (2003). What does it mean to be an adult? The Israeli experience. New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 100, 5-20. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/cd.71

Morgan, E. M., Thorne, A., & Zurbriggen, E. L. (2010). A longitudinal study of conversations with parents about sex and dating during college. Developmental Psychology,46(1), 139-150. doi:10.1037/a0016931

Munich, R. L., & Munich, M. A. (2009). Overparenting and the narcissistic pursuit of attachment. Psychiatric Annals, 39, 227- 235.

Noack, P., & Buhl, H. M. (2004). Child-parent relationships. In F. R. Lang & K. L. Fingerman (Eds.), Growing together: Personal relationships across the lifespan (pp. 45-75). Cambridge, UK: University Press. ...

Sandelowski, M., & Barroso J. (2003).) Classifying the Findings in Qualitative Studies. Qualitative Health Research, 13 (7), 905-923. DOI: 10.1177/1049732303253488

Schnaiberg, A., & Goldenberg, S. (1989). From empty nest to crowded nest: The dynamics of incompletely-launched young adults. Social Problems, 36, 251-269. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/800694

Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim et al. (Eds.), Individualism and collectivism. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Settersten Jr., R. A., & Ray, B. (2010). What's going on with young people today? The long and twisting path to adulthood. Future of Children, 20(1), 19-41.

Shulman, S., & Ben-Artzi, E. (2003). Age-related differences in the transition from adolescence to adulthood and links with family relationships. Journal of Adult Development, 10, 217- 226. http://dx.doi.org/10.1023/A:1026006025155

Shulman, S., Feldman, B., Blatt, S. J., Coken, O., & Mahler, A. (2005). Emerging adulthood: Age-related tasks and underlying self process. Journal of Adolescence Research, 20, 577-603. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0743558405274913

Shulman, S., Blatt, S. J., & Walsh, S. (2006). The extended journey and transition to adulthood: The case of Israeli backpackers. Journal of Youth Studies, 9, 231-246. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13676260600635672

Tanner, J. L. (2006). Recentering during emerging adulthood: A critical turning point in life span human development. In J. J. Arnett & J. L. Tanner (Eds.), Emerging adults in America: Coming of age in the 21st century (pp. 21–55). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/11381-002

U.S. Census Bureau (2011). More young adults are living in their parents' home. Census Bureau Reports. Retrieved from: http://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/families_households/cb11-183.html

Van Wel, F., Ter Bogt, T., & Raaijmakers, Q. (2002). Changes in the parental bond and the well-being of adolescents and young adults. Adolescence, 37, 317-333.

Vassallo, S., Smart, D., & Price-Robertson, R. (2009). The roles that parents play in the lives of their young adult children. Family Matters, 82, 8-14. http://www.aifs.gov.au/institute/pubs/fm2009/fm82/sv.pdf

Yanir, I. (2007). Emerging adulthood in the family system: Developmental tasks and family dynamics. Unpublished PH.D dissertation. Haifa University, Israel (in Hebrew).

Yerushalmi, H. (1997). A psychoanalytic perspective on late adolescence in men in an Israeli combat unit. Psychoanalytic Psychology, 14, 113-127. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0736-9735.14.1.113

Youniss, J., & Smollar, J. (1985). Adolescent relations with mothers, fathers, and friends. Chicago, IL: University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0272431685051011

A Study of Chinese College Students' English Writing Strategies

Chen Hui
School of Foreign Languages, University of Jinan, Jinan City, China

SHAO Xinguang
School of Foreign Languages, University of Jinan, Jinan City, China

Abstract
The study investigates how Chinese college students use strategies in English writing with the help of questionnaires. The results show that many students don't do well in using metacognitive strategies and social strategies when they do English writing exercises. Most students need to develop the good habit of using strategies in English writing, trying hard to improve their writing ability. English teachers should make efforts to help their students get the knowledge of strategies, paying much attention to the training of writing strategies in the classroom teaching.

Key words: Chinese college students, English writing strategies, questionnaires, training

INTRODUCTION

English writing is an important part of college English learning in China. Nowadays most information people send or receive is passed in writing in letters, e-mails, compositions or articles. So it is important for Chinese college students to establish solid foundations for their English writing, expressing themselves correctly in English. As is known to all, writing is one of the productive skills in language learning. English writing is a kind of language output process, in which a learner may use the knowledge that he has learned to express his ideas. So it may directly reflect a learner's ability of using English.   But English writing has long been a weak point for many Chinese students in English learning and it is far from being satisfactory. Most English teachers have realized the importance of teaching English writing and they try hard to teach their students some necessary writing strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the study of English learning strategies, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) divide learning strategies into three parts, including metacognitive strategies cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. They point out that strategy teaching is significant in developing learner autonomy in second language learning. Another expert called Oxford (1990) concludes that learning strategies may fall into six categories, namely, memory strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, metacognitive strategy, affective strategy and social strategy. The former three types belong to direct strategies and the latter three types are indirect strategies. When teaching English writing, English teachers should take some measures to tell their students to use different strategies in different situations.

Nunan (2001) thinks that writing is not only a kind of hands-on behavior, but also a kind of intelligence behavior. When learning English writing, students usually do exercises and practices that range from easy ones to difficult ones, and finally they may learn to think and write English papers by themselves. In this process, students may gradually cultivate their thinking abilities, including their divergent thinking, logical thinking, imaginary thinking, etc.

Process Approach is a frequently used English writing teaching strategy which is based on the Interactionist Theory. Badger and White (2000) think that writing in process approach can be seen as predominantly having something to do with linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, and there is not much emphasis on linguistic knowledge in writing, such as knowledge about grammar and text structures. In the Process Approach, a typical writing model depicts writing as having the following five stages: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and publishing. So it may be seen that the Process Approach puts emphasis on English learners' writing process, from which they can get many writing experiences and benefit a lot.

Some other researchers developed the Genre-based Teaching Approach carefully (Hammond, 1995; Wray & Lewis, 1997). It stresses on the functions of texts and the ways in which these texts realize their particular social functions in writing. In this approach, students may know that texts are not only linguistic constructs, but also social meaningful constructs. They may gradually grasp the schematic structures of different texts and learn to construct their own compositions. By using the Genre-based Teaching Approach, teachers may help their students realize that writing is a social interactive activity which has its regular pattern. In this teaching approach, teachers should teach their students to analyze, describe and apply different kinds of texts based on the related social cultural backgrounds.

In China, the study of English writing is getting more and more attention than ever before. It is widely accepted that many Chinese students' compositions have many similar shortcomings, such as being wordy, lack of coherence etc. It has been found that many students can not do well in English writing when they meet unfamiliar culture topics. The main reason is that Chinese students and native English speakers have different cultural backgrounds and thinking patterns. For example, native English writers like to put one main subject at the beginning of an article and develop it clearly with supporting details, while Chinese students tend to describe the main topic in a circular reasoning pattern due to our Chinese habits. So, when writing English, Chinese college students are often influenced by their Chinese thinking patterns and the difference between Chinese and Western thinking patterns (Geng, 2010).

RESEARCH REPORT

In this part, the researcher analyzes how Chinese college students apply English writing strategies with the help of questionnaires.

Research Purpose

This study is designed to investigate Chinese college students' application of English writing strategies and find out some practical strategies to help them improve their writing ability in hope of solving their problems in English writing.

Subjects

The subjects in the research are all sophomores majoring in Math, Law and Education in the University of Jinan in China. They are 230 students including 126 boys and 104 girls who are randomly chosen from 8 classes. They range in age from 18 to 22, with an average age of 20. In China, they have learned English as a foreign language for about 10 years under the guidance of their teachers in traditional classroom environment. They usually have some writing assignments given by their teachers. When they don't have English classes, they can not get many opportunities to write in English.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study is a questionnaire on English writing strategies. The items of the questionnaire are made by the researchers based on the framework of learning strategies put forward by O'Malley and Chamot (1990). There are 15 items in the questionnaire, each one on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" (point 5) to "strongly disagree" (point 1), the middle point being neutral (point 3). These items include some metacognitive strategies (Items 1-5), cognitive strategies (Items 6-10), and social/ affective strategies (Items 11-15). The higher a student scores in the items, the higher level of English writing skills he/she presents.

Data Collection

On December 9 of 2014, 230 questionnaires were distributed to the subjects. They were asked to read the items and finish the questionnaires carefully according to their true conditions within 10 minutes. After they finished, all the questionnaires were collected and 223 of them were found to be valid. 7 copies were invalid because the subjects' scores in these copies were not clear.

Results and Analysis

In order to effectively investigate how the students study English writing and explore some strategies to overcome the existing problems, a table is used to show the means of the subjects' scores for the items.

Table1

Items	Numbers of the subjects	Means of the subjects' scores
Item 1	223	2.35
Item 2	223	2.69
Item 3	223	2.47
Item 4	223	2.18
Item 5	223	3.02
Item 6	223	3.86
Item 7	223	3.25
Item 8	223	3.12
Item 9	223	3.79
Item 10	223	3.64
Item 11	223	2.89
Item 12	223	2.63
Item 13	223	3.85
Item 14	223	3.97
Item 15	223	4.16

From the data in the table, it can be easily found that the subjects don't do well in using metacognitive strategies when writing in English. The relevant items are "I try every means to improve my English writing ability." (Item 1, M=2.35), "I practice English writing every week."(Item 2, M=2.69), "I often make plans of writing English compositions." (Item 3, M=2.47), "I may evaluate my level of English writing by comparing my paper with my friends' papers regularly." (Item 4, M=2.18) and "I can focus my attention on writing an English paper in a short time." (Item 5, M=3.02). Among the five items about metacognitive strategies, the means of the subjects' scores for items1-4 are below 3.00, which shows that many Chinese students are not good at applying metacognitive strategies. Maybe they like to follow their teachers' instructions and they haven't cultivated the good habit of autonomous learning.

As can be seen in the table, some cognitive strategies are used widely by these subjects. The related items are "When I write English compositions, I try to recall the words that I have learned to express my ideas."(Item 6, M=3.86), "I make efforts to learn some new English

words every day to enlarge my vocabulary so as to improve my English writing."(Item 7, M=3.25), "I try to memorize many words that have the same or similar meanings to enhance my ability of diction in writing."(Item 8, M=3.12), "I often review some grammar rules that have been learned in order to do well in writing English compositions."(Item 9, M=3.79) and "I like to recite the good English compositions given by my teachers in order to accumulate nice sentences."(Item 10, M=3.64). It seems that many Chinese students like to use some cognitive strategies to improve their English writing skills. Usually they are required by their teachers to adopt the necessary cognitive strategies to help them do better in using words and grammar rules when writing English compositions.

The subjects can't do well in using social strategies, which can be shown from Items 11-12. They are "I usually ask my classmates for help when I have difficulties in English writing." (Item 11, M=2.89), "I like to ask my teacher to help me when I have no idea about how to express an idea in English." (Item 12, M=2.63). It is obvious that many students don't like to use social strategies to help them do better in English writing. The reason for it may be that many Chinese students may feel very shy when asking their classmates or teachers for help in their English learning. They would like to do English writing by themselves.

Many subjects do well in using affective strategies, which may be seen from the means of the subjects' scores for the following items. They are "I try to overcome my anxiety when I have to have English writing classes."(Item 13, M=3.85), "I like to encourage myself to do better in English writing."(Item 14, M=3.97), and "I often tell myself to have enough confidence in improving my English writing."(Item 15, M=4.16). The students have learned English for more than ten years and many of them have fostered their ability of overcoming anxiety and regaining their confidence in English writing.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

From the above discussion, it may be concluded that most Chinese college students need to improve themselves in applying strategies in English writing. Teachers should try a lot to help them, making the training of writing strategies become an important part of the normal classroom English teaching. They should let the students know the significance of using strategies in English writing.

Firstly, teachers should try their best to make their students become interested in learning English writing. The subjects' scores in items1-4 may tell us that they do not have much interest in doing English writing exercises. That is the main reason for their bad performance in using metacognitive strategies. So teachers should try to construct a good learning environment and stimulate their students' interest in English writing.

Secondly, students all know that vocabulary and grammar rules play important roles in their English writing. Most of them try a lot to enlarge their vocabulary and memorize as many grammar rules as possible in order to improve their English writing. In this aspect, teachers should try to help their students by doing many things, such as telling them some good ways of learning new words and grammar rules. Usually teachers have learned English for many years and accumulated some experiences of learning new words and grammar rules. If they are patient to tell their students those experiences, they are certain to help the students a lot. English teachers should give their students some homework about reciting words and grammar rules, which is an efficient way of increasing students' writing ability. They should teach their students how to express the same meaning in some different ways, which may help them make their English writing more colorful. Teaching students some useful sentence

patterns, proverbs and so on may also contribute greatly to the improvement of their English writing abilities.

Thirdly, teachers should make good use of the strategy of peer response in teaching English writing. Peer response is an effective and valuable method of learning language writing, which is very popular in many countries. Teachers may organize their students to do some pair-work or group-work, letting them revise and discuss their compositions with partners. Peer response is a good way of writing evaluation, and it is greatly useful to arouse students' sense of being audiences and to stimulate their English writing motives. Discussions and debates are both meaningful communicative activities, in which students can exchange their opinions freely and illustrate their own views in English writing. In all, students may reap many inspirations from each others' evaluations by peer-response, which may broaden their horizons in English writing.

Fourthly, teachers' timely feedback and encouragement have much influence on students' English learning so that teachers should try to make full use of positive encouragements to help their students regain confidence whenever they have difficulties in English writing. When giving comments on students' writing, teachers can pick up some good compositions as models and read the sample writings in front of the whole class. On one hand, students who get teacher's approval may be very likely to become more confident than ever before, and then their learning motivation will be stimulated. On the other hand, the students who are not good at English writing may get many benefits from that and they may try to improve their English writing.

Lastly, as we all know, it is important that students realize and master the differences between English and Chinese thinking patterns. It has been found that Chinese students may make many mistakes in English writing because of the influence of their Chinese thinking patterns. So teachers should try to develop students' English thinking ability, which is very significant for students to enhance their English writing ability.

CONCLUSION

In China, many English learners may have difficulties in English writing. For instance, they may not have much time in English writing. Their English classes are usually teacher-centered so that the students can not get many chances of practicing their English writing, etc. But it is true that English writing may become interesting and attractive if some effective strategies are used by the students.

The findings of the study show that many problems do exist in Chinese college students' English writing. So in order to improve students' writing ability, teachers should figure out some strategies to help their students. With the help of questionnaires, it has been found that some useful writing strategies should be used to cope with students' difficulties in English writing. Chinese college students need to cultivate their sense of using strategies, especially the metacognitive strategies and social strategies in their English writing. English teachers should pay much attention to the training of writing strategies in their classroom English teaching.

Bibliography

Badger, R. & G. White. A process genre approach to teaching writing [J]. ELT Journal, 2000, 54 (2):153-160.

Geng, C. A study of the Chinglish in Chinese students' English writing[J]. Journal of Harbin University, 2010, (2): 123-126.

Hammond, J. The interrelationship between reading and writing in literacy development. In M. L. Tickoo (ed.), Reading and Writing: Theory into Practice. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 1995.

Nunan, D. Second Language Teaching & Learning [M]. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press, 2001.

O'Malley, J. & A. Chamot. Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition[M]. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990.

Oxford. R. Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know [M]. Mass.: Newbury House, 1990.

Wray, D. & M. Lewis. Extending Literacy: Children Writing and Reading Non-Fiction. London/New York: Routledge, 1997.

APPENDIX
Chinese College Students' English Writing Strategy Scale

Based on the classification of learning strategies given by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), a questionnaire "Chinese College Students' English Writing Strategy Scale" is designed by the researchers in order to investigate Chinese college students' general use of English writing strategies. The results of the survey are only used in the study of English teaching and learning.

Items 1-15 are about your feelings when you learn English writing. Please choose the number after each item, which may embody your true condition concerning the item. The five numbers 1-5 after each item stands for "extremely disagree", "disagree", "uncertainty", "agree", "extremely agree" respectively.

Thanks for your cooperation!
1. I try every means to improve my English writing ability.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
2. I practice English writing every week.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
3. I often make plans of writing English compositions.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
4. I may evaluate my level of English writing by comparing my paper with my friends' papers regularly.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
5. I can focus my attention on writing an English paper in a short time.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
6. When I write English compositions, I try to recall the words that I have learned to express my ideas.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
7. I make efforts to learn some new English words every day to enlarge my vocabulary so as to improve my English writing.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
8. I try to memorize many words that have the same or similar meanings to enhance my ability of diction in writing.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
9. I often review some grammar rules that have been learned in order to do well in writing English compositions.
   [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
10. I like to recite the good English compositions given by my teachers in order to accumulate nice sentences.
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]
11. I usually ask my classmates for help when I have difficulties in English writing.
    [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

12. I like to ask my teacher to help me when I have no idea about how to express an idea in English.
        [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

13. I try to overcome my anxiety when I have to have English writing classes.
        [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

14. I like to encourage myself to do better in English writing.
        [1] [2] [3] [4] [5]

15. I often tell myself to have enough confidence in improving my English writing.
        [1]   [2]   [3]   [4]   [5]

Teachers' Effectiveness and its Influence on Students' Learning

Aina, Jacob Kola
Physics Education Department
College of Education (Tech.) Lafiagi. Kwara state, Nigeria

Olanipekun, Shola Sunday
General Studies Education Department
College of Education (Tech.) Lafiagi. Kwara state, Nigeria

Garuba, Ismaila Ayinde
Agric Science Education Department
College of Education (Tech.) Lafiagi. Kwara state, Nigeria

Abstract
The main thrust of this review is the perceived central position of professional focus to the effectiveness of any category of teacher in Nigeria. According to literature, indicators like instructional delivery, students' assessment, learning environment, teachers' personal quality, motivation, and subject-content- knowledge among others were used to measure teachers' effectiveness. Distraction, professional development, interpersonal relationship and punctuality were seen as essential components of professional focus that determines teachers' effectiveness. Recommendations suggested were based upon these components of professional focus.

Keywords: professional focus, professional development, interpersonal relationship, teacher effectiveness, punctuality.

INTRODUCTION

Darling-Hammond (2010) defined an effective teacher as one who is intellectually challenging, motivating students, setting high standards and encourages self-initiating learning. Anderson (2004) viewed an effective teacher as those teachers who achieved the goals set for them or goals set for them by others like the Ministry of Education.

Effective teachers are very important for students learning. However, teachers' effectiveness is difficult to define since there has not been a consensus agreement on what measured quality teacher (Stronge, Ward and Grant, 2011). However, it is possible to measure some teachers' attribute like interaction with student, teaching strategy, motivation, pedagogical content knowledge and classroom management through qualitative research approach. These teachers' attributes could act in a long way to determine teachers' effectiveness. Stronge, Ward and Grant (2011) identified four dimensions that were used to characterize an effective teacher as follows:

- Instructional effectiveness
- Uses of assessment for student learning
- Positive learning environment and
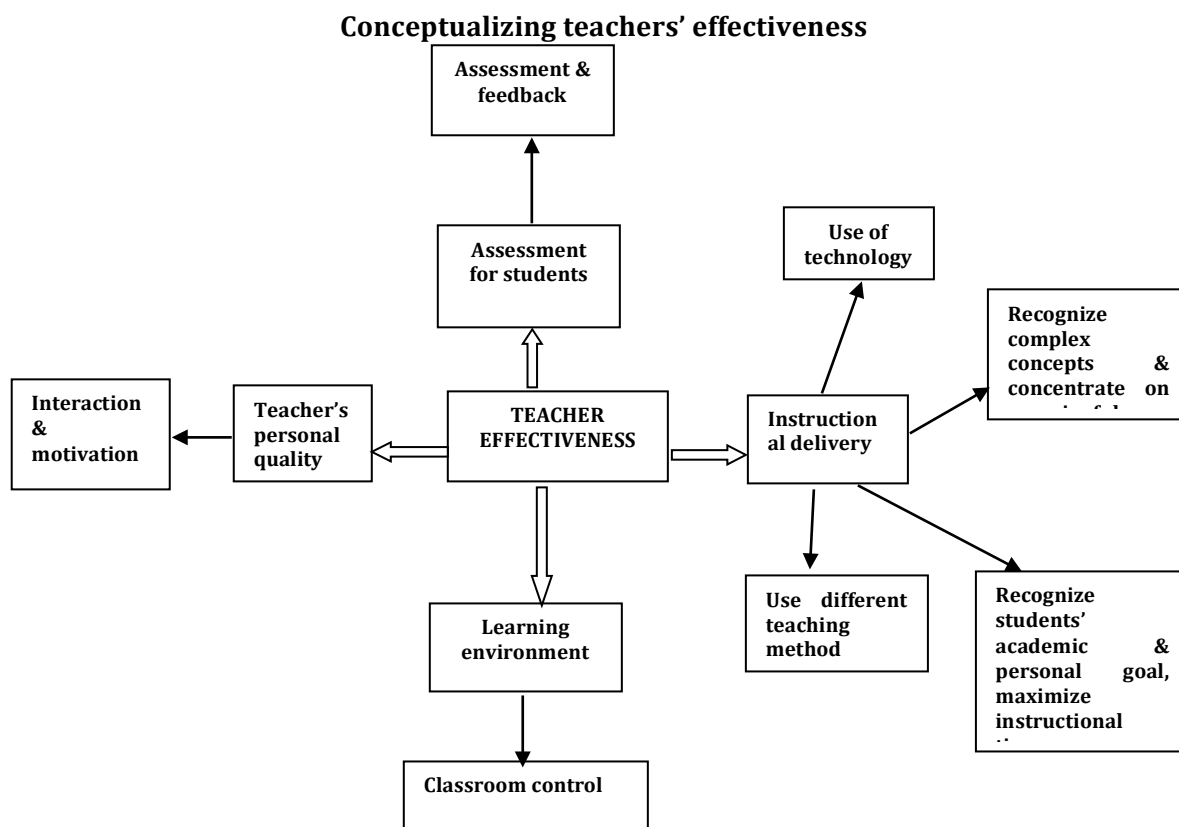- Personal quality of the teacher

Conceptualizing teachers' effectiveness

Fig.1: Conceptual framework

From the figure above we could measure an effective teacher by his or her instructional delivery; the way he or she uses assessment to measure students' learning; his or her interaction with students' learning environment and the personal qualities of the teacher. An effective teacher should be able to use different type of teaching method and know when and how to change from one method to another in a lesson (Stronge, Ward and Grant, 2011; Aina, 2013).

An effective teaching should not only be concern with students' academic goals. Teachers' effectiveness should encompass concern for students' personal goals. Students enter into classroom from different background and they have come to the class with different mind apart from academic which an effective teacher should bear in mind. An effective teacher should always maximize instructional time and make good use of it (Stronge, Ward and Grant, 2011). A teacher who wastes time in classroom discussing on nonessential thing is not effective.

An effective teacher must have a high expectation about learning. A teacher who has low expectation of his or her students about learning a concept would not care if at the end of the teaching students doesn't understand the concept. If on the other hand, the teacher had aimed high on students understanding of the concept; but at the end of the lesson the students doesn't understand, the teacher should be moved to seek for the cause and possibly teach the concept again for improvement in understanding.

Effective teacher especially in science make use of different type of technologies in his or her classroom (Aina, 2013a). There are many applications of technologies in teaching and learning depending on the knowledge of the user (Collis and Moonen in Nguyen, Williams and Nguyen 2012). The use of technologies is an imperative for all effective teachers in schools today.

Effective teachers do not ignore complex concepts or topics in the curriculum but rather he or she will do everything possible as an effective teacher to ensure that such concepts are meaningful to the students.

Assessment and feedback is very important to students learning. Aina and Adedo (2013) found that feedback is very important in teaching and learning because it improve student learning. Every effective teacher should know how, when and the type of assessment and feedback needed in his or her lesson. We have different types of assessment, whichever form it might take, assessment activities takes much time of the teachers and has an important place both in teachers and students' lives (Ceyhum and Erodogan, 2013).

Maintaining a positive environment for learning is the responsibility of an effective teacher. It is easy to distinguish between a teacher who is effective and the one who is not effective by the way they manage their classroom when lesson is going on. Managing classroom very well for effective learning is the responsibility of an effective teacher. The ability of teachers to organize classrooms and manage the behavior of their students is central to achieving good educational outcomes (Oliver and Reschly, 2007). Orji (2014) affirmed that effective teaching requires among other things basic management skill which include understanding of the nature of classroom. Oliver and Reschly, (2007) cited Berliner that the teacher who have problems in classroom discipline is frequently ineffective in classroom.

An effective teacher will always interact well with students both within and outside the classroom because this is very important to students' learning. Interaction between teacher and student in school is very important and effective teachers should ensure maximum interaction that will enhance learning in the classroom. Aina (2013b) faulted lack of adequate interaction between teacher and student as one of the reasons Physics students do not perform well academically. Interest and achievement of students lie within the teacher and students interaction/relationship in a given subject (Onah and Ugwu, 2010). Creating classroom environments that promote positive cultures with healthy interactions can motivate students to channel their energies and desires to reach their goals (Nugent, 2009, p. 1).

Teacher-students interaction is very important in school as it aid student success. The interaction between teacher and student is essentially the fundamental basis for teaching. A good teacher-student relationship may be even more valuable for students with behavior and learning challenges (Caballero, 2010).

Most students learn best in the environment where they are able to freely express their feeling and this could be a situation when they are free with the teacher. Knoell (2012, p. 12) agreed that learning occurs best in an environment that contains positive interpersonal relationships and interactions and in which learner feel appreciated, acknowledged, respected and admired. Students who enjoy a close and supportive relationship with a teacher are more engaged and work harder in the classroom, persistence in the face of difficulties and cope better with stress (Hughes and Kwok, 2007).

The importance of interaction is underscored by the new teaching paradigm called Peer Instruction (PI). Peer Instruction is an instructional strategy for engaging students during class activities through a structured questioning process that involves every student (Crouch, Watkins, Fagen and Manzur, 2007). Peer Instruction is a cooperative-learning technique that promotes critical thinking, problem solving, and decision-making skills (Rao and DiCarlo, 2000). Peer Instruction (PI) is an interactive approach that was designed to improve the

learning process (Rosenberg, Lorenzo and Manzur, 2006). This method has the advantage of engaging the student in interaction among themselves and with the teacher. The effectiveness of PI is centered on being able to encourage students' interaction in the classroom within themselves and with the teacher.

Apart from those attribute of teachers' effectiveness mentioned above, others that are very important in measuring teachers' effectiveness are motivation, content knowledge and students' homework. Motivation could act as a catalyst for many science students who have lost interest in the course, may be because of the abstract nature of the subject (Adeyemo, 2010; Aina, 2013b) or because of teachers' poor strategies of teaching (Wanbugu, Johnson and Francis, 2013). According to Christiana (2009), motivation is very important to students' learning. Where this motivation is lacking because of teachers' ineffectiveness the result is always not good.

Teacher effectiveness in classroom is very important and where a teacher is not effective in teaching, students' academic performance will be poor. The importance of teacher effectiveness must not be toyed with and that is the more reason it is not appropriate to employ unqualified teacher to schools.

Any effective teacher should know the importance of homework in teaching and learning and should ensure he/she regularly administers it to the students. Homework is recognized as one indicator of successful schools and successful students. Teacher should design homework that is more effective and encouraging which allows low-ability students to complete at the given time (Epstein and Voorhis, 2001).

Content knowledge is very important and a serious factor to be considered for any effective-teacher. It is what a teacher knows that he/she will teach students. Obodo (1990) said if teachers are not sound in the content of what he or she teaches, there will be problem in both quality of learning and students' academic performance. There is no way a teacher who is deficient in the subject knowledge will be effective in teaching. When a teacher is not very sound in content knowledge he or she will have low self-efficacy.

Studies have shown that teacher self-efficacy is important variable in teachers' effectiveness that is consistently related to teacher behaviors and students outcomes (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003). The assumption by some people that teacher who has low self-efficacy cannot be effective is supported by Podell and Soodark (1993) that, high efficacy teachers are more apt to produce better students outcomes because they are more persistent in helping students who have problems. Studies revealed that teachers who have high level of self-efficacy regarding their ability to teach can produce superior student achievement across a range of academic disciplines (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003).

Bandura (1993, p.140) believed that teachers who perceive themselves efficacious will spend more time on students' learning, support students in their goals and reinforce intrinsic motivation. Barnes (1998) posited that there is positive correlation between self-efficacy and teachers' effectiveness. Teacher self-efficacy accounts for individual differences in teachers' effectiveness (Bray-Clark and Bates, 2003).

Teachers' effectiveness is very important in teaching which could be a factor to use in raising the academic standard of any dying school. Xu, Ozek and Corrotore (2012) pointed out that moving effective teachers to disadvantaged schools could potentially raise student performance in those schools.

Effective-teachers should have the knowledge and the skill requires to achieve the goals (self-goals or school goals) and be able to use the knowledge and skill appropriately if the goals are to be achieved (Anderson, 2004). The effect of teachers' effectiveness on student achievement is both additive and cumulative; teachers' effectiveness increase students' academic achievement (Sanders and Rivers, 1996).

Professional focus

Professional focus is the hallmark of teachers' effectiveness. Teaching is a profession and therefore for anyone to be effective in this profession he or she must be focused. The problem we have in teaching profession in Nigeria today is loss of focus. Many other professions in Nigeria like medical and banking are effective because people who practiced the profession remain focused. Inadequate emphasis on professionalism in the teaching domain is a plague to teachers' effectiveness. This Olanipekun (2013) hints at while appraising SSCE English language curriculum in Nigeria. To him, such teachers lack the teaching methods; they cannot even follow the progress of a child psychologically, emotionally and otherwise in learning the language via continuous assessments and tests. Probably, this inadequate emphasis on professionalism lead teachers into the loss of focus and made them not values the profession.

As observed by Stronge et al (2011) that effectiveness can be measured by instructional delivery, assessment of students' learning, learning environment and personal quality of the teacher. All these could only be possible for someone with a professional focus. Once the professional focus is not there those constructs also becomes mere mirage. Four things come to mind when we are talking about professional focus, which are distraction, professional development, interpersonal relationship and punctuality.

Distraction

Many things distract our teachers today. Many doctors and bankers will never allow anything to distract them. You hardly can see any medical doctor seeking for teaching job in schools; but teachers are seeking for job in bank and even in hospital. Many teachers are business men and women; they bring goods to sell in schools. Any little opportunity they have they quickly advertise and sell their products within and outside the school. Such teachers have lost professional focus because they are distracted therefore cannot be effective. They were trained as teachers and no other things. This is distraction. An effective teacher focuses on his or her teaching job without being distracted by any other assignment while on the job.

Professional development

Professional development is activities that develop an individual skill, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher (OECD, 2009). It is a conscious and systematic steps to ensure teachers up-grading and continuous self-improvement (Oluremi, 2013). Professional development is critical to the retention and improvement of any teacher in classroom (American Association of Physics Teachers, 2009, p.22).

An effective teacher constantly and consistently develops his or her teaching skill and knowledge. A teacher who remains on the job and failed to develop his or herself through seminar, conference and workshop for years has lost his or her professional focus. As a teacher more than 40% of the skill and knowledge I possessed now was not got during pre- service training but during in-service training.

Interpersonal relationship

Schools are not established in communities where there are no human beings. Even if schools are located where there are no human beings yet students in the classroom have parents or guidance. An effective teacher will always create opportunity to interact with the immediate community and the parents. This is probably one of the good qualities of Finnish teachers that earned them world recognition.

Finnish teachers formally work in the classroom teaching, preparation for class and two hours in a week to plan school work with their co-teachers. Finnish teachers' work is devoted to the improvement of classroom practice; the school as a whole and also work with the community (Sahlberg, 2010).

A teacher who does his or her work all alone without interacting with co-professional and students' parents has lost his or her professional focus. Teaching is not restricted into classroom alone. There should be that interpersonal relationship between individuals, groups and organization in the community for a holistic development of our students.

Punctuality

There is a saying that "punctuality is the soul of a business". A teacher who comes late to class under any guise is not effective. Coming late to class is tantamount to wasting instructional time and according to Stronge et .al (2011), an effective teacher should maximize instructional time. When a teacher has formed a habit of coming late to class, it is obvious that such teacher has been distracted and lost teaching focus.

Therefore, through qualitative research method we can measure teachers' effectiveness using Professional Focus as conceptualized in the Venn diagram below.
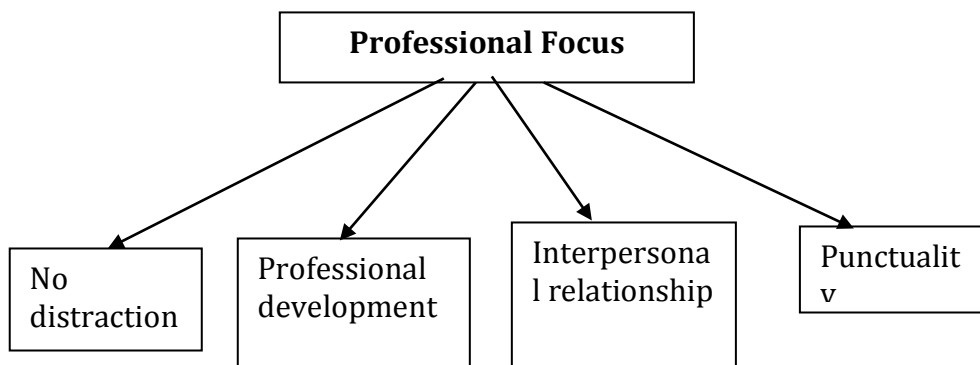

Fig.2: Professional Focus

CONCLUSION

Teachers' effectiveness is very important to student learning and it could be determine through qualitative research method. According to literature, instructional delivery, students' assessment, learning environment, teachers' personal quality, motivation and subject-content-knowledge are indicators among others used to measure teachers' effectiveness. The perspective of this paper is that professional focus is the hallmark of teachers' effectiveness. The paper posits that, lack of distraction, good professional development, interpersonal relationship and punctuality are essential components of professional focus that make a teacher effective.

Recommendations
In view of this conclusion, the following recommendations are suggested:
- All forms of distractions in teaching profession should be remove where practically possible;
- Attendance of seminar, conference and workshop must be made compulsory for all categories of teachers. Where necessary teachers should always go for in-service training to update their skills and knowledge;
- Teachers should cultivate the idea of always relating with individuals, groups and organizations outside the school communities purposely for students' learning;
- Teachers should take teaching job seriously and ensure prompt attendance to their classes.

References

Adeyemo, S.A. (2010). Teaching/ learning physics in Nigerian secondary school: The

curriculum transformation, issues, problems and prospects. International Journal of Educational Research and Technology, (1),99-111

Adeyinka, A, Asabi, O,&Adedotun, O. (2013). Teachers' motivation on students'

performance in mathematics in government secondary school Markurdi Local Government Area. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention, 2(5), 35-41.

Aina, J. K. (2013a). Integration of ICT into physics learning to improve students' academic achievement: Problems and solutions. Open Journal of Education, 1(4), 117-121.

Aina, J. K. (2013b). Effective Teaching and Learning in Science Education through information and Communication Technology [ICT]. IOSR Journal of Research and   Method in Education, 2(5); 43-47.

Aina, J. K.,&Adedo, G.A. (2013). Correlation between continuous assessment (CA) and Students' performance in physics. Journal of Education and Practice, 4(6), 6-9.

American Association of Physics Teachers (2009). Education, qualifications, and professional development of secondary school physics teachers. College Park, MD, USA: Author.

Anderson, L.W.(2004). Increasing teacher effectiveness. UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning. Fundamental of Educational Planning-79.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning.

Educational Psychologist, 28(2), 117–148.

Barnes, G.L.V. (1998). A comparison of self-efficacy and teaching effectiveness in pre-service string teachers. (Doctoral thesis). Ohio state university, USA.

Bray-Clark, N.,& Bates, R. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher effectiveness: Implications for professional development. The Professional Educator, 26(1), 13-22.

Caballero, J.A.R. (2010). The effects of teacher-student relationship, teacher, expectancy and culturally-relevant pedagogy on student academic achievement.(Doctoral thesis, University of Redlands, USA) Retrieved from http://udini.proquest.com/...-student-goid:897551383/

Ceyhum, O.,&Erodogan, K. (2013). Adaptation of Attitudes toward Educational Measurement Inventory (ATEMI) to Turkish. E- International Journal of Education Research, 4(2), 29-47.

Christiana, O. (2009). Influence of motivation on students' academic performance. Medwell Journals, 4(1), 30-36.

Crouch, C.H, Watkins,J., Fagen, A.P. &Manzur, C. (2007). Peer Instruction: Engaging students one-on-one, all at once.Research-Based Reform of University Physics. Retrieved from www.mazur.harvard.edu/sentFiles/Mazurpubs_537.pdf.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Evaluating teacher effectiveness. How Teacher Performance Assessments Can Measure andImprove Teaching. Center for American Progress.

Epstein, J.L., &Voorhis, F.L. (2001) School, Family, and Community Partnerships: Preparing Educators and Improving Schools. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Hughes, M.F. (1999). Similar students-dissimilar opportunities for success: High- and low-achieving elementary schools in rural, high-poverty areas of West Virginia. Journal of Research in Rural Education, 15(1), 47-58.

Knoell, C.M. (2012). The role of the student-teacher relationship in the lives of fifth graders: a mixed methods analysis. (Doctoral thesis, University of Nebraska). Retrieved from ttps://www.google.co.za/search?q=Knoell%2C+C.M.+(2012).+The+role+of+the+student-teacher+relationship+in+the+lives+of+fifth+graders%3A

Nguyen, N, Williams, J & Nguyen, T. (2012). The use of ICT in teaching tertiary   physics: Technology and pedagogy. Asia-Pacific Forum on Science Learning and Teaching.13 (2), 1-13.

Nugent, T.T. (2009). The impact of teacher-student interaction on student motivation and achievement. (Doctoral thesis, University of Central Florida).retrieved from https://www.google.co.za/search?q=Nugent%2C+T.T.+(2009).+The+impact+of+teacher-student+interaction.

Obodo G.C. (1990). Teacher Effectiveness as an Indicator of Quality Education. APGEN Mnonograph Series, 1(1), Owerri.:Totan Publishers Ltd.

OECD (2009): Organization for International Cooperation and Development (2009). Teaching and Learning International Survey (Talis). Paris: OECD.

Olanipekun S.S. 2013. Appraisal of Nigerian senior secondary school's English language curriculum in the light of modern curriculum, Advances in Arts, Social Sciences and Educational Research, vol. 3 (7) ; 527 – 532.

Oliver, R.M., &Reschly, D.J. (2007). Effective classroom management: Teacher preparation

and professional development. National Comprehensive Centre for Teacher Quality. Washington. DC.

Oluremi, O.F. (2013). Enhancing educational effectiveness in Nigeria through teacher's professional development. European Scientific Journal, 9(28), 422-431.

Onah, D.U, &Ugwu, E. I. (2010). Factors which predict performance in secondary school physics in Ebonyi North educational zone of Ebonyi state, Nigeria. Advance in Applied Science Research, 1(3), 255-258.

Orji, N.S. (2014). Relationship between science teachers' classroom management effectiveness and students' outcomes in Chemistry. InternationalJournal of Modern Education Research, 1(1), 11-14.

Rao, S. P., &DiCarlo, S. E. (2000). Peer instruction improves performance on quizzes. Advances in Physiology Education, 24(1), 51-55.

Rosenberg, J.L., Lorenzo, M. &Manzur, C. (2006). Peer Instruction: Making Science Engaging,. National Science Teachers Association. Retrieved from www. mazur.harvard.edu/publications.php?function=display&..

Podell, D., &Soodak, L. (1993). Teacher efficacy and bias in special education referrals. Journal of Educational Research, 86, 247–253.

Sahlberg, P. (2010). The secret to Finland's success: Educating teachers. Stanford Centre for Opportunity Policy in Education-Research brief.

Sanders, W. L., & Rivers, J. C. (1996). Research project report: Cumulative and residual effects of teachers on future student academic achievement. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Value-Added Research and Assessment Centre. Retrieved from http://www.mccsc.edu/~curriculum/cumulative%20and%20residual%20effects%20of%20teachers.pdf.

Wanbugu, P.W., Changeiywo, J.M.,&Ndiritu, F.G. (2013). Investigations of experimental cooperative Concept mapping instructional approach on secondary school girls' achievement in physics in Nyeri County, Kenya. Journal of Education and Practice 4(6), 120-130.

Xu, Z., &Özek, U. (2012). Portability of Teacher Effectiveness across School Settings.

National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research, Working paper 77.

Operationalization of Ngos Activities: Proposing an E-Social Network Model for Ngos Activities in Edo State, Nigeria.

A.O. Odita
Dept. of Accounting, B & F, Faculty of Mgmt. Sc.,
Delta State Uni.Asaba Campus

Ehiedu Victor
Dept. of Accounting, B & F, Faculty of Mgmt. Sc.,
Delta State Uni.Asaba Campus

Abstract
In recent years, especially in developed countries, various systems have been created to advance the management and organization of the potentials and resource base of NGOs towards maximizing their benefits to the society. Such systems use the latest communications technology and electronic and digital resources, and have developed huge networking systems like SIGLE (System for Information on Grey Literature) and NTIS (National Technical Information Service) to distribute and manage the efforts of civil societies. Because of the scarcity of a global standardized organization system for information management and often limited access to computer technology, efficient management of information and development cooperation/interrelationship among NGOs is still seriously lacking, particularly in developing countries. Based on the impact assessment of registered NGOs in Edo State, Nigeria, this study proposes an e-social network model. This paper explains the current state of interactive relations among NGO organizations within the State, and stakeholders and actors in development interventions, then assesses their needs for a networking system, and finally recommends a functional electronic network model for the operationalization of their development activities to meet today's global challenges.

Keywords: Networking, E-communication, Information management, Community Development

INTRODUCTION
Conceptualizing the relationship and interaction among NGOs in Edo state will help concretize the link between NGO sector, people of Edo State Community and donor agencies and other potential external actors. I feel strongly that those who spend intervention/project monies have a responsibility to state publicly their effort, assess its validity and to make information about these judgments available to those who were the intended beneficiaries and to others whose interests may have been affected.

NGOs in Edo State and in Nigeria are involved in social development and are continually affected, directly or indirectly, by the experiences of the world in the field of crises, disasters, and other related events. These NGOs are playing a vital role in managing, creating, and disseminating information, ideas, and solutions for rehabilitation and social development. They serve as active partners of the Government and International agencies.

Faced with new challenges, due to their increasing numbers, sizes, and interventions. NGOs community in Edo State, Nigeria, are in dire need of a coherent networking system that will

enhance efficient management of information and knowledge flow atmosphere, typical of what obtains in developed world.

The value of network perspective surpasses other abstract models that seemingly have been in used (especially, in other areas of development interventions). The most appropriate comparator is the logical framework for summarizing the intensions of development aid programme (Gasper, 1997; 2000). There are also other similar abstract stage models of what is called " The program Logic" used in other fields such as Bennett's hierarchy (Bennett 1975) which has seven stages, and the Kellogg foundation's logic model which has five stages (Kellogg, 2000).

However, the above line of thought, do not advocate the total rejection of the use of the logical framework. It is useful in a situation involving a small number of actors and where outcomes within in those relationships are reasonably predictable. Not, surprisingly, it often features in contractual relationships. It may also be useful strictly as a summary device (Davies 2003).

For effective operationalization and internationalization of development activities, functional E- Network is the most suitable, efficient, and cost effective medium for both NGOs and Community Based Organization's (CBOs) in Edo State, Nigeria, to meet today's unfolding world challenges. The paper, thus, seeks to develop an e-social network model for the operationalization of NGOs development activities, in Edo state, to meet global challenges.

WHAT IS A NETWORK MODEL?

A Network is a simple concept. It consists of two things: nodes and links. In social network analysis the nodes of concern are people, groups, and organization. In other areas of Network analysis the nodes of concern may be pages in the World Wide Web, different species in the ecosystem or different compounds in a cell (Davies 2003).A social network model will, thus, contain as links, social contact, changes of information, political influences, money, joint membership in an organization, joint participation in specific events or many other aspects of human relationships.

Figure 1: Krackhardt's kite – used to illustrate different types of network relationships
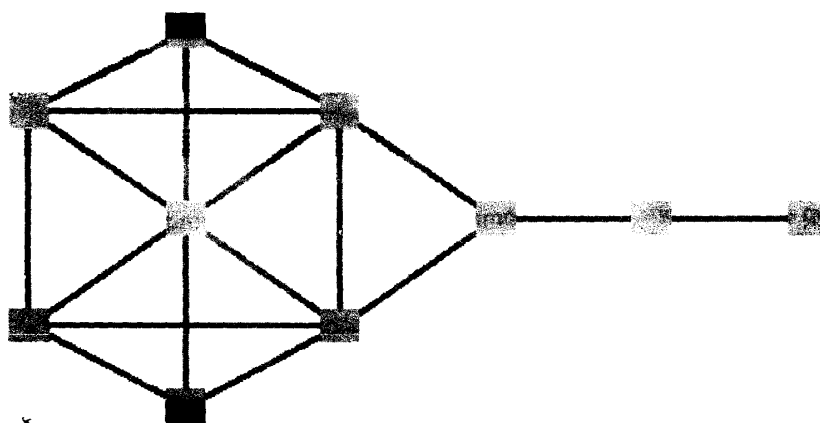
The defining feature of social network analysis is the focus on the structure relationship between people (or whatever entity is of concern). This is contrasted with other areas of the social sciences where it is claimed the focus has been on attributes of actors, the characteristic of people, groups and organization, rather that the relations between them (Scott, 2002, Monge and Contractor, 2003).

It should be noted here that this conception of networks is very broad; it encompasses formal hierarchical organizations, heterachies (Matrix Structure) teams, named and unnamed network and crowds.

Figure 2: Stakeholder linkages in an Africa ICT programme (existing and potential)
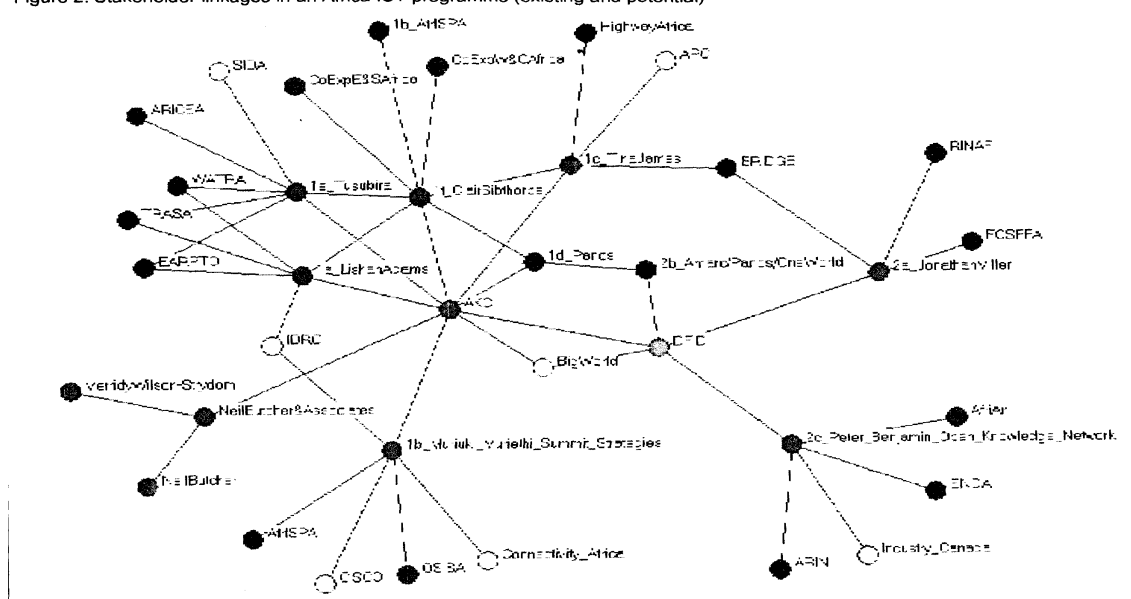
Source: adapted from Davies' Network Perspective (2003)

Justification For Social Network Perspective

Development activities are enmeshed in social networks, formal and informal, involving individuals and organizations which principal aim is to affect the lives of people within those networks, and those marginal to those networks. In contrast other abstract networks are about stages described as outputs purpose and goal, whose specific meaning is not always easy to communicate across cultures or even within culture (Or organization).

Describing development activities within the confines of social network, systematically, brings in a multi-stakeholder perspective. This is not   present in the structure of logical framework model or other abstract models. The essence of capturing multi-stakeholders in social network perspective it to highlight stakeholders' interest and their relationship with project, which help to highlight potential impact in development projects.

For instance, a social network representation of an aid programme enables attention to be quickly focused on whose is influencing whom, directly and indirectly, up to whatever level of complexity is required. Figure 2 shows a provisional mapping of stakeholder relationships in a multi- country information and communication technologies (ICTS) project in Africa. Though oversight noted in this social network representation that are to be resolved include and how many   Africa organization still need to be brought into the network, how the Africa Organization will link further out to poor communities and their institutions, and how the donors can link up.

Nature Of Network Modeling

There is a wide range of methods for describing the structure of network, and   people's places within those networks. This provides theory builders with a corresponding large number of opportunities   to specify the type of changes they think will take place in the network structures (as the dependant variable) or the types of network structures that will be

associated with particular changes (network structure as the dependant variable). The same methods can be used simply to describe the current set of relationship relating to development intervention

Figure 2: Actor Linkage matrix KFSR project, Namibia, from Biggs and Matsaert (1998)
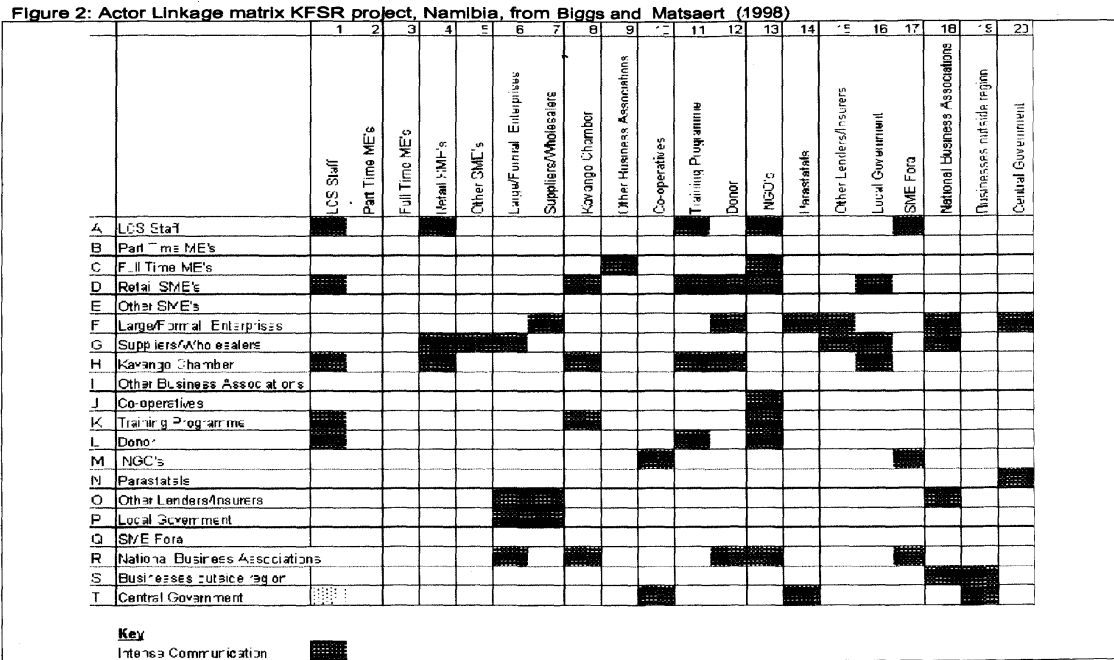
Source: adapted from Davies' Network Perspective (2003)

One means of representing network structures is through the use of matrices showing actors links with actors. These allow compact and detailed descriptions of network relationships but they are not easy to comprehend at a glance. This type has been applied to actors' linkages by Biggs & Matsaert (1998) and Temel (2001).

Figure 4: Network diagram showing linkages in Figure 3 matrix (from Biggs and Matsaert (1998)
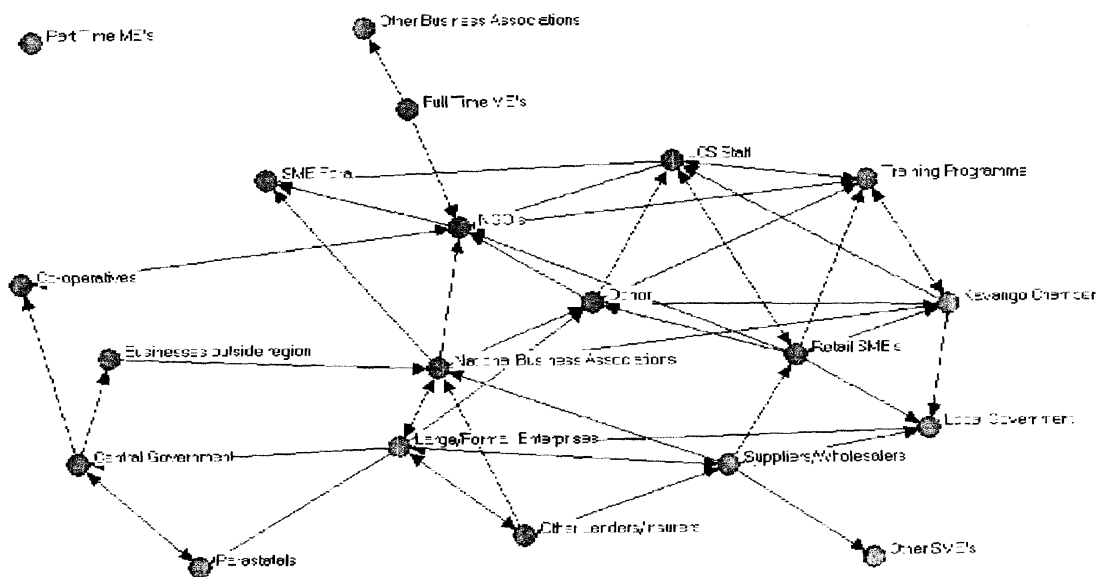
Source: adapted from Davies' Network Perspective (2003)

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

There is a wide range of theories available to inform thinking about changes in networks, and this is very multidisciplinary. At the same time social network analysis is free from dominance by any particular theoretical view as to how networks. Monge and Contractor (2003) have noted "the field does not have a coherent, overarching framework for integrating conceptual, theoretical and empirical work" while some may see this as limitation, it is also an opportunity.

Further still in network conceptualization Monge and Contractor in their theory of Communication Networks review, identify and analyzed five major families of theories about networks. Outside of the fie1d of social network analysis there are other important theoretical perspectives on networks, most notably that of Complex Adaptive Systems (CAS), and the mathematics of networks (Baraabasi, 2002) which have prompted new forms of investigation into social networks. For instant the Department For International Development (DFID) have funded examination of networks and social capital, this seems to have limited its references largely to the literature within the development field (Fraser et al, 2003).

Network theories have practical value. Through network structure a network of NGO networks in Bangladesh could monitor and evaluate its achievements. The method, which was pre-tested in a workshop with network members, made use of Burt's (2000) analysis of the "network structure of social capital". This distinguished two aspects of social capital, as it exists in network form. One is in the form of a dense set of interconnections between network members, which is seen as the basis of trust. The other is in form of individual members' own particular linkage beyond the network.this means of brokering access to influence and resources between the network and wider world. All members had their own specific links to external resources (in the form of donors) but fewer had external links that could be used for inf1uencing purposes in their field, more importantly, mutual knowledge about the existence of these links seemed more limited.

Network analysis has been carried out at many different scales (Barabasi, 2002). At the smallest scale, the network structure of the human genome has been subject of research, as have metabolic networks within human cells. On a larger scale, studies have been made of inter-locking directorates and global alliances in corporations, international trade networks and terrorist networks. The network structure of the World Wide Web is a subject of continuing interest.

There are a number of developments that make scalability an important attribute of network representations. As is now well known, in many countries DFID has been scaling up the size of its aid investments and moving from single donor to multi-donor support. The justification here is that there are a multitude of actors whose interactions need to be taken into account. A network perspective is increasingly relevant at this level.

There are also scale related developments within the third (NGO) sector that increase the relevance of a network perspective. Alliances between major NGOs and international donors, such as the Oxfams, the SCF's the CAREs and World Visions, all have varying degrees of semi autonomous network structures, with less centralization of authority than their individual country components have had up to now. More visible are the special purpose international advocacy networks involving large numbers of very diverse groups of NGOs, around issues relating to debt, trade, HIV/AIDs and more.

Insight Into Ngos Activities In Edo State

Traditionally, philanthropic social institutions such as hospitals, schools, orphanage home, etc were operated mostly by religious organizations in the past in then Western region where the defunct Bendel State emerged and subsequently Edo and Delta State. Though these philanthropic organizations were not recognized as NGOs, the terminology NGOs gained popularity in the seventies as an adequate nomenclature distinct from government owned establishments.

The activities of NGOs which began in the region when it was part of the defunct Bendel State gained strength in the 80's during the period of the Nigerian economic crises and the pre structural adjustment era. The numbers of NGOs and the nature of their work have changed remarkably over the years.

Table 1: Registered NGOs in Edo State

S/N	NAME	ADDRESS
1	Women Health and Action Research Centre (WHARC)	4 Aloje ST. off Uwasota rd. Benin City. (B/C)
2	Planned Parenthood Federation of Nigerian (PPFN)	156 2nd East Circular RD. B/C
3	Scripture Union (SU)	56 Urubi ST. B/C
4	IRRRAG Nig.	43 Ehaekpen ST. B/C
5	Department of Health Service, Catholic Arch Diocese	30 Airport ST., B/C
6	African Women Empowerment Guild (AWEG)	29 Airport rd, B/C
7	Red Cross Society	Red Cross rd, off Ikpokpan rd
8	Voice of Niger Delta Women	27 Oza ST. Abraka RD.
9	Christian Women Fellowship International (CWFI)	4 Faith Way
10	The Balm Initiative	3B Usama ST. GRA B/C
11	SAVAN	UBTH Benin
12	Centre For Population and Environmental Development	2 BDPA housing Estate Ugbowo
13	Edo Under Privileged Trust Fund	2 Ihama ST. B/C
14	Koyanum Immalah Foundation KIF	30 1st East Circular RD B/C
15	Stay Alive Organization	6 2nd Aburime St. New Benin B/C
16	Help & Encourage Persons with HIV/AIDS (HEPA)	3 Iheya ST. New Benin B/C
17	Child Survival Campaigns	224 East Circular RD B/C
18	Idia Renaissance	2 Ihama RD. GRA B/C
19	FONWIP	45 Owina ST. B/C

20	Imade Foundation	103 New Lagos RD B/C
21	JDPC Benin	30 Airport rd B/C
22	Life Above Poverty Organization (LAPO)	Plot 6, S&T rd, opposite Uselu market B/C
23	JDPC Auchi	Auchi- Jettu Road
24	Owan Women Empowerment Project (OWEP)	Afuze
25	Oraifo Medical center Union	1 oriafo Close off Uromi-Ilushi rd., Uromi
26	Girls Power Initiative (GPI)	1 Egua close st. B/C
27	Suru Medical Centre, Ubiaja	Sun Lane off Askpa st. Eguname Ubiaja
28	SEPTRAD Ewohimi	10 Ofuri market rd. Okaigben Ewohimi
29	Women Action Initiative	30 Airport (catholic Estate B/C)
30	Society For Women and AIDS In African (SWAN)	UBTH, Edo State Chapter
31	Teens and Youths Information and Empowerment Centre (Teens Youths)	43, Eheekpen st. B/C
32	National Council for Women Societies	Edo State Chapter
33	Foundation Builders	45, Owina st., off sokpenba rd, B/C
34	Universal Welfare Association	7b Eghadase ST. B/C

Source: Ministry of Information Edo State, Nigeria (2012).

Statistics about the numbers of NGOs are notoriously incomplete, however, currently it is estimated that there is somewhat between 60 — 65 NGOs, while only 34 are formally registered in Edo State.

The NGOs exhibited in Table 1 are mostly local, individual operational NGOs, as they can best be described; they operate according to their purpose, philosophy, sectoral expertise and scope of activities. A run down of the registered NGOs shows that they exist in different NGOs typologies as exemplified by World Bank, they can be classified according to whether they are more relief or development-oriented, whether they are religious or secular, whether they stress services delivery or participation and whether they are more public or private oriented (World Bank 2002).

Table 1 shows the registered NGOs in Edo State. Though the exact numbers of NGOs cannot be said to be exhaustive by the list, since systematic documentation of NGOs work in the Nigeria is weak. A look at the partial distribution of NGOs in Edo state shows that the NGOs are concentrated in one region of the state, mostly within the Capital territory of the State. It is observed from the distribution in the State that 29 out of 34 of the registered NGOs are located in Edo South, precisely in Benin City, the State Capital.

Roughly over three decades have been the activities of NGOs in the region, with some emerging actively into the scene and leaving almost immediately as they had come. What seen to be

factors that may have informed the manner and ways NGOs have operated in the region over time remains a crucial question to be answered.

Table 11: Geographical distribution of NGOs by region

EDO STATE		
Region	**No**	**%**
Edo South	29	85
Edo Central	3	9
Edo West	2	6

Source: Author's survey (2012)

The emergency of NGOs have been attributed to certain factors, key among them is the era of structural reforms, most especially the IMF/ World Bank sponsored adjustment programme which ushered in an economics of deregulation and the active participation of private sector as well as the NGOs in development activities. For the data expressed in table III, the SAP, high rate of poverty and low level of education are dominant factors influencing the establishment of NGOs in the region. Of these three, poverty rate was ascribed to be most influential factor.

Table III: Factors enhancing the establishment of NGOs

Factor	Strongly Agreed (%)	Strongly Disagreed (%)	Indifference (%)
SAP	60	35	05
Democracy	20	64	16
Low Per Capital	49	31	20
High Rate of Poverty	72	26	02
Low level of Education	69	18	13

Source: Author's survey (2012)

Almost four decades have gone by since the operation of NGOs in the region and their strategic roles to development could be said to be at the minimum. Strategies often are relevant to the NGOs reality in the development of communities, since these strategies look beyond the individual communities and reinforce changes in specific policies and institutions at local, national and global areas. The strategies applied to community development by the range of NGOs under consideration are expressed in table IV. Though there seems to exist bewilding varieties of development strategies, which tend to make the rounds among the NGOs, but these are not meaningfully significant in the process of development within the study region. For instant, numerous forms of seminar and workshop were frequent activities carried out by the NGOs, but their efficiency or development impact on the communities are relatively difficult to assess.

Table IV: Strategies of development oriented NGOs

Strategies	Edo State	
	No. of NGOs	**Percentage**
Structural Adjustment Programme	16	43%
Relief & Welfare	15	41%
Enlightenment Campaign	04	11%
Capacity Building and Empowerment	16	43%

Source: Author's survey (2012)

Table V: Problems of project implementation by NGOs

Problem	Edo State		
	High	**Moderate**	**Little**
Lack of Government Support	53	35	12
Financial Constraint	65	30	05
Religious & Cultural Barriers/Community tribal strive	62	25	13
Lack of Professional Skill	17	28	55
Lack of Co-operation from target group hostility & harsh environmental terrain	20	11	69

Source: Author's survey (2012)

Development Impact Of Edo State Ngos

Even though there exists an increasing registration of NGOs in Edo state, findings reveal that a few are, however, active in operation leaving a majority of them inactive and even in most cases not existing. Unfortunately this seems to be the case with a majority of the NGOs. This is rather disturbing, but like it has been reasoned in some quarters, the non-operation and/or non-existence of some registered NGOs have been associated with the notion of "global Soup Kitchen" for NGOs (Edwards 2002). The message here is that the unwritten core mission of these NGOs is to part-take in the share of enormous international aid from foreign donor bodies. For instant the U.K. Department for Development earmarked 34million pound sterling for development assistance to Nigeria in 2003 purported to be channeled through union provided fund to one hundred NGOs belonging to the umbrella organization, Transition monitoring Group from 1999 to 2003 for the essence to follow up on the Federal and States election within this period.

The few NGOs that proved active exacted significant impact on the social and economic life of communities in their zones of operation. For instant the WHARC created values in the life of the communities in Edo state as revealed by the findings of the study. WHARC health delivery services has extended well beyond Edo State to other states like Akwa-Ibom, Cross Rivers, Imo, Anambra, Taraba, Adamawa and Bauchi, It has impacted education greatly through its libraiy and internet services. The library has access to more than 200 online journals. It also maintains a list of useful reproductive health websites that are retrieval of vital information.

The WHARC has also impacted in the area of employment generation by parading staff strength of forty employees including doctors, nurses and programmers.

The Idia Renaissance, through its various programmes and enlightenment campaign has ameliorated the rate of decadence in social values and orders in Edo state. Its activities have forestalled incessant human trafficking in the state and beyond. It has helped to rehabilitate victims of social disorders and human trafficking. A total of 357 cases of trafficked victims have been handled by the organization. Others notable impacts of the organization's programme on the lives of communities in Edo State include the following:

a. A total of 210 children have benefited from its 12 year scholarship programme
b. A total of 29 beneficiaries have completed their secondary education (each was given a total sum of 10,000naira per person. This sum covers uniform, school fess, cost of books and pocket money.
c. The organization's Trust Fund has touched the lives of so many amongst who are

I.   175 indigent children currently under scholarship.
II. Brain turmour operation of 2 babies (Naomi & Fumi)
III. Donation of equipment & facilities to handicap children.
IV. Provision of materials and succor to orphanage homes (Oronsaye and Edo orphanage centers)
V.   Grants to University of Benin Teaching Hospital, David Osunde Foundation and Ede Maternity.
VI. Offsetting of Hospital bills for so many patients who could not afford to pay.

d. The Organization Skill Acquisition Centre have benefited a total of 922 girls who have acquired several skills through free training sessions in vocations of their choice such as catering & Hotel management, computer & secretarial studies, Fashion Design & Tailoring and Hair dressing & Cosmetology.

Unfortunately, Survey revealed that most registered NGOs were only existing in paper. These NGOs were not operative in the addresses purported for their official residences. In the few cases where operative residence is located, the NGOs internal structure resembles that of a small private business where the people who set up NGOs are the directors, administrators, accountants with one or two clerical support staff. They appoint themselves all and all and never face election.

This revelation is most unfortunate, because it suggests that NGOs in the state have replaced their precious model of class struggle and potent service provider with a strategy of docility and ineffectiveness. In other words NGOs have given up their attempts of organizing the communities as collective actors and impacting positively on the lives of the poor, but have chosen the path of "the classical entrepreneurial Big man" a term used by Chabal (1999). It refers to cases where NGOs are used purely for commercial purpose. It is as well as to recognize that there is today an international aid market, which Africans knows how to play with great skill. Indeed there is very little doubt that NGOs spend an excessive proportion of their budget on furnishing their members with sophicated expensive equipment - computers, four wheel drive vehicles, assorted kinds of jeep and limousines - leaving too little for much needed development projects.

The study also reveals: a case of distributional inequality of NGOs operation in the state. The consequence of this will be the tendency of creating territorial imbalances between the regions well served by NGOs and those where NGOs actions were ineffective, especially now that the growing importance of NGOs as service provider has allowed state to assume even less responsibility for the welfare of their populace.

DEVELOPING AN E-SOCIAL NETWORK MODEL
From the above impact assessment of NGOs in Edo State, Nigeria, there are apparently loose ends with respect to registration procedure, spatial distribution, feedback mechanism, national and international connectivity and impact reflective mechanism. All these lapses, a network perspective, if developed, could arrest.

Temel (2001) has pointed that social network analysis can help "bridge the gap between conceptual descriptions of systems and their quantitative descriptions". One of the problems of attempts to use a systems perspective in the past has been the intangibility of the systems, and the boundaries, that are under discussion. When a network diagram is built up out of knowledge about a set of links between actors, each of which has one directional or bi-directional processes of influence we end up with a diagram showing something that could

legitimately be called a system. Furthermore, there are techniques within social network analysis for the identification of clusters, showing more internal linkages than external linkages, which is one way of defining system boundaries.

In their analysis of the agricultural innovation system in Azerbaijan Temel et al developed a matrix and a graph showing how different actors varied in the extent to which they influenced others, versus were the subject of others influencing. Similar analysis could be developed for many multi-actor development activity settings, using information about each actors' reported linkages with others. What is possibly interesting in network structure themselves is that such diagrams can also generate implications for evaluations of these systems.

Proposed Network Model
Adopting the core nature of network structure, a social network perspective of NGOs in Edo state with impact focuses on identifiable actors and the structure of relationship between them could take the following representation.

Fig. 5: E-Network Model
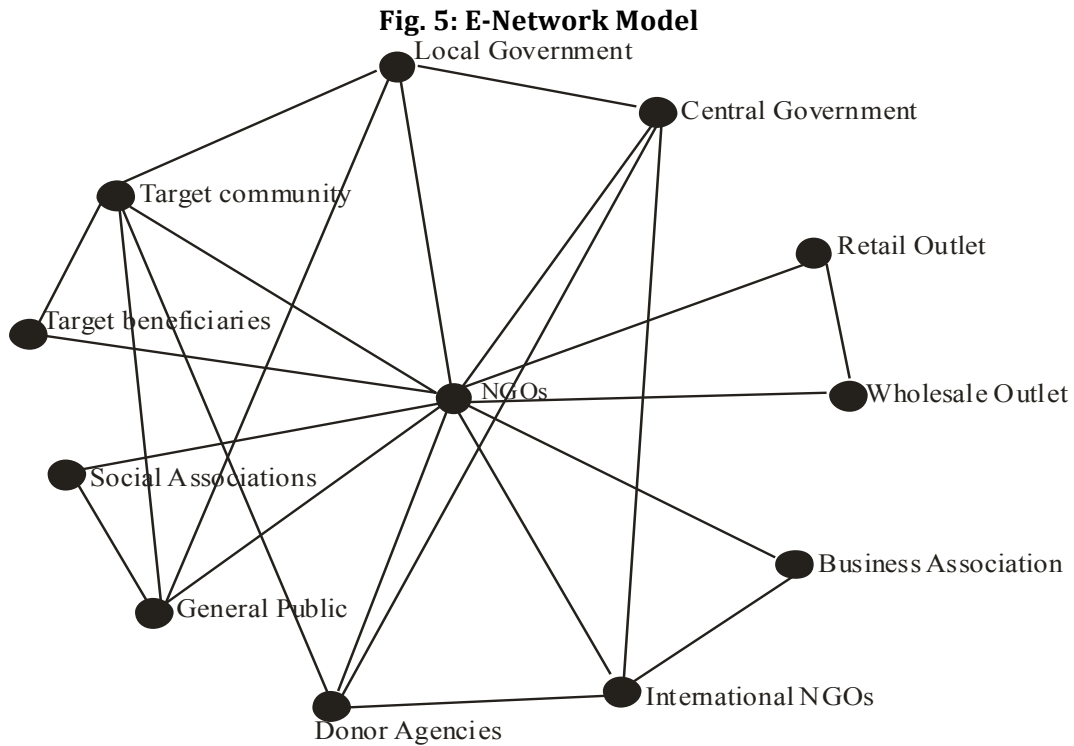
Source: Researcher' Estimation

Fig. 6: Actor Linkage matrix for Edo State NGOs (reflecting connectivity in fig 5.)

		NGOs	Local Gov.	Central Gov.	Retail outlet	Wholsal outlt	Bus. Assoc.	Inter. NGOs	Donor Agen.	Gen. public	Soc. Organ.	Target Ben.	Target comm.
1	NGOs (national centre)		magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta	magenta
2	Local government	magenta		pink						pink			pink
3	Central government	magenta	pink					orange	orange				
4	Retail outlet	magenta				lt. orange							
5	Whosale outlet	magenta			lt. orange								
6	Bus. Associations	magenta						green					
7	International NGOs	magenta		orange			green		cyan				
8	Donor agencies	magenta		orange				cyan					cyan
9	General public	magenta	pink								yellow	yellow	
10	Social associations	magenta								yellow		lt. green	
11	Target beneficiaries	magenta								yellow	lt. green		cyan
12	Target communities	magenta	pink					cyan				cyan	

Source: Researcher' Estimation

Electronic-Networking

With fewer resources, a simple networking system will be more suitable for Edo state NGOs, especially those with computer base unit. The proposed e-social network system will be software-based through NGO websites (Internet Server). The website will collect and disseminate the data. Through this website and appropriate software, an option will be created which will give access to members to feed and retrieve (search) information, obtaining membership, request/suggestion, expression effect or interest e.t.c.

Edo State has about 34 registered NGO that are neither automated nor computerized except for the six active ones whose activities and impacts were assessed in this paper. Majority of others are run manually due to the scarcity of finance, difficult in availability of good library software, and computer skills.

This proposed electronic networking system can solve the problem of all Edo State NGO information management system. They may computerize their operation within a few days without extra financial burden and computer expertise. Their operations have very small data which can be uploaded within few days. For this purpose it will not be necessary for a member

NGO to be computerized before acquiring the membership within the network structure in the State. To join the network, one PC and Internet connection will be required. The member NGO will be able to download the software with a simple tutorial. They may feed their data in the software offline (without connecting to the main database), and whenever they want they could upload their data into the main database by connecting to network via internet. They can also download their own data and the data or relevant activities of other NGOS.

In this system there will be an option to upload and download the data of all End user clients. There will be a facility available that the data from a member NGO can be feed without connecting the Internet and main server. If an NGO is not able to purchase more internet hours for data feeding and retrieving, the member NGO will be able to download all the data available on server by connecting the net, and they can search and feed the data offline. After a certain period they can download and upload to update their database.

Already Computerized NGOs will have no problem to be a part of the network: The NGOs that are already computerized and have compatible software for their operations will be able to be a member. They can merge their data and download the network's data by the software, or they can run both software parallel in one computer.

CONCLUSSION

Through the proposed network system, the NGOs in Edo State will be encouraged to share, to create, use and maintain an information system at the least possible cost, while the existing information resources and data base of NGOs will come within the range of users, that same can be circulated as National NGOs Data. This network can be extended and easily assessed by external actors.

An end user may become a server and may extend connections to other users inside or outside the network. There could be enhanced development to sub-networks within the system. This simply means that NGOs of same field and same nature, for example NGOs working on health may evolve sub-net work for sharing their resources and expanding their operations.

References

Barabasi, A.L (2002), Linked: The New Science of Networks. Perseus Publishing.   Cambridge . Mass.

Bigg S., Matsaert H. (1998). An Actor-oriented Approach for strengthening research and development capabilities in natural resource systems. Public Administration and Development vol. 19.

Burt R.S. (2000), "The Network Structure of Social Capital" in Research in organizational behavior, vol. 22.

Chabal, Patrick and Jean-Pascal Daloz (1999), Africa Works Disorder as Political Instruments. Oxford. James Currey

Davis Rick (2003), Monitoring and Evaluation Consultant, Cambridge, UK

DFID (2006), Issues And Development In South West Nigerian. DFID, Lagos.

Edwards, Michael (2002), "Ngo Performance: What Breeds Success? New Evidence From South Asia" In" Edwards, Michael And Fowler, Alan, Eds. The Earthscan Reader On NGOS Management P.445-488

Fraser, Thirkell, Mickay, (2003), Tapping Into Exiting Social Capital: Rich Connections Poor Connections. DFID & Social Development Direct. UK

Freeman, L.C (1999), Visualizing Social Networks. Journal Of Social Structure.
http://zeeb.library.cmu.edu:7850/Joss/article.html (accessed 16/04/2011)

Scott, J. (2002), Social Network Analysis: A handbook. Sage, London

Temel, T (2001), System Analysis By Graph Theoretical Techniques: Assessment Of Agricultural Innovation System Of Azerbaijan. International Service For National Agricultural Research, The Hague, The Netherlands

Temel T., Janssen w., Karimov F. (2001), The Agricultural Innovation System Of Azerbaijan: Functions, Linkages, And Constraints. International Service For National Agricultural Research, The Hague, The Netherlands

WORLD BANK (2002) "New Paths To Social Development Community And Global Networks In Action" Social Development Department Geneva. The World Bank.

Strategies for Enhancing Females Participation in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria

Adelakun Oluniyi A. M.Ed
Federal Government College, Lagos

Oviawe, Jane Itohan Ph.D
Department of Vocational and Technical Education
Ambrose Alli University. Ekpoma, Edo State

Barfa, Garba I. M.Ed
Department of Technical Education
Federal College of Education (Technical). Bichi, Kano State

Abstract

There is generally low enrolment of female students in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria. This study was carried out to determine strategies to enhance female participation in TVET in Nigeria hitherto dominated by males. The study adopted a survey research design. Three research questions were formulated to guide the study. The population of 153 comprised 95 female technical teachers, 58 female administrators in the technical colleges and skill acquisition centres in the zones covered by the study. The instrument was face-validated by three TVET experts in University of Nigeria, Nsukka. Cronbach Alpha was used to establish the reliability and a reliability coefficient of 0.85 was obtained. Mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data collected. The strategies determined were agreed upon as enhancement strategies as well as benefits accruable if females embrace TVET. It was recommended that wives of State governors should establish women organization in technology to sensitize females on the benefits of TVET. Money should be earmarked by government and other stake holders in technical education to ensure effective running of female-enhanced TVET programme.

Keywords: Technical, Vocational Education and Training, Females in TVET, Participation, Strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Education is a veritable tool for national development. It is central to socio-economic and technological advancement of any nation. It is critical to self-sustaining and self-generating process for positive transformation of society. Ocho (2005) described education as the process through which individuals are made functional members of the society. It is a process through which the young acquire knowledge, realize their potentials and use them for self-actualization (Offorma, 2009). The role of women education and empowerment cannot be underestimated. It is said that when you educate a man, you educate a person, but when you educate a woman, you educate a nation. This is because the education of every child starts from the family and the mother is the first teacher. According to the United Nations Human Development Report (2008-2009), Nigeria is classified as a low developed country in respect of equality in educational accessibility with Female Adult Literacy Rate (ages 15 and above) of 55.1% against 73.2% male. United Nations (1979) in UNESCO (2010) noted that women alone constitute one half of the world's population, do two-thirds of the world's work, earn one tenth of the world's

income and own one hundredth of the world's property including land. Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) (2013) posited that women and girls are under-represented in Career and Technical Education (CTE) programmes that prepare students for careers in high-paying occupations like Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM), the skilled trades, and other occupations traditionally done by men. Giving this disparity between women and men in highly skilled professions and to reduce the level of poverty in Nigeria, it is pertinent to carry women along in developmental efforts for self-sustenance through Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET).

Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET)
Technology is the scientific study and the application of scientific methods to practical tasks in industry for production of materials for the good and services of humans. It is a way of applying methods, tools, technical knowledge, machines and systems in the solution of human problems (Ezeji, 2011). Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) prepare people for skillful performance on practical tasks. It involves the acquisition of skills and competencies that can help individuals to function productively in industrial and commercial occupations (Wapmuk, 2011). Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) have been recognized the world over as tool for empowering people. It is the type of education which provides individuals with skills, knowledge and attitudes for effective employment in specific occupations. United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization UNESCO (2005) viewed Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related science, the acquisition of knowledge, practical skills and attitude relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life. Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is further understood to be:

- An integral part of general education;
- A means of preparing for occupational fields and for effective participation in the world of work;
- An aspect of lifelong learning and a preparation for responsible citizenship;
- An instrument for promoting environmentally sound and suitable development
- A method of alleviating poverty

The FRN (2004) stipulated the following objectives for Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET):
a) To provide trained manpower in applied science, technology and commerce particularly at sub-professional level.
b) To provide the technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, industrial, commercial and economic development.
c) To produce people who can apply scientific knowledge to the improvement and solution of environmental problems for the use and convenience of man.
d) To give an introduction to professional studies in engineering and other technologies.
e) To give training and impart the necessary skills leading to the production of craftsmen, technicians and other skilled personnel who will be enterprising and self-reliant.
f) To enable young men and women have an intelligent understanding of the increasing complexity of technology.

Thus Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) help an individual to become active citizen who contributes positively to the well-being and economic growth of the society. This implies that Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) gives attention to the

development of both material and human resources. For these good yields of Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programmes, it is obvious that no nation will adequately develop its technological base if it neglects the development of its workforce. This workforce embraces males and females who ought to have equal access to maximize their potentials. This is not the case with female education and females in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria.

Females in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET)
Females in the context of this study denote girls and women. There has been gender disparity against females. Females have less access (opportunities) to education in Nigeria as compared to males. Fewer girls enroll and complete their education than boys. (Robert, 2005, Okeke, 2002). Gender stereotyping exists in homes and school system. Most societies are patriarchal in nature, this is a situation where men are considered the most powerful. According to Napikoski (2014), patriarchal society consists of a male-dominated power structure throughout organized society and in individual relationships. United Nations Human Development Report (2008-2009) noted that inequality between genders stands out as a key policy challenge. The female gender is generally disadvantaged in access to education, employment, wage and access to land, among other things. Gender inequality is fuelled by many factors, including socio-cultural practices, low economic status, patriarchy and low education. According to Wubon (2013) education has not necessarily been a priority for the girl-child because of socio-cultural beliefs and perverted mindsets. It is believed that the place of the girl-child is in her husband's house. The male child is considered to be superior to the female-child in many aspects especially education and that is why in most cases; only the male child has access to education. In a situation where the parents are poor, they would always choose to use the little resources to train the boy-child in school and allow the girl-child to either hawk or engage in other activities.

In sub-Saharan Africa (Nigeria inclusive), the number of girls out of school each year has risen from 20 million in 1990 to 24 million in 2002 (Offorma, 2009). There exist wide variations across the States and zones with the North-east and North-west presenting the worst scenarios in Nigeria. According to United Nations Human Development Report (2008-2009) which is also corroborated by Afri-Dev.Info (2013), eight States in Northern Nigeria have the country's worst girl child education and health indices. The latest scorecard by a group of non-governmental researchers, revealed that Kebbi, Sokoto, Bauchi, Jigawa, Yobe, Zamfara, Katsina, and Gombe States have Nigeria's worst girl child education, highest female illiteracy, highest adolescent girl marriage, highest under 15 child bearing, and highest risk of maternal death and injury. The same 10 States, along with Kano State, have the highest percentage of females aged between 15 and 24 years who cannot read or write. Ebonyi in the South-east of Nigeria, for instance, is at number 12 of States with the highest percentage of girl-child not in secondary school. Similarly, for the number of adolescent girls in marriage, Bayelsa State came 13th, scoring worse than Adamawa, Benue, Taraba and Nasarawa States. This performance could further be worsened by the recent abduction of 276 female students in Chibok, North-eastern Nigeria (Ejiofor, 2014). This poor enrolment is further accentuated in female enrolment in Technical, Vocational Education and Training. It has long been known that female access to and participation in education in general and Science, Technical, Vocational Education and Training (STVET) in particular is generally poorer than that of boys. Evidence of this fact has been through various studies at national levels and by international organizations such as UNESCO and Gender and Science and Technology (GASAT). The situation has been so poor world-wide that the 4th UN Conference on Women, Beijing, 1995, had "Girl-Child Education" as one critical area of concern. According to American Association of University

Women (AAUW) (2011), women tend to be overwhelmingly clustered in low wage, low skill fields (they constitute 98 percent of students in the cosmetology industry, 87 percent in the child care industry, and 86 percent in the health aide industry). In high wage, high skill fields, they fall well below the 25 percent in the field commonly practiced by men (women account for 10 percent of students in the construction and repair industry, 9 percent in the automotive industry, and 16 percent in engineering). According to Federico Mayor in Hoffmann-Barthes, Nair and Malpede (2006), in a world increasingly shaped by science and technology, scientific and technological literacy is a universal requirement. It is vital to improve scientific and technological literacy among women and girls, whose unique educational function within the family make them such a major determinant of the attitude of present and future generations. The gender gap in TVET is far greater than that in other fields of education, with the girls lagging very far behind the boys in access, participation and performance. Concerned by what they termed the wide differing ratio between boys and girls in technical education, stakeholders spanning over 40 colleges of technology under the aegis of Women in Technical Education and Employment (WITED), in Nigeria convened at the Yaba College of Technology (YABATECH), Lagos to chart the way forward for addressing this gap. According to (Asomba, 2012), the wife of Lagos State Governor, Dame Abimbola Fashola posited that for Nigeria to be among the industrialised nations by the year 2020, there is need for more commitment to new and innovative teaching methods and techniques that will attract females to technical education. She remarked further that science and technology has remained the bedrock of industrial development that every nation aspires to attain, stressing that it has become imperative for the Nigerian girl-child to be incorporated in the roadmap of the country's technological development. This conspicuous gender disparity demands females' participation in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET).

Participation

Participation is the involvement in the process of making a decision, sharing in something or the state of being related to a larger whole. Participation gives a voice. Wilcox (2003) defined participation as a process during which individuals, groups and organisations become actively involved in a project. Faughnan and Kellagher in Reynolds and Healy (1993) defined participation as taking part in activities in a way designed to influence events whether in areas of policy formulation, implementation or evaluation. Females cannot effectively participate in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) until strategies are devised and properly implemented.

Strategy

The concept of strategy has been borrowed from the military which often refers to maneuvering troops into position before the enemy is actually engaged, once the enemy has been engaged, attention shifts to tactics. Strategy also refers to the means by which policy is effected (Nickols, 2012). According to Wenzhong (2014), strategy refers to planning and managing an operation for a particular purpose such as in a war. A business strategy is the pattern of decisions and actions that are taken by the business to achieve its goals. Newman and Logan in Arnoldo and Nicolas (1986) posited that strategies are forward-looking plans that anticipate change and initiate actions to take advantage of opportunities that are integrated into the concept or mission of the company. There is need to adopt some strategies to enhance female participation in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET).

Problem

There is gender inequality between male and female access to education. It is ironic to say that women alone that constitute one half of the world's population and do two-thirds of the world's work earn one tenth of the world's income and own one hundredth of the world's

property including land. A large number are found in poorly paid jobs and several others go into early marriages, prostitution, child labour to mention but a few. This constitutes a menace in the country considering its economic, health and social implications. Gault in Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) (2013) stated that it is important that training for higher-paying occupations includes women and girls, and that girls are introduced to non-traditional careers at a young age. This study is therefore designed to determine the strategies to enhance female participation in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria.

Research Questions
The following research questions guided the study;
1. What are the strategies that would enhance female participation in TVET programmes?
2. What are the benefits of TVET to females?
3. What are the challenges of training females in TVET?

METHODOLOGY
The study was conducted using descriptive survey research design. A survey research design according to Anyakoha (2009) uses questionnaires, interviews, observations in order to determine the opinions, attitudes, preferences and perceptions of persons. The study was carried out in the North-west, North-east, North-central, South-east and South-south geo-political zones of Nigeria.

The population of 153 comprised of 95 female technical teachers, 58 female administrators in the technical colleges and skill acquisition centres in the zones covered by the study. No sampling was carried out since the population is of manageable size.

The instrument used to collect data for the study was a structured questionnaire. It was developed by the researchers after review of available literature on female education and females in TVET in Nigeria. The instrument is divided into three sections A, B and C. Section A sought information on the strategies that would enhance female participation in TVET programmes, section B dwelt on the benefits of TVET to females while section C was on the challenges of training females in TVET. The instrument is based on five-point Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (UD), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) with numerical values of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. The instrument was face-validated by five experts in TVET and tested for reliability using Cronbach alpha and a reliability coefficient of 0.85 was obtained.

The data were collected by the researchers and research assistants in the zones covered by the study. The researchers and assistants administered the instrument on the respondents. All the instruments administered were correctly completed, retrieved and used for data analysis.

RESULTS
Table 1: Mean Responses of Respondents on Strategies That Would Enhance Female Participation in TVET Programmes

N = 153

S/N	Item Statement	$\overline{X}$	SD	Remark
1	Drawing a clear cut line between religion and education by stakeholders	4.31	0.88	Agree
2	Collaboration between government and other stakeholders to review existing curricula	4.63	0.54	Agree
3	Establishment of formal and non-formal female skill acquisition centres	4.56	0.79	Agree
4	Establishment of females in TVET development.	4.38	0.72	Agree
5	Employment of female trainers from other regions to serve as role models	4.42	0.84	Agree
6	Creating conducive environment for practicing female entrepreneurs to transact their businesses	4.68	0.48	Agree
7	Advocacy by government and policy makers for implementation of females oriented TVET programme.	4.55	0.51	Agree
8	Sensitization at all levels by government, policy makers and other stakeholders on the benefits derivable from females participation in TVET	4.36	0.66	Agree
9	Establishment of equal opportunities for both males and females in TVET	4.50	0.67	Agree
10	Implementation of the affirmative policies in favour of females, especially with admission, employment and appointment	4.05	0.53	Agree
11	Provision of starter packs for female graduates of TVET centres/schools	4.13	0.77	Agree
12	Institutionalization of child care provisions in training centres and workplace	3.94	0.87	Agree
13	Establishment of evening classes for females to fast tract gender equality in TVET	3.27	0.63	Disagree
14	Enactment and enforcement of law that ban child marriage	3.91	0.73	Agree
15	Enforcement of law that bans female child labour	4.27	0.89	Agree
16	Advocacy for public private partnership of the programme	4.13	0.67	Agree
18	Promoting synergy between girls' education and poverty alleviation programme	3.86	0.81	Agree
20	Commitment by government and stakeholders to female-enhanced TVET programme	4.36	0.66	Agree
21	Provision of adequate infrastructures and facilities	4.63	0.55	Agree
22	Free education and provision of adequate incentives for TVET trainees	4.27	0.63	Agree
23	Use of media to change stereotyped expectations	4.22	0.86	Agree
24	Increasing women's number in the state administration as source of encouragement	3.94	0.75	Agree
25	Adequate provision of scholarship/grants for TVET teachers/instructors	4.15	0.66	Agree
26	Training and re-training of TVET teachers and instructors.	4.21	0.57	Agree
27	Adequate planning and implementation of TVET programme by government	4.44	0.72	Agree
28	Career guidance and counseling on TVET be provided to all female students	3.99	0.63	Agree
29	Safeguards against gender bias in curricular presentation	3.85	0.74	Agree
30	Establishment of policies that will favour and encourage women/girls education	4.11	0.83	Agree
31	Legislating against obnoxious customs and practices which are detrimental to women's optimal functionality and wellbeing, like harmful widowhood practices	4.47	074	Agree
32	Enactment of law against discrimination of women in hiring and promotion.	4.25	0.72	Agree

Data presented in Table 1 with exception of item 13 show that the respondents agreed on all the items as strategies that would enhance female participation in TVET programmes based on the means which range from 3.85 to 4.68. The standard deviation values range from 0.48 to 0.89 show that the respondents are not far from each other on their responses.

Table 2: Mean Responses of Respondents on Benefits of TVET Programme to Females

N = 153

S/N	Item Statement	$\overline{\text{X}}$	SD	Remark
1.	TVET programme would empower women scientifically through exposure to science and technological education for the challenges of the present technological age	4.56	0.81	Agree
2.	TVET programme would empower women to contribute their quota to the growth of the nation	4.67	0.55	Agree
3.	It would empower them to know, give voice and ask for their rights	4.00	0.76	Agree
4.	It would enable them adapt themselves to the society.	4.27	0.94	Agree
5.	It enables them develop pride in their achievements.	4.38	077	Agree
6.	It would enable the women take decisions and accept responsibilities for taking such decisions concerning themselves	3.95	0.84	Agree
7	It prepares them to cope with domestic and family life	3.85	0.68	Agree
8.	TVET programme empowers females to be employable	4.63	0.55	Agree
9.	TVET programme empowers females to be employers of labour	4.67	0.59	Agree
10.	It reduces the rate of falling victims to their adventurous male counterpart	3.85	0.70	Agree
11.	It enhances life expectancy	4.09	0.87	Agree
12.	Promotes smaller family size and better educated children	3.91	0.73	Agree
13.	Best investment in a country's development	4.14	0.89	Agree
14	It makes females self-reliant people	4.68	0.89	Agree
15	Builds up their self-confidence,	4.43	0.97	Agree
16	Enhances female effective participation in educational activities	3.88	0.66	Agree
17	Alleviation of unemployment	4.57	0.63	Agree
18	Reduces underage marriages and sexual related diseases.	4.38	0.82	Agree
19	Reduces child abuse	4.55	0.66	Agree
20	Reduces vices: prostitution, human trafficking, girl child labour	3.87	0.84	Agree
21	TVET programme makes them become focus in life	4.14	0.78	Agree
22	Promotes gender equality.	4.27	0.94	Agree
23	TVET programme makes them compete favorably with their male counterparts	4.01	0.73	Agree
24	It improves child rearing practice, health care and prevention against killer diseases	4.31	0.86	Agree
25	Enhances global partnership for development	4.26	0.54	Agree
26	Improves maternal health	4.45	0.74	Agree
27	It would help reduce maternal and infant mortality	4.29	0.86	Agree
28	Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	4.36	0.73	Agree

Data presented in Table 2 show that the respondents agreed on all the benefits of TVET to females based on the means which range from 3.85 to 4.68. The standard deviation shows that the respondents are close on their responses with values range from 0.55 to 0.94.

Table 3: Mean Responses of Respondents on Challenges of Training Females in TVET?

N = 153

S/N	Item Statement	X	SD	Remark
1.	Lack of female teachers and absence of female role models	4.45	0.75	Agree
2.	Security challenges in the affected regions	4.42	0.47	Agree
3.	Peer group influence to follow the status quo such as early marriage	3.81	0.65	Agree
4.	Apprehension of parents that their daughter will soon leave them for marriage	4.15	0.56	Agree
5.	Poor image and status of TVET	4.13	0.88	Agree
6.	Lack of incentives to encourage the students	4.03	0.49	Agree
7	Failure to draw a line between religion and education by the political and religious leaders	4.25	0.68	Agree
8.	Poor parental background	4.45	0.62	Agree
9.	Lack of appropriate vocational guidance and career counselling	4.19	0.64	Agree
10.	Engagement of girls in child labour and prostitution	3.95	0.74	Agree
11.	Poor funding of vocational technical education programme	4.63	0.56	Agree
12.	Wrong perceptions/assumptions of attitudes of male teachers	4.31	0.87	Agree
13.	Poor facilities: machines, tools and equipment	4.77	0.56	Agree
14.	Situational challenge such as family commitments, lack of partner's support	4.44	0.74	Agree
15	Inadequate electricity and water supply	4.36	0.77	Agree
16	Discriminatory labour market practices	4.41	0.73	Agree
17	Poor provision of instructional materials to TVET institutions	4.01	0.63	Agree
18	Poor teacher quality and supply	4.22	0.66	Agree
19	Poor curriculum planning of vocational technical education	3.79	0.56	Agree
20	Poor welfare packages for vocational technical education educators	3.94	0.82	Agree
21	Poor training and retraining programme for vocational technical education teachers and instructors	4.55	0.67	Agree
22	Poor scholarship scheme for TVET teachers, instructors, and students	4.05	0.57	Agree
23	Parental perceptions of costs/benefits of educating girls	4.11	0.58	Agree
24	Poor implementation of vocational technical education curriculum	3.86	0.83	Agree
25	Masculine image of TVET projected in text books, media and popular assumptions	4.26	0.54	Agree
26	Inadequate workshop space	3.56	0.73	Agree
27	Rigid selection and entry requirements	4.55	0.67	Agree
28	Fear of intimidation and sexual harassment	4.27	0.82	Agree
29	Lack of Mathematics/Science pre-requisites for entry to TVET programmes	4.19	0.63	Agree
30	Fear of progressing in a male dominated field	3,93	0.85	Agree
31	Inadequate sanitation facilities in schools such as private and separate latrines;	4.00	0.58	Agree

Data presented in Table 3 show that the respondents agreed on all the challenges of training female in TVET. The mean values range from 3.56 - 4.77 and standard deviation 0.47 – 0.8.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The findings presented in Table 1 show the strategies that would enhance female participation in TVET programmes. The respondents agreed with all the strategies identified. This is in line with AAUW (2011) and Obaji (2005) that raising national awareness on girl-child education and commitment by government and stakeholders to female-enhanced TVET programme through advocacy and sensitization of policy makers at all levels, parents, school authorities, other leaders and girls themselves among others would enhance the participation of females in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET). This also agrees with Anaele,

Isiorhovoja, Dele and Asoluka (2014) that females need to be encouraged to participate in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET).

The findings in Table 2 indicated that the respondents agreed with the benefits of TVET to women/girls. This is in line with Philips and Godiya (2007), World Bank Group (2014) that girls with little or no education are far more likely to be married early, suffer domestic violence, live in poverty, and lack have no say over household spending or their own health care than better-educated ones, which harms them, their children, and communities.

This is also in agreement with Oniye (2008) that education would empower the women scientifically through exposure to science and technological education for the challenges of the present technological age and information, communication technology break through unfolding worldwide thereby making them contribute their quota to the economic growth of the nation. It would also help women to reduce maternal and infant mortality through improved nutrition, improved child rearing practice, health care and prevention against killer diseases.

In Table 3, it was also found that there are challenges implementing female-enhanced Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria. Some of these include situational challenges, family commitments, lack of partner support; social–cultural norms and traditions by which women are maintained and Institutional barriers like lack of role model, lack of child care facilities and masculine image of Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programme which pose serious setback to the development of Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria. This is in agreement with Evans (1995) and United Nations Children Education Fund (UNICEF) (2002) that female in TVET can only be enhanced through tackling all these challenges in Nigeria.

Implications
The findings of this study have implications for the government that education reforms need to be guided by law that will facilitate equal opportunities for females and males in education more importantly in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET). This will ensure that females can no longer be left behind. Every law and tradition contrary to this position must be legislated against, in addition government has to ensure that Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is free for females. The strong implication of these moves for the females is to address the problem of poverty that results to teenage pregnancies, early marriage, child trafficking, and child labour among others.

CONCLUSION
From the findings, the researchers concluded that more still needs to be done to promote gender equality in access to Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Nigeria. Female participation in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programme which prepares them for high-skill, high-wage, and high-demand jobs is critical to ensuring their economic security and to close the wage gap.

Government and other stakeholders in education and training need to buckle up to bridge the existing gap so that female will participate fully, contribute meaningfully and live fulfilled lives in TVET. This will in return boost the nation's human capital development index and the right step to be among the top 20 highly industrialised nations in the year 2020.

RECOMMENDATIONS

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

1. Government should as a matter of urgency convoke a conference of stake holders in education and women leaders to address the conspicuous gap existing between males and females in TVET and chat the way forward.
2. Wives of State governors should establish women organization in technology to serve as a platform to attract fund and provide adequate sensitization of benefits to female in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET).
3. Money should be earmarked by government and other stake holders in education and technological development to ensure effective running of female-in-TVET programme
4. All harmful cultural, religious and social-based institutional practices which are anti-female should be legislated against and decisions reached fully implemented.
5. Implementation of the affirmative action policies should be done in favour of females, especially when it has to do with admission, employment, appointment and other incentives.

References

Afri-Dev.Info (2013). Nigeria Girl Child Education Scorecard Highlighting Forced Marriage of Underage Girls and Trends in Adolescent Child Bearing. Retrieved 24/05/2014 from http://www.afridev.info/sites/default/files/2013%20Nigeria%20Day%20of%20Girl...

Anaele, E. O.; Isiorhovoja, O.; Dele, A.; Asoluka, C. O. (2014). Strategies for Enhancing female participation in Apprenticeship in Technical Occupations. Indian Journal of Applied Research 4, 2, 27-30.

Anyakoha, E. U. (2009). Developing Research Skills: Concept and Conceptual Framework. Nsukka: Great AP Express Publishers Ltd.

Arnoldo C. H. & Nicolas S. M. (1986). Strategy and the Strategy Formation Process. Retrieved 24/05/2014 from http://dspace.mit.edu/bitstream/handle/1721.1/2149/SWP-1810-15686178.pdf

Asomba, I. (2012). Stakeholders Make Case for Girl-Child in Technical Education – Vanguard News Retrieved 21/05/2014 from http://www.vanguardngr.com/2012/07/stakeholders-make-case-for-girl-child-in-technical-education/

Ejiofor C. (2014). Boko Haram Show Kidnapped Chibok Girls: Present Option for Their Release. Naij.com. Retrieved 25/05/2014 from http://www.naij.com/66127.html

Evans K. (1995). Barriers to Participation of Women in Technological Education and the Role of Distance Education. The Commonwealth of Learning. Retrieved 26/05/2014from http://www.col.org/PublicationDocuments/pub_Barriers_Particiation_Women_Technological.pdf

Ezeji, S.C.O.A. (2011). Public/Private Partnership and Technology, Vocational Education and Training (TVET). A lead paper presented at the 24th Annual National Conference of the Nigerian Association of Teachers of Technology (NATT) at Federal College of Education (Technical), Umunze, 17th – 21st October, 2011.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN) (2004). National Policy on Education (revised edition). Lagos: Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council Press.

Godiya, B.I & Philips, D. (2007). Women and National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS) Women and Adult Education Programmes in Adamawa State.

Journal of Women in Colleges of Education. North East Zone (JOWICENEZ).

Hoffmann-Barthes, A. M., Nair, S. (1999). Scientific, Technical and Vocational Education of Girls in Africa Summary of 21 National Reports. Retrieved 21/04/2014 from http://www.unesco.org/education/educprog/ste/pdf_files/girls/reports.pdf

Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) (2013). Women and Girls Still Missing from Career and Technical Education in High Paying Fields, Some States Showing Progress. Retrieved 15/05/2014 from http://www.iwpr.org/press-room/press-releases/women-and-girls-still-missing-from-career-and-technical-education-in-high-paying-fields-some-states-showing-progress

Napikoski L. (2014) Patriarchal Society. Retrieved on 26/05/2014 http://womenshistory.about.com/od/feminism/a/patriarchal.htm

Adelakun, O. A., Oviawe, J. I., & Barfa, G. I. (2015). Strategies for Enhancing Femalses Participation in Technical, Vocational Educcationn and Training (TVET) in Nigeria. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 2*(4)* 110-120.

Nickols F. (2012). Strategy: Definitions and Meaning. Retrieved 24/05/2014 from http://www.nickols.us/strategy_definition.htm

Obaji, N. C. (2005). Nigeria's Experience with Girls' Education and Linkages with Action on Adult Female Literacy to Impact on Poverty Alleviation. United Nations Girls' Education Initiative. Retrieved 20/05/2014 from http://www.ungei.org/beijing/nigeria_opening.html

Ocho, L.O (2005). Issues and Concerns in Education and Life. Enugu: Institute of Development Studies, University of Nigeria.

Offorma, G. C (2009) Girl-child Education in Africa. Keynote Address Presented at the Conference of University WOMWNE of Africa Held in Lagos, Nigeria, 16th -19th July

Okeke, E. A. C. (2002). Education for all goals: A myth or reality. A lead paper presented at the 20th annual national conference of Philosophy of Education Students Association of Nigeria (PEAN) at F.C.E. (T) Omoku, 28 - 31 October.

Oniye, A.O. (2008). Women Education: Problems and Implications for Family Responsibility. The Nigerian Journal of Guidance and Counselling,9(1). University of Ilorin Publication, Nigeria.

Reynolds, B. & Healy, S. (Eds) (1993). Power, Participation and Exclusion. Conference of Major Religious Superiors (CMRS), Dublin.

Robert, A. (2005). Vision and Mission of UBE Programme towards the Girl Child Education in The 21st Century: Focus on constraints. Knowledge Review 11(3).

The American Association of University Women (AAUW) (2011). Career and Technical Education for Women and Girls. Retrieved on 20/05/2014 from http://www.aauw.org/files/2013/02/position-on-career-and-tech-ed-112.pdf.

UNDP (2009). Human Development Report (2008-2009). Achieving Growth with Equity. Retrieved 23/05/2014 from http://web.ng.undp.org/docume   nts/NHDR2009/NHDR_MAIN-REPORT_2008-2009.pdf

United Nations Children Education Fund (UNICEF) (2002). Girl's Education in Nigeria Retrieved on 21/05/2014 from http://www.pcnaf.org/sites/default/files/docume nts/GirlsEducationinNigeria.pdf\

UNESCO (2005). Learning for Work, Citizenship and Sustainability: Final Report UNESCOUNEVOC International Centre: Bonn.

UNESCO (2010). Women and Sustainable Development. Retrieved on September 8th, 2014 fromhttp://www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_c/mod12.html?panel=1

Wapmuk, L.S. (2011). Technical and Vocational Education and Training for Sustainable Development of Nigeria. A keynote address presented at the 24thth annual national conference of Nigerian Association of Teachers of Technology (NATT) at Federal College of Education (Technical), Umunze, 17th – 21st October, 2011.

Wenzhong, Z. (2014) Strategy and Strategic Planning. Retrieved 24/05/2014 from http://www1.gdufs.edu.cn/jwc/bestcourse/kecheng/42/manage/edit/Up loadFile/2010919172545759.ppt

Wilcox D (2003). The Guide to Effective Participation. Retrieved 16/05/2014 from http://www.partnerships.org.uk/guide/index.htm

World Bank Group (2014). Education Plays Key Role in Advancing Women, Girls, and Communities, Report Says Retrieved on 11/05/2014 from http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2014/05/14/education-key-role-women-girls-communities-report

Wubon (2013). Girl-Child Education: Important for National Development. Daily Independent, Nigeria Newspaper Retrieved 20/05/2014 from http://dailyindependentnig.com/2013/04/girl-child-education-important-for-national-development/

Cyclical Analysis Of Trade Dynamics In Nigeria

ThankGod O. Apere
Department of Economics, Niger Delta University,
Wilberforce Island, P.M.B 071, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Tamarauntari M. Karimo
Department of Economics, Niger Delta University,
Wilberforce Island, P.M.B 071, Bayelsa State, Nigeria

Abstract
This study using first differenced VAR(1) model attempted a cyclical analysis of trade dynamics in Nigeria over the period 1981 – 2012. Two historical business cycle troughs in 1985 and 2001 were identified. Results showed no evidence supporting the assertion that non-oil trade has contributed to economic recoveries in Nigeria. Furthermore nominal shocks dominated output shocks in explaining changes in trade variables. It was therefore recommended that, to better tap from the global resource base the monetary authority in Nigeria should apply sound monetary policy during periods of recession to stimulate output growth and quick recovery.

Key Words: Cyclical Analysis, Trade Dynamics, VAR, Shocks, Non-oil trade.

INTRODUCTION
There is no gainsaying the fact that no country is self-sufficient in terms of goods and services needed to meet the daily needs of raw materials and capital goods for her industries, and finished goods for consumers. This has led to specialization and inevitably trade as espoused by trade theories. Trade has become a standard (norm) in the world system today. As economies become more open to international trade the propagation and transmission of economic fluctuations through trade is increasingly assuming a more important dimensions. This underscores the importance of cyclical analysis of trade dynamics in Nigeria. This has important policy implications in terms of macroeconomic forecasting, short-run policy making and international policy coordination.

STYLIZED FACTS
The Extent of Trade in Nigeria
First this paper examined the economic importance of trade to the Nigerian economy. One important indicator that is widely used as a measure for an economy's openness to international trade is total trade to real GDP ratio. Between 1981 and 2012 the mean value of this ratio as shown in the first column and the last row of Table 1 was 1.34E-05. The mean value of this ratio in different subsamples as showed in the first row of Table 1 increased gradually from 4.68E-07 in the period 1981 – 1989 to 7.89E-06 between 1990 and 1999, and further to 2.65E-05 in the period 2000 – 2012. Although the average values of this ratio in the full- and sub-samples is very small, they reflect the growing importance of trade to the Nigerian economy. Also, the mean value of both non-oil and oil trade to real GDP ratio in columns 2 and 3 of Table 1 increased throughout the subsamples reinforcing the previous assertion. Whereas oil trade increased rapidly from 0.07 in 1981 – 1989 to 1.7 in 1990 – 1999 and further to 10.9 in 2000 – 2012 and average 5.55 between 1981 and 2012, non-oil trade

increased slowly from 0.05 to 0.98 and further to 4.96 in the same periods and averaged 2.33 between 1981 and 2012. This showed that oil-trade has been more important to the Nigerian economy compared to non-oil trade. Furthermore, total export, non-oil export and oil export as shown in columns 4, 5 and 6 contributed little to real GDP between 1981 and 2012, respectively. However, their importance to the Nigerian economy has been on the increase. Whereas non-oil export increased from 0.004 to 1.4 and 10.6 in the periods 1981 – 1989, 1990 – 1999 and 2000 – 2012 respectively oil export increased within the same period from 0.069 to 1.93 and 12.12.

The foregoing is a clear evidence of the growing importance of trade (oil and non-oil trade) to the Nigerian economy since 1981. Therefore a good knowledge or understanding of the role of trade in enhancing or dampening domestic macroeconomic fluctuations is of immense importance as the country becomes more and more entangled in the web of the world system through trade.

Table 1: Measures of Trade Openness

	TT/GDP	NOT/GDP	OT/GDP	X/GDP	NOX/GDP	OX/GDP
1981 – 1989	4.68E-07	0.050705	0.074555	0.072222	0.004125	0.069094
1990 – 1999	7.89E-06	0.980349	1.707000	1.707000	1.400000	1.930656
2000 – 2012	2.65E-05	4.955528	10.90154	0.300914	10.60004	12.13452
Full Sample	1.34E-05	2.3338	5.553949	4.9825	0.136227	4.845928

Source: Author's Computation using figures from CBN Statistical Bulletin, 2012

Unconditional Volatility of Trade Variables

Now turn to the unconditional volatility of trade variables as measured by the standard deviation of various quantities and price relevant to trade dynamics relative to Nigeria's business cycle. Real GDP and nominal effective exchange rate values were first transformed into logarithms and their cyclical components were derived using the Hodrick-Prescott (HP) filter. The trade variables to GDP ratio were also transformed using the HP filter. This method had been previously used by Prasad & Gable (1998) to examine the determinants of trade dynamics in the OECD economies. The first and second columns of Table 2 contain the standard deviations of domestic output and net export to GDP ratio. The figures generally showed that net export is more volatile compared to aggregate output. Columns 3 and 4 show that net non-oil export is less volatile than net oil export. Furthermore, Import is less volatile than export. Finally, nominal effective exchange rate is more volatile than output and net non-oil export but less than net oil export. One important observation about the dynamics of trade balance is that the pattern of shock is largely the same over time. Short-run trade dynamics could depend on shocks that drive business cycle fluctuations.

Table 2: Measures of Volatility of Cyclical Components

	GDP	Net Export/GDP	Net Non-Oil Export/GDP	Net Oil Export/GDP	Import/GDP	Export/GDP	NEER
1981 – 1989	0.050	0.014	0.014	0.027	0.019	0.032	0.430
1990 – 1999	0.011	0.596	0.307	0.682	0.380	0.750	1.040
2000 – 2012	0.009	1.654	0.606	1.514	0.869	1.573	0.092
Full Sample	0.036	1.119	0.415	1.071	0.577	1.121	0.645

Source: Authors' Computation

Unconditional Correlations

This paper also examined the unconditional correlation between the cyclical components of output and the various trade variables. The paper specifically examined the contemporaneous correlations as well as correlations at various leads and lags to explore the dynamic patterns in

the data. The first row of table 3 shows the correlation between the cyclical components of output and net exports. The negative values at lead 8 and 4 (positive (negative) values in the lead row indicate lead (lag)) and positive values at lag 0, 4 and 8 indicate net export is countercyclical during recoveries and procyclical contemporaneously and during periods of recession.

Table 3: Correlations of Trade Variables and the Business Cycle

Lead:	8	4	0	-4	-8
GDP, net export/GDP	-0.18	-0.08	0.15	0.03	0.003
GDP, import/GDP	-0.02	0.14	-0.02	-0.28	0.27
GDP, export/GDP	-0.19	-0.0007	0.14	-0.05	0.11
GDP, net non-oil export/GDP	0.12	-0.14	0.01	0.23	-0.27
GDP, net oil export/GDP	-0.23	-0.03	0.15	-0.02	0.09

Source: Authors' Computation

International Trade and Business Cycle Recoveries

International trade has been a ascribed a critical role in short-run macroeconomic forecasts, especially so in small industrial and developing economies. The external sector has been largely viewed as an important catalyst for business cycle recoveries. According to Prasad and Gable (1998), the evidence on the quantitative importance of international trade in generating economic recoveries is, however, rather limited. This study therefore adopted their measure of the contribution of trade balance to output growth from business cycle troughs. This paper identified two historical business cycle troughs in 1985 and 2001 (see Figure 1). Table 4 shows the contribution of international trade balance and non-oil trade balance to output growth over different forecast horizons from cyclical troughs. At a one-year horizon from the 1985 cyclical troughs the trade balance had a negative contribution (-395.0E-08 percent) to growth but became positive in the second horizon and remained positive up to the eight horizon. The contribution of trade balance to recovery from the 2001 cyclical trough was positive from the first to the eighth horizon. But non-oil balance of trade had positive contribution to business cycle recovery only in the first horizons and became negative from the second to the eighth horizon. This is quit revealing. Although trade is important in business cycle recoveries there is no evidence that non-oil trade in Nigeria has contributed to economic recoveries. This is attributable to the fact that Nigeria's non-oil trade basket is made up of raw materials and agricultural exports on the one hand and manufactured and food imports on the other.

Table 4: The Contributions of International trade to Business Cycle Recoveries

| Cyclical Troughs	Contribution of trade balance to output growth from troughs				Contribution of Non-Oil trade balance to output growth from troughs			
	t+1	t+2	t+4	t+8	t+1	t+2	t+4	t+8
1985	-3.95E-08	1.19E-07	2.77E-07	5.53E-07	3.95E-08	-7.90E-09	-1.98E-07	-1.26E-06
2001	2.66E-06	1.99E-06	1.56E-05	7.85E-06	4.40E-07	-1.57E-06	-1.97E-06	-6.23E-06

Source: Author's computation

Table 5: The Contributions of Exports to Business Cycle Recoveries

Cyclical Troughs	Contribution of Exports to output growth from troughs				Contribution of Non-Oil Exports to output growth from troughs			
	t+1	t+2	t+4	t+8	t+1	t+2	t+4	t+8
1985	-7.90E-08	2.77E-07	5.93E-09	2.33E-06	-3.95E-08	2.37E-07	5.14E-07	1.82E-06
2001	-1.09E-06	4.42E-06	1.98E-05	1.70E-05	-1.99E-06	3.54E-06	1.76E-05	1.41E-05

Source: Author's computation

In the context of the national income accounting identity, balance of trade seems to be the appropriate variable for examining the contribution of international trade to business cycle recoveries. However, an alternative argument is that export demand rather than net exports provides the catalyst for economic recovery. Increases in current and future exports due to strong external demand or exchange rate depreciation could trigger a recovery in domestic output. It is therefore possible that, with a concomitant increase in imports of investment goods and intermediate inputs, the trade balance could deteriorate despite the export stimulus to domestic demand. To examine the alternative hypothesis we now examine the contribution of exports and non-oil exports to output growth using the same measure as in trade balance. The results are reported on table 5. The results revealed that business cycle recoveries in Nigeria beside the first horizons have relied not heavily on demand.

Cycle trough dates 1985 and 2001

Hodrick-Prescott Filter (lambda=100)
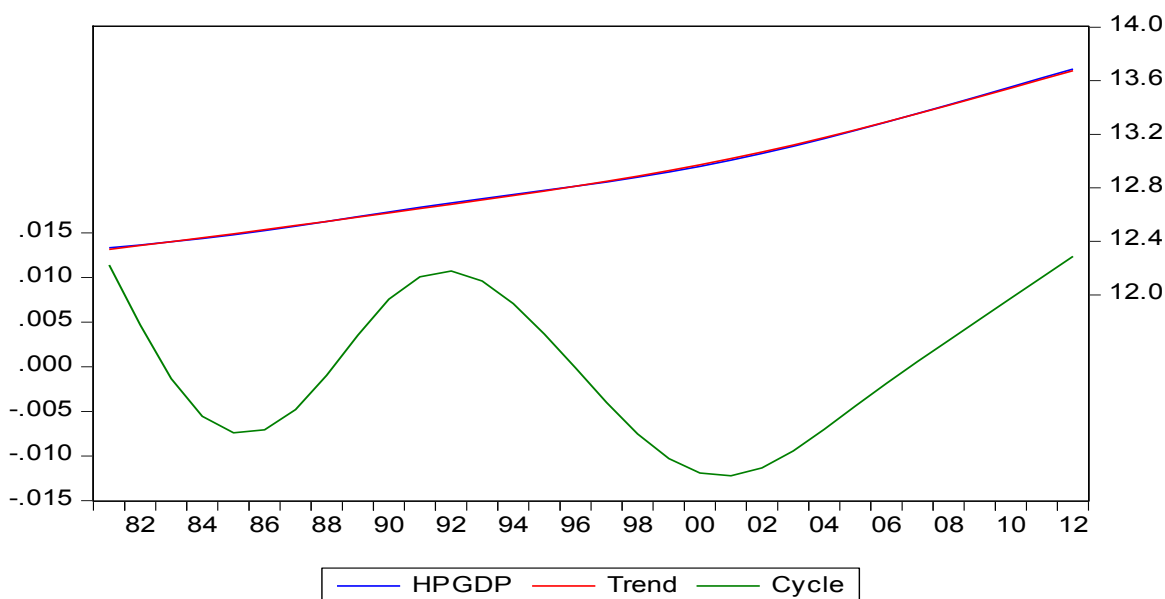
Empirical Literature

Akeem, U. O. (2011). focused on the workings of trade on Nigeria economic growth. Using the OLS techniques he concluded that foreign trade policies should be reexamined and competitive produces should be produced by local industries. Fidrmuc, et al (2011) analyzed globalization and business cycles in China and selected OECD countries using dynamic correlation analysis. They showed that dynamic correlations of business cycles of OECD countries and China are negative at business-cycle frequencies and positive for short-run developments. Furthermore, trade and financial flows of OECD countries and China reduce the degree of business cycle synchronization within the OECD area, especially at business-cycle frequencies. Thus, different degrees of participation in globalization can explain the differences between the business cycles of OECD countries.

Hao and Mathews, (2007) offered a procedure to identify industry cycles, and apply the procedure to the industrial data of three industries, namely semiconductors, PCs and FPDs. They compared the cycles with those suggested by industry experts in the corresponding industries, and the industry cycles across the three industries. They also examined the factors that contributed to the cyclical dynamics of the industries using vector autoregressive (VAR) models and established that the dynamics of aggregate economy and capacity are among the most significant drivers in the semiconductor industry cycle.

Alege (2009) developed a small business cycle model in the spirit of Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium (DSGE) model for Nigeria with a view to examine the sources of business cycles and drawing implications for policy analysis. The paper focused on three policy shocks namely: monetary supply, technology and export supply on some macroeconomic aggregates. The study adopted the Nason and Cogley (1994) and Schorfheide (2000) models, but introduced export sector into the model with to capture the transmission channel of terms of trade. Using the Bayesian estimation technique he showed that the Nigerian business cycle was driven by both real and nominal shocks.

Using high-frequency transaction data for the three largest European markets (France, Germany and Italy), Caporale, et al (2010) showed the existence of an asymmetric relationship between market liquidity and trading imbalances: when quoted spreads rise (fall) and liquidity falls (increases) buy (sell) orders tend to prevail. Risk-averse market-makers, with inventory-depletion risk being their main concern, tend to quote wider (narrower) spreads when they think bond appreciation is more (less) likely to occur. It is also found that the probability of being in a specific regime is related to observable bond market characteristics, stock market volatility, macroeconomic releases and liquidity management operations of the monetary authorities.

Prasad (1999) developed a new empirical framework for analyzing the dynamics of trade balance in response to different types of macroeconomic shocks. The model provides a synthetic perspective on the conditional correlations between the business cycle and the trade balance that are generated by different shocks and attempted to reconcile these results with unconditional correlations found in the data. The results revealed that, in the post-Bretton Woods period, nominal shocks have been an important determinant of the forecast error variance for fluctuations on the trade balance in G-7 countries.

Prasad and Gable (1998) provided some new empirical perspectives on the relationship between international trade and macroeconomic fluctuations in industrial economies. First, a comprehensive set of stylized facts concerning fluctuations in trade variables and their determinants was presented. A measure of the quantitative importance of international trade for the propagation of domestic business cycles was then constructed, focusing on the role of external trade as a catalyst for cyclical recoveries. Finally, structural vector autoregressive models were used to characterize the joint dynamics of output, exchange rates, and trade variables in response to different types of macroeconomic shocks.

Theoretical and Empirical Considerations
This study adopts a multivariate structural time-series econometric model. The purpose was not only to identify different types of macroeconomic shocks but also to examine the effects of these shocks on relevant trade variables. The empirical framework is adopted from Prasad and Gable (1998). Prasad and Gable (1998) identified two main channels that determine the relationship between trade and cyclical output fluctuations. Holding external demand conditions constant, the first channel is through domestic demand and the second channel is through changes in exchange rates. This implies that the sources of business cycle fluctuations could have influence on the cyclical dynamics of trade. (i) Consider a situation where there is a domestic fiscal contraction that leads to a contraction in aggregate domestic demand. In the Mundell-Fleming framework with perfect capital mobility, this would lead to real exchange rate depreciation. In addition to the depressed domestic demand, this will cause a negative correlation between cyclical output and the trade balance (exports). Therefore both the domestic demand and real exchange rate effects work in one and the same direction. (ii) Consider a monetary contraction which would also tend to depress domestic demand. This

would lead to increased exchange rate, thus creating an effect on the trade balance (exports) opposite to that of the domestic demand effect. The relative importance of these two effects is an empirical issue and would depend on various trade elasticities.

Another important issue is the persistence of fluctuations in both output and exchange rate. Highly persistent changes in output or exchange rate could have very different effects on trade dynamics compared to the effects of transitory changes in these variables (see Glick and Rogoff, 1995; and Phillips, 1996; Prasad and Gable, 1998). The implications of the persistence in output and exchange rate effects from different sources of macroeconomic shocks can be derived using macroeconomic models. This study exploits these theoretical considerations to derive a set of identifying restrictions to identify different types of macroeconomic shocks and to characterize the joint dynamics of output, exchange rates, and trade variables in response to these shocks.

In the empirical work, the study identified three types of shocks: supply, demand, and nominal shocks. The empirical model is identified using three long-run restrictions: that demand and nominal shocks have no long-run effects on the level of output while nominal shocks have no long-run effects on the level of the real exchange rate.

An important virtue of the identification approach is that the short-run dynamics are unconstrained. The identification scheme can therefore be evaluated by examining whether the short-run dynamics implied by the estimates of the empirical model appear reasonable and in accordance with the predictions of the theoretical model. Another feature of this identification approach is that it does not require us to take a stand on the causal ordering of the variables in the VAR. This is useful since there is no clear evidence that any of these variables is predetermined relative to the others in a Granger-causal sense.

The foregoing shows the limitations in models of trade (or current account) dynamics that focus solely on productivity shocks (e.g., Backus, Kehoe, and Kydland, 1992; and Elliott and Fatás, 1996). According to Prasad and Gable (1998) econometric models that distinguish only between real and nominal shocks (e.g., Lastrapes, 1992; and Robertson and Wickens, 1997) would also be inadequate for modeling trade balance dynamics since supply and demand shocks, which could both be viewed as real shocks, have different effects on the real exchange rate.

Model Specification
The model is adopted from the work of Prasad and Gable (1998). The methodology involves the estimation of a three-variable VAR comprising the first differences of output, real exchange rate, and the ratio of the trade balance (or exports or imports) to domestic output. Using a set of long-run restrictions, the VAR errors were transformed into a set of "fundamental" disturbances that have an economic interpretation—supply, demand, and nominal shocks. The short-run dynamics of the model are unconstrained and identification is achieved by imposing constraints on certain long-run multipliers in the system.

Since we have identified the exchange rate as the mechanism through which different shocks influence the relationship between external trade and the business cycle, exchange rates are included directly in the estimation in order to identify these shocks. Thus, the econometric approach is structural in that output fluctuations, variations in the real exchange rate, and changes in the trade variables are jointly determined in response to different shocks.

The model for estimation is specified as follows:

$$\Delta y_t = m + B_1 \Delta y_{t-1} + B_2 \Delta y_{t-2} + \dots + B_k \Delta y_{t-k} + \epsilon_t \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad (1)$$

Where yt is a column vector of three (3) variables, that is yt = [rgdp exr tb]' modeled in terms of its past values and ffirst difference, Δy_{t-1}. Δ is first difference operator. Bi are k x k matrix of coefficients, m is a k x 1 vector of constants and ϵ_t is a vector of white noise processes with the following properties

$$E(\epsilon_t) = 0 \ for \ all \ t \qquad E(\epsilon_t \epsilon_s') = \{_0^\Omega \quad {}_{s \neq t}^{s=t}$$

where the covariance matrix, Ω is assumed to be positive definite. Thus the $\epsilon^{\wedge '}$ s are serially uncorrelated but may be contemporaneously correlated. The lag length, k is determined empirically. To avoid the omission of relevant information estimation was done by iteration starting with the maximum lag length identified using the information criteria until the optimum model is arrived at-that is until the model becomes stable (no modulus or eigenvalue lies outside the unit circle). rgdp is the logarithm of real gross domestic product, exr is the logarithm of real exchange rate and TB is the ratio of trade balance to real GDP.

It is necessary to first determine the time-series properties of the variables entering the VAR. The model presented in Prasad and Kumar (1997) implies that relative output, the real effective exchange rate, and the ratio of the trade balance to GDP (and other trade ratios) are all stationary in first differences and that their levels are not cointegrated. Therefore estimation started with the preliminary tests for unit roots and cointegration to ensure the series are first difference stationary, I(1) and are not cointegrated in their level forms. The study relied on the impulse response functions and the forecast error variance decomposition to establish the responsiveness of output, exchange rate and trade balance to demand, DD, supply, SS and nominal NM shocks in the economy (see Greene, 2002 and Johnston & Dinardo 1996 for a detailed discussion on impulse response function and forecast variance decomposition).

RESULTS

Results of the impulse responses of Trade Balance, Non-oil Trade Balance, Exports and Non-oil Exports to different types of shocks are presented on table 6. It is easy to see that trade balance and non-oil trade balance responds positively to nominal shock in the short-run but became negative in the long-run. Since nominal shocks leads to increases in output accompanied by exchange rate depreciations, this result suggests that the exchange rate effects on trade balance tend to dominant the output effects of these shocks only in the short-run. However, both Exports and Non-oil Exports responded positively to nominal shocks both in the short- and long-run suggesting that the exchange rate effects dominates the output effects both in the short- and long-run. This is in line with the findings of Eichenbaum and Evans (1995) that nominal shocks result in rapid and sharp exchange rate responses but have only very small and transitory effects on output. Demand shocks which lead to increase in output and exchange rate appreciation results in increases in trade balance and Non-oil Trade Balance but decreases in Exports and Non-oil Exports. On the other hand, the effects of supply shocks are mixed. Results of the forecast error variance decomposition presented on table 7 showed that nominal shocks explained more of the fluctuations in all of the trade variables followed by demand shocks in Trade Balance but by supply shocks in Non-oil trade Balance, Exports and Non-oil Exports. The percentages of volatility explained by these shocks became permanent in the long-run. Again this suggests the dominance of nominal shocks over output in explaining changes in trade variables even in the long-run.

Table 6: Impulse responses

	Trade Balance				Non-oil Trade Balance		
Horizon	SS	DD	NM		SS	DD	NM
1	2.53E-07	3.84E-07	2.84E-06		0.10188	0.07638	0.62221
5	5.32E-07	2.41E-07	2.11E-07		0.01267	0.01420	0.03158
10	-1.63E-07	8.73E-08	-1.91E-07		-0.0005	-0.00055	-0.00120
20	1.36E-08	5.62E-08	-4.23E-08		2.09E-05	2.14E05	4.72E-05
30	5.02E-09	1.78E-08	-1.51E-08		-8.18E-07	-8.37E-07	-1.84E-06
	Exports				Non-oil Exports		
Horizon	SS	DD	NM		SS	DD	NM
1	-0.33139	-0.002516	1.486694		-0.210057	-0.013470	1.297489
5	0.00599	-0.003054	0.007019		0.005710	-0.001925	0.003219
10	6.12E-05	-7.01E-06	2.70E-05		4.35E-05	-6.35E-06	1.70E-05
15	4.11E-07	-8.58E-08	2.41E-07		2.98E-07	-5.16E-08	1.24E-07
20	3.05E-09	-5.57E-10	1.67E-09		2.08E-09	-3.51E-10	8.56E-10

Source: Author's computation

Table 7: Error Variance Decomposition

	Trade Balance				Non-oil Trade Balance		
Horizon	SS	DD	NM		SS	DD	NM
1	0.7757	1.782	97.442		2.573	1.446	95.980
5	6.4416	13.238	80.320		5.714	4.390	89.896
10	8.3603	13.813	77.826		5.724	4.400	89.876
15	8.4196	13.870	77.710		5.724	4.400	89.876
20	8.4201	13.899	77.681		5.724	4.400	89.876
	Exports				Non-oil Exports		
Horizon	SS	DD	NM		SS	DD	NM
1	4.733	0.0003	95.266		2.554	0.011	97.436
5	7.472	0.110	92.418		3.807	0.112	96.082
10	7.472	0.110	92.417		3.807	0.112	96.081
15	7.472	0.110	92.417		3.807	0.112	96.081
20	7.472	0.110	92.417		3.807	0.112	96.081

Source: Author's computation

CONCLUSION

Results reflect the growing importance of trade (oil and Non-oil) to the Nigerian economy but oil-trade has been relatively more important. Net export was found to be relatively more volatile than aggregate output. Further, net non-oil export was less volatile than net oil export, and import was less volatile than export. Also, nominal effective exchange rate was more volatile than output and net non-oil export but less than net oil export. The unconditional correlation revealed that net export is countercyclical during recoveries and procyclical during periods of recession. Two historical business cycle troughs in 1985 and 2001 were identified but the paper found no evidence supporting the assertion that non-oil trade has contributed to

economic recoveries in Nigeria. Furthermore nominal shocks dominate output shocks in explaining changes in trade variables.

Recommendations

Based on findings this study recommends as follows:

I. To better tap from the global resource base the monetary authority in Nigeria should apply sound monetary policy during periods of recession. This will stimulate output growth and quick recovery.

II. Since monetary policy effects on trade balance dominate only in the short-run monetary policy in Nigeria should focus on long-run output expansions.

References

Akeem, U. O. (2011). Performance Evaluation of Foreign Trade and Economic Growth in Nigeria. Research Journal of Finance and Accounting, 2(2),

Alege, P. O. (2009). A Business Cycle Model for Nigeria. Presented at the African Econometric Society Conference, Abuja.

Backus, David K., and Patrick J. Kehoe, 1992, "International Evidence on the Historical Properties of Business Cycles," American Economic Review, Vol. 82 (September), pp. 864–88.

CBN (2013). Statistical Bulletin, Abuja

Caporale, G. M., A. Girardi, R. Isae, and P. Paesani (2010). Quoted Spreads and Trade Imbalance Dynamics in the European Treasury Bond Market. Economics and Finance Working Paper No. 10-28

Eichenbaum, Martin, and Charles L. Evans, 1995, "Some Empirical Evidence on the Effects of Monetary Policy Shocks on Exchange Rates," Quarterly Journal of Economics, Vol. 110 (November), pp. 975–1009.

Elliott, Graham, and Antonio Fatás, 1996, "International Business Cycles and the Dynamics of the Current Account," European Economic Review, Vol. 40 (February), pp. 361–87.

Fidrmuc, J., I. Korhonen and I. Bátorová (2011). China in the World Economy: Dynamic Correlation Analysis of Business Cycles. Center for Economic Institutions Working Paper Series

Glick, Reuven, and Kenneth Rogoff, 1995, "Global Versus Country-Specific Productivity Shocks and the Current Account," Journal of Monetary Economics, Vol. 35 (February), pp. 159–92.

Greene, W. H., 2002 Econometric Analysis, Prince Hall, New Jersey, 5th edition

Hao, T. and J. A. Mathews, (2007). Cyclical Dynamics in Three Industries. DRUID Working Paper No. 07-07

Johnston, J. and Dinardo, J. 1996, Econometric Methods, McGraw Hill, 4th edition

Lastrapes, William, 1992, "Sources of Fluctuations in Real and Nominal Exchange Rates," Review of Economics and Statistics, Vol. 74 (August), pp. 530–39.

Phillips, Kerk L., 1996, "The Cyclical Behavior of Net Exports: Temporary and Persistent Movements," Review of International Economics, Vol. 4 (February), pp. 79–89.

Prasad, E. S. (1999). International trade and the business cycle. The Economic Journal, 109(458), 588 – 606.

Prasad, E. S. and J. A. Gable (1998) International Evidence on the Determinants of Trade Dynamics. International Monetary Fund Staff Paper, 45(3) September

Prasad, Eswar S., and Manmohan Kumar, 1997, "International Trade and the Business Cycle" (unpublished; Washington: International Monetary Fund).

Robertson, Donald, and Mike R. Wickens, 1997, "Measuring Real and Nominal Macroeconomic Shocks and Their Transmission Under Different Monetary Systems," Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics, Vol. 59 (February), pp. 5–27.

Waste to Wealth or Windfarm Facility Development in Scotland: Legal, Technical and Socio Economic Issues Involved In Choosing Either

Emetumah, Faisal. C
Department of Geography
Environmental Management Imo State University Owerri.

Duru, Patricia. N (Ph.D)
Department of Geography
Environmental Management Imo State University Owerri.

Abstract
The study looked at the technical, legal and socio economic issues involved in land use planning for choosing a viable renewable energy investment (waste to energy or wind farm facility) as well as public opinion issues with respect to sustainable development. The study tried to evaluate and analyse the key technical, legal and socio economic aspects a landowner will have to deal with in order to set up a functional 'waste to energy plant' with respect to the proximity to a residential area. Alternately the paper discussed all the relevant aspects and impacts as regards legal, technical and socio economic conditions a landowner will have, on setting up a windfarm with respect to the possibility of scenery destruction and other issues that the populace will likely find loathsome. Identifying those key issues that opponents and proponents of both projects may have will provide the landowner with the best way to decide the option to choose. Conclusively, the study opined that no matter the choice made, it is important that all the relevant laws, regulations, acts and guidelines provided by the authorities and the opinion of the local population are respected so that while renewable energy is produced, sustainability is maintained.

KEY WORDS: Windfarm, planning, legal, incineration, waste to wealth, land use

INTRODUCTION
The negative effects of fossils fuels on the environment which stem from accumulation of greenhouse gases that cause global warming and drastic changes in our climate are the main reasons for calls for sustainable and renewable sources of energy all over the globe. A legal framework has to be provided with guidelines to ensure that things are done the right way. From a legal point of view, the environment is made up of anything in water, air, land on and all its components; including those below or above ground level (Environmental Protection Act 1990; Section 1(2)). Therefore, environmental law provides rules and regulations that guide our attitude towards environmental protection, especially as it relates to pollution and contamination.

Environmental issues do not respect borders; most environmental laws in the United Kingdom stem from international treaties (like the Kyoto protocol), agreements and declarations made at the regional European Union (EU). The EU Renewables Directive (2009/28/EC), the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS) and the Energy performance of buildings Directive (2002/91/EC).These are key policies provided at the regional level to guide member nations to move towards renewable energy development (European commission ITP/0875; 2006).

Though issues on environmental protection and sustainability may appear relatively new, laws on environmental protection and conservation are not. Stookes (2009) asserts that as far back as 1500s, the British parliament had imposed a death penalty for the use of coal after Queen Elizabeth banned it. However by the mid-1850s, the environmental effects of the industrial revolution actuated parliament in England to pass laws like the public health act which heralded a good number of laws and regulations in existence today. Throughout much of the 20th century, laws and acts have been passed dealing with different and specific issues in the environment, mostly in reactionary manner. For instance, the clean air act (1956) was made into law following smog in urban areas especially in London. It is pertinent to note that prior to the 1960s, private laws on environmental issues did not side with it claimants (Stookes, P.; 2009). As the years went by and environmental issues expanded, it became apparent that a more holistic approach had to be employed and this led to the introduction of the Environmental Protection Act (1990), which amalgamated and strengthened some of the laws already in place and provided the holistic approach needed to tackle and enforce environmental laws given their interlinking nature.

RELEVANT ISSUES IN LAND USE PLANNING

It is of vital importance that we consider landuse planning because any use that we intend to put land into will have environmental effects and probably consequences. Furthermore, putting land to its designated use goes a long way in reducing pollution and misuse of land. Following urbanization from the nineteenth century, there had been a lot of laws on land use and planning but the Town & country planning Act (TCPA 1947) amalgamated and also countermanded existing land use planning laws at that time. Blundell (1993) asserts that the act was premised by the sudden increase in land value whenever government agencies or local authorities show interest in the land. The act also intended to control and ensure appropriate use of land so as to prevent incongruous land use. The act defined development not only as erecting or renovating structures on land, but also changes from one land use to another. It also gave government the power to determine appropriate land use as well as approbation of changes in land use.

According to Stookes (2009), implementing land use planning in the UK is a fundamental obligation of local authorities, through their Local planning authorities (LPAs) and this can also be seen on review of various TCPAs. In Scotland, the Town & Country planning Act (Scotland) 1997 and the Planning. Act (Scotland) 2006 provides the guideline for landuse planning. Legal issues involved in land use are determined by the kind of development that is intended. These acts provide a hierarchy for development by defining development into national, major and local. According to the National planning framework 2 (Scottish Directorate for the Built Environment; 2009), national development involves major projects in different sectors that have national significance and international connections as to its impact on national economic growth. This also has pivotal regional significance as well as encourages sustainable development. Major development projects are categorized in the Town and Country Planning (Hierarchy of Developments) (Scotland) Regulations 2009 which provides interpretations for the Town & Country planning Act (Scotland) 1997. According to the regulations, any electricity generation facility (windfarms included) whose production capacity is or surpasses 20 Mw is categorized as a major development. In addition, any waste management facility whose carrying capacity is or surpasses 25,000 tonnes per annum is also classed as a major development. Consequently, any development on land that does not fall into any of the above categories is listed as local development.

WINDFARM DEVELOPMENT: LEGAL ISSUES

Wind energy development is not new. Cole & Taylor (1993) opined that the first windfarm in the UK for profitmaking began functioning in January 1992. Since then a lot of development has been witnessed in the sector. Scotland has a lot of potential for renewable energy especially in the area of wind energy development. Alldritt & Hopwood (2010) highlights that much of Scotland, especially the highlands are ideal for wind energy development due to the fierce and ideal winds that weighs over the country. Furthermore, Troen & Petersen (1989) postulates that Scotland has about a quarter of all winds resources in Europe, therefore it is most suitable for onshore and offshore wind development than any other place in Europe.

Every potential investor in windfarm development requires a planning permission from the local authority before the project can commence. The council has the final say on whether an environmental impact Assessment is required or not. Furthermore, approval lies on the investors' ability to satisfy all the criteria provided which can vary from council to council. Most local authorities in Scotland base their planning requirements for renewable energy development on the Scottish planning policy guideline provided by the Scottish executive. According to SPP6 (Scottish executive development department; 2007), windfarm design and positioning is determined by wind prevalence rates, effects on human population and accessibility to the grid among others. These determinants are decided when critical procedural, economic and environmental appraisals have been undertaken. These issues are considered through the following criteria:

- Impact of the proposed wind facility on scenery. This considers their appearance from a visual point of view and issues bothering on noise pollution to the general public
- Due to laid down conservation laws and regulations on the protection of birds and their habitats, probable effects on bird populations in the area must be considered so as to ensure that their migration pathways, feeding and nestling areas are not affected
- The eccentricity and features of the landscape (valleys, plains, hills etc.) must also be considered as it relates to whether the turbines will fit into the area and not destroy the landscape. This is also to ensure that protected sites and national reserves do not serve as potential windfarm sites.
- Effect or possible electromagnetic interference with Basic amenities and infrastructure already in place in the area (airports/flight routes, military facilities, television and telecommunication devices, flickers on drivers and construction disturbances)

Section 36 (1 & 2) of the Electricity Act (1989) opines that permission from the secretary of state is required for any electricity generation facility that generates more than 50 Mw of electricity. (c.29; 1989); this is a determining factor for the facility to be connected to the grid. Facilities lower than 50mw require approval from the local authority before they can be connected. However, all categories call for public participation to ensure fairness and transparency.

OPPOSITION TO WINDFARMS

Opposition towards the development of windfarm is based on their ability to destroy the natural landscape and scenery, noise pollution, shadow flicking, possible habitat disruption for flora / fauna and television receptions. Furthermore Van der Horst & Toke (2010), highlights that understanding the technology goes a long way in determining the level of opposition. There is a tendency to develop windfarms in rural and remote areas so as to reduce the number of people that see them. Though there are fewer residents in rural areas, they are mostly very conservative and are not very willing to compromise their love for beautiful

countryside and scenery. The Viking energy project expected to begin at least before 2016, has a potential to generate enough energy to meet about 20% of Scotland's domestic energy needs but the project is opposed by a large number of local residents (Alldritt & Hopwood; 2010).

According to Van der Horst & Toke (2010). the two parameters that can be used to look at opposition of citing wind farms are (i)The economic, social and demographic personalities/ enlightenment and development of people living nearby(ii) distance to the facility is important because the views and influence of the local populace living near the intended site .Other things to consider are the size of the turbines and the scale of the wind farm, this I because smaller installations tend to have less opposition. In addition, the amount of flora and fauna especially as it relates to endangered species, distance from conserved/reserved areas is also vital in determining the level of opposition.

Some laws that opponents can use to support their claims are:

- Section 36 of the Electricity act (1989)Which deals with the quantity of electricity the windfarm intends to produce. Opponents can call for denial of permit if it is determined that the electricity generation capacity the operators are claiming is untrue. Opponents of the Frodsham Windfarm are using this to support their opposition peel energy limited (Residents against the windfarm; 2010).
- Control of pollution Act (1974) & Environmental protection act (1990): opponents of wind farms can use this law to support their claim as some studies have shown that windfarms can produce irritating sounds that can disturb the peace and quiet of people within the vicinity of the turbine. Section(s) that applies depends on the level/quantity of noise produced and the frequency.
- The Human Rights Act 1998: article 8 (1 &2) highlights that every citizen is entitled to have their family and private life respected and there should be no interference without just cause. Sequel to that, opponents of windfarms can use this to support their claims if they can proof that siting a wind farm close by interferes with these rights.
- Town and Country Planning (Environmental Impact Assessment) Regulations 2011, Planning (Listed Buildings and Conservation Areas) Act 1990
- Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981: Opponents to windfarms can use irregularities in the act on the part of the investor to request that planning permission be denied. For instance, in the case of Derbyshire Wind Energy Ltd v North East Derbyshire DC ([2010] P.A.D. 32: see case for more details), the defendant was denied planning permission by the planning inspector for defaulting some parts of the acts/regulations above.
- In the case of Enertrag v East Lindsey DC 2011 P.A.D. 27 planning permission appeal by Enertrag to build a windfarm in East Lindsey council was denied due to the effect of the proposed windfarm on the surrounding landscape. Furthermore, effects on heritage sites in the vicinity, the local populace (particularly noise pollution and visual impacts) were deemed incomparable with the potential energy generation from the windfarm.
- The case of Grange Wind Farm v North Lincolnshire Council 2010 P.A.D. 31 demonstrates the extent of visual impacts of wind turbines. The planning inspector opined that apart from the negative impacts on the landscape, the proposed windfarm will lead to 'fixation addiction' by two small children living close to the windfarm (see case for more details)

WASTE TO WEALTH (INCINERATION): LEGAL ISSUES
Waste is any portable material that is insignificant to the present owner (Lemann, M. F.; 2008). As long as human exist, waste must be produced. However, in line with sustainability and environmental protection, it is important that waste is optimally managed. Like in other legal

areas. The UK waste management laws stem from international and regional agreements and directives which provide the required guidelines to maintain/uphold sustainability.

The EU waste framework directive (75/442/EEC, revised as 2008/98/EC) introduced an overall approach towards waste management. The principles of the directives cover the following areas:

- provide suitable arrangements that tackle waste from a holistic point of view (Integrated waste management infrastructure)
- design their waste management strategy to be proactive so as to reduce effects on the environment and human health
- use the waste management hierarchy to handle all types of waste {prevention, reuse, recycling, energy recovery (incineration, Anaerobic digesting etc.) and land filling}

Furthermore, the EU waste incineration Directive (2000/76/EC) provides definite principles to be considered in waste incineration across the European Union. The directive mainly aims to reduce the negative impacts of waste incineration on human health and the environment, as far as possible. This is through stringent measures on technical requirements, types of incinerators, type of waste used and control of emissions.

In Scotland, relevant regulations that guide the management and licensing of waste incineration include: the waste incineration (Scotland) Regulations 2003, the pollution prevention and control (Scotland) regulations 2011 (as amended) and the Waste Management Licensing (Scotland) Regulations 2011. The Scottish Environmental Protection Agency (SEPA), created by the Environment Act (1995), is in charge of regulating the licensing and permitting of waste to wealth facilities. The 2009 thermal treatment of waste guidelines 2009 provides the guidelines on the roles of SEPA in issuing permits and consults on thermal waste to wealth facilities. The guidelines (SEPA; 2011) looked at the issues in three ways:

1. that thermal is considered only after all other options in the waste hierarchy (reuse and recycling) in line with the EU waste framework directive
2. That thermal recovery should also integrate other waste management techniques like composting and recycling infrastructure
3. To ensure that energy recovery from the waste is optimal

In the area of planning, SEPA will critically assess the site location, the amount of energy recovery projected in relation to the needs/capacity of the facility, distance between the facility and the waste to be incinerated

In the area of licensing, SEPA policy is mostly determined by the size and capacity of the plant. Here, SEPA will ensure that the facility's' design is capable of treating the waste effectively, that emissions are significantly reduced and even if there is any, they must not have pernicious effect on the environment and consequently on human health. Furthermore, the 'best available technique' (BAT) must be used in the facility in relation to the consideration of substitute systems. The intended facility must also have a clear plan on how the heat will be managed in line with the quality assurance scheme for combined heat and power (CHPQA).

OPPOSITION TO WASTE TO WEALTH FACILITIES (INCINERATORS)

There is considerable opposition to the establishment of waste to wealth facility especially waste incineration due to the general belief that aerobic combustion can lead to the release of

toxin and greenhouse gases that exacerbate global warming and climate change as well as cause damage to human health. Diaz & Salvage (2003) asserts that opposition towards incinerators arise from belief that dioxins and furans can be released into the air that can harm the environment and lead to severe ill health in humans. Furthermore, Sedman & Esparza (1991) affirm that heavy metals like cadmium and chromium can also be released from waste incinerators; these metals are carcinogenic if they find their way into the human system. However, studies have shown that proper technical and legal restrictions can significantly reduce emission effects.

Laws that oppose waste to wealth facilities cover several sectors.

- The Air Quality (Scotland) Regulations 2002(as amended): the Environment Act (1995) give SEPA the right to intervene if it is determined that there is any section of the regulations that are contravened especially as it relates to the air quality of the proposed site, even after local authority has given planning permission.
- The Human Rights Act 1998: if an incinerator site has been determined to have adverse effect on the right to life of people within the proximity of the proposed plant.
- Environmental protection act (1990): various sections of the environmental protection act provide sections that can help opponents of incinerator plants make their case. Section 79 of the act deals with statutory nuisance (including noise pollution) and can provide a platform for the opposition to prove that the proposed incinerator can cause harm to the health and wellbeing of the humans and the environment. In the same vein section 38 of the act looks at the issue of revocation and withdrawal of licences already issued if it is determined that the facility poses serious threat to the health and wellbeing of the populace.
- Conservation of Habitats and Species Regulations 2010: this regulation can be used by opponents of waste to wealth facilities to call for denial of planning permission for setting up one. In Cornwall Waste Forum St Dennis Branch v Secretary Of State For Communities and Local Government (13 October 2011), the judge ruled that the planning inspector should not have granted licence to the waste company trying to run an incinerator plant in Cornwall council, due to the contravention of Conservation of Habitats and Species Regulations (2010) which calls for assessment of possible effects of the plant on special areas of conservation.
- Waste Incineration (Scotland) Regulations 2003
- EU directives: Opponent can use the EU framework directive (75/442) (as amended) and other relevant directives to pursue their case this is very important as it defines the kind of waste that can be incinerated. . A review of Scottish Power Generation Ltd v Scottish Environment Protection Agency (No.1) 2005 Env. L.R. 38 expounds that Scottish gas petitioned that SEPA should not class the facility in their power station as an incinerator since they burnt waste derived fuel which they claimed is not waste under the waste framework directive 75/442 (as amended). However, the court found that the facility was in fact an incinerator; that they were burning waste under the environmental protection act (1990) and the waste incineration regulations

CONCLUSION

The need for sustainability stemming from the facts of global warming and climate change is driving the developed world to encourage renewable energy improvements.

Wind farm does not have much environmental impact in relation to the current drive for emission reduction to combat global warming and climate change. Its effects are mostly

aesthetic in terms of landscape scenery destruction which is less pertinent when compared to the need to produce clean and renewable energy.

The Scottish government has very high support for wind farm development. It has been made official that Scotland intend to lead the world in renewable energy. The government is providing a lot incentives like the SDLT, Renewable heat incentive (RHI) and the feed in tariffs (FITs) to potential investors in the sector. (Alldritt & Hopwood; 2010).The availability of wind energy in Scotland is very clear especially given the wind speeds experienced most times of the year which are very conducive for the development of wind energy. Thus wind farms have a very good potential for success in Scotland. Wind energy development is also considered relatively less expensive in comparison to other renewable energy technology options like waste incineration (warren & McFadyen; 2010).

Finally, the key issue involved in land use as regards renewable energy is to ensure that the environment and health of the general public is protected, while clean energy is produced. Sequel to that, public enlightenment is of the essence and no matter the choice taken, all efforts must be made to ensure that all the relevant laws and regulations of the land are fully complied with.

In view of the findings of this work, wind energy is better than waste to wealth facility like incineration.

Reference & Bibliography

Alldritt, D. & Hopwood, D. (2010) Renewable Energy in Scotland Renewable Energy Focus May/June 2010

Blundell, V.H. (1993) Labour's Flawed Land Acts 1947-1976 London, Economic and Social Science Research Association

Burns, J. (2011) Presentation on SEPA action plan on windfarms and other renewable energy technologies Edinburgh Napier University

Clean air Act 1956 (c.52) London, HMSO the SDLT, Renewable heat incentive (RHI) and the feed in tariffs (FITs)

Coles, R.W. & Taylor, J. (1993) Wind power and planning: the Environmental impact of windfarms in the UK. UK Butterworth-Heinemann

Control of pollution act 1974 (c.40) London, HMSO

Cornwall Waste Forum St Dennis Branch v Secretary Of State for Communities and Local Government (13 October 2011) [online] Available at: http://login.westlaw.co.uk/ Accessed on 24th October, 2011

Diaz, L.F. & Savage, G.M. (2003) Risks and Costs Associated with the Management of Infectious Wastes Completed for: World Health Organization Switzerland [Internet] Available from: < http://www.wpro.who.int/internet/resources.ashx/EHE/waste_management/LFD-Risk+assessment-Dec+03-Final.pdf> Accessed on 17th October, 2011

Electricity Act 1989 (c.29) London, HMSO

Environmental protection Act 1990 (c.43) RRC Health & Safety Law & Case Law Guide [online] available at: http://www.healthandsafetybusiness.com/Spring2010/LINKS/Environmental%20Protection%20Act%201990.pdf accessed on 21st October 2011

Enertrag v East Lindsey DC 2011 P.A.D. 27 [Online] Available at: http://login.westlaw.co.uk/ Accessed on 19th October, 2011

Environment Act 1995 (c.25) London, HMSO

EU Directive 2002/91/EC on the energy performance of buildings UK; Official Journal of the European Communities

EU Directive 2000/76/EC on the incineration of waste EU; Official Journal of the European Communities

EU Directive 2008/98/EC on waste and repealing certain Directives EU; Official Journal of the European Union

EU Directive 2009/28/EC on the promotion of the use of energy from renewable sources EU; Official Journal of the European Union

European commission ITP/0875 (2006) Administrative & Planning Issues for Small wind turbines in urban areas UK; European commission

Grange Wind Farm v North Lincolnshire Council 2010 P.A.D. 31 [online] available at: http://login.westlaw.co.uk/ Accessed on 20th October, 2011

Human Rights Act 1998 (c.42) London, HMSO

Lemann, M. F. (2008) Waste Management Bern-Switzerland, Peter Lang AG.

Perth and Kinross Council; A Guide to the New Development Management System [Online] Available at: http://www.pkc.gov.uk/NR/rdonlyres/24B6189E-7C04-4E60-B537-3554E6983014/0/SummaryGuidetoNewDMSystemrev0909.pdf accessed on 20th October, 2011

Planning (Listed Buildings and Conservation Areas) Act 1990 (c.9) London, HMSO

Residents against windfarms (2010) Objections to the proposed Frodsham Windfarm: a compendium of letters to the DECC [online] available at: http://rawindfarm.com/wp-content/uploads/DECC000-Compendium-of-Letters_web.pdf accessed on 19th October, 2011

SEPA (2011) SEPA's Thermal treatment of waste guidelines 2009

Scottish Directorate for the Built Environment (2009) National Planning Framework for Scotland 2 [online] Available at: http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/278232/0083591.pdf

Scottish Executive; development department (2007) Scottish Planning Policy (SPP 6: Renewable Energy) [online] available at: http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/171491/0047957.pdf accessed on 24th October, 2011

Scottish Government publication (2008) PAN 45-Annex 2: Spatial framework and supplementary planning guidance for windfarms [online] available at: http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/244403/0068333.pdf .Accessed 17th October 2011

Sedman, R.M. & Esparza, J.R. (1991) Evaluation of Public Health Risks Associated with Semi volatile Metal and Dioxin Emissions from Hazardous Waste Incinerators Journal of Environmental Health Perspectives 1991 Vol. 94 pp. 181 – 187

Stookes, P. (2009) A practical approach to Environmental law 2nd edition New York, Oxford university press

The Air Quality (Scotland) Amendment Regulations 2002 SI 2002/297 Edinburgh, SO

The Conservation of Habitats and Species Regulations 2010 SI 2010/490 London, HMSO

The Town and Country Planning (Environmental Impact Assessment) Regulations 2011 SI 2011/1824 London, HMSO

The Waste Management Licensing (Scotland) Regulations 2011 SSI 2011/228 Edinburgh, SO

Town & Country Planning Act 1947 (c.51) London, HMSO

Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1997 (c.8) London, HMSO

Town & country planning (hierarchy of developments) (Scotland) Regulations 2009 SI 2009 No. Edinburgh, SOL

The Waste Incineration (Scotland) Regulations 2003 SSI 2003/170 Edinburgh, SO

Troen & Petersen (1989) European Wind Atlas [online] Available at: http://www.windatlas.dk/Europe/Index.htm accessed on 20th October, 2011

Van der Horst, D.A. & Toke, D. (2010) Exploring the landscape of wind farm developments; local area characteristics and planning process outcomes in rural England Journal of Land Use Policy, Volume 27, Issue 2, April 2010, Pages 214-221

Warren, C.R. & Mcfadyen, M. (2010) Does community ownership affect public attitudes to wind energy? A case study from south-west Scotland Journal of Land Use Policy 27 (2010) 204–213

The Problematics of the Islamic Political Arab Identity: The Absence of Ummah in the Fiction of Munis Arazzaz

Ahmad Mohd Alkouri
School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Raihanah M.M.
School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Ruzy Suliza Hashim
School of Language Studies and Linguistics
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia

Abstract

This paper explores the problematic of Arab identity based on the absence of the notion of Ummah as represented in the fiction of Jordanian writer Munis Arazzaz. An analytical exploration of the novels of Munis Arazzaz namely, Alive In The Dead Sea (1982), Confessions Of Silencer (1986) and The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrappers (1986) focuses on the protagonists' struggle to reunite the Arabs through a shared sense of national identity. The collective personal journey of the three protagonists, as this paper demonstrates, also parallels the journey of the Arab nation as it struggles to accomplish the mission of Arab unity. Arazzaz, as we problematise, depicts the tension between the Arab nation and the political leaders as a conflict between religious and political attachments. Collectively, the narratives illustrate two significant observations, which appear to foreshadow the current crisis in the Arab world. The first is the Arab nation's scuffle with its violent autocratic authorities, and the second is the intrusive political strategies used by the State to assert its political identity. These two-pronged conflicts reveal the main argument about the Arab identity crisis today pointing out the absence of the Islamic identity or the sorely missing notion of Ummah. The conclusion drawn from the explication of the narrative indicates that the assertion of political identity contradicts with the propagation of the Ummatic identity. The collective Muslim identity, or the Ummah, appears to be in decline and the crisis continues to linger, causing fragmentation and bitterness as seen in fiction and reality.

Key Words: Munis Arazzaz, Arab Identity, Ummatic Paradigm, Alive In The Dead Sea, Confessions Of Silencer, The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrappers

INTRODUCTION

This paper explores the problematic of Arab identity based on the absence of the notion of Ummah as represented in the fiction of Jordanian writer Munis Arazzaz. An analytical exploration of the novels of Munis Arazzaz's, namely Alive In The Dead Sea (1982), Confessions Of Silencer (1986) and The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrappers (1986) focuses on the protagonists' struggle to reunite the Arabs through a shared sense of national identity. Using an Islamic lens, the discussion into Arazzaz's representation of the Arab identity crisis can be examined from two main themes, leadership in Islam and ummatic paradigm. To what extent

are these themes evident in the fiction of Arazzaz? What do these works of fiction reveal about the Arab identity crisis? These issues will form the core of this paper.

The Islamic Perspective to Identity: Notion of Ummah and leadership
A variety of definitions for the term Ummah have been suggested by scholars of Islam. The term Ummah generally means 'community'. It is associated with the term Umm, 'mother' or 'source'. The word Ummah is mentioned 64 times in the Quran. Khalil (1992: 177) literally explains the Ummah as "a group of living beings having certain characteristics or circumstances in common". According to the Quran, we are all created from a single source (umm): Adam and Eve. Humanity started out as a single community because its members followed the guidance of Allah, "and know that all mankind were once but one single community, ummatun wahidatun, and later did they begin to hold divergent views" (Al- Quran 10:19).

Al-Ahsan (1993: 18) further explains that an Ummah is a community based on a set of beliefs, and the Muslim Ummah believes in the guidance of One Allah (S.W.T) and in the prophethood of Muhammad (peace and blessing be upon him). Therefore, Ummah is not confined to the Arabs alone; its message is universal. It is addressed to the whole mankind (nas) as mentioned in the following verse: "Unto every one of you (mankind) have appointed a law and way of life (Shir'atan Wa Minhajan)" (Al- Quran 5:48). Additionally, Ummah is also used to describe a group of people who are committed to the beliefs of the whole community (qawm) as stated in verse (Al- Quran 7: 160). Ummah refers to the people within the community who enjoy divine guidance. Al-Ahsan (1993: 17) writes that "the Muslim Ummah provides the followers of Muhammad with a physical identity. More precisely Ummah is a community of law and customs". Historically, the Muslim power or the Ummah was so strong and had expanded to the whole world up until the Ottoman Empire. The power of the Muslim Ummah is due to the "unity amongst them" (Al-Ahsan 1993: 23). The Qur'an always asks the Muslim Ummah to be one and united. Moreover, there is no difference between them. The differences that parochialism brings in any nation like the loyalty to tribe, family, land and to others who share the same language or political affiliation, do not existed in Islam and are not applied in Muslim Ummah.

Furthermore, the Ummah is "based on the twin concept of brotherhood and equality" (Walt 1968: 97). Muslims are brothers to one another. They share their belief in tawhid (oneness of God), risalah (the message of Islam) and akhirah (believe in the hereafter). Both Quran and Sunah require Muslims to work together for the unity of Ummah. As a result, there is no room for nationalism in Islam. Islam is the religion not founded upon tribal or nation-state. In other words, the Muslims, whether they are of Chinese, African, European or Asian origin, are one Ummah and they cannot be separated from each other. The unity must never be broken by any tribalism as it is stated in the Quran, "The Faithful are but brothers…" (Al-Quran 49: 10). Therefore, the concept of Ummah is solid, rigid and persistent to all imported ideas or ties such as nationalism or tribalism.

Consequently, the concept of nationalism is totally unacceptable from the Islamic perspective. Ahmed and Abidkarim (1992:15) state, not only does Islam forbid people from honing on nationalistic ties, but "it also prohibits the establishment of more than one state, whether these states are based on nationalism or otherwise." The only government that is allowed for the Muslims is the Islamic governance, which is an authority for all Muslims that is governed exclusively by the tenets of Islam. Allah (s w t) addressed the Messenger (peace and blessing be upon him), "And rule between them by that which Allah revealed to you, and do not follow their vain desires away from the truth which came to you" (Al-Quran 5: 48). The notion of

Ummah, therefore, is a formation of identity for all Muslims at the present time as it was in the past. From this cornerstone, the following analysis will be considered as foundation to foreground the purpose of this paper. Within the various identities among Muslims and Arabs including the state identity, the Arab identity as the basis of national/ethnic identity is also examined in order to position what this paper terms as the misinformed and misguided Islamic identity.

Leadership in Islam

The only solution to remedy fragmentation and secularism in the current Muslim world is through Islamic leadership. Hasan (2010: 190) states that: "Unfortunately, many of the existing Muslim nation-states and the ruling political elites, decision-makers and leadership of Muslim countries do not portray the attributes of holistic excellence of the universal Ummah". The Muslim nation has been experiencing a schism due to strong leadership and more importantly, leadership that is governed by Shariah. This gap or gaps will be mentioned in the following paragraphs beginning with the importance of leadership in Islam.

Islam manages leadership based on certain conditions and rules. Leadership is considered as the actions of individuals who are chosen to be placed in position of authority, to oversee every aspect of societal wellbeing. Leadership position is active to the nation and hence should be held only by experienced capable people only. Therefore, the leader of Muslim community is called Caliph or Amir of Believers or ruler (el-Wali). This leader must be responsible for the people. On the other hand, the followers should obey the orders of their leaders. The Quran attests: "O ye who believers! Obey Allah, and obey the Messenger, and those charged with authority among you" (Al- Quran 5:59). However, people are expected to obey their leader's orders only if they are in line with God's orders.

The Islamic leader has the following qualities: charismatic: a "great man", a man with some sort of "miracle" to lead his followers to their ideals. A leader with real qualities according to the Islamic Shariah is beneficial to his nation. "The leader has a message: the loftiest of his duties is to develop leaders from among his people. He must be righteous as the nation depends on the righteousness of its Caliph. Then, the corruption of the nation is in his corruption" (Ikhlas & Moudi 2001: 509). Therefore, the leader must be responsible. In this respect prophet Muhammad (peace and blessing be upon him) indicates that: "Every one of you is a custodian and responsible of his people". Many scholars such as Hawai (1982), Khadra (1985), Mostafa (1986) and Al-Obiedi (1987) have summarized the features of the Muslim leader. They assert that the Muslim leader must guarantee justice among his people. He should also apply the rules of Islamic law and preaches all the good. Besides, the Muslim leader must dissuade from evil and provide a decent livelihood for his people. He must be humble, forgiving, honest, honourable, patient, abiding by his promises, moderate, consultative, and respectable in appearance, and hold non-materialistic and ascetic values. These features are essential and assertive in any Muslim leader to be valid for the leadership.

In addition, at the core of the Islamic administrative theory, there lies a social philosophy of the Islamic system, which suggests that the individual's basic needs must be satisfied to achieve organisational goals and that a balance should be achieved between spiritual and psychological needs. The theory is based on the principles of hierarchical organisational structure, chain and unity of command, obedience and compliance to formal authority, planning of work, training, and development of employees (quoted in Ikhlas and Moudi 2001: 509)

Abu Sin (1981) has tried to identify the postulates of Islamic administrative theory. The characteristics of the Islamic theory emphasizes on all the variables and factors that affect the administrative cycle in an organisation and its understanding of individual behaviour in light of social and cultural factors. The same is applied to the larger Islamic society of which administration is a subsystem. The basic postulates of Islamic theory can be summarized thus: firstly, Islamic administrative theory should be closely connected to the philosophy of the Islamic system and enforce the moral principle. Secondly, economic variables should also be taken into consideration in order to fulfill the individuals' physiological need. Thirdly, spiritual and psychological needs of the individual should be emphasized equally. Fourth and finally, it should pay attention to the organisation of work, organisational structure, relationship, and obedience to formal authority. According to Sharfuddin (1987: 231) there are some other variables to be taken into consideration in order to complete the paradigm of the Islamic theory. The first is the Shura which means the obligatory Matual Consultation and the "cardinal principle of the Islamic administrative system". Allah says in the holy Quran: "those who hearken to their lord, and establish regular prayers, and who conduct their affair by mutual consultation..." (Al-Quran 42: 38). The second element in the administrative system is the "Nasiha or Advice." It is an "inspirable factor in the effective functioning of any Islamic administrative system" (Sharfuddin 1987: 231). The prophet Muhammad (peace and blessings be upon him) said to his companions: "the religion is advice (Nasiha)" (Assalihin : 88). According to Sharfuddin (1987: 231) "in the early Islamic government, nasiha was given in all critical situations." Therefore, it is a need to include every aspect of life based on the teachings of Islam, as Islam is a complete way of life. Islamic identity will be handicapped, if Islamic economic, political, social and administration are absent in practice. As a leader of a nation, it is a must to enhance Islamic judicial, administrative system in order to uphold Islamic identity with the core value of justice and peace. Definitely, these principles could be the main key in Islamic system to achieve the Islamic identity. If the Islamic state or the leader of Islamic government applies these rules and principles, both individual and administration could reach satisfactory results. The following section sets out to investigate the extent Arazzaz has constructed these features of the Islamic leader in the authority figures of his novels.

Analysis: Islamic Leadership in the Narration
As stated earlier, leadership in Islam requires several conditions. The leader of Muslims is called a Caliph or Ameerul Mou'meneen or leader of the believers. In the novels, such titles is not being mentioned. In the first two novels, Alive In The Dead Sea and Confessions Of Silencer, the authority figures are both generals. The title 'General' indicates the head of an army. It also foreshadows a preparation for some form of altercation to come, leaving the readers with a sense of an impending crisis in leadership in the narrations.

To begin with, let us consider Arazzaz's first novel. Certain episodes in Alive In The Dead Sea, specifically the party scene reveals the truth about the authorities' uncertainty and loss of identity despite their positions as leaders of the Arab nation. The party in Arraed's house, inviting all VIP governments' and business' men who enjoy the wine food and dance, explains the imitation of the western lifestyle and declining the Islamic lifestyle. The scene shows that the authorities lack a strong sense of self-worth and self-respect as they allow themselves to indulge in their desires irrespective of the consequence. Fundamentally, they implement self-driven agenda in governing the State, in contradiction to Islamic principles of the Ummah as philosophers such as Al-Farabi and Al-Mawardi to Alghazali and Ibn Khaldun state Islam , "have given so much significance to the role of the ruler in setting the moral tone and tenor of society" (Muzaffar 2011: 61).

The behaviour of the authoritarians including Arraed in the night party episode shows all the anti-Arabism and anti-Islamism among the authoritarians. They are politicians but in fact they are not following the Islamic rules or principles. Although political issues look mysterious and unclear especially in the Arab politics, Horton & Baumeister (1996: 5) have identified the political theory as "always been uncertain and shadowy" but with some "high level of generality". Therefore, common sense might be used as a generalisation of the Arab politics practiced today; that uncertainty in the Arab politics could be labeled as reasons to its crisis. A main contribution to the authoritarians' crisis in their policies and practices are the intact of secularism. Muzaffar (2011: 59) says that "most States established in the name of Islam, have failed miserably to uphold basic standards of public morality". Instead, secularism within its substantial meaning is unpredictable in its implementation by the Arab politics. The party as mentioned previously could explicate the implementation of the new State identity based on the State and the leaders' domination. Moreover, it is sad to witness that many of the Arab States use secularism as way of leading the country and that is one of the main causes in the Arabs' national fragmentation and lost identity.

Similarly, the novel Confessions Of Silencer indicates Arab corrupted authorities. Dr. Murad as an authoritarian and ideologist, who struggles for the Arab unity, becomes under house arrest by his companions in the same party. In fact, the political authority arrests Dr. Murad, one of attendee at the party, is equally unethical. The lack of morality in the second novel can be seen noticeably in two parts. The first is the torture on Dr. Murad during his house arrest and the assassination of his son Ahmad. The second part can be seen in the character of Yusuf, who was with Dr. Murad's party championing for the Arab unity, lately molded by the authority, and becomes their assassin. His lifestyle, through his confessions to the nightclub girl Silvia, and his job of killing people as ordered by the authority indicate the immorality of the Arab authorities. These two main sides of immorality in the novel reflect an extensive implementation of narcissism in ruling the nation, thus showcasing a lack of consideration for the Ummah among the Arab authorities.

Furthermore, the authority's treatment of the nationalists is inhuman and satanic despite the social and religious prohibition. They do not mind using any method, both legal and illegal, in achieving what they want. The authoritarian Arraed uses his power to threaten Enad, who is exiled from Jordan to assert the Arab unity, by saying: "I will arrest Mariam if Mahjoob doesn't surrender himself" (Alive 1982: 18). This threat is not only inhumane, it is also prohibited in Islam as no one should take responsibility or pay for another's mistake or fault. Still, the authority continues with its practice of aggression although it is against the Islamic rules and Shariah. This is sufficient proof of the Arab authoritarians' dictatorial attitude and their lack of Islamic conscience.

Another evidence of the secular Arab political system is seen in the excerpt of the killing of Muslim scholars. Arraed said to Enad mockingly that, "the only place for the Muslim Shehks in the dream State (Beirut) is hanging as death sentence" (Alive 1982: 13). The quote shows the anti-Islamic authoritarians' leadership as similar to the colonialists. Furthermore, in the un-Islamic behaviour and disorder of Islam and Shariah, Arraed as a person of authority attacks all the Muslim religious figures and scholars by not even accepting them as members of the nation. The Arab authoritarians do not allow the Muslims to live freely and practice their religion. This fictive representation is a foreshadow of things to come as decades later the Arab nation collectively began an uprising which we now call the Arab spring, recording a clear evidence of conflict between the Brotherhood of Islamic Party and the government. Egypt until today considers the Muslim brotherhood as rebels. The authority's vision of Muslim scholars or

Shikh explains their level of opposition and hatred towards Islam. Focusing on the scholars of Muslims means a direct attack against Islam as the religion of all Arabs. The Arab authorities show concern over the importance of restricting Muslims and driving them away from their religion, ultimately signaling their secularised mindset and subsequently crippling the nation. In a nutshell, the Arabs today can touch and feel the State of weakness and fragmentation.

In The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrapper, the leadership has no representations and characters, yet the narration gives hints of the corrupted leadership. The oppression as mentioned above, which culminates to the point of assassinating people, is only for the sake of the authority. Fazza as a member in the Jordanian community wonders the sudden absence of people he knows and used to see them. The quote "Fazza is shocked of the missing of people, he named some such as: In Barakah and Imam,…" (The Maze 1986: 111) which refers to the murder of those who had gone missing, is a strong evidence of the genocide that took place authorized by the authorities.

In addition, the authorities always attack the opposition party, which, unfortunately, is the Islamic party. The brotherhood Muslim party is the example of main enemy for Arab authorities. They are called the opposition party in every country in the Arab nation. Mumtaz (2003: 387) states that: "The real obstacles towards Muslim unity are not external rather they are purely internal. They are related to Muslim culture and socio-political atmosphere of the Muslim world". As a result, the Muslims today live a huge crisis and are unable to lead themselves without secular interference. Secularised Arab governments and westernised Arab authorities have driven the Arab nation into an inferior position and subsequently have caused the downfall of the Ummah.

The fragmented Arab countries are based on the leaders' acceptance of the State system after the colonial era. In Alive In The Dead Sea, Arraed denies Enad's missions of revolution and ambition of Arab unity by asserting that the State priority comes first. He said to Enad: "With your crossed eyes, you can see the priorities of revolutions and don't realise the priorities of the State" (Alive 1982: 14). Arraed describes Enad with the metaphor of 'crossed eyes' to describe his ability to champion one cause instead of the other. Moreover, in Confessions Of Silencer, the authority arrested Dr. Murad and used surveillance tools to assert powerful control over the country as revealed by the detective: "I have installed all the hotels with these secretive CCTV with my hands" (Confessions 1986: 39). Therefore, the authoritarians' mission is accomplished only by using deceptive method irrespective of the human rights violations. As Muslim readers, the reading of these violations indicates the ultimate transgression by these figures of authorizes, as we are reminded in the Quran: "And rule between them by that which Allah revealed to you, and do not follow their vain desires away from the truth which came to you" (Al-Quran 5: 48).

The Notion of Ummah in the Narration
When a Muslim nation is ruled by un-Islamic authority or at least by an authority that does not practice and apply the Islamic rules and Shariah, the nation spirals into a sharp downfall. The nation struggles to gain its freedom against their rulers. Ignoring the Islamic rules in the State system is the main reason for the nation's crisis. Henceforth, the Muslims are asked to indoctrinate the Islamic rules based on loyalty to Allah.

The effect which the words 'nation' (Qawm) 'motherland' (Watan) has on the rest of the world is produced by the Muslims from the word 'God' or 'Islam'. You can stir the hearts of thousands in Europe simply with one word 'nation', but in the case of Muslims the only comparable word for this purpose is 'God' and 'Islam'. (Comments Azad during 1912. Quoted in Zeenath 1994: 1)

However, when Muslims ignore the Islamic rules and practices, a huge crisis would occur in all aspects of their life as politically explained earlier, and socially is discussed in the followings.

In the fiction by Arazzaz, social illness, immorality and sins are implemented in the narratives to clarify the level of implementing Islam among Muslims. In the novel Confessions of Silencer, Yusuf asked Silvia to open the wine bottle for him to start his confession. "...and I looked at a dark corner...she agreed and we went there" (Confessions 1986: 54). Yusuf is a member in the intelligence department and also an assassin. His job does not allow him the privilege to indulge in personal needs and wants. Yet in this instance, Yusuf chooses to be intoxicated in order to relieve himself prior to his confessions.

Following this, Yusuf commits another sin, which is the adultery or zina. He looks at Silvia desirably. His lust immerses him overwhelmingly until he forgets about the sin of zina. "He gazes at her breast" and hopes that she is naked in front him. "She felt that and did go naked for him" (1992: 142). The situation shows the fulfilment of desires and ignorance of responsibilities to one's faith. From the Islamic perspective, a Muslim who commits this sin will experience a downfall, morally and socially, which subsequently weakness the Ummah.

Arazzaz problematizes how social illness, immorality and wrongdoings in a Muslim nation can cause the Muslim Ummah in his narratives. In Alive In The Dead Sea, Enad in the beginning of the novel was a "drunk and drug addict" (Alive 1982: 22). He spiraled into that state of frustration and depression after discovering the truth about the Lebanese authority, which crushed his last hope of achieving his dream. However, as a tragic end, Enad should have not drowned into the un-Islamic practices and behaviours. The narration exposes the trangressive practices of Muslims to uncover the weakest link in a Muslim nation. Similarly, the un-Islamic social aspects of the Arabs appear in Confessions Of Silencer, ironically, when Dr. Murad and his friends are portrayed to meet and discuss the issues of the Ummah issues in a bar that sells liquor. The narration indicates the beginning of un-Islamic behaviour amongst the leadership members to create an understanding of the exact position of Islam in the community and authority. Similarly, with the first and second novels, the ex-nationalist, Abu Toot, in The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrappers, is a drunk who used to drink alcohol in a bottle of Pepsi (The Maze 1986 16, 46, 180). The Arab characters increasing transgressions and un-Islamic practices are evident the three novels. It is obvious to notice that, drugs, wine, smoking and other prohibited practices are becoming widely partly of the lifestyles of many urban Muslims. In that sense, one of the main predicaments of Muslims these days is due to the Muslims' lifestyle. When Muslims are away from religion and Shariah inevitable weakness and downfall will occur to them. "Muslims, more than perhaps most people, should be able to appreciate the importance of morality in public" (Muzaffar 2011: 59). Therefore, the Muslims' present day crisis is due to the negligence of Islam practice.

Another episode that illustrates the crisis can be seen when Enad desires to sleep with Arraed's wife Suzy. Although she is another Muslim's wife, he still has sexual desired towards her. Indeed, his attraction towards Suzy is a form of revenge against Arraed's manipulation of his dream of Arab Qawmeyya. Enad's lack of Islamic morality or Akhlaq allows him to ironically champion the cause of Arab unity while attempting to violate Suzy's person as a punishment for her husband's actions.

In addition, the scenes expose social problems of the Arabs in the narration. It could also be read as Arazzaz's cautionary commentary of the Arab crisis as they appear to be devoid of religious sensibilities. Furthermore, when a leader and symbol of the Ummah indulges in self-

gratification it indicates the destruction of the Ummah. Thus the question readers are left with upon reading Arazzaz's narratives is this, how can the Ummah aspire for excellence when its leaders lack ethical and moral values? This is the main reason of the Ummah's crisis and downfall, the fragmented and weak leaders, whose secular mindset and practices, cripple the Ummah. Abdul Ghafur Muslim (2006: 1) said "The Ummah, the supra-national political community of Islam, established by Muhammad (peace and blessings be upon him), the Prophet of Islam, about fourteen hundred years ago, today consists of fifty-five sovereign States".

Therefore, the social illness infecting the Muslim societies generally and the Arab nation particularly, create a weak Muslim Ummah. In fact, "Islam tries to strike a balance between this world and the next and exhorts its followers to lead a moral life on earth and prepare for the other world through ibadaat (various spiritual acts of worship)" (Asghar Ali Engineer 2009: 110-111). The Quran, the main source of Islamic teachings, stresses piety (taqwa), cooperation in goodness (birr) and prohibits people from working with another in sin and aggression (Al-Quran 5: 2). It is obvious from the verse of the Quran that governance is also dependent on the people's cooperation and the repudiation of sin and aggression. Aggression and violence upset the balance of life. The Quran also makes it the duty of every individual to enforce what is good (ma'ruf) and contain what is evil (munkar) (3: 110). Thus, people have to engage themselves continuously in promoting good and containing evil. This is the duty of every Muslim. Thus people are very much part of good governance. As Asghar Ali Engineer (2009: 111) asserts, "Good governance is not possible without the full cooperation of the governed"

Salameh's (2001: 91) The Jordanian Novels (1980-1990): A Study And Assessment comments that Munis Arazzaz's novels "portray the real conditions of the Arab world....the world of political oppression, suppression, torture, sustained suffering and restriction of freedom." The weakness of Muslims today shows the selfishness of Arab authoritarians in maintaining the Arabs as weak and fragmented. The implementation of western nationalism and the ignorance of the Islamic ideology have led the Muslim world especially Arabs in a fragmented and weak State. "The position of Muslims in the world today is not very elating. Economically they are weak and venerable, politically they stand divided, and morally they as a community are usually off the right path" (Zubair 2003:60). Arazzaz appear to foreshadow this truth through his protagonist Enad's failure in accomplishing his mission. Enad, Dr. Murad and Hassanin realise that they are unable to defend the Arab authoritarians, as well as accomplish their mission and dream of uniting the Arabs. and the flaw in such a mission lies in their inability to go beyond the limitations of ethnicity as an Arab and never looking at the Muslim identity.

Immorality and sins are forbidden in Islam, haram, and extremely prohibited. When they become widely spread in a Muslim community, it indicates a big lost and weakness of Muslims as one nation. For Muslims to be one nation and strong as how the prophet Muhammad (peace and blessing be upon him) has formed, the Ummah should obey Allah and be obedient followers. Historically, "the Muslim power or the Ummah was so strong and expanded to the whole world up to the Ottoman Empire in early Islam. That power of the Muslim Ummah is due to the unity between them". (Al-Ahasan 1993: 23). That strength is shown by one way. The Quran's opening verse in its longest chapter, "The Cow," which proclaims that "This is the Book; in it is guidance for sure, without doubt, to those who fear Allah" (Al-Quran 2: 2). Muslims must be driven by a strong sense of God consciousness or Taqwa. Otherwise, Muslims can never get along with each other.

As a result, the Muslim community has only one way to become united and strong. That is to be loyal to Allah and follow his Shariah. Thus, the unity of the global Muslim community is

extremely essential. According to Barsie (2003: 241): "There are multiple Quranic verses and prophetic sayings (hadith) that directly urge Muslims to unite and avoid divisions." It is stated in the Quran, "And hold fast to the rope of Allah, and do not be divided among yourselves" (Al-Quran 3: 103). The Muslim Ummah should be one united Ummah not divided as how it is today. Khan (2002) presents a clear picture of the word Ummah as he explains: "The Quran and Hadith State clearly that all Muslims from any part of the world form one Ummah or Hizb, community or party, not various geographical entities or nation. They are unified in an indivisible religious communion with no possibility of internal divisiveness or of multiplicity of identity" (Israr 2002: 27).

The discourse of identity representation has to be more comprehensive to include different aspects of individual formation in nation-building. In the case of Arab, identity formation cannot be settled with simple terms like Jordanian, Lebanese, Saudi, Omanis or any other Arab State. The exact and true meaning of Arab identity can be portrayed as unity only when the identity representation, as can be seen in literary discourse, is based on ethnic recognition that create a sense of belonging to the entire Arab community.
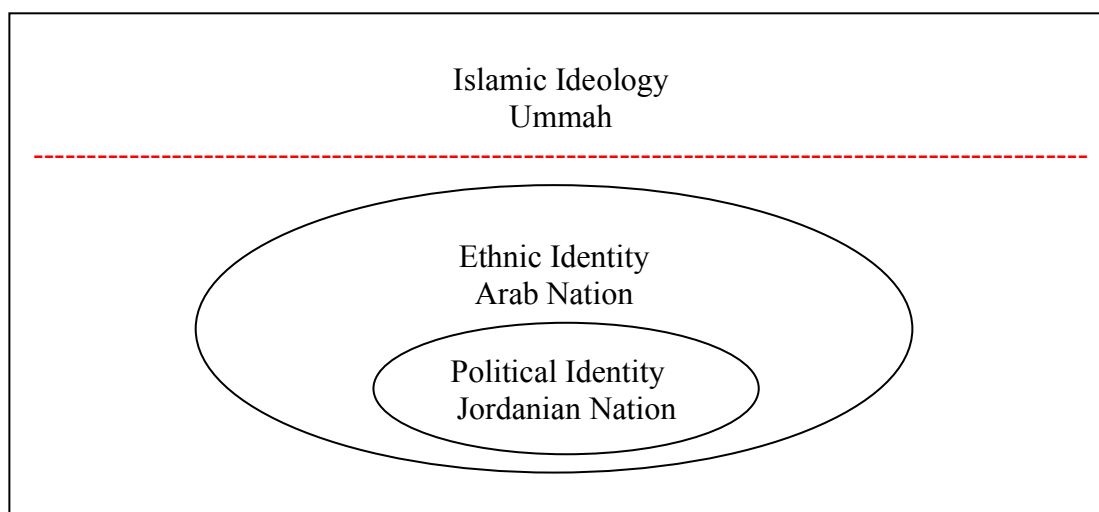
Figure 7.1 The Identity-Intersectional Spaces

Figure 7.1 shows the adoption of identity to each other. The narrowest identity is the political identity which cannot adopt or include more than its own elements such as loyalty to State, flag and the country domination and power, as presented earlier. The second identity is the ethnic identity which includes the first identity 'political' but could not expand to the bigger identity such as the Islamic identity or Islamic identity. The third identity is the only concrete Muslim identity, Islamic identity, which is being marginalised and decayed.

The context of the intersections of identity spaces as illustrated above presents the most significant crisis in the narratives of Arazzaz. The novelist, Arazzaz, feels the torment of divided Arab nations. His novels are nothing more than the struggle that he went through and the pain that he experienced although it was easier for him to shut his eyes and ignore it. Nevertheless, he strived for an Arab nation. However, looking through the Arab spring as political reform shows it is still in a dilemma given the lack of unified Ummatic mindset. The 2010 Arab spring, indeed, is long suffering due to dictatorial regimes, which to a large extent was foreshadowed in Arazzaz's three novels. The novelist depicts the restless efforts of the three protagonists working towards achieving an Arab nation. In the evolutionary sense, the characters in the

narratives are divided into nations. Some were able to abandon the feeling and the attachment towards political identity as a steppingstone in achieving one united Arab nation, Qawmeyya, as well as indicating to the Islamic identity, or Islameyya.

The focus of this paper is to problematise the absence of the Arab Ummah as seen in the fiction of Arazzaz. However, what we are facing today is something that is not only encountered by the Arabs rather it is a global crisis of Muslim. The selected novels have disregarded the Islamic identity. Therefore, the crisis can no longer be underestimated as we are collectively facing the crisis that is unparalleled to any other crisis. So, it is not an Arab identity that is in crisis, rather it's the entire 'Ummah'. As Osman Baker (2011) aptly states, identity crisis is not only a challenge encountered by Arabs but also to 'Ummah' as it has been with us for a considerable period of time. In the novel discussed, the hope of having one Arab nation as expressed by Enad in Alive In The Death Sea, or Dr. Murad in Confessions Of Silencer only depicts the crisis of fragmented Arab nations. It does not include the identity crisis of Ummah' today. Moreover, Dr. Murad in Confessions Of Silencer narrates his story and sacrifice towards Arab nations. In this novel, Muslim identity as a global identity is excluded. Similarly, Hassanin in The Maze Of Bedouins In The Mirage Scrappers suffers his life under the political identity, recalls for the Arab identity as Qawmeyya but never perceive the Islamic identity as main identity to fight for.

CONCLUSION

The novels do not include religion as a marker of identity, thus creating a schism in the mind of the Arabs. Therefore, one may argue that identity crisis as experienced by the cahracters has its locus in the lack of Taqwa or God consciousness. This could be another limitation in the narratives of Arazzaz as he appears to disregard the fundamental feature of an Arab identity. Identity crisis embraces larger concerns of social, cultural and political. It is reflected in all protagonists' dream of one Arab nation. Their life journey testified to the exclusion of faith as identity. Thus, their understanding of identity goes well with Arab identity only. Since identity especially the Muslim identity is inflicted with the crisis, the term identity crisis needs to be used and explained in broader sense. There is no excuse to ignore faith in the identity crisis analysis. Political identity limits us to the extent we cannot exercise our freedom in a nation. It just teaches us how to live within certain territory, whom to vote and which rules to obey. Arab has been plagued for decades with political dissent due to the identity which is formed based on fragile nations. Based on the three novels, the Arabs in the narration feel that having one nation is unquestionable yet they are predominantly and unconsciously attach to ideology call 'political identity'. The evolution of Arab, as seen from the identity lens teaches us that, present generations of Arab are more profound with utterances of state based identity . As an example, an individual may say, "I am Jordanian, Palestinian, Syrian and Egyptian than I am an Arab". From this illustration, it is almost unthinkable to move forward champion for an Arab identity. However, a larger issue that this leads to is if we failed to achieve one united Arab, how could we dream for Islamic ideology of 'Ummah'?

References

Abbas T. 2005. British Muslim: Under Pressure Communities. London: Zeb Books Ltd.

Abdalla, I. A. and Al-Homoud, M. A. 2001. Exploring the Implicit Leadership Theory in the Arabian Gulf States. Applied Psychology:An International Review, (50): 4. pp 506–531

Abdel-Malek, E. 1997.Alive in the Dead Sea. Amman: Ministry of Culture.

AbdRauf, M. 1991. Ummah: the Muslim nation. Kuala Lumpur: DewanBahasa Dan Pustaka.

Ahmed, S & Abidkarim. 1992. The Roots of Nationalism in the Muslim World. Walnut: Islamic Cultural Workshop.

Alhabashneh, Q. 2008. AlghaebAlmahki: Derasah fe adab Munis Arazzaz As-Seyasi. Amman: Amanat Amman Alkubra.

Al-Quran

Al-Ahsan, A. 1993.Ummah or Nation?: Identity Crisis in Contemporary Muslim Society. Intellectual Discourse (1) 1: 94-96.

Al-Ahsan, A. 2003.Muslim world and the international political system in the 21st century. International conference on Muslim unity in the 21st century: opportunities and challenges. Kuala Lumpur.

Alkouri A, Raihanah M.M. &Hashim R. 2014. Arab National Identity Crisis: Political Strategies and The National Unity Conflict in Munis Arazzaz's Alive In The Dead Sea. Arab World English Journal. (5)1: 304-315.

Anderson, B. 1991. Imagined Communities: Reflections on the Origin and Spread of Nationalism, Rev. and extended ed. London; New York: Verso.

Ashareef, N. 2004. Almagalah assahafeyyah enda Munis Arazzaz. In. In Kalel Ibraheem. (Ed). Aam Ala Arraheel: Sanaweyaht Munis Arazzaz. 187-200 Amman: Ministry Of Culture.

Banks, M. 1996. Ethnicity: Anthropological Constructions. London & New York: Routledge.

Bellal, A. & Doswald-Beck, L. 2011. Evaluating the Use of Force during the Arab Spring. Yearbook of International HumanitarianLaw. (14): 3-35

Carmichael, J. 1943. Notes on Arab unity. Foreign Affair (22) 1: 148-153.

Donno, D. & Russett, B. 2004. Islam, authoritarianism and female empowerment: what are the linkages?.World Politics (56) 4: 582-607.

Gellner, E. 1983. Nations and Nationalism. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.

Halim, B. 1993.The Arab World: Society, Culture, and State. Berkeley, Los Angeles • Oxford: University Of California Press.

Hasan, H. 2010. Alharakat Al-Islamyya Fi Meser. Beirut: Almoassasah Al-Islameyya Le-Nasher.

Khalil, A.A 1992. A new Arab ideology?: the rejuvenation of Arab nationalism. Middle East Journal (46) 1. 177

Philips, C. 2013. Everyday Arab identity: Every daily reproduction of the Arab world. USA & Canada: Routledge.

Philips, H. K. 1996. The Arabs: a short history. Washington: Regnery Publishing, INC.

Sharfuddin, I. M. 1987. Toward an Islamic administrative theory.The American Journal of Islamic Social Sciences. (4) 2: 229-244

Smith, A.D. 1998. Nationalism and Modernism: A Critical Survey of Recent Theories of Nations and Nationalism. London & New York: Routledge.

Susser, B. 1995. Political ideology in the modern world. Boston, London Toronto Sydney Tokyo Singapore: Allyn and Bacon.

Takriti, A. 2011.Arab youth: don't lose momentum now. The Guardian. Friday 18 February 2011. http://www.guardian.co.uk/commentisfree/2011/feb/18/arab-dreams-revolutionary-heritage (accessed 16/3/1012)

Weiss, N. 2011. Assembly, freedom of, international protection.Max Planck Encyclopaedia of Public International Law.www.mprpil.com. Accessed 12/6/2011

Factors Inhibiting The Mentally Challenged In The Acquisition Of Skills In Ugenya District, Siaya County, Kenya

Doreen Awino Opondo
Department of Education Management, Kisii University

Prof. I.N. Kimengi
Department of Educational Foundations, Moi University

Dr. James Sika
Department of Educational Management, Maseno University

Abstract
The purpose of the study was to establish the factors inhibiting the mentally challenged in the acquisition of skills. The study was guided by the following research objectives: To establish the challenges facing mentally handicapped learners in acquisition of learning skills in special schools and units; to establish the effect of parents and community support and involvement on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units; to determine the effect of the role of teachers and teaching methods used on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units and to find out the effect of learners characteristics on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units. Descriptive survey design was used because of its possibility to acquire information about people and their characteristics, attitudes and previous experiences. The study targeted parents/guardians and teachers in the schools studied. Purposive sampling techniques were used to sample the respondents. A total of 76 respondents responded to the research instruments. Questionnaires and interview schedules were used as instruments for data collection. Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques were used to analyze the data. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) package was used to analyze the quantitative data while content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data from the interview schedules. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation was used to analyze the data. Among the major findings, the study established that the major challenges facing the acquisition of leaning among the mentally handicapped included: students' involvement in interruptive behaviours which interferes with cognitive functioning and inability to cope with frustrations. The role of teachers and teaching methods was not a hindrance to the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged students. The study recommended that awareness should be created through dissemination of information on mental handicap learners. The study suggests a comparative study on the process of acquisition of learning skills be done among normal and mentally challenged learners.

Key Words: mentally challenged, skills, disabled, mentally handicapped, parents, teachers', community, schools, learning

INTRODUCTION

Education is a key in the protection of democratic institutions and human rights through well-informed citizens. The education of the mentally challenged is equally important. These are children with substantial limitations in present functioning as characterized by significant sub-average intellectual functioning existing with related limitations in two or more of the

following applicable adaptive skill areas such as communication, self care, home living, social skills, community use, self direction, health and safety, functional academics, leisure and work. All these manifests during the developmental period (0- 18) years (Mwaura, 2002).

One major challenge in Kenya is that the mentally challenged persons are looked down upon by the members of the community yet they need to learn and be guided so as to fit in the society. The mentally handicapped are limited in their intellectual capabilities (K.I.E, 2001). During school years, they show extreme difficulties in academic subjects and may not progress beyond class one. Others show marked deficits in adaptive behavior in most cases severe impairment as evident from birth. Many children with disability suffered neglect and rejection (Ngugi, 2002). They are also referred to as children with developmental disabilities. These children also deviate to a relatively minor or major degree in their level of functioning from the 'normal' children of the same chronological age depending on their category. These children experience academic and daily living problems in inclusive setting and this is why some moderate, severe and profound cases are put in special schools and units (Mwaura, 2002).

The government of Kenya is also committed to the protection and provision of equal opportunities to persons with special needs. The government has developed a number of policy guidelines for SNE dating back to 1964. These include: Committee on Care and Rehabilitation of the Disabled led by Ngala Mwendwa (1964), National Education Commission on Education Objectives and Policies (Gachathi Report, 1976) and the Task Force on Special Needs Education (Kochung Report, 2003).

The Persons with Disabilities Act (2003) provides a comprehensive legal framework which outlaws all forms of discriminative treatment of persons with disability. The Sessional Paper no. 1 of 2005 states in part the overall government policy direction on SNE learners. The government is aware that special education has not been mainstreamed in all education sub-sectors and programmes. The government signed Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), consequently recognizing and committing itself to the right of every child to access education.

In our African communities disability is explained to be results from God's punishment for some person's problems. Such superstitions have led many parents who give birth to children who deviate from the 'normal' to hide them hence deny them access to education. Mental Retardation (MR) is one of the most distressing handicaps in any society. Thus investigation of factors that may facilitate or inhibit social development assumes particular importance.

A particular environmental setup in which a child grows up is likely to play an important part in improving or deteriorating the child's functioning in a social milieu. This study was concerned with the factors inhibiting the mentally challenged learners in the acquisition of learning skills like social and activities of daily living skills unlike the rest of the learners in regular classroom. The purpose of this study was therefore to explore the factors inhibiting the mentally challenged in the acquisition of skills in special schools and units. The objectives of the study were: -

a) To establish the challenges facing mentally handicapped learners in acquisition of learning skills in special schools and units.
b) To establish the effect of parents support and involvement on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units.

   c) To establish the effect of community support and involvement on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units.

   d) To determine the effect of the role of teachers and teaching methods used on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools

   e) To find out the effect of learners characteristics on the acquisition of learning skills among mentally handicapped learners in special schools and units.

METHODOLOGY

Descriptive survey design was used for the study. The purpose of surveys is diverse and may not have only descriptive aspect but also seek to understand phenomena by identifying influencing factors (Bill, 2003). The descriptive design was considered relevant due to its ability to identify the factors inhibiting the acquisition of learning skills by the mentally challenged learners in special schools and their general performance. It also involved acquiring information about the mentally challenged learners, getting parents and teachers' opinions and attitudes or previous experiences by asking those questions. The study focused on the factors inhibiting the mentally challenged in the acquisition of learning skills in Ugenya district in Siaya county Nyanza province. The Study was guided by Social Justice theory proposed by Rawls (1971) and Theory of Opportunity by Montessori (1974). The theory of social Justice explains that justice is considering the welfare of the worst-off or the disadvantaged members as an obligation. According to Montessori (1974) in the theory of Opportunity, everyone should be educated regardless of age, gender, race or class. She believed that education is simply a result of an individual's experiences. In the conceptual framework below, the independent variables are: parents and community support and participation in learning of the handicapped, teacher characteristics and teaching methods for the mentally challenged learners and learner characteristics while the dependent variable is the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally handicapped learners. The intervening variable for the study is the school environment which includes the availability of teaching and learning resources.

Intervening Variables
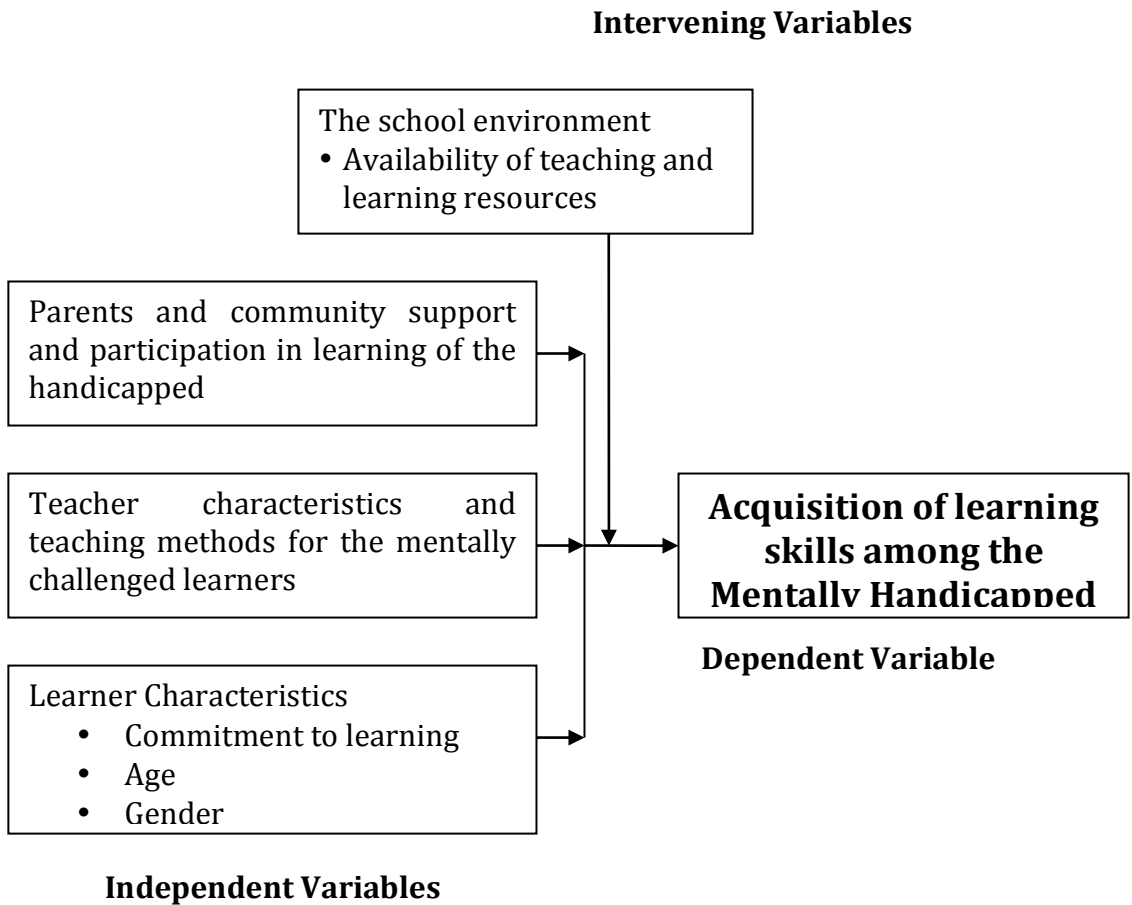
Fig.1: Factors inhibiting the Mentally Challenged in the acquisition of Skills.

RESEARCH RESULTS
Distribution of Teachers by Highest professional Qualifications
The study found that 20% had Diploma, 67% had Bachelors Degree and that 13% of the respondents had Masters Degree in special education respectively. From the findings of the study, it can be said that most of the teachers interviewed were qualified and therefore were expected to have an idea about different factors affect the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged students. The findings of the study were as presented in Figure 2.

Fig2: Distribution of Teachers by Highest professional Qualifications
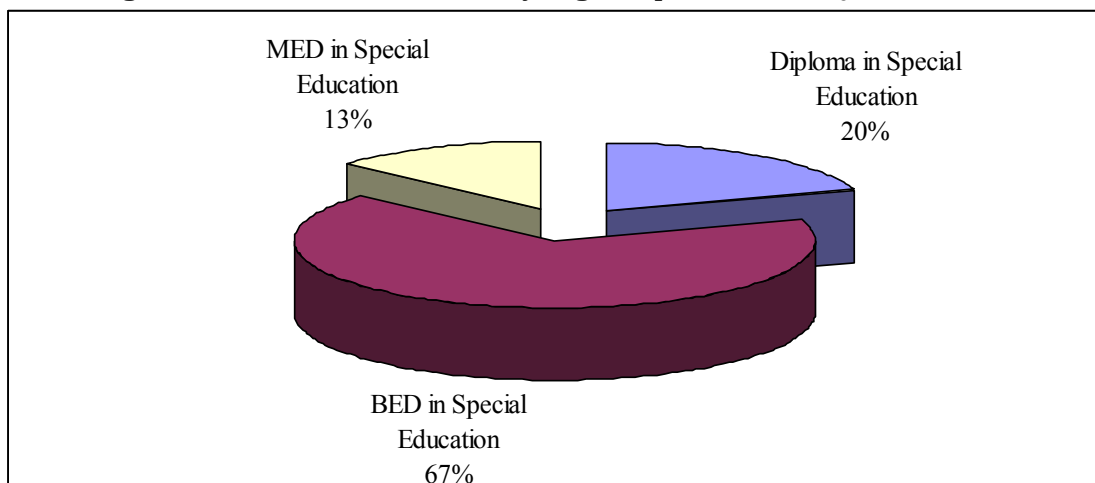
Distribution of Teachers by Teaching Experience
The study found that 33% of the teachers had taught for a period between 16-20 years. The study also found that 27% of teachers had taught for a period between 11-15 years, 20% had taught for a period between 6-10 years and that 13% had taught for a period of 5 years. Only 7% of the teachers had taught for a period above 50 years. From the findings of the study, it can be said that most of the teacher have a lot of information on the factors influencing acquisition of learning skills among mentally challenged students (Fig 3).

Figure 3: Distribution of Teachers by Teaching Experience
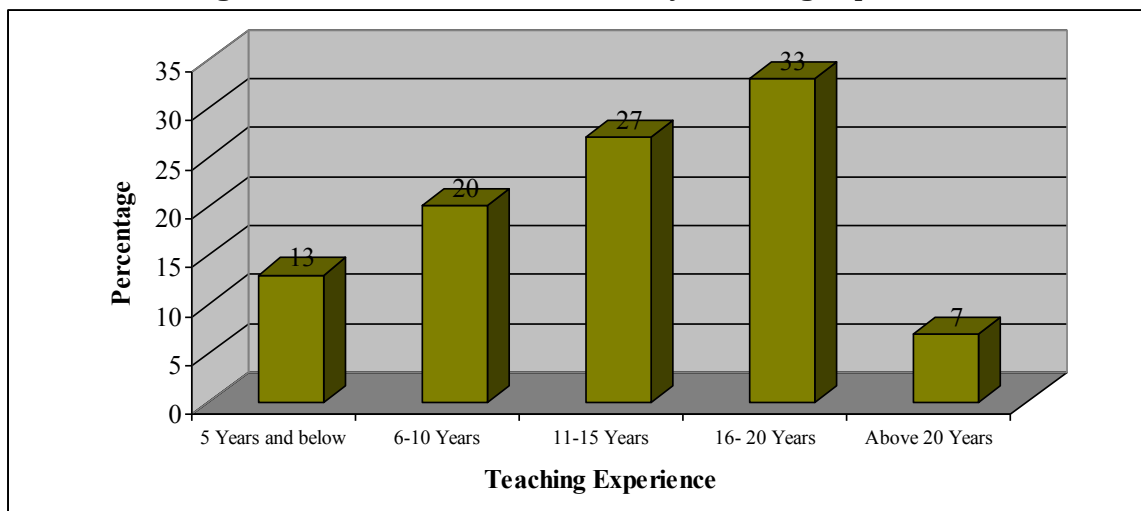
Distribution of Parents/Guardians by Parenting Experience
The study found in table 1, that 40% of the respondent had been parents for a period above 20 years also 30% of the respondents had been parents for a period between 16-20 years, 17% for a period of 11-15 years, 9% for a period of 6-10 years and 4% for a period of 5 years.

Table 1: Distribution of Parents/Guardians by Parenting Experience

Parenting/guarding Experience	Frequency	Percentage
5 Years and below	2	4
6-10 Years	5	9
11-15 Years	9	17
16-20 Years	16	30
Above 20 Years	22	40
Total	**54**	**100**

Challenges facing Mentally Handicapped Learners in Acquisition of Learning Skills
In establishing the challenges facing the mentally retarded children in the acquisition of learning skills, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which some of the perceived challenges affected the mentally challenged. This was tested on a four point Likert Scale of 1-4; where 1 represented 'Very challenging', 2 represented 'Challenging', 3 represented 'Less challenging' and 4 represented 'Not challenging at all'. The scores 'Very challenging" was taken to be equivalent to mean score ranging from 0.0 to 1.0, 'Challenging" with mean score ranging from 1.1 to 2.0. 'Less challenging' with a mean score ranging from 2.1 to 3.0, and 'Not challenging at all" with a mean score ranging from 3.1 to 4.0. A standard deviation of > 1 represents a significant difference in the responses given. Table 2 presents the findings.

Table2: Challenges of acquisition of Learning Skills among the Mentally Challenged

|	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Involvement in interruptive behaviours	15	1.53	.915
Reduced cognitive functioning	15	1.27	.594
Inability to cope with frustrations	15	1.67	.617
Less social interaction among learners	15	2.33	.900

The findings on Table 2 shows that students' involvement in interruptive behaviours which interferes with learning, reduced cognitive functioning and inability to cope with frustrations were challenging in the acquisition of learning skills among children who were mentally challenged (mean score between 1.1 to 2.0). Baker et al. (2002) reported corroborating evidence that parents of children with developmental delays were more stressed than parents of children without delays. But Baker et al. also reported that in predicting parent stress in parents of children with developmental delays, child behavior problems accounted for significantly more of the variance than the children's level of cognitive functioning. Further, cognitive functioning contributed non-meaningfully when behavior problems were entered first in regression analyses, implying that behavior problems rather than cognitive level per se play the key role in parents' stress levels. The study also found that less social interaction among students was less challenging in the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged students (mean score of 2.33).

The respondents were further asked to give other challenges facing the acquisition of learning skills among mentally challenged students. The following challenges were mentioned: lack teaching/learning resources by the teachers, lack of cooperation between the parents and guardians and the teachers; inadequate funds to support the children, none continuity in learning during school holidays and serious epileptic attacks that details the learners' acquisition of the learned skills and other health problems and lack of motivation among teachers.

Parents and the Community Support and Involvement
The study found that 53% of parents and the community were involved in the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged while 47% were not involved. From the findings of the study, it can be said that parents and the community were not fully involved in the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged students. The findings of the study were as presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Parents and the Community Support and Involvement
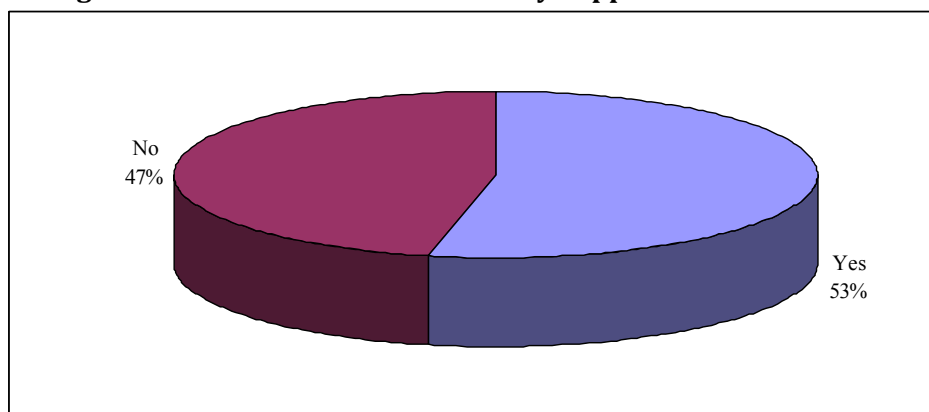
Effect of None Participation Parents on the learning of the Mentally Retarded
The study found that all the respondents (100%) indicated that their participation affected the learning of the mentally retarded. According to Sen (2000), the interactions of parents with their children with disabilities can have a profound impact on the development and progress of the child. Thus none involvement of the parents and the community is perceived to impact on their children's developmental abilities and acquisition of learning skills. From the findings of the study, it can be said that the participation of parents and community affects learning among the mentally retarded students. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 3

Table 3: Effect of None Participation Parents on the learning of the Mentally Retarded

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	15	100
No	0	100
Total	**15**	**100**

Factors Influencing Parent's involvement in Learning of the Mentally Handicapped
The findings on Table 4 shows that age of the child, the level of the disability, and socio-economic status of the family influenced parents' involvement to a large extent (mean score between 1.1 to 2.0). The study also found that education level of the parent influenced their involvement to a small extent (mean score 2.11). The study finally found that the gender of the parents and the student does not affect their involvement at all. There was a significant difference in the responses given on the factors influencing parents' involvement in the learning of the mentally handicapped students except on the level of disability. From the findings of the study, it can be said that the major factors influencing parents' involvement in the learning of the mentally handicapped students are: age of the child, the level of the disability and socio-economic status of the family. Parents were further asked to mention other factors influencing their involvement in the learning of the mentally handicapped children, the following factors were mentioned:- lack of knowledge on type of disability, stigmatization and changes in child rearing practices; denial by majority of parents; lack of awareness among parents and community; the environment they live in either rural or urban; family size and beliefs and religious concerns. Table 4 presents the findings.

Table 4: Factors Influencing Parent's involvement in Learning of the Mentally Handicapped

	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age of the child (i.e. they participate more on the early age)	54	1.74	1.067
The gender of the child	54	3.65	1.246
The level of the disability	54	1.33	.644
Gender of the parents	54	3.70	1.110
Education level of the parents	54	2.11	1.040
Socio-economic status of the family	54	1.57	1.039

Ways in which Parents Participate in the learning among students with Learning Disability
The study found that 80% of the respondents indicated that parents enquire on the performance of their children and keeps in touch with teachers to know of the progress. The study also found that 53% of the respondents indicated that parents often attend academic visiting days. The study further found that 46% of the respondents indicated that parents

rarely provide children with adequate diet, shelter, clothing, medical care, education and guidance. This is an indication that despite the fact that parents provide their children with basic needs it is normally not sustainable especially for the mentally retarded. It was finally found that 40% of the respondents indicated that parents often protect their child from neglect, discrimination and abuse. The findings were as presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Ways in which Parents Participate among students with Learning Disability

Participation and support	Very often	Often	Rarely	Not at all	Total (%)
Providing children with adequate diet, shelter, clothing, medical care, education and guidance	20	27	46	7	**100**
Protecting the child from neglect, discrimination and abuse	20	40	33	7	**100**
Attending academic/visiting days	27	53	13	7	**100**
Enquiring on the performance of their children and keeps in touch with teachers to know of the progress	80	13	7	0	**100**

Teacher respondents were asked to mention other ways by which parents and the community participate in the learning of the mentally retarded children. The following ways were mentioned: paying for whatever is required in school inclusive of school fees, giving correct general information about the learner, inquiring more about the learner, guiding the learner and attending workshops organized in school.

Continuity of Children's Learning at Home
The study found that 67% of the respondents indicated that there was continuity of children learning. The findings are in line with the findings by Deslandes et al. (1999) who reported that parents of special education students were less involved in supervision of the adolescents' in learning activities at home, in participating at school as audience than parents of general education. The study also found that 6% indicated that there was no continuity of children's learning at home. The study finally found that 27% of the respondents indicated that they were not sure on whether there was continuity in children's learning at home. The findings of the study were as presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Continuity of Children's learning at Home
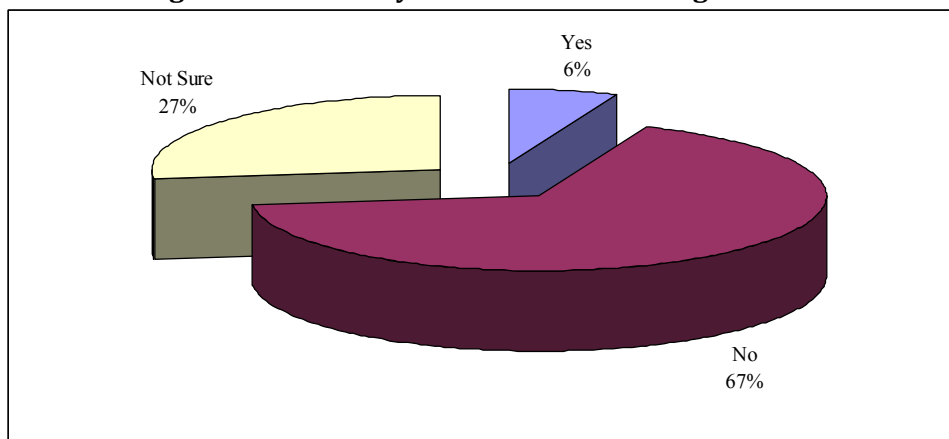
The respondents were further asked to explain their answers. Those who indicated that there was no continuous learning at home explained that parents never take their time to ensure that their children study while at home because learning is left for school only and duty of teachers.

Community Support on Learning among the Mentally Retarded Children
Teacher respondents were asked to indicate whether the community is supporting in the learning of the mentally retarded children in their schools. The study found that 67% of the respondents indicated that the community supported learning among children who are mentally retarded while 33% indicated that the community is not supportive in their learning. The findings of the study were as presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Community Support on Learning among the Mentally Retarded Children
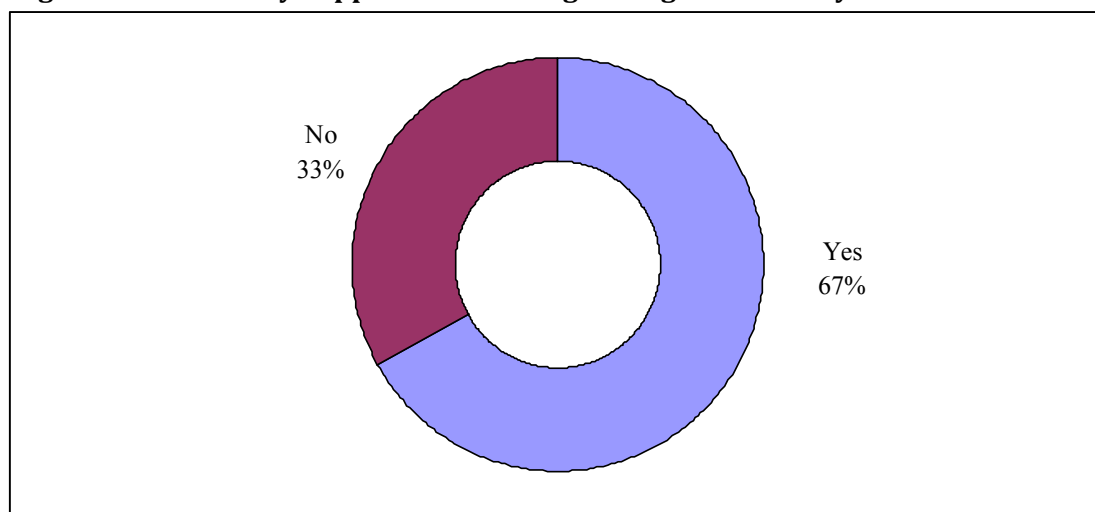
The respondents were further asked to explain their responses. The following explanations were given: through allocation of CDF funds as fees to support the poor learners in boarding schools, encouraging the establishment and development of special units in regular schools, provision of earning materials and building of classrooms.

Categories of the Mentally Challenged Students
The teacher respondents were asked to indicate the number of students they handled who had different kinds of mental illnesses. The findings were as presented in Table 6. The findings show that most of the students 48% suffered from mild mental retardation. This is an indication that many have the chance to learn and still be competent members of the society. The study also found that 30% of the students suffered from moderate mental illness, 7% suffered from learning disability, 6% suffered from severe mental illness, 5% were epileptic and 5% were autistic.

Table 6: Categories of the Mentally Challenged Students

Mental illness	Number	Percentage (%)
Mild	39	48
Moderate	25	30
Severe	5	6
Autistic	3	4
LD	6	7
Epileptic	4	5
Total	**82**	**100%**

Skills being taught and the Teaching Methods used for Mentally Retarded Children

The following skills are being taught: Communication Skills, Self Help Skills, Social Skills, ADL Skills, Perceptual Training Skills, Tailoring, Agriculture, Carpentry. Teacher respondents were asked to indicate the teaching methods they use for the mentally retarded children. The following methods were mentioned: Task analysis, peer tutoring, Role play, Demonstration, Question and Answer, Discussion.

Attitude of the Mentally Retarded Children towards Learning

Teacher respondents were asked to indicate the attitudes of the mentally challenged children's towards learning. The study found that 60% of the teachers indicated that the children had a positive attitude towards learning while 40% had a negative attitude towards learning. From the findings of the study, it can be said that most of the children were still willing to learn besides their condition of mental retardation. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Attitude of the Mentally Retarded Children towards Learning

Attitude towards learning	Frequency	Percentage
Negative attitude	6	40
Positive attitude	9	60
Total	**15**	**100%**

Learners Characteristics which interferes with their Acquisition of Learning Skills

The study found that 73% indicated that the acquisition of learning skills among mentally retarded learners is determined by their determination to acquire knowledge to a very large extent. Thus learners who are not determined find it difficult to acquire learning skills. The study also found that 53% of the respondents indicated that indicated that the children's gender interfered with their knowledge acquisition to a small extent. Frey et al. (1989) in his study, examined that father adaptation to girls (as opposed to boys) with disabilities seems better. Whereas Bailey et al. (1999) reported that gender of mental retarded children have no influence on the awareness, use of services and satisfaction of services reported by both mother and father of the children. The study finally found that the age of the learner interfered with their acquisition of knowledge to a large extent as indicated by 60% of the respondents. The findings are supported by the findings of Neeley-Barnes et al. (2008) who found that family receives more services and highly involved in decision making when persons with developmental disabilities were younger. Similarly, Ly (2008) explained that child's age influenced parent's behavior ratings of encouragement and less help because they perceived older children to have higher ability and effort. The findings of the study were as presented in Table 8.

Table 8:Learners Characteristics which interferes with their Acquisition of Learning Skills

Learner Characteristic	Very large extent	Large extent	Moderate extent	Small extent	No extent at all	Total (%)
age of the learner	20	60	13	7	0	**100**
gender of the learner	7	13	27	53	0	**100**
Learners determination To acquire knowledge	73	27	0	0	0	**100**

The respondents were further asked to mention some of the learners' characteristics which interfere with their acquisition of learning skills. The following characteristics were mentioned: low attention span, lack of eye-hand coordination, the severity of the disability, the epileptic attacks and other health problems that makes the condition progressive to the negative.

CONCLUSIONS

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the major challenges facing the acquisition of learning among the mentally handicapped included: students' involvement in interruptive behaviours which interferes with learning, reduced cognitive functioning and inability to cope with frustrations were challenging in the acquisition of learning skills among children who were mentally challenged. In addition the study revealed that the parents and the community were involved in the learning of the mentally challenged student. It further found that the role of teachers and teaching methods was not a hindrance to the acquisition of learning skills among the mentally challenged students. The study finally concluded that learners characteristics such as: low attention span, lack of eye-hand coordination, the severity of the disability, the epileptic attacks and other health problems that makes the condition progressive to the negative affected their acquisition of learning skills.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommended that parents should provide the basic needs to allow continuity of skills at home and that learning materials and environment should be adapted in order to suit the needs of learners with mental handicap. It was recommended that awareness should be created through dissemination of information on mental handicap learners. This will help parents and society to take the learning of the mentally challenged easily thus promoting acquisition of learning skills among them. It was also recommended that the community should develop positive attitude towards the mentally challenged learners. Regarding the role of teachers and teaching methods, the study recommended that the mentally challenged learners should be handled by SNE teachers only and so more teachers should be trained to cub up the number as the ration is 1:10. it was also recommended that different varieties of learning and teaching materials should be provided.

It was recommended that learners should be encouraged to know that they can also learn just like others and that conducive environment suiting the level of their disability should be created for their learning.

References

Anderson, V. H., Schlottman, R. S. and Weiner, B. J., (1975). Predictors of parents' involvement with institutionalized retarded children. Am. J. Ment Defic, 79: 705- 710.

Bailey, D. B., Skinner, D., Rodriguez, P., Gut, D. and Correa, V., (1999), Awareness, use, and satisfaction with services for latino parents of young children with disabilities. Except Child. 65 (3): 367-381.

Baker, B. L., Blacher, J. and Pfieffer, S. I., (1996). Family involvement in residential treatment. A m. J. Ment Retard. 101 (1): 1-14.

Deslandes, R., Royer, E., Potvin, P. and Leclerc, D., (1999). Patterns of home and school partnership for general and special education students at the secondary level. Except. Child. 65 (4): 496-506.

Epstein J.L (2001). School, family and community partnerships: - Preparing education and improving schools. Boulder, co: - West views press.

Frey, K. S., Greenberg, M. T and Fewell, R. R., (1989), Stress and coping among parents of handicapped children: A multidimensional approach. Am. J. Ment. Retard. 94: 240-249.

KIE (2001). (mathematics skills syllabus 4th draft. Nairobi, Kenya).

Opondo, D. A., Kimengi, I. N., & Sika, J. (2015). Factors Inhibiting the Mentally Challenged in the Acquistion of Skills in Ugenya District, Siaya county, Kenya. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal,* 2*(4)* 149-160.

Ly, T. M., 2008, Asian American parents' attributions of children with Down syndrome: Connections with child characteristics and culture. Intellect. Dev. Disabil. 46 (2): 269

Montessori, M. (1974). Childhood education. Raleigh, NC: Contemporary Books, Inc. (CE)Montessori, M. (1967). The discovery of the child. New York: NY: Fides Publisher.

Neely-Barnes, S., Graff, J. C., Marcenko, M. and Weber, L., (2008). Family decision making: Benefits to persons with developmental disabilities and their family members. Intellect. Dev. Disabil. 40 (2): 93-105.

Ngugi M.W (2002). Introduction to Inclusive Education KISE Nairobi Kenya.

Rawls J (1971). A Theory of justice Cambridge Massachusetts: - The Belknap of Harvard University Press.

Sen. A. K., (2000). Research in mental retardation in India: Challenges and opportunities. Psychological Studies. 45 (3): 139-144.

Zedin, A. G. and Turner, J. L., (1984). Self-perspectives on being handicapped: Stigma and adjustment. Washington, DC: American Association on Mental Deficiency. (Cited in: Clare et al., 1998).

Improving Continuous Assessment Practice in Nigerian Schools

Prof. S. O. Bandele
Institute of Education, Faculty of Education
Ekiti State University,Ado Ekiti, Nigeria.

Dr. C. S. Ayodele
Guidance and Counselling Department
Faculty of Education, Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti

Abstract

The paper examined the improvement of continuous assessment (CA) practice in Nigerian Schools to enhance teaching and learning. CA is a holistic approach that systematically obtains information about the knowledge, interest, attitude, behavior, skills and potentials of learners. This is done at predetermined intervals to reap the benefits of CA. Teachers, parents, principals' and Ministry of education officials commitments to its use should be revived. The practice of CA should be monitored and should provide opportunity for feedback to students, parents and stakeholders.

Key words: Continuous assessment, comparability, systematic, cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains

INTRODUCTION

Before the introduction of continuous assessment (CA), primary and secondary schools in Nigeria based their assessment and promotion of learners on the result of the promotion examinations that usually come up at the end of each academic session. Through the result of such one-shot examinations, summary judgments were passed on the child's learning and achievement. According to Mkpa (1989) teachers taught almost exclusively for the purpose of passing these examinations and students started with cheating of diverse sorts to pass the examinations. More daring learners, usually more insecure students went out for live papers.

In addition, Adebule and Ayodele (2005) affirmed that parents and guardians even go to the extent of arranging for their children and wards in order to have better assessment value. They added that some students registered for various certificate examinations at centers where maplractices and manipulations reign supreme for the purpose of having good grades. Okoro (1998) argued that premium placed on certificates encourage cheating, corruption, examination leakages and forms of examinatiion maplractices thereby doing more damage than good.

With the adoption of continuous assessment, it is expected that examination maplractices would be reduced if not totally eliminated and give way for meaningful learning in all areas of life. The 6-3-3-4 system as envisaged in the National Policy on Education clearly spelt out the parameters and modalities by which performance will be evaluated. The Policy advocates a continuous assessment procedure as the standard method of evaluation. It is aimed at not only finding how much a child has acquired in terms of learning skills but also taking into account the personal and social development of the child.

Concept of Continuous Assessment

Continuous assessment is not continuous testing of the cognitive ability of students; but what is practiced in many schools today is continuous testing where teachers administer tests on students on a fortnightly or monthly basis. Then, what is continuous assessment? It is not an exaggeration that various individuals and organizations have given various definitions to continuous assessment.

The National Steering Committee on Continuous Assessment defined continuous assessment as a systematic method of ascertaining what a pupil has gained from schooling in terms of knowledge, industry and character development, taking into consideration all his/her performances in tests, assignments, projects and other educational activities during a given period of term, year of during the entire period of an educational level. Continuous assessment according to Ojerinde (1986) is the systematic or regualr testing of students between terms, sessions, or throughout the duration of course of study for the purposes of measuring or assessing the students' cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of behaviour.

Continuous assessment as defined by Federal Ministry of Science and Technology (1985) is a mechanism whereby the final grading of students in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of behaviour take account of all his performances during a given period of schooling. This definition takes care of the activities of students, both inside and outside the classroom. Also, such assessment involves a great variety of modes of evaluation for the purpose of grading and improving the learning and performance of the students.

In their definition, Okpala, Onacha and Oyedeji (1993) refer to continuous assessment as a system of assessment which is carried out at pre-determined intervals for the purpose of monitoring and improving the overall performance of students and of the teaching-learning environment. In this definition, the predetermined interval means there is a plan of operation which is uniform for all schools in the educational system. For such a plan to work effectively, the steps and activities it contains should be implemented in a systematic fashion to ensure uniformity and comparability. Also, the overall performance according to Okpala et al (1993) involves looking at a student in totality to ensure an all round development of the intellectual skills, the affective and psychomotor behaviour of the students.

According to McTighe and Ferrara (1994) continuous assessment refers to the process of gathering and integrating information about learners from various sources to help us understand the students and describe them. This may consist of a variety of measure and procedures that a teacher can use to tell whether his/her instruction has been effective and to target those students who have and have not mastered particular skills.

Continuous assessment is a student-evaluation system that operates at the classroom level and is integrated with instuctional process (Capper, 1996). Continuous assessment puts the learners more in control of his/her own learning. It offers a way to provide differential input depending on the needs of learners and can help to improve the quality of instruction. Also, continuous assessment is meant to be integrated with teaching in order to improve learning and to help shape and direct the teaching-learning process.

The different assessment approaches and methods (types) according to Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (1999) are as follows:

Selected Response Items	Performance-Based Assessments			
	Constructed Responses	Products	Performances	Process Focused

Multi-choice True-false Matching	Fill in the blank
	
	- Word(s)
	
	- Phrase(s)
	
	 Short answer Sentence(s)
	
	- Paragraph(s)s
	
	- Label of
	
	  diagram
	
	- Show your
	
	  work"
	
	 Visual
	
	  representation
	
	- Web
	
	- Concept Map
	
	- Flow Chart
	
	- Graph/table
	
	- Matrix
	
	- Illustration
		Essay
		
		Research paper
		
		Log/Journal
		
		Lab report
		
		Story/play
		
		Poem
		
		Portfolio
		
		Art exhibit
		
		Science project
		
		Model
		
		Video/audiotape
		
		Spreadsheet
			Oral presentation
			
			Dance/movement
			
			Science lab
			
			Demonstration
			
			Athletic competition
			
			Dramatic reading
			
			Enactment
			
			Debate
			
			Musical recital
				Oral questioning
				
				Observation ("kid watching")
				
				interview
				
				Conference
				
				Process description "thing aloud" learning log

Fig i: Example of Continuous Assessment Approaches.

Source: MBEC (1999).

Majority of assessment approaches are not tests, but are performance based. Performance based assessments allow learners to consult a response, create a product, or perform a demonstration to show what they understand and can do. In assessing students, an assessor should select the assessment method that can best measure the objectives and competencies that he or she seeks information about.

In her contribution, Puhl (1999) said the concept of continuous assessment hold rich potential for creative and critical thinking and it embraces not only cognitive outcomes but affective and behavioural outcomes as well. Greenwood and Matheady (1997) affirmed that students' performance measure should include skills that clearly show their progress through a sequence of preserve professional development activities and demonstrate growth.

From the various definitions, one can deduce that continuous assessment involves collection of vital data about the individual, integration of information, the influence of social interaction, problem solving, the importance of environment and individual needs, importance of detailed cumulative records, self assessment, improving teaching-learning, importance of valid judgement on the individual, and given feedback to learners, teachers, parents and stakeholders.

Rationale for Continuous Assessment
The continuous assessment procedure is predicated on certain basic principles, according to Ojerinde and Falayajo (1984), Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (1985) and Majasan (1988). These are that:

i. the learners performance throughout the entire period of schooling is likely to be more valid and serving as his overall ability than a single examination.
ii. assessment is an integral part of the teaching process and therefore the teachers should be involed in the final assessment of the pupils he or she has taught.
iii. the readiness of teachers to introduce innovations into their teaching is often frustrated by the fact that a final examination does not take account of such innovations. In a Continuous Assessment situation, the teacher's assessment of the performance of students on such innovation can become a part of the final assessment. The teacher should therefore be encouraged to be flexible and innovative.
iv. an improtant aspect of instruction is the appropriate guidance of the child both in his/her learning and preparation for a career. Continuous assessment facilitates such guidance in a school.
v. a teacher needs to assess his/her own instructional methods from time to time in order to improve his/her performance. Data from continuous assessment can be useful to the teacher for such self assessment.
vi. for several years, Nigeria and indeed many West African Countries have been plagued with the occurrence of examination leakages and other malpractices especially in the West African School Certificate Examination.

It has been suggested that the only reason for the high incidence of malpractices in SSCE and other examinations is the fact that the single final examination is so crucial in deciding the fate of the candidates that the temptation to ensure success by all means (fair or foul) is very high. It is believed that if continuous assessment is employed, this temptation would be considerably reduced. But it seems people still misconstrue the idea of continuous assessment to be synonymous with the way it is being practiced.

Bandele (1991) opined out that evaluation procedure in Nigeria for whatever purpose or at what level, still appears to be judgmental, norm-reference and summative. The situation, after more than a decade, appears to be the same. The Namimbia Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (1999) reported that teachers in Namimbia, where continuous assessment has been implemented as an assessment innovation, have asked for assistance with the implementation of Continuous assessment. The feeling of many teachers in Namimbia is quoted as thus:

> *I have some fears about the introduction of this continuous assessment of the moment. We have been told in a vague way about it. We still have no thorough understanding of it. I see a lot of confusion in our schools about this. Teachers talk of continuous assessment but it seems as if they have different versions of what it means. What is this continuous assessment? Why is it being introduced now? (Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, 1999).*

The above is not only applicable to Namimbia, the case of Nigeria seems not to be different. Many teachers seem not to understand the meaning, purpose and practice continuous assessment. Ogunneye (1992) noted that majority of teachers in our schools do not understand why they have to give continuous assessment tests, mark and analyze the results of such tests. He argued that some teachers, because of their ignorance of the meaning and purpose of continuous assessment, see it as an introduction capable of wasting their time, energy and materials. In such situation, what would one expect from such teachers? How valid and reliable are the scores generated?

Emeke (1994) highlighted the objectives of continuous assessment to include:

i.   Regular assessing of the students and the proper recording of scores from such assessments
ii.   Meticulous record keeping of every facet of the student's life while in school.
iii. Testing of the three major domains: cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of the students.
iv.   The identification of students' difficulties and the re-teaching of such difficult topics.
v.   Giving of feedback to teachers so as to enable them assess their own performance
vi.   Identification of the personality of each student including the temperament, interest, attitude and so on.
vii. Provision of guidance and counselling to help students in their learning as well as career development and adjustment.
viii. The use of a variety of evaluation techniques
ix.   Using all the scores in all the tests (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) for the final grading and placement of each student.
x.   Setting up of continuous assessment committees in schools.

Each of the objectives has implications for the practice of continuous assessment in our schools.

Continuous assessment no doubt plays vital roles in any educational system and its results are used for a multiplicity of purpose viz: selection, appraisal and classificiation of instuctional objectives, diagnosis of students' strength and weakness among others.

Sally (1996) kicked against the assessment system that:

i.   are crumbling beneath the burden of inefficient mark recording systems, with students being given incorrect marks or getting them so late that they can not help remediate the deficiencies.
ii.   do not give students a second chance when they fail (which nowadays often has disastrous personal and financial consequences).
iii. assess the wrong thing or same range of things too often, so we do not get a fair and realistic overview of what our students can achieve.

iv.   place under reliance on recall, rather than enable students to transfer and apply what they have learned to different concepts and problems.

Continuous assessment should be a good indicator to the learners, parents, teachers and school administrators if effectively done. Contributing, Dietal, Herman and Kunth (1991) maintained that good assessment information provides accurate estimates of students' performance and enable teachers or other decision makers to make appropriate decisions.

For example, before you teach, you must plan the learning activities your learners will do, what objectives or outcomes you want the learners to achieve and how you will assess the learners. Planning for assessment here means that you know before you begin to teach, what assessment methods you will use, why you want to use them and when you will use them.

Bello (1985) enumerated the merits of continuous assessment when he stated that continuous assessment is capable of encouraging regularity and even punctuality of pupils at classes or lessons; that a judgment arrived at of a pupil through the combination of examination and continuous assessment is likely to be more reliable than that based on just end-of-year examination. The use of continuous assessment makes a pupil work harder and be sure of his progress and likelihood of success at the end of the course, and that continuous assessment reduces the threat factor in examination which drives some students to cheat at final examination or break down in bodily or mental health during examination periods.

Characteristics of Continuous Assessment
The characteristics of continuous assessment as noted in the Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (1985) which evaluator and educators have emphasized include that continuous assessment is systematic, cumulative, comprehensive and guidance oriented. These characteristics no doubt have implication for teaching-learning process.

Continuous assessment being systematic refers to the specific nature of the measuring tools or instruments and the regularity or frequecy of assessment (Ohuche, 1983). The systematic nature of continuous assessment is geared towards ensuring a planned approach to assessment and comparability of standards within the country. Thus it requires an operational plan which specifies the measurement that are to be made of the pupils performance, the time intervals or times of the school year when such measurement are to be made and results recorded in addition to the tools or instrument or strategies to be used in the measurement. Eso (2000) reported that any school that is involved in continuous assessment must have to adopt a definite programme which of course should be made known to all, especially all those who are directly involved-students, teachers, Ministry of Education officials and possibly parents.

Continuous assessment being comprehensive denotes that many types of instruments are used in ascertaining the performance of pupils and that all levels of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains are assessed (Alonge, 1987). Thus the use of a variety of instruments, such as tests, observation, projects assignments, questionnaire, interviews, sociometric techniques and so on to determine students performance. These are used to make summary decisions which is based on information gathered in cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains to be referred to as comprehensiveness of continuous assessment.

The cumulative aspect of continuous assessment indicates that not only are there to be repeated measurement but that all these measurements should be taken into account in

presenting a picture of a student at any point in time. The implication of this being that, the final grade at the end of the year for each student, should integrate not only the last measurement for the year but also, in some degree all the assessment throughout the school year. As contained in the National Policy on Education, assessment of the end of primary, junior and secondary levels must reflect this cumulative nature (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). Thus, the need to keep up to date and cumulative records on individual student arises.

Majasan (1988), Aderounmu & Adetuberu (1992) agreed that keeping of records is a problem in the conduct of continuous assessment and these records are expected to be cumulative from class to class and from school to school. Hence, there is the need for uniformity of standard. How possible is it for several thousand of teachers or schools to keep accurate records with a uniform? Besides, some teachers/schools cannot boast of having accurate records of their students within a session not to talk of having records of successive years. But with the use of modern technology, records keeping could be easily facile where the materials are available.

Continuous assessment is said to be guidance oriented because information obtained is used to guide the pupils' further development (Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 1985). One of the values of assessment in education as would be agreed by educators is that it can assist to identify areas of strengths and weaknesses in student's performance, the teacher's instructional strategies or procedures and the curriculum and educational programmes itself (Bandele, 1991, & Alonge, 2004). Obviously, the information obtained can be utilized as basis for encouraging student's efforts remedial work and necessary improvement of techniques of instruction.

Commenting on guidance-oriented evaluation which to him is analogues to formative evaluation, Yoloye (1979) expressed the ideal that guidance –oriented evaluation is associated with a smaller load of threat and has its basis of operation the pre-disposition to assist the pupils succeed in his or her educational endeavour. According to him, formative evaluation and guidance oriented evaluation are the most important kind of evaluation and what education is all about. If continuous assessment is operated judiciously and effectively, taking care of these characteristics to the fullest, there is bound to be bright future for the country's educational system.

   i.   Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (1999) maintained that good continuous assessment should be based on three premises.
  ii.   The purpose of continuous assessment is to inform teaching and to improve learning while there is still time to do so;
 iii.   Sound continuous assessment calls for graded assessments that are based on several methods of assessment.
  iv.   Continuous assessment must be valid, reliable and fair.

The Practice of Continuous Assessment in Nigeria
The practice of continuous assessment in Nigeria provided for by the National Policy on Education as a way of improving the evaluation process has been relegated to the background by the teachers who have no time for the exercise (Okafor, 2001). For instance, Nzewi (1990) appraised the use of continuous assessment in three Local Government Areas in the then Anambra State, eight years after the introduction of continuous assessment in schools. He observed that at that period, the teachers were only aware of the programme but lacked the commitment to implement it. He concluded that the programme could not be said to be functional in the schools where his study was conducted.

Many countries, including Nigeria, have been using course grade in conjunction with end –of – cycle examination marks to make promotion, certificate and selection decisions. The advantage of doing this according to Capper (1996) is to increase the emphasis on the day-to-day learning that occurs in the classroom and to increase the accuracy of the selection and certificate and decisions. The recommendations of National Steering Committee on continuous assessment on the weights to be used in combining school assessment with final examination at the end of the junior secondary school are 40% and 60% respectively. It is felt that the weights should increase progressively. These weights according to Ojerinde and Falayajo (1984) are based on the following assumptions

i. In order not to unduly penalize a pupil who might be poor at thenbeginning but has been making a steady progress that he/she has reached a high level of performance at the end of the course;
ii. To discourage complacency on the part of the initially brilliant pupil. The weights spread across the three years as follows: 10% for J.S.S.1, 20% for J.S.S. II, 30% for JSS III (1st and 2nd terms) 40% for state test.

Ojerinde (1985) called these the ratio in (ii) above 1:2:3:4 formulae for combining scores. The individual schools continuous assessment scores would hence account for a total of 60% of the final cumulative scores. Simply put, the JSS III final cumulative will be shared as follows: 60% school test scores, 40% state test scores.

On the contrary, Kolawole (2005) reported that continuous assessment scores spread across the three years as follows: 5% for JSS I, 12.5% for JSS I1, 12.5% for JSS III and 70% for the State test. He added that continuous assessment scores is 30% while theory paper in state examination is 30% and objective is 40%. However, which ever is the case, continuous assessment scores take certain percentage of the overall score. Ojerinde (1985) asked these questions to assess the practicability of the CA in school: (i) who will convert the scores to whatever weights that is adapted? (ii) How much can we rely on the scores sent by the schools?

Moreover, in recent times, the situation is worse; the ratio of continuous assessment marks and final examination marks according to Okarfor (2001) vary from one school to another ranging from 10:90, through 30:70 to 50:50. Some schools resorted to the one-short end-of-course examination which have been criticized for having repressive and restricting effects on both the teachers and the students and which in recent time has high degree of examination malpractices (West African Examination Council, 1999).

Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (1999) argued that continuous assessment and end-of-year examinations are meant to complement one another. Both continuous assessment and examination assess objective and competencies specified in subject syllabuses. Linn, Baker and Dunbar (1991) maintained that continuous assessment practices are intended to be more authentic to involve students in the desired competency in a portfolio. When continuous assessment is done properly, they should predict performance in the end of year examination.

Puhl (1997) affirmed that the traditional ways of testing such as essay or multiple choice examinations can sample a fraction of what we went to produce. Examination mark alone proved an incomplete picture of what a student has learned and emphasize only an aspect of a complex set of understanding, knowledge and skills (Capper, 1996). He added that the greater

the number of assessment that are used in making judgment about the students, the greater likelihood that the judgment will be accurate.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, after more that three decades, there is still lack of understanding of continuous assessment and thus, the process of CA is not functioning well in schools. The practice is still judgmental and records not well secured, which give room for threat factors in examinations. Continuous assessment in practice is expected to embody the global changes that affect the very nature of the classroom process, bringing it away from education as only information recall and toward the full development of learners' potential. It is recommended that continuous assessment should be well and objectively planned to evaluate students' performance on a series of assessment tasks. In addition, it should involve more time and also provide opportunity for feedback, and a comprehensive assessment of the objectives to be achieved and competences to be assessed.

References

Adebule, S. O. & Ayodele C. S. (2005): Assessment and the future of schooling and learning. Journal of Education 4 (1), 226-232.

Aderounmu, W. O. & Adetuberu, J. O. (1992): A handbook on the   implementation of continuous assessment in schools, Lagos: Kola Okanlawon Published Ltd.

Alonge, M. F. (1987): Continuous assessment and weight of academic record in the 6-3-3-4 system of education reading in guidance and counselling, G & C units, Federal Ministry of Education, Lagos.

Alonge, M.F. (2004): Measurement and Evaluation and Psychological Testing. Ado-Ekiti,   Adebayo Printing (Nig) Ltd.

Bandele, S. O. (1991): Evaluation of teachers and pupils performance as it affects certificate,   selection, guidance and placement. A critique contemporary issues in Arts, Social Sciences and Education. Okanlawon Pub. Company 53-62

Bello, J. Y. (1985): Continuous assessment and guidance service in the new 6-3-3-4 system. Seminar paper Abu.

Capper, J. (1996): Testing to learn-learning to test. International Reading Association and   Academic for Educational Development U.S.A.

Dietal, R. J., Herman, J. L. & Knuth, R. A. (1991): What does research say about assessment? North central regional educational laboratory (NCREC), Oak Brook.

Emeke E. A. (1994): A peep into the practice of continuous assessment in Nigerian schools. Oyo state as a case study. A paper presented at WAEC monthly Seminar 30th Sept.

Eso, O. T. (2000): Assessment procedure and students locus of control as determinants of achievement on integrated science. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis University of Ibadan, Ibadan

Federal Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (1985): A   handbook on continuous assessment. Ibadan. Heinermann Ed. Book (Nig) Ltd.

Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004): National policy on education Lagos: NERC Press. Greenwood, C & Matheady, Z. (1997): Measurable change in student performance; forgotten standard in teacher preparation. Teacher Education and Special Education. 20 (3).

Kolawole, E. B. (2005): Measurement and assessment in education, Lagos Bolabay   Publications.

Linn, R, Baker, E & Dumbar, S. (1991): Complex performances based assessment. Expectations and validation criteria Educational Research 20 (8).

Majasan, J. K. (1988): Strategies for determining standard in education; standards in education in the 6-3-3-4 system in Nigeria. Proceedings of National Conference May 25th -28th.

McTighe, J & Ferrara, S. (1994): Performance-based assessment in the classroom. Pennsylvania Educational Leadership.

Mkpa, M. A. (1989): A study on the problems of implementing continuous assessment in primary schools in Imo and Anambra States. Implementation of national policy on education theoretical and empirical analysis, Benin City NERA publications.

Namibia Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (1999): Towards improving continuous assessment in schools: A policy and information guide. Okahandja, Namibia: NIED.

Nzewi A. M. (1990): Secondary school teachers and continuous assessment as an education   innovation An appraised. Unpublished Med. Thesis, UNN. Unsuka. Med thesis, UNN.

Ogunneye, W. (1992): Continuous assessment: Practice and prospects. Lagos: Providence   Publishers.

Ohuche, R. O. (1983): Continuous assessment: practice and prospects. Lagos Providence Publishers Ltd.

Ojerinde D. (1986): Educational tests and measurement: Ibadan: Codat Audio-visual services.

Ojerinde D. & Falayajo W. (1984): Continuous assessment. A new approach. Ibadan, University Press Ltd.

Okafor, G. A. (2001): Improvement of examination ethics in Nigeria, Nigeria Journal of Curriculum and Instruction 10 (1), 54-57.

Okoro, B. N. (1998): Strategies for determining standards in education.Standard in education in the 6-3-3-4 system in Nigeria.

Okpala, P. N. Onocha, C. O. & Oyedeji, O. A. (1993): Measurement and   evaluation in education, Benin. Stirling Horden Publishers (Nig.) Ltd.

Puhl,C. A.(1997):Develop, not judge: Continuous assessment in the ESL classroom, Forum 35-2

Sally B. (1996): An article written on assessment.UK: University of Northumbria.

West African Examination Council (1999): Noted for training of examiners on marking essay papers, Lagos: Test development division.

Yoloye, E A. (1979): Evaluation for innovations. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press.

Introducing Statistics within a Gender Focal Point Strategy

Fred Spiring
Bureau of Women's Affairs
Office of the Prime Minister

Abstract

The United Nations Development Strategy for Gender in Development Programme [1] relies heavily on two key components. The first is the strategy or problem solving technique often referred to as the Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycle (or the PLANNING AND REVIEW CYCLES IMPLEMENTATION) and the second the Gender Focal Points. The PDCA cycle is a mechanism for planning, documenting, analyzing, implementing and verifying the impact of a plan or strategy and the GFPs are the resources critical to the implementation of the PDCA. This manuscript a) outlines the key components of the PDCA cycle along with tools associated with each of the four stages in the cycle and b) provides a gender based approach to integrating the concepts of statistics into the Gender Focal Point training regimen. A series of ten modules, each taking less than 120 minutes to present, have been developed using Microsoft Office's [2] PowerPoint, Word and Excel. The ten modules were developed in conjunction with, and for use by, the Bureau of Women's Affairs, Office of the Prime Minister, Government of Jamaica. The PowerPoint presentations, related datasets, questionnaires and supporting material are available from the author.

Keywords: Gender Mainstreaming, Gender Training, Performance Indicators

INTRODUCTION

The Bureau of Women's Affairs (BWA) is a department in the Office of the Prime Minister that has been a Jamaican Government entity for more than 35 years. The current mission of the BWA is "To enable women to achieve their full potential as participants in Jamaica's social, cultural and economic development and with equitable access to benefits from the country's resources". The BWA seeks to carry out this objective through Policy Development, Analysis, Research, Documentation, Project Planning, Monitoring, Public Education and Community Outreach.

The Policy and Research Unit is responsible for the policy and research agenda of the BWA. The department consists of two sections, a) Policy and b) Research & Documentation. The main purpose of the Policy section is the development, formulation and analysis of policies to enhance the status of women economically, socially and politically. This is to ensure that gender considerations are taken into account, that the gender international agreements signed and ratified by the Government of Jamaica are adhered to and emphasis is placed on gender equality while highlighting the gaps where they exist. In order to do this, the BWA ensures that national policies relating to women and men are implemented in accordance with guidelines, monitored and evaluated in order to achieve the desired objectives. Additionally, the Policy section is responsible for reviewing other government policies for gender considerations. Arising from this, recommendations are made for the inclusion of a gendered component in these policies. The legislative agenda also forms a part of the policy portfolio.

In keeping with the Strategic/Operational Plan, the BWA conducts gender-specific research in order to gather empirical data in support of policy decisions relating to women and men. The specific and general objectives of the national women's machinery (NWM), the principles outlined in the National Policy Statement on Women and the National Policy for Gender Equality (NPGE) [3] as well as local, regional and international policy commitments all form part of the BWA's mandate.

Figure 1 contains relevant Targets/Objectives of the NPGE addressed by the training strategy and regimen. In particular the Targets/Objectives "To make the collection of data disaggregated by sex and location mandatory by all public and private agencies in the social, economic and political sectors on a regular and timely basis", "To set up systems to facilitate ready retrieval of these data as required by researchers, planners and policy-makers", "To produce a comprehensive manual of gender indicators related to all major sectors which can be used to inform of plans, projects, and programmes and for monitoring their impact" and "To equip all persons involved in planning and policy formulation with the tools for conducting gender analyses and the skills to use the information produced to develop, monitor and evaluate projects, programmes and policies" are addressed in whole or in part by the training.

The strategy involves consultative approaches that include representatives from the various Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) of the Jamaican Government through Gender Focal Points (GFPs). The GFPs are persons who represent their MDA in the Gender and Gender Mainstreaming initiative conducted by the BWA and The Way Out Project. The GFPs are exposed to a series of workshops designed to raise awareness and to sensitize the MDAs to gender and gender mainstreaming. The GFP approach to integrating Gender and Gender Mainstreaming is the approach promoted by the United Nations Development Programme for Gender in Development Programme [1]. The BWA has introduced Gender and Gender Mainstreaming, through the GFPs, to more than sixty MDAs since 2010 and is now preparing to provide statistical training and support to these groups. This manuscript outlines the training strategy, initiatives and materials developed in an attempt to integrate "statistical thinking" to the GFP strategy.

National Policy on Gender Equality Objectives Addressed

Gender Mainstreaming					
Target/Objective	Strategy/Indicator	Responsible Institution	Resources	Time Frame	Actions
To make the collection of data disaggregated by sex and location mandatory by all public and private agencies in the social, economic and political sectors on a regular and timely basis	Annual data sets produced on indicators relevant to the mandate and work of the particular agency	BWA, STATIN, PIOJ, Electoral Office of Jamaica. All government agencies statistical departments. All private sector bodies	Statistician at the BWA and Focal Point at STATIN	2011-2015	BWA Technical Report: Introducing Statistics within a Gender Focal Point Strategy, Investigating Gender Violence In Jamaica 2007-2012

To set up systems to facilitate ready retrieval of these data as required by researchers, planners and policy-makers.	Data used by relevant stakeholders and as the basis for gender responsive planning and policy formulation by the respective agencies	BWA/STATIN and partnership with IDPs	Funds to conduct training in gender analysis and policy formulation	2011-2015	BWA Technical Report: The Gender Equality Observatory of Jamaica
To equip all persons involved in planning and policy formulation with the tools for conducting gender analyses and the skills to use the information produced to develop, monitor and evaluate projects, programmes and policies	Training programme a) developed and offered to relevant stakeholders and b) assessed in terms of impact and effectiveness	BWA, CGDS/UWI, PIOJ	Funding to support delivery and evaluation of impact of training	2012-2015	BWA Technical Report: Introducing Statistics within a Gender Focal Point Strategy
To produce a comprehensive manual of gender indicators related to all major sectors which can be used to inform policy, programmes, plans, and projects and for monitoring their impact	Gender Indicators Manual developed by reviewing indicators produced by BWA, CARICOM, ECLAC, JASPEV, PIOJ & OPM checklists and Gender Indicators produced by UN (GEM and GDI) in order to compile a composite checklist for monitoring impact of programmes in all sectors	BWA, STATIN, PIOJ, CGDS/UWI, and IDP partnership	Funds to acquire relevant software and programming and Technical Assistance from regional and international bodies/IDP partnership	2011-2012	BWA Technical Report: The Gender Equality Observatory of Jamaica, DART Module 5-Performance Indicators

Figure 1. NPGE Targets/Objectives addressed by BWA Training Modules

Dart: why does data need to be accurate, relevant and timely?

If your Data is Accurate, Relevant and Timely (DART), the likelihood of answering or meeting the goals of your study will be enhanced. Or in other words, the project, as well as the questions that the project is trying to address, will be more likely to be On-Target (Figure 2).
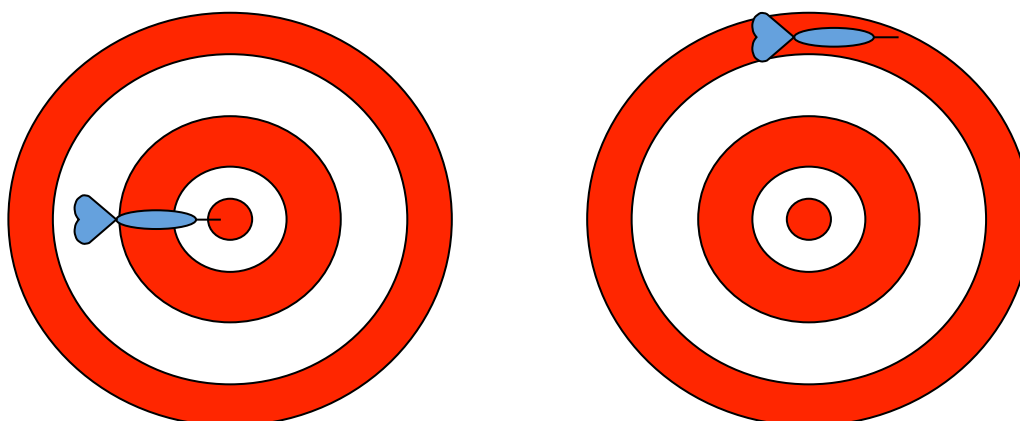
Figure 2. On-Target versus Off-Target

If the Accuracy or Relevance of the Data is lacking or questionable, the resulting statistics may be Off-Target (Figure 2) and will cause the project or study to be questioned.

Consider a survey designed to examine an issue, where the survey designer failed to record the "sex" of the participants (see Figure 3). Certainly the data would be viewed as less Relevant, than if the sex of all participants had been recorded (sex disaggregated data). The lack of sex disaggregation virtually makes it impossible to perform any meaningful Gender analyses and causing DART to be far from the target.

Similarly, if the Accuracy of the survey or data gathering is inconsistent, the statistics and resulting conclusions or recommendations will likely be "off-target" or more variable. In a fast changing world, Timeliness is always important. Attempting to develop and make policy decisions based on Data that is not timely, or is out-of-date, will only serve to cast doubt on the outcomes and the resulting recommendations. Stale or old Data may also provide "fuel" for detractors of the project or study.

Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 1	Survey # 8	Survey # 15
Name: Fred	Name: Melissa	Name: Britta
Shoe Size: 9.5	Shoe Size: 5.5	Shoe Size: 35
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 2	Survey # 9	Survey # 16
Name: Dawn	Name: Jamie	Name: Erika
Shoe Size: 6.5	Shoe Size: 8.0	Shoe Size: 6.0
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 3	Survey # 10	Survey # 17
Name: Oahn	Name: Pat	Name: Kathi
Shoe Size: 40	Shoe Size: 9.0	Shoe Size: 5.0
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 4	Survey # 11	Survey # 18
Name: Lee	Name: Narula	Name: Toni
Shoe Size: 7.0	Shoe Size: 13	Shoe Size: 10.5
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 5	Survey # 12	Survey # 19
Name: Terry	Name: Dominic	Name: Aziz
Shoe Size: 38	Shoe Size: 8.5	Shoe Size: 9.5
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 6	Survey # 13	Survey # 20
Name: Chris	Name: Anne	Name: Dhalia
Shoe Size: 11.0	Shoe Size: 6.5	Shoe Size: 7.5
Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company	Gnirips Shoe Company
Survey # 7	Survey # 14	Survey # 21
Name: Eddi	Name: Charlie	Name: Neptune
Shoe Size: 9.5	Shoe Size: 11.0	Shoe Size: 47

Figure 3. Initial Gnirips Shoe Size Survey Results

The training has been designed to assist in ensuring that one's Data is Accurate, Relevant & Timely. The ten DART modules address a variety of issues that should be considered before gathering/assessing data and implementing a strategy or plan. DART modules 1-6 deal directly with data and data issues. Each of these six DART modules has been designed to be presented in a 2 hour window and are incremental. DART modules 7-10 are designed to assist in systematically developing, implementing, verifying and adopting a strategy or plan. Again each of the DART modules has been designed to be presented in a 2 hour window (or less) and is incremental. DART modules 1 through 6 are used to introduce and motivate thought with respect to gathering, analyzing and interpreting data while DART modules 7 through 10 will be of assistance in developing, implementing and monitoring the GFP's Action Plan for promoting Gender and Gender Mainstreaming within their respective MDA.

THE TRAINING-Strategy
The modules have been constructed to introduce the concepts of statistics and their use in collecting, analyzing, displaying and interpreting data. This is done with the use of supporting information from various sources including gender based performance indicators (PIs). The training has been designed to challenge the participants with respect to issues that may impact any aspect of the data, rather than attempt to formally train in the field of statistics.
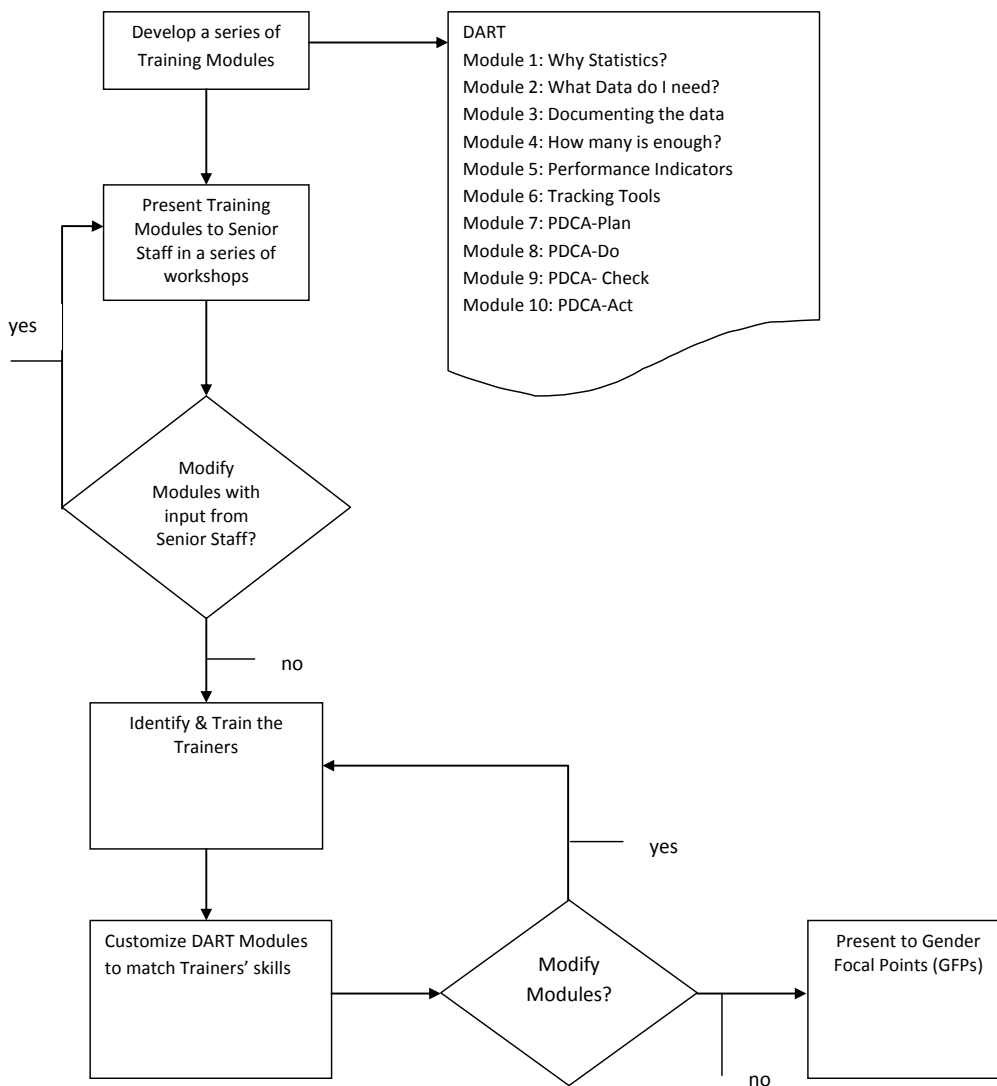
Figure 4. Training Strategy Flowchart

The training strategy is three fold. The first stage (see Figure 4) involves introducing senior management to the DART training modules. The goals of these sessions are a) to raise awareness among the group, b) allow input and customization of the DART modules and c) to identify future trainers. The second stage of training involves the set of identified "trainers" from Stage 1. The goals of the second stage training include a) raise awareness among the group of trainers and b) customize the DART modules to the trainers' needs and strengths. The third stage sees the DART modules presented to all members of the group and to the GFPs as they identify the need to acquire and analyze data. The third stage also sees those trainers from stage two integrated into the training procedures as their comfort levels see fit.

The above strategy was designed to align with both CUSO International's and the BWA's focus on capacity building/technology transfer. Three strategic Objectives in the NPGE (see Figure 1) are addressed by the DART Training, they include 1) To make the collection of data disaggregated by sex and location mandatory by all public and private sector agencies in the social, economic and political sectors on a regular and timely basis, 2) To equip all persons involved in planning and policy formulation with the tools for conducting gender analyses and the skills to use the information produced to develop, monitor and evaluate projects, programmes and policies and 3) To produce a comprehensive manual of gender indicators related to all major sectors which can be used to inform policy, programmes, plans, and projects and for monitoring their impact are addressed directly by the training strategy and contents of the DART Modules.

Stages one and two of the strategy deal specifically with capacity building within the BWA, while Stage three sees capacity building extended to the GFPs of the various MDAs associated with the Government of Jamaica. Stages one and two were delivered by the CUSO International resource person, while Stage three saw the integration of BWA personnel, who have attended the Train the Trainer sessions, in the delivery of the DART Modules. For larger MDAs, in-house DART "Train the Trainer" sessions customized to their operations are offered.

THE TRAINING-MODULES

The DART modules have been developed in a fashion that illustrates basic concepts without "teaching statistics". Tables 1, 2 and 3 contain the list of DART module titles, training aids, intended audience, duration and training goals.

Table 1. DART Modules 1 – 3 descriptions, duration and goals

ITEM	ACTIVITIES/RESOURCES	WHO	WHEN	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
DART-Module 1	Why Statistics? • An overview of DART, a discussion some simple techniques and tools for establishing Baseline measures to assist in getting Gender Focal Points (GFPs) started in gathering information & preparing baseline statistics. • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module1 • Supporting Documents: 1) Laminated sheets (x4) outlining Gnirips Shoe Company Survey, 2) TED Talk Video, 3) Gnirips Shoe Survey Form, 4) Excel files: GFP BaselineMeasures-Final -BWA, GFP BaselineMeasures-Final, 5) Word Document: GenderSelfAssessment Questionnaire	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Stress the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) Illustrate why anecdotal evidence is a problem, 3) show how statistics essentially amasses a number of single stories in order to get a good representation of the group being studied, 4) discuss the impact on studies, research and policy if the data is not accurate, relevant or timely, 5) provide simple straightforward tools to get started gathering and presenting baseline data
DART Module 2	What Data do I Need? • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module2 • Supporting Documents: 1) Animal crackers (1 package for each participant) and 2) Christie Canada Cracker surveys and tally sheet.	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 90 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) illustrate the need and difficulty in determining what data needs to be collected, 3) illustrate that in order for the data to be relevant it must address the goal(s) of the study/research and 4) conduct a brain storming session on a particular Performance Indicator.
DART Module 3	Documenting the Data • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module3, IHSN Metadata Editor & Nesstar Explorer • Supporting Documents: 1) Gnirips Shoe Survey Metadata sheet, 2) Gnirips Shoe Survey data acquisition sheet, 3) Conversion chart and 4) Animal Cracker Data sheet	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) illustrate the need to document the data before it is collected, 3) illustrate the use of the IHSN software and 4) the delivery of usable, well defined data sheets that will allow JMP (or other software) analyses.

Table 2. Dart Modules 4 - 8 descriptions, duration and goals

ITEM	ACTIVITIES/RESOURCES	WHO	WHEN	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
DART Module 4	How many is enough? • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module4 • Supporting Documents: 1) Gnirips Shoe Survey data sheet, 2) Return to the Single Story and ask how many stories does one need to be relevant, 3) ensure measuring device is not introducing errors, Gnirips straws & measuring devices	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) illustrate the need to assess how many samples need be taken, 3) provide some ideas as to what might influence "how many/often" and 4) illustrate the need for a good measuring device and recording mechanism.
DART Module 5	Performance Indicators • Duration: 120 minutes • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module5, Supporting Documents: 1)Physical Violence datasheet, 2) MonthlyMurders.JMP and 3) MajorCrimes.JMP	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2)using the Gender Equality Observatory goals to illustrate Performance Indicators, 3) illustrate need to have a baseline set of measures in order to monitor over time, 4) develop long term tracking tools to signal change and 5) illustrate Excel plotting techniques.
DART Module 6	Tracking Tools • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module6, Supporting Documents: 1) ShoeSize example, 2) Rape-JCF-2007-2011, 3) RapeDataxxx.JMP and 4) AlcoholDeathsxxx.JMP	Gender Focal Points	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) illustrate need to have a baseline set of measures in order to monitor over time, 3) develop long term tracking tools to signal change. Introduce runs chart, control chart and capability chart by adding action limits to existing scatter plots and 4) illustrate the use of JMP as an analytical tool.
DART Module 7	PDCA-Plan • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module7, Supporting Documents: 1) Respiratory Flowchart, 2) laminated Gnirips Shoe Survey data sheets, 3) F's and 4) Inspection Bookmark	Improvement & Problem Solving specialists	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) introduce the concept of a process, 3) outline the customer/supplier role in a process, 4) introduce Brainstorming, C&E, Flow and Planning charts as tools of the Plan stage in PDCA and 5) introduce the DO stage as the implementation stage. Conduct a brainstorming session relevant to the group.
DART Module 8	PDCA-Do • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module8, Supporting Documents: 1) GEOJ Flowchart & Milestones and 2) GEOJ Planning document	Improvement & Problem Solving specialists	Duration: 30 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) reinforce the PDCA concept, 3) reinforce the customer/supplier role in a process, 4) implement the results of the Brainstorming, C&E, Flow and Planning charts from the PDCA-Plan session 5) discuss the DO stage as the implementation stage

Table 3. DART Training Modules 9 & 10 descriptions, duration and goals

ITEM	ACTIVITIES/RESOURCE	WHO	WHEN	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
DART Module 9	PDCA-Check • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module9, Supporting Documents: 1) Gnirips Shoe Survey Check & Tally sheet, 2) Population Figures by Parish for Jamaica, Pharmacy patients by Parish, 3) Voter's List 2007 vs. 2011 and 4) Accident data from Winnipeg	Improvement & Problem Solving specialists	Duration: 90 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) introduce the Check & Tally sheet, 3) introduce the bar chart, 4) introduce the Pareto chart, discuss various Scatter plots and 5) highlight Location charts as tools of the Check stage in PDCA cycle.
DART Module 10	PDCA-Act • Medium: PowerPoint DART-Module10, Supporting Documents: 1) Drunk Driving Laws-Gleaner, 2) Bill 3-Winnipeg	Improvement & Problem Solving specialists	Duration: 120 minutes	Training Goals: 1) Continue to reinforce the need for Data that is Accurate, Relevant and Timely, 2) introduce/review runs chart, control chart and capability chart by adding action limits to existing scatter plots, 3) illustrate need to have a baseline set of measures in order to monitor over time, 4) develop long term tracking tools to signal change and 5) in a continuous improvement environment one starts the PDCA cycle again. Tie these tools back into Modules 5 & 6.

DART Module 1

DART Module 1 "Why Do We Use Statistics?" has been created to introduce DART and to motivate the need for incorporating statistics into a Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan. The Module includes instruments that facilitate the collection, analysis and display of data addressing a self-assessment of participants understanding of Gender and Gender Mainstreaming. The instrument is built in Excel and has been designed to be self-contained. Participants simply enter their self assessed level of knowledge (low, medium or high) for both

Gender and Gender Mainstreaming, along with their respective sex female and male in the row associated with a survey number assigned to them. The instrument has been set-up to address groups of up to 50 participants complete with electronic copy of 50 numbered questionnaires that need only be printed and distributed and the automated frequency charts. Figures 5, 6, 7 & 8 contain the a)questionnaire, b) Instructions, c) G & GM Data Excel spread sheet and d) resulting charts for a group of participants attending a Quarterly meeting of the BWAs Gender Focal Points (June 28, 2012). All participants had been exposed to the BWA's Gender and Gender Mainstreaming training.

Gender Self-Assessment Questionnaire Example

Sex
Female   Male
Please circle a level (Low, Medium or High) indicating your level of knowledge for the questions below.
What is your knowledge level of Gender?
Low   Medium   High

What is your knowledge level of Gender Mainstreaming?
Low   Medium   High

Gender Self-Assessment Questionnaire #1

Sex
Female   Male
Please circle a level (Low, Medium or High) indicating your level of knowledge for the questions below.
What is your knowledge level of Gender?
Low   Medium   High

What is your knowledge level of Gender Mainstreaming?
Low   Medium   High

   Figure 5. Gender and Gender Mainstreaming Self Assessment Questionnaire Example & #1
   Instructions:
1) Ask each Group member to complete a Self Assessment Questionnaire
2) There are 50 numbered questionnaires in the accompanying GenderSelfAssessmentQuestionnaire Word file
> *If you require more please contact the BWA*
> *they will create numbered questionnaires to accommodate your group size*
> *and reconfigure the **G & GM Data** sheet to accommodate your group size*
*3) Enter the Questionnaire responses in the Excel sheet named **G & GM Data***
> *for sex there are 3 valid responses female, male or "blank"*
> *for Gender & Gender Mainstreaming there are 4 valid responses*
> *Low, Medium, High or "blank"*
> *For the Gender Self-Assessment Questionnaire Example*

(top of the Questionnaire document)
the survey number is Example and the response is male
Low Low

4) *All the counts and plots should update as you enter the data*

> *Please keep the actual questionnaires*
> *Very few of the cells in the **G & GM Data** sheet are locked and can be altered*
> *If something looks funny or if the **G & GM Data** sheet goes awry, DO NOT WORRY*
> *Contact the Bureau, they can send another copy to you electronically*

5) *Please let the BWA know if you have any difficulties or encounter problems*

> *Bureau of Women's Affairs*
> *voice: 754-8576*
> *fax: 929-0549*

Figure 6. Instructions for Gender & Gender Mainstreaming Questionnaire

Survey #	Sex	Knowledge of Gender?	Gender Mainstreaming?
Example	male	Low	Low
1	female	High	Medium
2	female	Medium	Medium
3	female	High	High
4			
5	female	High	Medium
6	female	Low	Low
7			
8	female	Medium	Medium
9	female	Medium	Low
10			
11			
12	female	Medium	Medium
13			
14			
15	female	Medium	Low
16			
17			
18	female	Medium	Medium
19			
20			
21	male	Medium	Medium
22			
23	female	Medium	Medium
24	female	High	High
25			
26	female	Medium	Medium
27			
28			
29	female	Medium	Medium
30	female	Medium	Medium
31			
32	female	Medium	Medium
33	male	High	Medium
34			
35	female	Medium	Medium
36	female	High	Medium
37			
38	female	Medium	Medium
39	female	High	High
40			

Source: *Cohort #1 & #2 28-Jun-12*

Sex	Frequency
Female	26
Male	2

Frequency
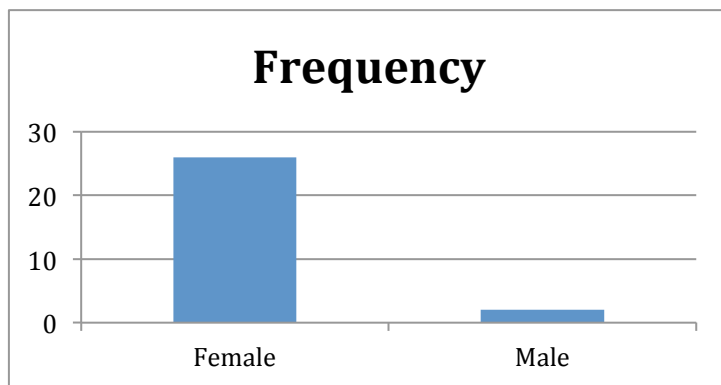
Level		Knowledge of Gender?	Gender Mainstreaming?
Level	Low	1	3
	Medium	19	20
	High	8	5

41			
42	female	Medium	High
43			
44	female	High	High
45			
46			
47	female	Medium	Medium
48	female	Medium	Medium
49	female	Medium	Medium
50	female	Medium	Medium

Count	28	28	28
Attendees	39		
Returned/Completed	25		
Returned/Uncompleted	10		
Unreturned/Completed	3		
Unreturned/Uncompleted	12		
Non-Response rate:	28%		

Figure 7. G & GM Data worksheet with data for June 28, 2012
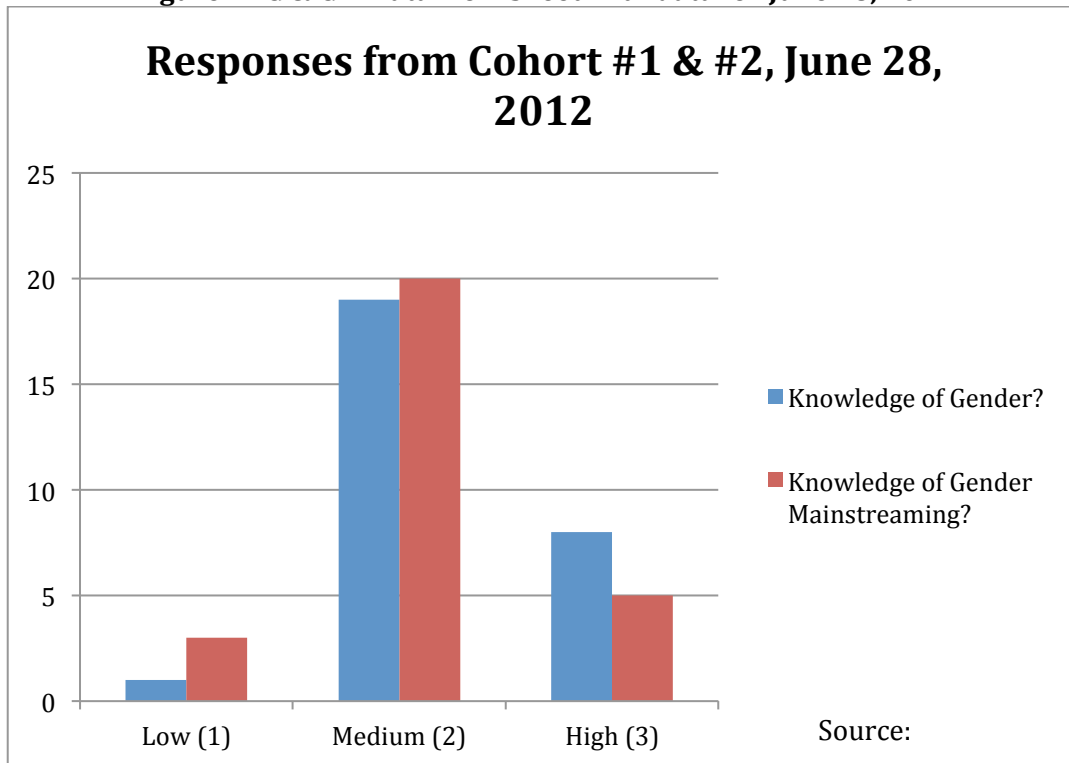
Figure 8. Frequencies for Gender and Gender Mainstreaming Self-Assessment June 28, 2012

A second instrument has been developed that addresses the frequency of Decision makers, Policy developers and Project managers within a group or organization.   The basic requirement is a list of people in the group/organization and their respective responsibilities. The information is often readily available from a group's organizational chart. The database has been set up to include the name/identifier and sex of the people in the group/organization. Once this information has been entered, a series of six questions are asked (see Figure 10). "Is this person a Female Decision maker?" select "yes" or "no".   Doing this for each of the six questions results in a profile score for each participant (see Figure 11 for a set of simulated responses). Figure 9 contains the instructions for completing the instrument.

A frequency chart of the responses is generated automatically (see Figure 11).   The chart includes the frequency of females and males in the group/organization, the frequency of male and female Decision makers, Policy developers and Project managers along with the expected

or statistical frequency based on the sex profile of the group. Comparing the actual frequencies with the expected frequencies allows the group to identify areas where a gender imbalance may be occurring. Note that the expected frequencies need not be integer values (e.g., Expected count of Female Decision Makers is 3.1) as they are strictly a mathematical calculation.

Instructions:

*1) Enter the name/identifier of each Group member in the column labeled **Name***

2) There is room for up to 50 members of your group

   If your group is larger than 50 please contact the BWA

   *they will reconfigure the **Baseline-Data** sheet to accommodate your group size*

*3) Enter the sex of each Group member in the column labeled **Sex***

   There are 3 valid responses male, female or "blank"

*4) For each entry in the **Name** column answer the six questions posed at the top of the column.*

   *For example Column 3 asks "**Is this person a Female-Dec. Maker?**"*

   There are 3 valid responses yes, no or "blank"

   Two examples (in Red) are included

   Mrs. Webster is Female, a Female-Dec. Maker, a Female-Policy Dev and a Female-Proj. Mgr.

   resulting in the entry: Mrs. Webster   female yes no yes no yes no

   Fred Spiring is Male, not a Male-Dec. Maker, not a Male-Policy Dev and not a Male-Proj. Mgr.

   resulting in the entry: Fred Spiring male no no no no no no

5) All the counts and plots should update as you enter the data

   *Very few of the cells in the **Baseline-data** sheet are locked and can be altered*

   *If something looks funny or if the **Baseline-Data** sheet goes awry, DO NOT WORRY*

   Contact the BWA, they can send another copy to you electronically

   Be sure to "save" your data frequently

6) Please let the BWA know if you have any difficulties or encounter problems

   Bureau of Women's Affairs

   voice: 754-8576

   fax: 929-0549

Figure 9. Associated Instructions for Gender Assessment

Name	Sex	Is this person a Female-Dec. Maker?	Is this person a Male-Dec. Maker?	Is this person a Female-Policy Dev.?	Is this person a Male-Policy Dev?	Is this person a Female-Proj. Manager?	Is this person a Male-Proj. Manager?
Mrs. Webster	female	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Fred Spiring	male	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #1	female	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Employee #2	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #3	female	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Employee #4	female	no	no	yes	no	yes	no
Employee #5	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #6	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #7	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #8	male	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes
Employee #9	female	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no

Employee #10	female	no	no	yes	no	no	no
Employee #11	female	no	no	no	no	yes	no
Employee #12	female	no	no	no	no	yes	no
Employee #13	female	no	no	yes	no	yes	no
Employee #14	female	no	no	yes	no	no	no
Employee #15	male	no	no	no	no	no	yes
Employee #16	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #17	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #18	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #19	female	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #20	male	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #21	male	no	no	no	no	no	no
Employee #22	male	no	no	no	no	no	no
Count Total	17 22	3 22	1 22	7 22	1 22	7 22	2 22
Percentage of Total Expected Count	77.3% 5	13.6% 3.1	4.5% 0.9	31.8% 6.2	4.5% 1.8	31.8% 7.0	9.1% 2.0

Figure 10. Decision maker, Policy developer and Project manager Gender Assessment
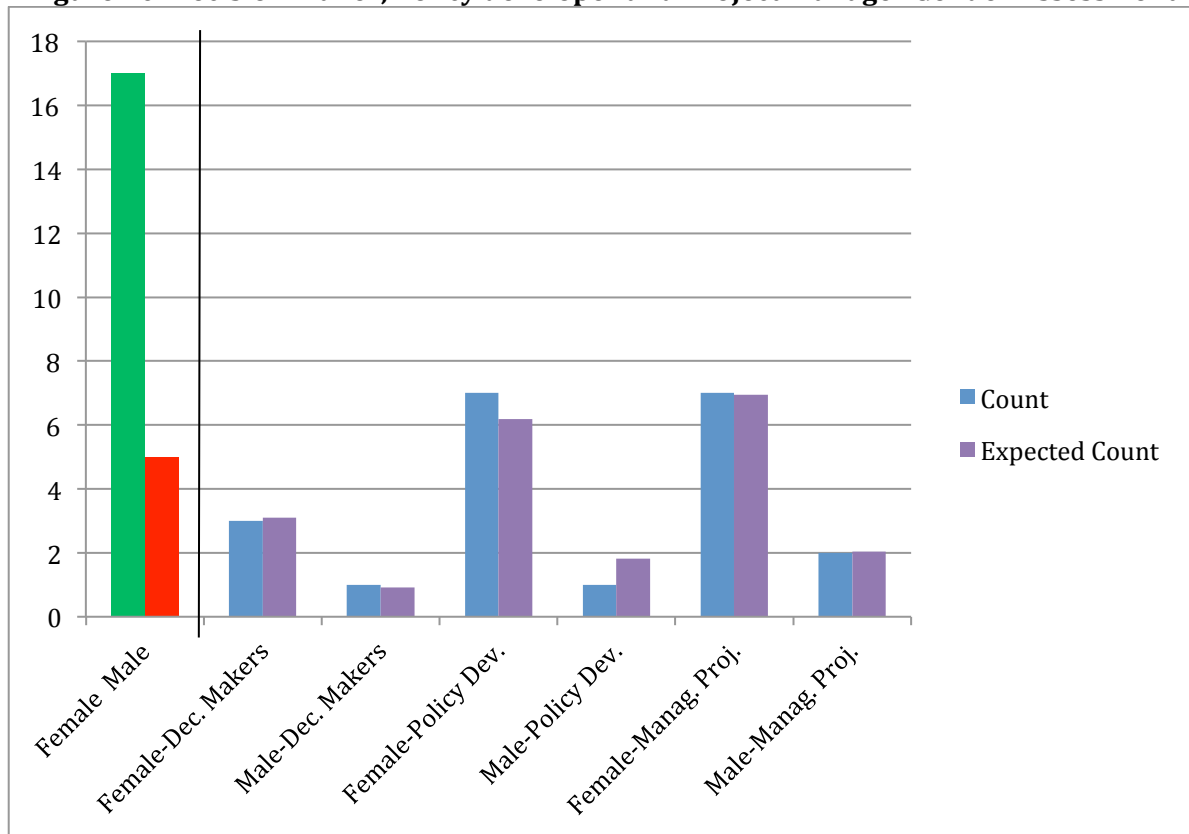
Figure 11. Decision maker, Policy developer and Project manager Gender Assessment
A third and more formal assessment instrument has been developed in conjunction with the Self Start Fund, from the Ministry of Industry, Investment and Commerce, Government of Jamaica. It too is currently automated for up to 20 participants and addresses the individuals' assessment of their MDA or group. The current version of the questionnaire appears in Figure 13. The instrument is easily adaptable to different questions and/or more participants.

Figures 12, 13, 14 & 15 contain a) the instructions, b) the Questionnaire, c) the frequencies for sex, Questions 1 and 2 and d) the frequency summaries for the "Yes/No" responses respectively. In addition, the narrative responses to Questions 4 through 11 are captured in spread sheets for simpler review.

Instructions:
1) Randomly assign an unique number between 1-10 to each of your group members (e.g., Fred is assigned the number 6).
2) Ask each group member to complete the Questionnaire associated with their randomly assigned number (e.g., Fred to complete Questionnaire#6)
3) There are 10 uniquely numbered questionnaires.
> *If you require more please contact the BWA*
> *they will reconfigure the numbered questionnaires to accommodate your group size*

4) Enter your responses in the various locations on your Questionnaire.
> *For Questions 1 through 8, the first portion of each question can be answered using a pull down menu*
> *Question 1 allows responses Female, Male or "Blank"*
> *Questions 2 & 3 allow responses Low, Medium, High or "Blank"*
> *Questions 4 through 8 allowable responses include Yes, No, or "Blank"*
> *You can add your comments associated with questions 4-8 in the Comments section*
> *as well as your written responses to Questions 9-11 in the associated boxes.*
> *Note that no summaries of the written responses are summarized. If saved they will remain on the Questionnaire for reference.*
> *Be sure to **Save** your responses.*

5) The counts associated with Questions 1-8 and the resulting plots should update as you enter the data
> *Very few of the cells in the **Excel** sheets are locked and can be altered*
> *If something looks funny or if the **Datasheet** goes awry, DO NOT WORRY*
> *Contact the BWA, they can send another copy to you electronically*

6) Please let the BWA know if you have any difficulties or encounter problems
> *Bureau of Women's Affairs*
> *voice: 754-8576*
> *fax: 929-0549*

Figure 12. The Instructions for using the Questionnaire

Name:	
Position:	
Date:	
Questionnaire # 1	

Please select the appropriate response for each question

1	Sex:	Male		
2	What is your level of knowledge regarding Gender?	Low		
3	What is your level of knowledge regarding Gender Mainstreaming?	Low		
4	Do you feel your group treats male and female staff equally in the following areas:			Comments
a	Recruitment and Selection	Yes	a	
b	Employment Policies	Yes	b	
c	Training & Development	Yes	c	
d	Performance Appraisal	Yes	d	
e	Promotion Opportunities	Yes	e	
f	Remuneration	Yes	f	
g	Ability to affect policies & procedures	Yes	g	
h	Departmental facilities/Support	No	h	
i	Procedures (e.g., grievance, discipline, ...)	Yes	i	
5	Do you feel your group treats male and female clients equally in the following areas:			
a	Applicants	No	a	
b	Clients	Yes	b	
c	Loan Policies-appraisal process	Yes	c	
d	Male/Female Approval	No	d	
e	Ability to affect policies & procedures	Yes	e	
f	Staff support	Yes	f	
g	Follow-up	Yes	g	
				Comments
6	Do you feel your group has a gender inclusive culture?	Yes	6	
7	Has there been any occasion at work where you were treated less favourably or discriminated against due to your gender?	No	7	
8	If you answered yes to Question 2, was the situation resolved?	No	8	
9	What things could your group be doing to promote gender equality?		9	
10	What are some of the ways women are discriminated against in Jamaica? How can this be changed?		10	
11	What are some of the ways men are discriminated against in Jamaica? How can this be changed?		11	
12	Please add any other comments or suggestions you may have here:			

Figure 13. The Questionnaire

Sex, Gender & Gender Mainstreaming Knowledge Summary
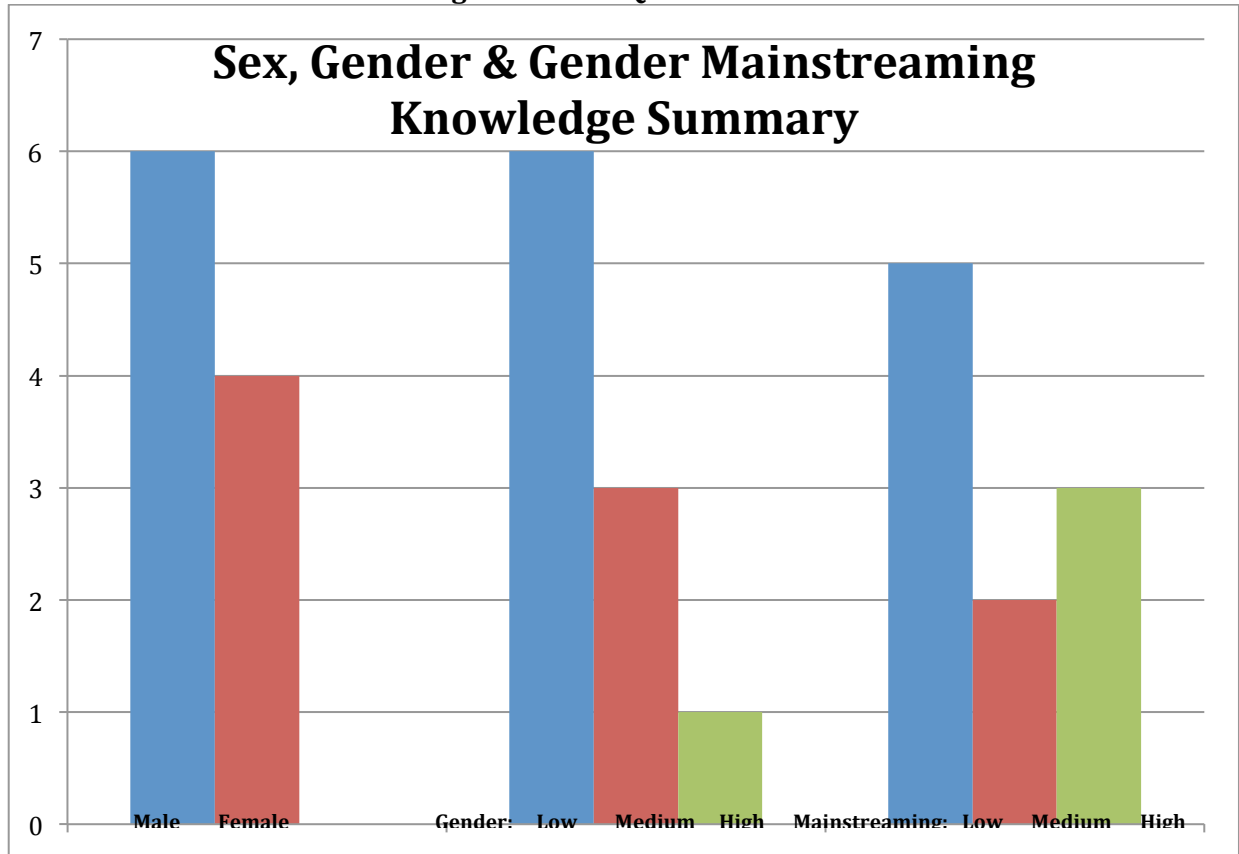
Figure 14. Frequency chart for Questions 2 & 3
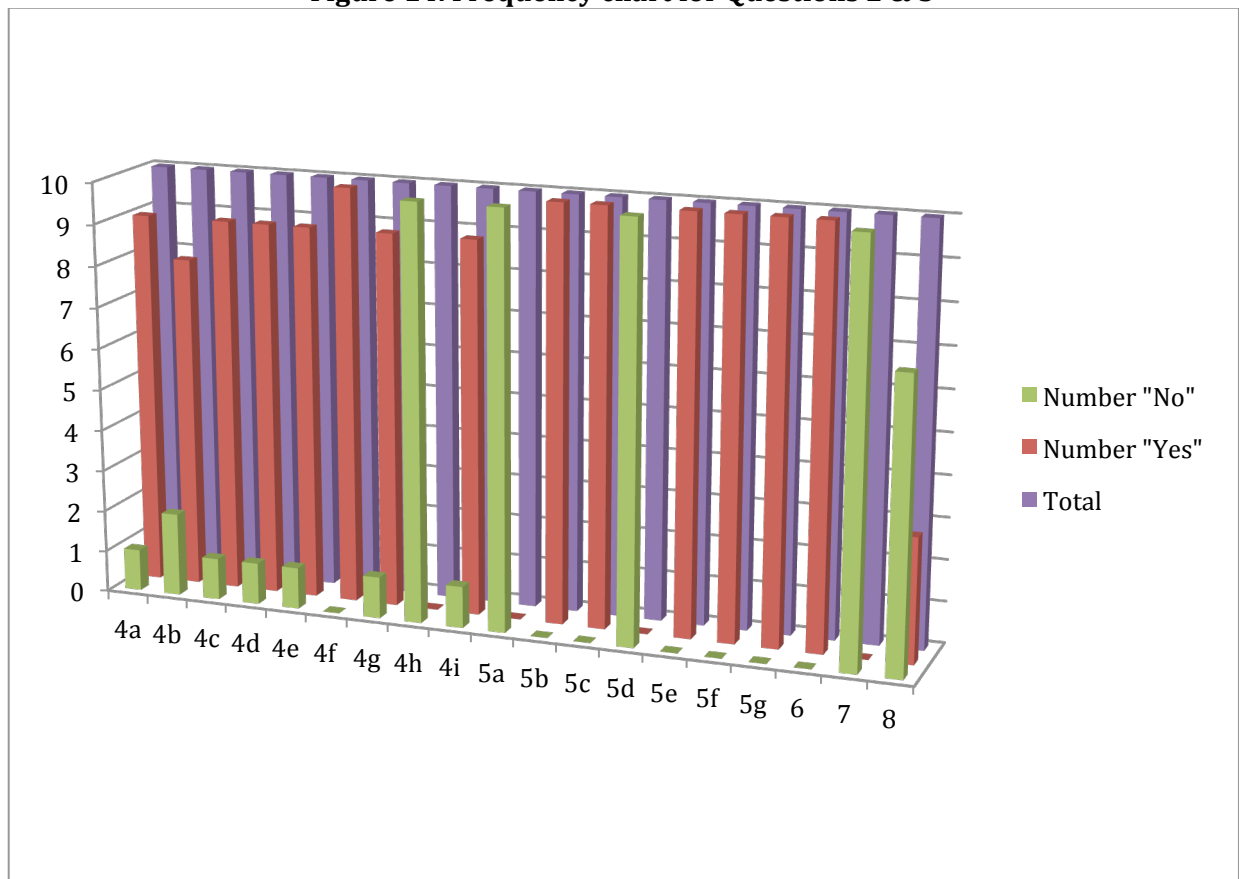
Figure 15. Frequency chart for Questions 4-8
These three instruments have been developed to assist individuals and groups initiate collecting and analyzing relevant data in a Gender Mainstreaming initiative. The initial application of any or all of these instruments would serve as a baseline assessment. Subsequent or repeated use of the instrument(s) could be used to examine changes and or trends in the level of gender & gender mainstreaming knowledge, changes in the Decision-making structure of a group or organization and shifts in attitude with regards to gender and gender equality within a group or organization. All are easy to use and can be modified to reflect different group's requirements or needs. Electronic copies of these instruments are included in the training package and available from the Bureau of Women's Affairs, Office of the Prime Minister, Kingston, Jamaica. The instruments also provide examples used in DART Modules 1 &2.

DART Module 2
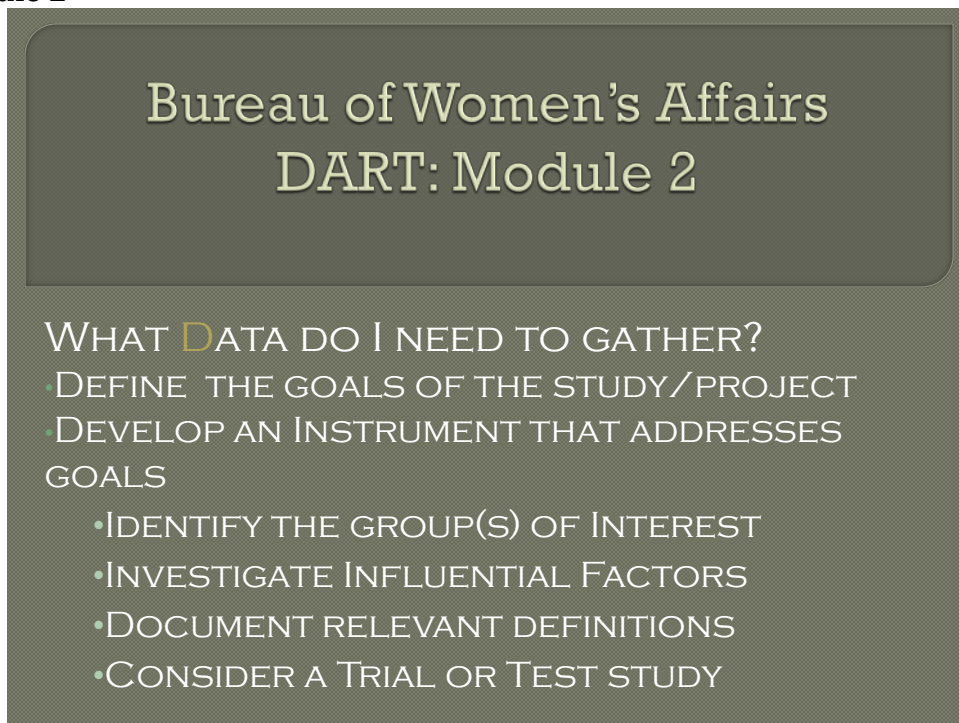
DART Module 2 "What Data do I need to gather?" is designed to raise questions regarding the goals of the study or project and to address factors and issues that may impact the outcomes/results of the study. Participants are taken through an exercise illustrating some of the pitfalls associated with attempting to assess the quality of "a Cookie". A planning document outlining the actions, activities, participants, timeline and results that addresses issues that one should consider while developing an instrument is illustrated in Figure 16. Examples/analogies of the expected outcomes are drawn from the "Quality of a Cookie" exercise.

The "Quality of a Cookie" exercise is followed by a brainstorming session designed to acquire information/data in support of a gender based performance Indicator. The module currently uses a performance indicator from Jamaica's Vision 2030 Gender matrix, but is easily substituted for in the case of a different audience. For example a brainstorming session to examine a Friend of the Chair's Violence Indicator could be conducted.

ACTION ITEM	ACTIVITIES/ RESOURCES	WHO	WHEN	EXPECTED OUTCOMES
Identify potential goals of the project	1. Brainstorm	1.All stake holders	1. Before any actions or data collection takes place	1. A list of potential goals or objectives to be addressed by the project
Prioritize the list	1. Brainstorm 2. Planning Document	1.All stake holders	1. Before any actions or data collection takes place	1. A finalized list of goals or objectives to be addressed by the project
Develop an Instrument	1. Identify the groups of Interest. 2. Identify Factors that might influence the group(s) relative to the goals. 3. Identify possible measures. 4. Identify methods of acquiring Information/measurements. 5. Identify known or perceived road blocks. 6. Document/define important concepts. 7. Consider a Pilot Study to verify the Instrument 8. Conduct the study	1-7.All stake holders 8. Instrument delivery vehicle	1-7. Planning stage 8. Study stage	1.List of units to be sampled from (e.g., Residents of Jamaica) 2. List of Influences that need to be considered when investigating (e.g., sex, age, urban/rural, number of children < 12, …) 3. Clearly delineated what is to be measured (e.g., number of cookies, taste, …) 4. Fully developed selection scheme (e.g., randomly collect from population, collect all from participants, …) 5. List of impediments to the data collection and/or measuring schemes (e.g., varying sense of taste, broken cookies, …) 6. Carefully documented key parts of the study (e.g., count only whole cookies that are identifiable as animals, …) 7. Conduct a Pilot study (e.g., use the Trainers to assess the Instrument before applying to the GFPs, …) 8. Conduct the study

Figure 16. Instrument Planning Document

DART Module 3

The BWA has adopted the International Household Survey Network's (IHSN) Metadata software Metadata Editor and Nesstar Explorer. The software is available on the web at www.ihsn.com, recommended by UNECLAC, reasonably easy to use and used around the globe. Module 3 has been designed to introduce the software using exercises investigated in Modules 1 & 2, in particular documenting the data for the Gnirips Shoe exercise from Module 1. Figure 17 contains the Study Description for the Gnirips Shoe Company Study and Figure 18 the Data View. A second example documents the results of the "quality of cookies" brainstorming session.
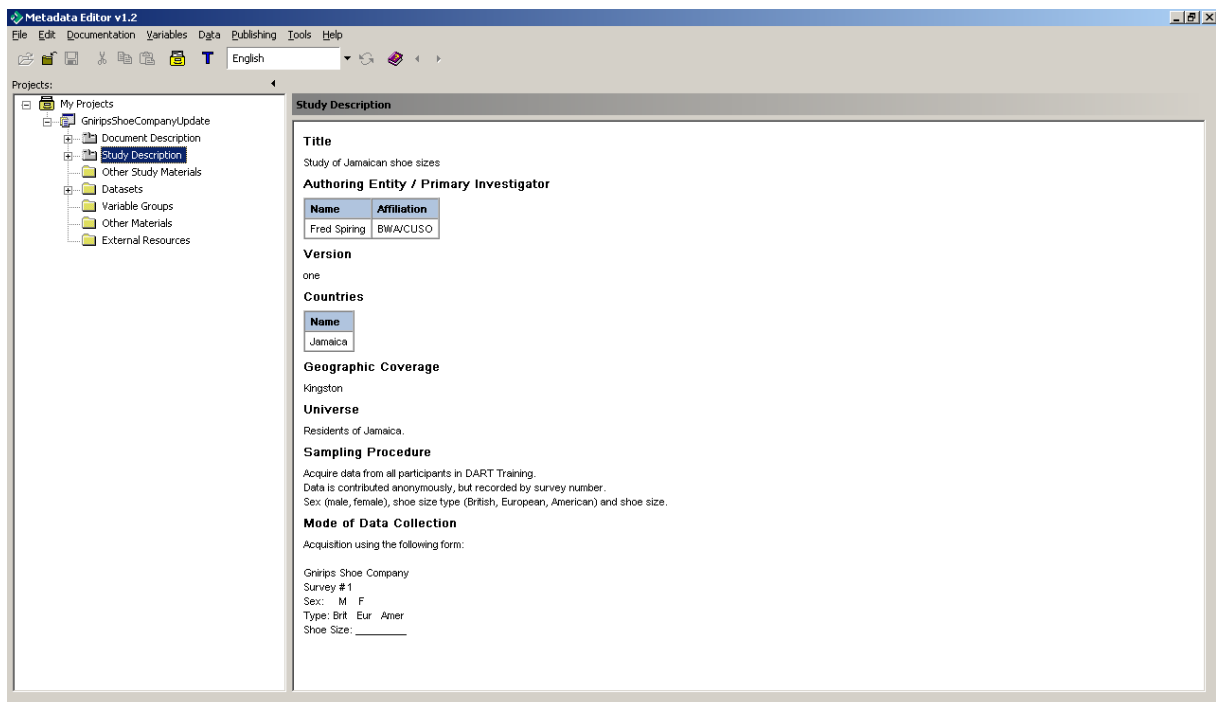
Figure 17. Metadata Editor's Study Description for Gnirips Shoe Company
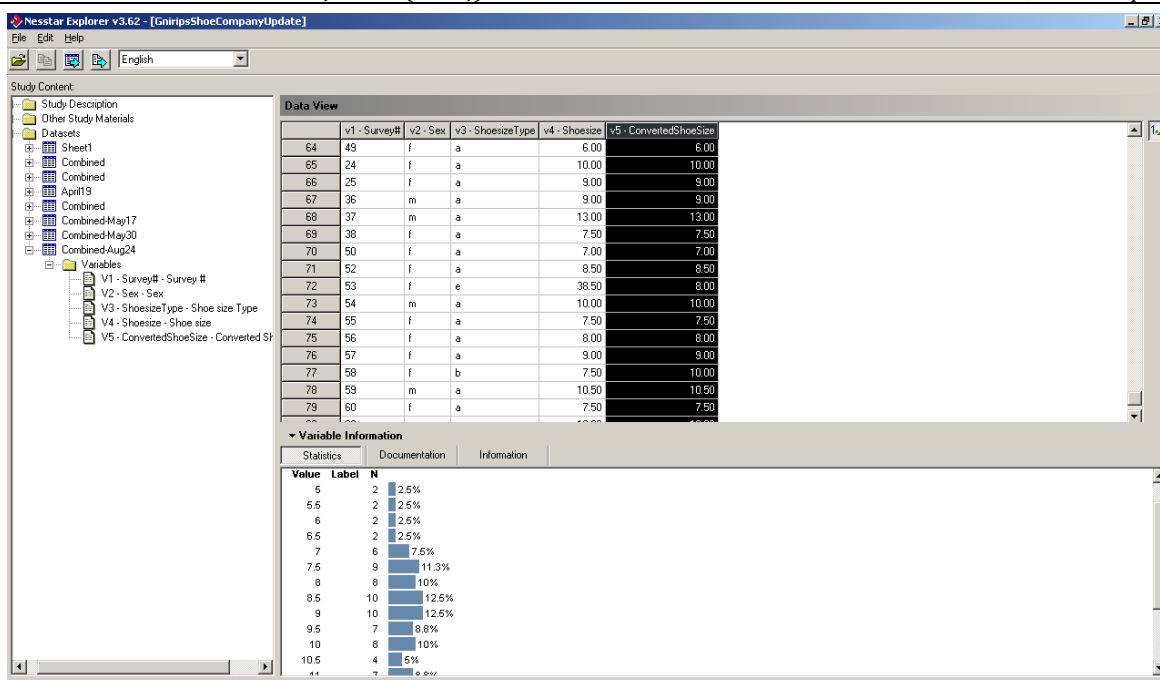
Figure 18. Nesstar Explorer's Data View for Gnirips Shoe Company

DART Module 4

Module 4 continues the data acquisition theme common to Modules 1, 2 and 3. In this Module the concept of how many and/or how often is investigated. Issues surrounding the determination of how many samples does one need are raised and set out as points that need to be addressed prior to initiating a data acquisition scheme. Similar to Module 2 the focus is on insuring the goals of the study are clearly delineated and are part of the acquisition discussion. An exercise developed to make one think about the actual measuring device(s) is incorporated into the Module. Issues including non-response and measurement error are raised for awareness and discussion. A gauge qualifying exercise is illustrated. The module

concludes with a brainstorming session addressing an indicator from the Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

DART Module 5

Bureau of Women's Affairs
DART: Module 5

PERFORMANCE INDICATOR

A PERFORMANCE INDICATOR (PI) IS A TYPE OF PERFORMANCE MEASURE USUALLY TIED TO SOME GOAL OR DESIRED OUTCOME.

PIS ARE COMMONLY USED BY ORGANIZATIONS TO EVALUATE THEIR "SUCCESS" OR THE "SUCCESS OF A PARTICULAR ACTIVITY" IN WHICH THEY ARE ENGAGED.

Module 5 signals a change in direction, moving from data acquisition issues and concepts to using data to address the goals of the study or project. Various gender related performance indicators are examined. The development of the Gender Equality Observatory of Jamaica (GEOJ) provides several opportunities to introduce Performance Indicators and to illustrate the need to have a baseline set of measures in order to monitor over time, while developing long term tracking tools to signal change. A portion of the Module is dedicated to illustrating Excel plotting techniques. Some basic statistics including trend lines are introduced (see Figure 19).
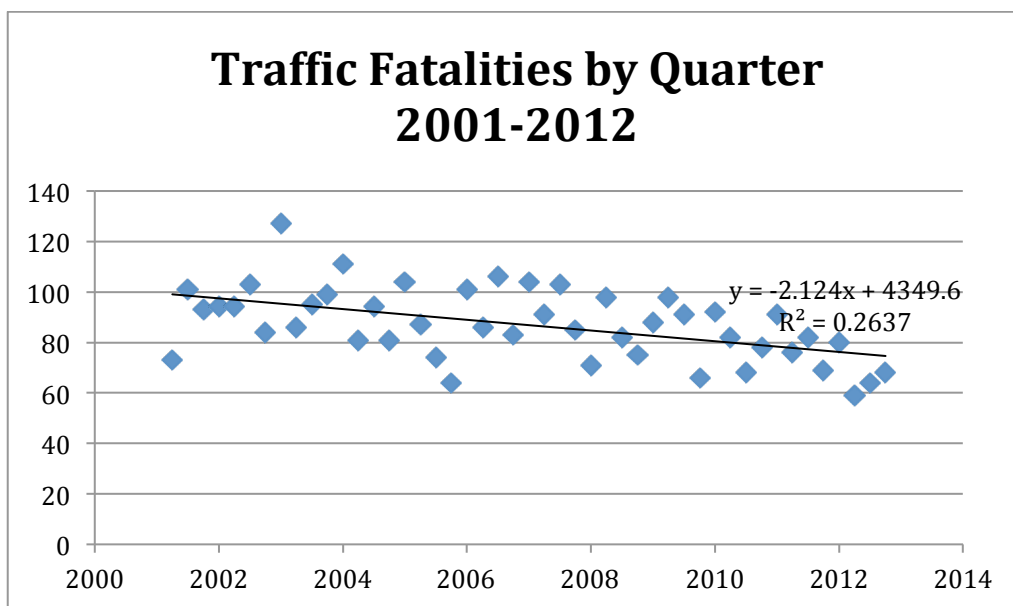
Figure 19. Excel Scatter plot with Trend line for Traffic Fatalities

The chart titled "Traffic Fatalities by Quarter 2001-2012" shows a trend line with equation $y = -2.124x + 4349.6$ and $R^2 = 0.2637$.

DART Module 6
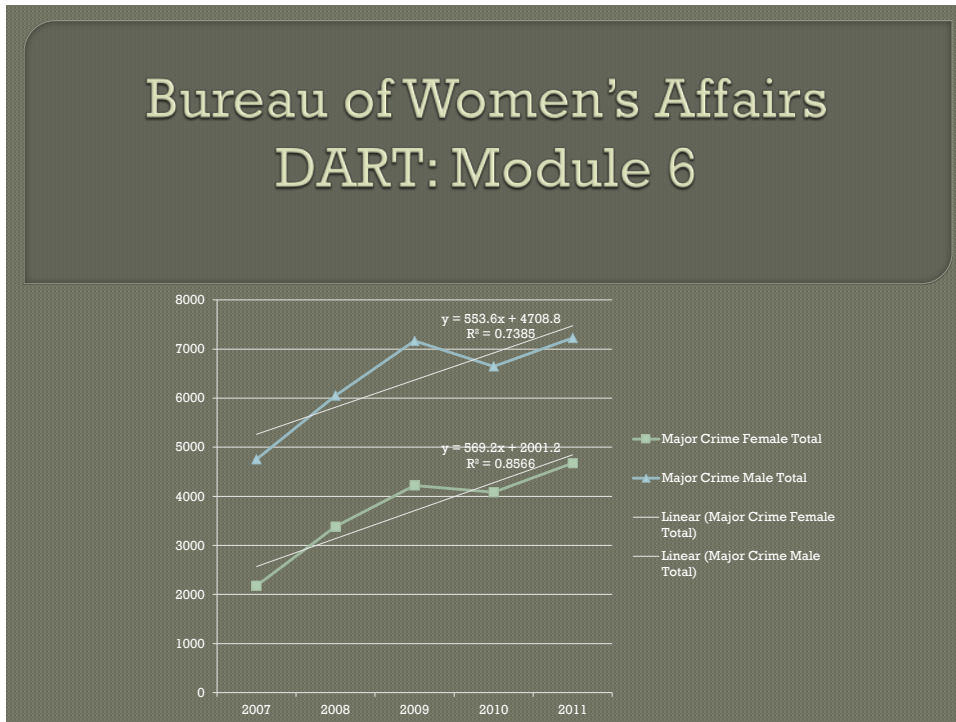
Module 6 continues along with the introduction of statistical techniques initiated in Module 5. The software package JMP IN is introduced in order to provide analytical statistical tools. The Gender Equality Observatory of Jamaica (GEOJ) again provides several Performance Indicators that are used to illustrate the need to have a baseline set of measures and how to monitor them over time. A portion of the Module is again dedicated to illustrating Excel [1] plotting techniques as well as JMP IN [4] plotting and analytical features. Some basic statistics are introduced. Examples include using JMP IN to analyze and create charts similar to those illustrated Figure 20.
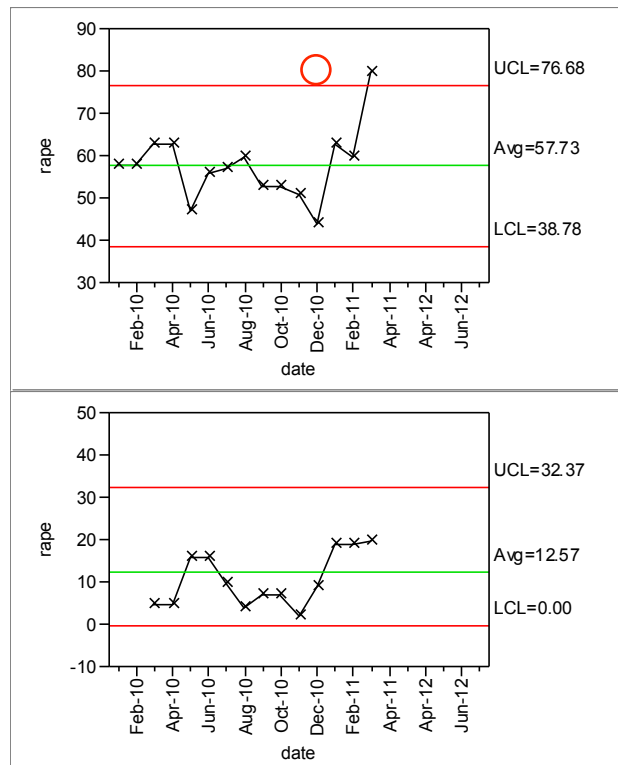
Figure 20. Individual & Moving Range Chart of Monthly Rapes

DART Modules 7, 8, 9 & 10
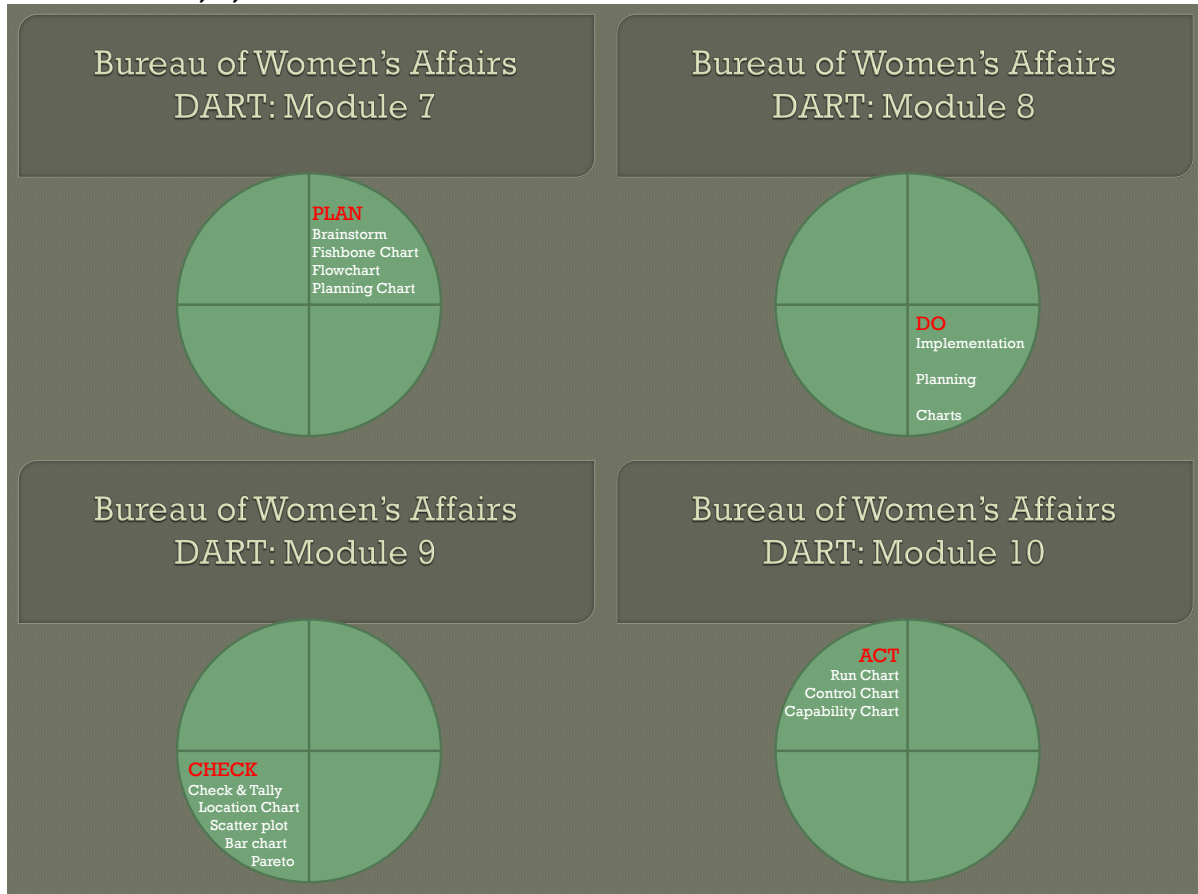
The United Nations Development Strategy for Gender in Development Programme refers to it as the PLANNING AND REVIEW CYCLES IMPLEMENTATION while the Quality Management/Process Improvement groups who use this problem solving technique refer to it as the Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) cycle. The PDCA cycle (see Figure 21) is a mechanism for planning, documenting, analyzing, implementing and verifying the impact of a plan or strategy. Modules 7-10 address the four components of the PDCA cycle and tie in tools that are used in each of the stages. Each Module outlines the key components of its associated portion of the PDCA cycle, introduces the associated tools and provides examples of its use, all with the goal of integrating the concepts of PDCA and statistics into a Gender Focal Point training regimen.

More specifically, Module 7 introduces the concept of a process, outlines the customer/supplier role in a process, and introduces Flow charts (see Figure 22), Brainstorming, C&E charts (see Figure 23) and Planning charts (see Figure 24) as tools of the Plan stage while providing links to the DO stage. The training session includes a brainstorming session relevant to the group. Module 8 reinforces the PDCA concept and the customer/supplier role in a process, while illustrating the implementation of results from the Brainstorming, C&E, Flow and Planning charts associated with the Plan session and discusses the Do stage as the implementation stage. Module 9 sees the introduction/review of the Check & Tally sheets, bar/column charts, Pareto charts while discussing various scatter plots and location charts as tools of the Check stage in PDCA cycle. Module 10 introduces and reviews runs charts, control charts and capability charts by adding action limits to existing scatter and line plots. Module 10 also discusses the need to establish baseline measures in order to monitor indicators and develop long term tracking tools to signal change. Finally, as in a continuous improvement environment, Module 10 restarts the PDCA cycle.
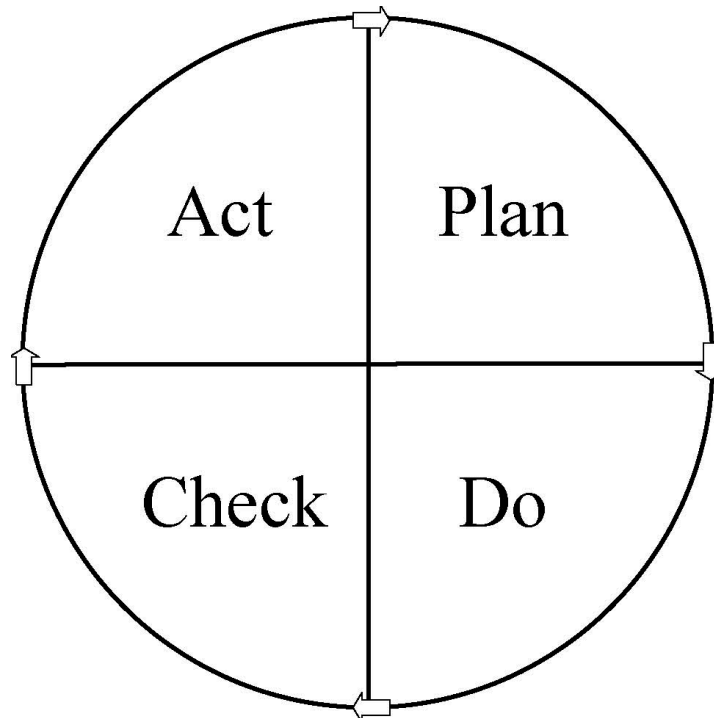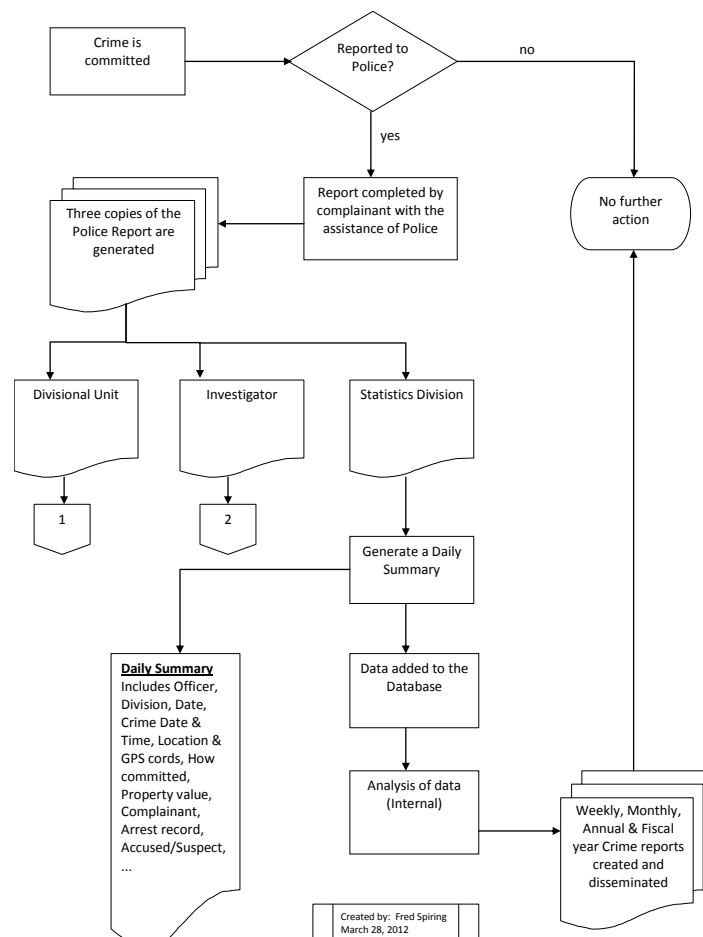
Figure 21. The Plan-Do-Check-Act cycle
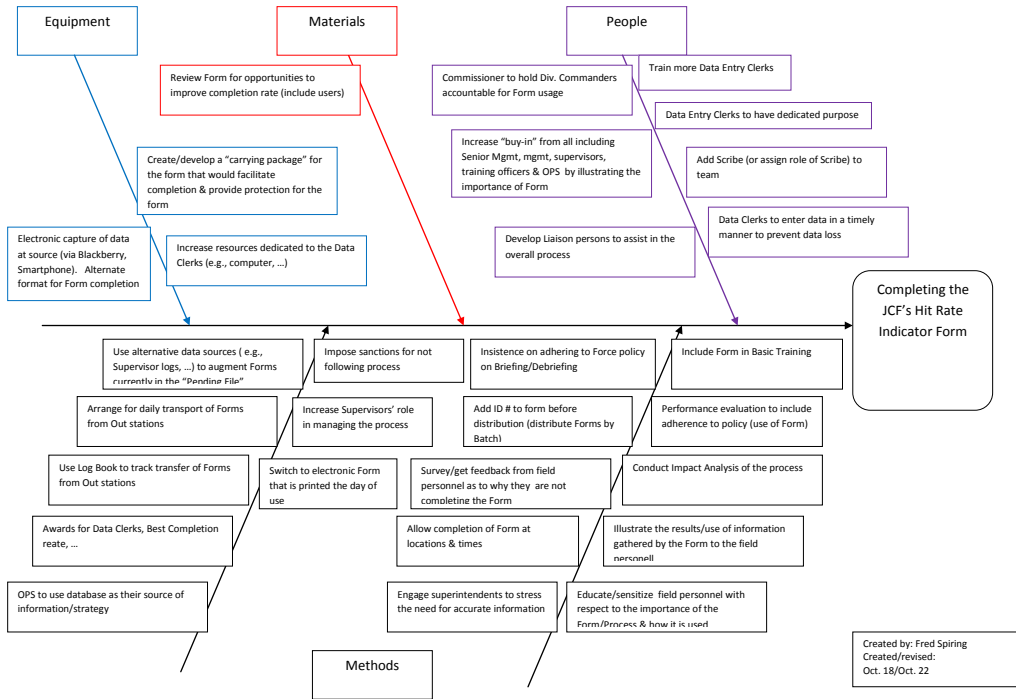

Figure 22. An Example of a Flowchart

Figure 23. An Example of a Cause & Effect chart

Figure 24. An Example of a Planning chart

IMPLEMENTATION

The 10 training Modules have been designed to be delivered either in a series of ten 2 hour (or shorter) sessions or a two day (e.g., 9am-12noon, 1pm-5pm) style format. In either case,

ample time for questions and discussion has been built into the timing. The Modules were developed to accompany a gender/gender mainstreaming training regimen, but can be delivered as stand alone. They can be easily used as an overview of statistics from a gender perspective.   The 10 PowerPoint presentations, related datasets, questionnaires and supporting material are available electronically.

"Train the Trainer" sessions for Modules 1-6 take a slightly different approach, focusing on content, delivery and understanding with an initial one day session (8:30am – 12noon, 1:00pm to 5pm) being sufficient to prepare Trainers. The BWA offers the "Modules" and "Train the Trainer" training to all Gender Focal Points and their respective Ministries, Departments and Agencies of the Jamaican Government.   The PowerPoint presentations, related datasets, questionnaires and supporting material are available from the author.

References

The United Nations Development Strategy for Gender in Development Programme, "LEARNING & INFORMATION PACK". September, 2000.

Microsoft Office 2007. Microsoft Corporation.

National Policy for Gender Equality, 2011. ISBN 978-976-610-931-8, The Bureau of Women's Affairs, Kingston, Jamaica.

JMP IN, Statistical Discovery Software. ISBN: 0-534-35966-3, SAS Institute Inc.

It Has Always Been A Man's World: The Woman As Other In The Shona And Ndebele Proverb

Jacob Mapara
Chinhoyi University of Technology, Institute of Lifelong Learning
Centre for Indigenous Knowledge and Living Heritage, Zimbabwe;

Simangenkosi Thebe
Research Fellow: UNISA, College of Human Sciences
Department of African Languages, South Africa

Abstract

The paper argues that despite assertions that have been made in some circles that women have been treated as equal to men in pre-colonial Zimbabwe, an analysis of both Shona and Ndebele proverbs yields evidence that is to the contrary. It goes on to argue that both Shona and Ndebele societies have been patriarchal and have remained so up to this day. The researchers posit that these proverbs that have continued to be taught in Zimbabwean schools have been more of a celebration of the marginalisation of women than a celebration of culture. It argues that this is so because the proverbs have entrenched in the psyche of the young learners the erroneous notion of male superiority where the woman is perceived as the other while the man is the human being. The paper further argues that the way females are presented in both Shona and Ndebele proverbs is counterproductive since it conflicts with issues of gender and equality where women are accepted as equals, and yet the proverbs present them not only as lesser human but also in some instances as sex objects.

INTRODUCTION

The study of the Shona and Ndebele/Zulu proverb has attracted the attention of several scholars; among them are Hamutyinei and Plangger (1987), Fortune (1975; 1985), Chimhundu (1980) and Pongweni (1989) well as Nyembezi (1990). These studies have tended to concentrate on classifying the proverbs according to their social function as Chimhundu does or according to their morphological as well as aesthetic function as Fortune, Pongweni, Hamutyinei and Plangger do. Devlieger (1999) has focused on how African proverbs, including the Shona and Ndebele ones can be used to pay attention to civil rights and participation of persons with disabilities in the mainstream of society (1999: 439). This study examines Shona and Ndebele proverbs with human imagery found in inventories of the Shona and Ndebele proverb such as Hamutyinei and Plangger (1987), Nyembezi (1990) and Pelling (1977) as well as from proverbs heard in general use. These earlier studies of the Shona and Ndebele proverb have motivated the current research whose point of departure is that it is a sociolinguistic study of the proverb and gender. The proverb has been defined as an important aspect of language use in society. It is prominent within the Bantu societies. The proverb can be used to actively introduce, conclude or stress a point in conversation. It can also be used by the powerful in their aspirations to control and impose their given view of life as unshakeable and acceptable (Ssetuba 2005:37). This paper builds on that foundation and examines some Shona and Ndebele proverbs to help to establish and consolidate particular kinds of identity for women and men in the Shona-Ndebele society. It thus seeks to foreground what the proverb says about the Shona and Ndebele people's sensitivity or insensitivity to females and males.

The paper argues that the Shona and Ndebele proverb, which originates in a highly patriarchal society, creates and perpetuates gender stereotypes. Stereotype has been defined as "... a set of characteristics which describe a prototype that is a typical member" (Crystal, 1991:320). Similarly, the Cambridge Learner's Dictionary (Gillard, 2001:626-627) defines stereotype as "... a fixed idea about a type of person or thing, which is often not true in reality".

Justification of the study
This study focuses on Ndebele and Shona proverbs and not on one language only. The reason for this is clear. The two languages and cultures in Zimbabwe are usually perceived as mutually exclusive due to the colonial policy of divide and rule that created a chasm between the two peoples. Most Shona have always believed that the Ndebele were always hostile and were bent on taking their cattle and women. In actual fact, the Shona themselves also raided one another for the same reasons that the Ndebele are alleged to have raided them (Schmidt 1992). The Ndebele themselves have not made the situation any better. They have also bought into the colonial lie that they were the better of the two ethnic groups. Mazarire adds on to this by observing:

We are now clear that relations between the Ndebele and their neighbours were not necessarily antagonistic all the time but sometimes mutual, even where they were indeed antagonistic the Ndebele were not always the victors (2003: 3).

These observations are important in that the present the Ndebele more as human beings and as well as people who could also be defeated. It also dispels the lie that the Shona were always at the mercy of the Ndebele.

In addition to the historical imperatives, there are also the linguistic and cultural links between the two. Linguistically they are both Bantu languages, although they do belong to different groups. Shona is in the S10 group of Bantu while Ndebele is in the S44 group. Besides all belonging to the Bantu languages family, the two also have some cultural similarities. Religiously they all believe in ancestral spirits referred to as amadlozi in Ndebele, and as midzimu among the Shona. In both groups, the family plays an important role in the primary socialization of children and both have an agricultural base that is anchored on tilling the land and supported by animal husbandry.

An analysis of the above therefore shows that a comparative analysis of how these two groups harness proverbs to entrench patriarchy is justifiable.

RESEARCH METHOD
This research used a qualitative approach. This involved text analysis as well as sampling of the proverbs for scrutiny. Because the researchers deliberately picked out some proverbs for detailed study, purposive sampling was used. In purposive sampling there is a deliberate effort by the researcher to actively select the most productive sample to answer the research question. This involves among others the development of a framework of variables that might influence an individual's contribution. It will in most cases be based on the researcher's practical knowledge of the research area in addition to the available literature and evidence from the study itself. Purposive sampling is the only viable sampling technique in obtaining information from a very specific group of people.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
This paper is informed by feminism. The crucial initiative of feminism rests on the argument that men and women are equal. It however rests on the thesis that women are unjustly and

unfairly treated by their male counterparts. Feminism is nonetheless not a homogenous movement. It has several versions that are based not only on continental basis, but also on racial ones. There is American feminism that is classified into three historical phases that are referred to as waves. The thrust of this study will not focus on the other two versions, the British and French ones, but on the American one that the researchers feel has a direct bearing on this paper because of Black Feminism that later evolved into Africana Womanism. But before moving to these, the paper would first focus on three models that relate to feminism and that attempt to explain why women are subordinated to men. These are the deficit, dominance and difference models.

These are models used in analysing language and gender differences in sociolinguistics (Thorne and Henley 1975; Talbot 1998). The deficit approach perceives the asymmetrical relations in language used by men and women and about men and women as a result of women's differences. For instance, Lakoff (1975) says that men's language is viewed as the natural one while that of women as the deviation or one reflecting deficiency from the norm. Lakoff concludes that women are socially conditioned to be different and that difference makes them deficient and unequal to men.

There are others who subscribe to the dominance approach, argue that the differences are a result of power differences between men and women (West 1975, 1984 and Fishman 1980, 1983). This model sees socialization as a crucial gender constructing process. According to this model, the girl child learns female roles and rules because she is a female while the boy learns male rules and roles because he is a male (West and Zimmerman 1987). These authorities see gender as methodical as they argue thus "… a person's gender is not simply an aspect of what one is but more fundamentally, it is something that one does and does recurrently in interaction with others" (West and Zimmerman 1983: 140). They argue that as girls learn solidarity, the boys learn dominance. That is, boys/men are socially given skills of 'dominance' while the girl/women are socially given skills that please the men and hence of subservience.

Tannen (1990) studied the American society and emphasizes the difference position. She comes to the conclusion that men and women are different but equal. For Tannen, American girls and boys, "… grow up in different worlds, therefore sex differences can be seen as culture differences and consequently cross-sex communication is seen as cross-cultural communication" (Tannen 1990: 250). Tannen's argument is based on the assumption that in cross-cultural or inter-cultural communication members from different cultures will bring their own norms and rules of communication and apply them for comprehension purposes. Tannen takes this hypothesis to gender on the assumption that women and men come from different sociolinguistic sub-cultures. The difference approach is also referred to as 'the sub-cultural' or 'two cultures approach'. Tannen further argues that if society understood these differences then men and women would be 'equal' but different in that they come from different sub-cultures.

The three models discussed above have been used on gender and language studies and they have also attracted the attention of critics. The deficit and difference models have been criticised for not realizing that the differences between men and women arise from inequality and not the other way round (Cameron, 1998 and Uchida, 1992). Secondly, the two models are silent on the issue of power in men and women interaction. Thirdly, language and gender researchers criticise the deficit model for its patriarchal tendencies that fail to recognize women and their styles as equal to men and their styles. Talbot (1990) argues that the difference model is attractive to politically moderate researchers because it is tolerant and

reconciliatory and does not put blame on anyone unlike the dominance model. In the sociolinguistic tradition, the difference model is seen as neutral while inequality is seen as a result of suppression (Cameron, 1998: 42 and Talbot, 1998: 133). The poststructuralists also question the power imbalance of the dominance approach. These models help in giving a platform to analyse feminism in proper perspective. The feminist movement which has evolved over the years has its origins way back in the 19th Century. Its progeny, Black feminism, womanism and African Womanism are the products of the third wave of feminism as it unfolded in the United States.

The first phase of the feminist movement dealt with women's basic rights, for example the right of women to vote and be elected to political office. The second phase, exemplified by the thoughts of Simone de Beauvoir in her book The Second Sex (1973) and her quote "One is not born, but rather becomes, a woman" (1973: 301), brought about the questioning of cultural and societal norms. The second wave covered the period from the 1960s through to the late 1980s. The second wave was largely dominated by among other issues those that dealt with equality, such as well as ending discrimination.

Third wave feminism began around the early 1990s. It emerged as a reaction to perceived failures of the second phase. It was as well a response to the backlash against initiatives and movements created by the second wave. Third-wave feminism challenges and seeks to avoid what it deems the second wave's essentialist definitions of femininity, which (according to them) over-emphasize the experiences of upper middle-class white women http://www.gender.cawater-info.net/knowledge_base/rubricator/feminism_e.htm. The third wave has also seen the rise of what is called by its proponents, Africana womanism, because the Blacks feel that they have suffered not only from racial bigotry at the hands of Whites, both male and female, and that they have also been victims of patriarchy.

Although there have been efforts to separate womanism, Black feminism and Africana Womanism, a detailed analysis of it shows Africana Womanism is a version of Black Feminism that has emerged in the United States where most females of colour feel that they have suffered double oppression and discrimination at the hands of Whites, both male and female, as well as patriarchy at the hands of White men and Black men. The term womanism was first coined by African American writer and feminist activist Alice Walker (Davidson and Davidson 2010: 239). She used the term in reference to a black feminist or feminist of colour who loves other women, sexually and/or non-sexually. Womanism as well appreciates and prefers women's culture although there are also expressions for the loves of individual men, sexually and/or non-sexually. It is a theory that is committed to the survival and wholeness of all people, male and female. Womanism attempts to address the otherwise separatist nature of feminism by recognizing men as partners rather than foes. The major proponent of African Womanism is Clenora Hudson-Weems.

Despite the similarities that exist between black feminism and womanism, and Africana Womanism, a major constituent in Africana Womanism is that Africana Women are expected to act in concert with male struggles (Hudson-Weems 1993: 61). It dovetails with black feminism, by moving away from the white patriarchal values posed by feminism (Hudson Weems 4). Conversely, according to Hudson-Weems, black feminism diverges from Africana Womanism because it reveals a "lack of African-centered historical and contemporary perspective [and is] unsuccessful in galvanizing the majority of African American women as feminists" to resolve problems within the black community" (Hudson-Weems 1993: 27). The main objective of the Africana Womanist is to abet in bringing to fruition the independence and authenticity of the African race (Hudson-Weems 1993: 51). Her aim is to bring all African Americans together as

one unified body that will be turn out to be perceptible to the dictatorial and racist as well as arrogant white majority.

The Africana Womanist is one who names herself (Hudson-Weems 1993: 55). She is the one who creates her identity and does not leave that task in the hands of her oppressors as has been happening for generations. The term Africana therefore refers to the ethnicity of the women whose origins are in Africa. Womanism on the other hand identifies a female of the human race, while female can include all species (Hudson-Weems 1993: 22-23). What all the above isms have shown is the engagements that women have had in an effort to have a fair playing field with their male counterparts. For the Black women of African (Africana) descent, it is also an issue of self-naming and curving out an identity for oneself as well as struggling together with fellow black man against racism as practiced by both white males and females on them. Linked to all the above are the post-structuralist models as well as the issue of gender.

THE POSTSTRUCTURALISTS MODELS

The poststructuralists include Foucault (1989), Kress (1985) and Mills (2002). These focus on individuals and diversity in society rather than groups such as males and females. For Mills, patriarchy is no longer a factor in gender and language since emphasis now falls on individuals than on groups. Mills sees three waves to do with language and gender namely, the first, second and third waves. Mills argues that the first wave was concerned with differences between females and males, in the second wave, feminists demanded equal treatment with males and the third wave is a result of criticisms of current theories that have been about white middle class women (see Bucholtz, 1999). Mills stresses that identity is not given but is negotiated through handling power relations during interactions. Mills further argues that patriarchy is no longer an issue thus he discredits the difference and the dominance models. Mills' argument shows that the poststructuralists recognize power in discourse but their approach recognises shifts in different discourses by individuals (Crawford, 1995), rather than in groups as in the dominance model (Kitzinger, 1991). The poststructuralists argue that individuals when managing different subjects in different contexts create identities. Foucault stresses that identities such as feminine and masculine are socially constructed. They point out that power is also created in discourse and is not a property of the so-called powerful such as men and the rich. The present researchers feel that these critical discourse analysts are relevant here only to some extent as far as they argue that history and society are crucial factors in delimiting gender. However, their argument that power is not a property of the powerful groups but that it is negotiated in interactions is not fully African. Such negotiations may have been reached in the Western world contexts but the same cannot be said of a patriarchal community like the Shona-Ndebele one under consideration here. Patriarchy is still very relevant among the Shona-Ndebele since people are socially grouped by gender. Furthermore, this culture has pregiven elements where people, especially women are concerned (Gombe, 1998; Hodza 1987:45; Chiwara, 1980:266-67; Mhondoro, 1980:265; Ranger, 1993; Chinyowa, 1997). What is true of Shona culture can also be said to be true of Ndebele. If there are differences, these are minor. Performed or negotiated gender identities as in critical discourse analysis are rejected or ridiculed for going against given the grain. For example, independent professional chief executive Shona-Ndebele women are often disparaged for doing what men do (see Mashiri, 2002; Chitauro, 2002) and are said to have slept their way to the top. They are not appreciated. What this shows is that poststructuralist ideas may be found among some Shona-Ndebele professional women, but this culture is still a practicing patriarchy where men dominate. Some cultural institutions such as the proverb under consideration in this paper promote male dominance. Thus, the Shona-Ndebele context suggests dominance and deficit as the main factors in affecting differences between sexes. The

difference, however, is found to be useful to some extent since it does not show that socialisation is dictated by power and dominance and that difference is a result of dominance.

What comes clearly out of all these theories and despite the fact that Africana womanism attempts to present men as equals of women and that women should join men in their struggles, the reality on the ground and in Zimbabwe for that matter is that women are still treated as second class citizens and as people who are there to serve the interests of men and not their own. This is clearly borne out by marriages that were conducted in the pre-colonial periods where they served more as diplomatic fronts than romantic relations. This is clearly captured by Vengeyi (2014: 64) who gives an example of Jezebel who got married to Ahab for political reasons. He states:

> *However, what we need to realise is that marriages were part of the diplomatic system. This is why kings always married (sic) daughters of kings of surrounding nations. The wives were sort of ambassadors of their own countries.*

These words are quite telling. It is clear that since time immemorial, women have always served the interests of men. Men, it appears, have never treated women as equals. Here in Zimbabwe, there is the legend of Makate and Nehoreka. The story is similar to the biblical one of Samson and Delilah (Judges 16: 1-31). Nehoreka who desired to take Makate's land tried to invade the territory. He was overcome because Makate had powerful medicine (makona). Nehoreka learnt his lesson but did not give up. He encouraged his sister who was very beautiful. Makate fell for her and when she was with Makate she learnt all his secrets and where he kept his makona. After she had armed herself with this medicine, she escaped and gave these to her brother. When Nehoreka invaded again, Makate realised that he had been tricked by his wife. He fled with his people http://oxfordindex.oup.com/view/10.1093/oi/authority.20110803100227563. In this legend, it is clear that a woman is used to serve the needs of a man, and she does so willingly. She is subordinate to a man. Related to this is the case of the Mutasa Dynasty. There was in pre-colonial Mutasa chieftainship, a practice where daughters of royal families were given areas of jurisdiction. Any man who got married to any one of these women was by extension meant to serve the interests of the Chief and the Mutasa royalty in general. While on the surface it would appear as if women had power, in reality, the power that they wielded was that which enabled them to serve their male kith and kin. In the light of the above it becomes clear that it is naive to romanticise the past and present pre-colonial men as having treated their women with respect and saw them as equals. If anything, they used women and also feared them as 'foreigners' who had the power to destabilise their adopted families. They were and still are treated with suspicion. These issues that are historically embedded have for a long time been buried under the onslaught on colonialism and its influence on male Blacks. They show that while Black men discriminated against their female counterparts, their segregation and abuse of women only worsened as a result of colonialism. Colonialism made Black males not only subservient to white men but also to the white women. In these circumstances, the issue of gender becomes more complex.

GENDER IDENTITY

The current researchers realise that in social life people are categorized into social structures. These structures assign them to specific social duties and roles. With that in mind, the researchers examine how the Shona and Ndebele proverb helps to establish and consolidate particular kinds of identity for men and women (gender) in the society. Linguists normally perceive gender as a grammatical category. However, in this paper gender is taken as a social category. Gender is also often confused with sex (that is female and male). While sex is

biologically founded, "Gender by contrast is socially constructed; it is learned" (Talbot, 1998:7). Sex basically refers to biological differences as well as genetic ones between men and women. Gender on the other hand is about functions at the household, community, and national levels. It is embedded in each society's social, cultural, economic and political systems.

The current researchers assert that gender is an important division among the Shona and the Ndebele just as it is in all societies. The Shona and Ndebele proverbs examined here demonstrate how being born Shona-Ndebele male or female has far-reaching ramifications. It can affect the way people use language or the way language is used about them. It can also affect whether one is going to be sent to school or not, or determine the type of school one is sent to. This paper looks at the social divisions of gender and the part the Shona and Ndebele languages in general and the proverb in particular plays in establishing and maintaining these divisions. As Talbot (1998:14) specifies, "Language simply reflects society, so that social divisions on gender grounds are reflected in patterns of language use." The current researchers posit that the proverbs also play a complex part alongside other social practices and institutions in creating, reflecting and reinforcing gender divisions in the society. Shona and Ndebele proverbs like all proverbs are said to be coined from the experiences of people as they observe life, and for this reason, they are described as statements of general truths (Chimhundu, 1980). Wolfgang defines the proverb as a short, generally known sentence of folk, which contains wisdom, truths, morals and traditional views in a metaphorical, fixed and memorisable form and which is handed down from generation to generation (2004: 1). Pelling (1977:5) concurs with the above words by observing that a proverb is usually economic in its use of language, and often rhythmical in formation, making it thus easy to remember and say. The imagery in proverbs includes that of human beings as well as that of the flora and fauna in their environment. The proverb has two meanings, namely the literal that relies on the imagery in the proverb, and the culturally deeper meaning or interpretative meaning that is generalized. For example, the Ndebele proverb:

1. Amagundwane amanengi kawalamlindi.
   Literal (Lit): Many rats have no burrow.
   Interpretation (Int): There must always be a leader in a group or one to take responsibility.

In order to highlight what the Shona and Ndebele proverbs say about these people's sensitivity to females and males, the current researchers analysed Shona and Ndebele proverbs with human imagery. These proverbs show how the Shona-Ndebele males and females are socialised. The researchers deliberately compared such proverbs on four plains, namely women as witches, as sex objects and inferior and women as foolish. By woman is here meant females of all ages. This article has benefited a lot from insights from the deficit, dominance and difference and the poststructuralists models. The word other is here used to mean a being who is perceived as less human.

What a proverb is?
A proverb represents a succinct, metrically well thought-out, figurative expression. It is capable for polysemantic use according to the principle of analogy. E.g. the proverb "Gudo hariramwirwi munda" (You cannot give up your field because of a baboon) is interesting not because of its express meaning but by that it may be applied to other similar situations. The subject of the statement is considered in the light of a generally accepted fact expressed by a proverb. This renders it ideological and emotional. The proverb is in addition to what has been presented above, the epitome of a people's philosophy (Abayomi

https://www.academia.edu/3396925/Philosophy_in_African_Proverbs). It shows the ability of not only the Shona and Ndebele but all humanity to express their inner most thoughts, feelings and sensations through a keen and very sharp sense of imagination. It is through the application of proverbs that a speaker is able to touch some nerve, or very inner spot of some people. It is part and parcel of every community, whether oral or literary. Proverbs are the depository of each people's wisdom. Through them one can read back into deem mists of history as in proverbs like Pakaputsika dende rine mukaka (There was the breaking of a gourd full of milk).

Proverbs fall under what Barber calls oral texts together with other forms of literature (2007: 66-7). As regards proverbs alone, she points out that the quotedness of proverbs is a signal that they are utterances that are constituted to solicit for comments, analysis, and assessment. The assessment does not only focus on the performance, but also on the text itself, since the oral text is perceived as a detachable autonomous formulation that has to be captured and grounded by the user but which is defined, by the users themselves, precisely as utterance which escapes total definition by its context (Barber 2007: 77). These views are quite interesting especially when applied to the Zimbabwean context. What she observes does not always follow because when the proverbs that are taught in schools are interpreted, this is done out of context and the images that they carry are usually the same that are used to interpret them. This has a bearing in some instances where some proverbs have images of women. For example, Mukadzi wemumwe ndiambuya (Another man's wife, is one's mother-in-law). In most cases teachers would interpret it to mean exactly that, that another man's wife is the other's mother in-law. Students hardly think beyond the fact that the proverb when used in a context where one is being chastised for theft may mean that s/he has to respect private property. They hardly think this way, because most teachers use the images that are given in the proverbs to literary explain the meanings carried in the proverbs. This has the sad result that the images of women that are used in these proverbs are perceived as reflections of women or how they should be treated. It is these images that the researchers attempt to bring to the attention of other readers so that they realize that the Zimbabwean school curriculum for Shona and Ndebele has perpetuated the notion and belief that women are inferior and are passive objects that only come to life after being switched on by men.

The proverb in the Zimbabwean school curriculum
The teaching of the proverb to students in the Zimbabwean schools starts as early as the third grade. In fact, most parents are bombarded by homework on proverbs that some of them can hardly understand, let alone interpret. The interpretation that is given to most of these proverbs is usually literal, with most meanings coming from the images that are in the same proverbs. The following proverb in Shona would serve as a very good example:

> *Chembere mukadzi, hazvienzani nekurara mugota*
> *(Literal: It is better to have an elderly woman for a wife than to sleep alone.*
> *Interpretation/meaning: It is better to have something that is sub-standard than have nothing (Half a loaf is better than none).*

Most teachers explain this proverb using the literal meaning. It is this meaning that gets entrenched in the minds of most students that they grow up with the image of women as sex objects no matter their age. This has adverse effect on male-female relations because at the end schools which are secondary socialisation agents end up entrenching gender stereotypes instead of getting rid of them. There is therefore need to revise the way proverbs are taught in schools. They have to be taught in context, not out of context as is currently the case at all levels from the third grade in primary school, to Ordinary level where proverbs are even

examined in the school General Certificate of Education (GCE). It may also become necessary to prescribe the types of proverbs that have to be taught. This is so because those that may lead to gender stereotyping will have to be left until at later stages where pupils would be in a better position to understand that the use of certain images is there only to help drive home a given idea or ideas.

Women as witches
Generally women among the Shona and Ndebele are perceived as witches. In fact, the perception is so entrenched that when people talk of witches or pupils in schools are asked to draw a witch (muroyi/umthakathi) they would draw an image of a woman usually riding on the back of a hyena, and at times accompanied by owls. This view of women as witches is prevalent the world over, because the talk and debate is always on witchcraft and not wizardry, a form of witchcraft that is performed by men. This means that the focus is more on women and how they are believed to be practitioners and perpetrators of this science that is largely seen as evil. The conception of women as witches is captured in some proverbs that are found among both the Shona and the Ndebele. The following proverbs bring this out.

1. Nhenha isingabi ingoroya (A beautiful girl who is not a thief is a witch).
2. Mukadzi wenhaka rova wakafunga, tsvimbo wakakupa asi gona wakasara naro (If you think of beating up an inherited wife you have to consider that decision carefully, she gave you the staff, but she kept her horn for witchcraft).
3. Mai kuba, mukunda kuroya (While the mother is a thief, the daughter is a witch).
4. Rakaipa nderokuroya, rokuvhima ishave roumhare (What is bad [alien spirit] is that of witchcraft while that one for hunting is of expertise).
5. Umswane wembabala kawungeniswa ekhaya

In the first proverb, the emphasis is not on the woman's physical beauty, but on theft and witchcraft. This proverb makes it very clear that among the Shona and the Ndebele physical beauty in a woman is not that which is strongly celebrated. It is even in some instances viewed as a bad omen since beautiful women are viewed as dangerous because they can cause calamities to befall those who associate with them. They are never trusted because they are viewed as people who can be either thieves or witches. Today an additional vice has been added to beautiful women – they can be prostitutes. The effect of the imagery of women as witches and thieves is that males will view women as a necessary evil that they only have to get married to because they need children as well as recreation. In fact, the perception of women as bad if not completely evil is underlined by the car sticker that reads, "If God created something better than a woman, he kept it for himself." The proverb goes on to reinforce the generally held view among men of women as witches. In Zimbabwe's Mashonaland West Province there is a town called Karoi (Small/Little witch). The coat of arms of this town is that of a witch riding on a broomstick. While the idea of witches and broomsticks is western, because for Zimbabwe witches are associated with hyenas and owls, the most important aspect to note about this coat of arms is that it has the image of an old woman thus further entrenching the misconception that women, especially old and ugly ones are witches.

The second one cautions men that they have to be careful in the way they deal with inherited wives. The point that comes out strongly is that one has to consider carefully the potential consequences if he decides to chastise her, especially by hitting her. This comes out in the idea that even though she gave her new husband her late husband's tsvimbo (multipurpose stick for walking and fighting) as a public sign that she was choosing him as her new husband, she did not hand over her horn of witchcraft (gona). The implication of the proverb is therefore that

the first husband may have died after witchcraft had been administered to him after he had disappointed his wife. The effect of this proverb is that it tends to stigmatise widows as witches and therefore minimises their chances of getting married again for those who would possibly opt for this.

In the third proverb, the perception of women that is presented is that both mothers and their daughters are not good people. Mothers are presented as bad examples to their daughters such that the result is that their daughters become worse than them. In the imagery used in the proverb, while a mother becomes a thief, which is heavily frowned upon for a woman to do, her daughter becomes a witch. The daughters become worse than thieves when compared to their mothers because they can do more harm than their mothers since they become thieves of a special kind – they can steal lives if they so choose.

The fourth proverb highlights the differences between males and females. Traditionally, males are hunters, and among them are found expert hunters (vahombarume). Females on the other hand are mostly perceived as witches. The result of these perceptions is that women are looked upon with fear because they are considered to be potential life takers at worst, or people who can bring harm at best. The implication of the imagery is that it entrenches the generally held stereotypical thinking that men are better women since according to this proverb they are providers. This is so because men go out and hunt for animals whose flesh is meant to feed people, while women are less human because they bring harm and death into the world through their perceived nefarious acts of witchcraft.

The fifth proverb shows that there are very few proverbs among the Ndebele that deal with the issue of witchcraft. What however, comes out clearly is that the Ndebele, like their Shona counterparts also perceive women as witches. This proverb is about advice that is given to a young man who has fallen in love with a young woman whom he intends to get married to. He is being advised to first find out about her parents looking for information on whether her parents are not witchcraft practitioners. The fear is that if one or all of her parents dabbles in witchcraft, then the suitor's family will perish since she will bring with her the science of witchcraft. This proverb does not openly use images that refer to a woman as a witch as happens among the Shona. However, a closer analysis of the idea reveals that a woman has the potential to become a witch echoes through it.

Women as sex objects
Men the world over have traditionally viewed women as sex objects that are there for their sexual gratification. This comes out clearly even in everyday language where men talk of women as sex objects. It is common to hear a man say to a colleague, 'Musikana uya ndakazomuisa' (I finally inserted [my male organ into] her). These words give the impression of the woman as a passive object in the whole sexual act. There is also a song by an urban groover in Zimbabwe Crystal Crystals who sings, 'Toyi yangu, bhebhi yangu' (My toy, my babe). These examples serve to point out that women are perceived as sex objects that are there for the enjoyment of men.

The idea of women as sex objects is captured in the proverbs that follow:
6. Mukadzi mumwe inhekwe yomubindwa ikakochekera pamuti unosara wava mukuna (One wife is like a snuff container that you hang on your neck, if it gets entangled in a thicket, you will be left naked).
7. Kunyenga mvana ita mbiri, ukarambwa neimwe unosara neimwe (Propose love to two single mothers so that if one ditches you, you will remain with another.

8. Kuramba mvana hunge uine mhandara (To reject a single mother it is because you have a maid/virgin).
9. Nzenza mumvuri asvika anowosa zuva (A sexually lose woman is a tree shade, anyone who passes by gets protection from the sun).
10. Ikhakasi limuka nomoya (The thistle is carried by the wind).

The sixth and seventh proverbs highlight the importance of polygamy or having multiple sexual partners to men. The sixth proverb gives the impression and warning that if one was to lose a wife, he would be in a very precarious and dangerous predicament if he had one wife. It would be better therefore if a man was to have more than one wife. This is collaborated by the image of nakedness (mukuna) that is given in the proverb. Therefore, the only way a man can avoid this potential nakedness is for him to have more than one wife or lover/girlfriend.

The seventh proverb encourages extramarital affairs among married men, and several affairs among the single ones. The term mvana in Shona is used to refer to an unmarried woman who has had a child/children out of wedlock. The situation of mvana therefore makes them potential targets for men who would be in search of both short and medium term sexual relationships. Men are therefore encouraged to have affairs with at least two single mothers or any single women who may not be mothers. The purpose is to ensure that a man never runs short of a sexual partner besides his wife/wives. Interestingly, there are no proverbs that have images where women are encouraged to have other lovers besides their husbands or the ones they are engaged to.

In the eighth proverb, a young woman who is without child, most likely a virgin, has her value over the one who has a child or children highlighted. The idea behind the image is that of one who is in pristine condition, one who has not been tempered with. In short, men enjoy deflowering virgins even if they may not be virgins themselves. The underlying message that however comes out of this same proverb is that for sexual satisfaction, in the absence of a maid/virgin, a single mother is second best.

The proverb Nzenza mumvuri asvika anowosa zuva (A sexually lose woman is a tree shade, anyone who passes by gets protection from the sun) buttresses the value of women as sex objects in the eyes of men. Nzenza in Shona is a term that is used to refer to a woman or women who cannot turn down sexual advances from any man. Her readiness to accept any man who approaches her for his sexual gratification is what has led to her being compared to a tree whose shade anyone can take refuge in. The refuge in the case of this woman comes in the form of a man's sexual gratification on the part of the man who would have bedded her.

The tenth proverb is similar to the eleventh one. Although it may describe a person who is easily swayed by other people's opinions, it is normally used to refer to a woman who has a weakness for men. The fact that men see a weakness in her and thus approach her for sexual favours shows that she is viewed by these same men as a sex symbol.

Women as foolish
At times women are portrayed in images that entrench in the minds of the hearers, especially young ones, as people who are downright foolish and are therefore buffoons and imbeciles. They are presented as behaving in ways that defy logic and are a potential threat to their future and that of others. The folly that women are perceived to have is highlighted in the following proverbs and also in the explanations to their meanings:
11. Ibele lendlela kalivuthwa (The grain corn that is on the path doesn't ripen).

12. Kakikho ntombi yagana inyamazana (No girl fell in love with an animal).
13. Usenga inkomo, asenge inkonyane (He milks the cow and then the calf).
14. Kushaya nzero kwemhandara kupfumbira sadza chibhakira (It is lack of wisdom for a maid to threaten sadza with her fist).
15. Mafutura avakatanga kuturikidza svinga nechirongo (It is folly for those who came first to put a pitcher on a bundle of wood on their heads).

The above proverbs show women as dimwits. They leave a lot to be desired. In fact, proverb eleven warns young women against giving themselves cheaply to men because they will at the end fail to get husbands. The woman who gives herself cheaply to men is compared to a grain of corn that has fallen on the path. It is folly for a young woman to be like that grain of corn. While the proverb is but just a warning, it is important to note that proverbs are products of observations that some people would have made over long periods. It is a result of these observations that men may have concluded that women have a propensity for folly because they at times give themselves cheaply to men and the result is that at the end they fail to secure marriage partners.

The twelfth proverb sees folly in a young woman who waits for Mr. Right to come her way before she commits herself to marriage. The meaning of the proverb is that the young woman who waits for the ideal husband will wait forever because such people do not exist. The message that is given in the proverb is that it is those women who wait who are foolish because they fail to realise and understand that ideal men only exist in people's fantasies. The proverb makes it appear as if it is only young women who are foolish for waiting for Mr. Right, yet there are also some young men who also wait for their ideal women but unfortunately for them these do not turn up.

The target of the thirteenth proverb is a man who has sexual relations with a woman and her daughter. However, the people who are portrayed as foolish are the mother and daughter because they are going out with the same man. The folly of the women comes out in the sense that obviously one of them knows that the other one is going out with a particular man. If it is the mother, it is the daughter who would be highlighting the height of folly if she goes out with her mother's boyfriend. The same is equally true if the mother also goes out with her daughter's lover.

It is important to note that for proverb fourteen, women are not mentioned by name, but culturally it is known that women carry bundles of firewood as well as fetch water for household use. The proverb therefore portrays women as people who become overconfident on matters that require caution. Instead of carrying each of these two separately, the woman is being presented displaying the height of her folly when she combines the two unrelated loads, one which is easily breakable (the water pitcher), and the other that is not (the bundle of firewood). Like in the other proverbs above, this one goes a long way in highlighting the fact that this world is dominated by men because the images that are carried in the proverbs prove this. They have the effect of showing women not only as foolish but also as inferior as is shown in the next segment.

Women as inferior to men
The idea of the inferiority of women in short means that men or most men are of the opinion that they are better beings than women whom they label as less human. In Shona and Ndebele culture women are viewed as inferior to men. It is not uncommon to hear men ask one another, 'Vakadzi vanhu here?' (Are women human beings?). Similarly among the Ndebele, the person in a family who is considered to be the real Ndebele is the man who is head of the house. In

fact, in both cultures, women are seen as perpetually children. As a result of this perception several proverbs were coined that present women as inferior to men.

16. Chakadya ndebvu dzevakadzi ndichowo chakadya mazamu evarume (What ate the women's beards also ate the men's breasts).
17. Murume ijongwe rinofa richiita (A man is a cock, he continues to have sexual intercourse even in old age until he dies).
18. Mwanarume ihona yeutare (A boy child is like a bone of iron).
19. Kakuqhalaqhala lehlula isidwaba (No cocksure girl has beaten the skin skirt).
20. Iliba lendoda kalaziwa (The grave of a man is not known).
21. Inxele kaliwubusi umuzi (A fist does not build a home)
22. Khala mfazi ongazalanga (Cry barren/childless woman)
23. Amankonyane akhethwa kubonina (The calves are chosen from the midst of their mothers)

Proverb sixteen is on the surface innocent. It is referring to the fact that men generally grow beards while women grow breasts. Unfortunately this biological and genetic difference has been exploited by men who take these natural differences to mean that men are superior to women.

The seventeenth proverb does not use any female image. It in fact uses the male one. It portrays males as biologically superior to women, and therefore are the 'real' human beings because they get to their deaths whilst scientifically being sexually active and reproductive unlike women whose reproductive period ends around forty-five years. Men have interpreted this to mean that they are therefore better than women because the women's reproductive span is short-lived.

In the eighteenth proverb, the boy child is compared to a bone of processed iron. Iron was very important in the Early Iron Age since it played a significant role agricultural revolution in pre-colonial Africa. As a result of iron, populations grew and those who could control the production of iron became very powerful and rich. Therefore the comparison of the boy child to iron means that he is perceived as one of the mainstays of the family as compared to the girl child who would get married and is described in another proverb as a caster seed that scatters. She therefore does not build the family. She contributes towards the growth of another family, not her own. This use of the image that compares the boy child to a bone of iron has led most people to consider the girl child as less important when compared to the boy. This therefore means that even boys would see themselves as superior to their sisters.

Proverb nineteen is basically about men always celebrating a young woman's loss of independence when she gets married. The proverb means that it is marriage that terms a confident and 'wild' young woman. The fact that in the explanation of this proverb a woman is referred to as 'wild' and 'young' means that she is being described in animalistic terms that she is presented as inferior and base. She needs to be tamed so that she at least understands and appreciates a human being, who in this case is the man.

The proverb Iliba lendoda kalaziwa (The grave of a man is not known) means that the role of a man is that of supporting and defending his family and ethnic group. It therefore means that since it was considered honourable among men for one to die in battle, to die at home at an active age for a male was viewed as having died as a woman. This was especially so if one died in a raid. According to this proverb, women are the ones who were supposed to die at home

because they did not have the skills or the courage to face the enemy in the field of battle. This was so because women were considered as inferior.

The twenty-first proverb is used in reference to an abusive husband. The sense behind the proverb is that real men talk to their wives. It is women who are driven by emotions and not reason who end resorting to violence or verbal abuse. In short, the proverb is stating that one would be lowering himself to a status similar to that of a woman if he resorts to the use of fists to solve his domestic problems. The proverb is also used to encourage men to avoid taking advice from their wives because they are not considered part of the family. In fact, among the Ndebele and the Shona a woman is considered a foreigner in her own family. The Budya of Mutoko in Mashonaland East province go even further. When a man's wife dies, her remains are interred at her parents' home, and not at her new home that she would have built with her husband. Among the Ndebele, the woman's being a foreigner even in her own home is made clear in the statement Umfazi ngumuntu wokuza. The Shona also state this idea of the woman's being a foreigner through the words, Mukadzi mutorwa. Another pointer to the wife's being a foreigner is highlighted by the fact that children take their father's family name and totem.

Proverb twenty-two is about a woman who is being laughed at by society because she is childless. If she had children, her children would have helped in her hour of need. It is important to note here that 'society' is largely patriarchal, thus it is therefore men who laugh at women who are perceived to be unable to conceive. The men always blame women for failure to conceive even if they are the ones who may be at fault. This perception of females as largely barren has led a lot of men to view women as inferior.

The twenty-third proverb deals with the issue of courtship. It compares young women to calves that are assessed in their kraal. The idea behind this proverb is that when a young man goes out looking for a suitable marriage partner, he usually approaches the young woman at her parents' home and makes his intentions clear. In the Ndebele tradition, such a young man would get the approval of the targeted young woman's parents. The approval was given even if the woman was not interested in the suitor. The idea of women as inferior comes out in the fact that the woman is denied a chance to make her own choice. She therefore becomes an unwilling partner whose feelings and views are not worth considering.

CONCLUSION
The discussion has demonstrated that although the Ndebele and Shona proverbs' role is to mediate social relations and reflect on Ndebele-Shona culture, they end entrenching gender roles and stereotypes. The paper established that the Ndebele-Shona institution of the proverb treats males and females differently. The differences are seen in the categories that have been discussed above. These categories are not exhaustive and they are interwoven. The imagery that is used in these proverbs is heavily tilted in favour of the males who are shown as dominant and superior, which makes them 'different' from their female counterparts. The females on the other hand are portrayed negatively and in a manner that does not make most young women and girls appreciate their uniqueness as well as the positive contributions that they can make for the betterment of other people's lives. Proverbs with male imagery generally present males positively and as adventurous and brave fighters, for example, Iliba lendoda kalaziwa (The grave of a man is not known) and Kufa kwemurume kubuda ura (A man dies by being disembowelled). These examples and many others used about the males in this paper give and celebrate male attributes such as virility, bravery and being superior. On the other hand the female imagery used portrays the females as sex objects, inferior and as witches. They are also presented as people who are there to be defended and are not to be listened to. Besides these, women are also presented as foolish. The imagery that society uses also

portrays the females as people who have a deficiency. It is this perceived deficiency that makes the males to categorise and label them as different and inferior when compared to their male counterparts. Women are almost always portrayed negatively and mainly in a subordinate and objective position. It is this portrayal of women that makes the researchers to conclude that the position and perception of women is already predetermined by a Ndebele-Shona patriarchal society that respects men more than it does women. For example, the Shona proverb musha mukadzi determines what the woman's role should be or is in the home, while it is silent on what is expected of the man's role in that same home. The research has established that women are viewed as passive objects that are there for men and they only become active when activated by men. This is made clear in the proverbs that deal with the females and their sexuality. They have no control over it but it is there for men. The following proverbs make this clear: Kunyenga mvana ita mbiri, ukarambwa neimwe unosara neimwe (Propose love to two single mothers so that if one ditches you, you will remain with another) and Amankonyane akhethwa kubonina (The calves are chosen from the midst of their mothers)

All in all, the researchers conclude that Ndebele-Shona proverbs with human imagery socially give skills of dominance to boys/males while the girls/females are given skills that please the men and hence of subservience and inferiority. The researchers found out that this is possible because as Cameron (1985: 2) observed on the English language, the Ndebele-Shona proverb, which is an aspect of the Ndebele and Shona languages, is part of patriarchy and it thus plays a significant role in maintaining male power.

References

Abayomi, O. Philosophy in African Proverbs.

https://www.academia.edu/3396925/Philosophy_in_African_Proverbs Accessed on 09 December 2014.

Barber, K. 2007. The Anthropology of Texts, Persons and Publics. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

Bucholtz, M. 1996. "Black Feminist Theory and African American women's linguistic practice". In Bergvall, Bing and Freed 1996.

Cameron, D. 1985. Feminism and Linguistic Theory. London and Basingstoke:

Macmillan Press.

Cameron, D. 1998. The Feminist Critique of Language: A Reader. London: Routeledge.

Chimhundu, H. 1980. Shumo-Tsumo and Socialization. Zambezia 8 (1): 37-51.

Chimhundu, H. 1987. Language, Literature and Sex stereotypes. Paper presented at the

PWPA Annual Conference, Siavonga. Zambia.

Chitauro, B. 2002. Gender Sensitivity in Language use: A Lexicographical and Corpus-

based Study of Words in Context. Unpublished PhD. thesis. Oslo: University of Oslo.

Chiwara, R. 1980. Umhandara hwako Ruvimbo. In Haasbroek, J. (Editor). Nduri

dzeNhango dzomuZimbabwe. Gweru: Mambo Press. Pp 266-67.

Crawford, M. 1995. Talking Difference: On Gender and Language. London: Sage.

Crystal, D. 1991. The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language (reprint). Cambridge:

CUP.

Davidson, M. and Davidson S. 2010. "Perspectives on Womanism, Black Feminism, and

Africana Womanism" In African American Studies Volume: Introducing Ethnic Studies Series, ed. Jeanette R. Davidson. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, Pp 239-259.

De Beauvoir, S. 1973. The Second Sex. New York: Vintage Books.

Devlieger, P.J., 2010. Frames of Reference in African Proverbs on Disability. In

International Journal of Disability, Development and Education.

http://www.pdfserve.informaworld.com/88616_788609065_713671091.pdf Accessed 05 September 2010.

Firth, G. 1993. Women, Writing and Language: Making the Silences Speak. In

Richardson, D. and Robinson, V. (Eds) Thinhking Feminist: Key Concepts in Women's Studies. New York: The Guilford Press. Pp 151-176.

Fortune, G. 1975-6. Form and imagery in Shona proverbs. Zambezia 4 (2): 27-55.

Fortune, G. 1985. Shona Grammatical Constructions Volume II. Harare: Mercury Press.

Gaidzanwa, R. 1985. Images of Women in Zimbabwean Literature. Harare: College

Press.

Gillard, P. 2001. (Senior commissioning editor) Cambridge Learner's Dictionary. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gombe, J.M. 1998. Tsika dzaVaShona. Harare: College Press.

Hamutyinei, M.A. & Plangger, A.B. 1987. Tsumo-Shumo: Shona Proverbial Lore and

Wisdom. Gweru: Mambo Press.

Hodza, A.C. 1987. Ugo Hwamadzinza aVaShona. Harare: Mercury Press.

Hudson-Weems, C. 1993. Africana Womanism: Reclaiming Ourselves. Troy: Bedford

Publishers, INC.

Kress, G. 1985. Linguistic Processes in Sociocultural Practices. Victoria: Deakin

University Press.

Malmkjaer, K. 1991. Language and Gender. In The Linguistics Encyclopaedia. Edited by K. Malmkjaer. London and New York: Routledge.

Mashiri, P. & Warinda, C. 1999. Dudziramutauro re"A" level. Gweru: Mambo Press.

Mazarire, G. 2003. "Who are the Ndebele and the Kalanga in Zimbabwe?" Paper Prepared for

Konrad Adenuer Foundation Project on 'Ethnicity in Zimbabwe' November.

http://ir.uz.ac.zw/jspui/bitstream/10646/314/1/Mazarire-Ndebele-and-Kalanga.pdf Accessed on 04 December 2014.

Mhondoro, K. 1980. Ndiko kunonzi kunyengwa here? In Haasbroek, J (Editor). Nduri

dzeNhango dzomuZimbabwe. Gweru: Mambo Press. Pp 265-66.

Nyota, S. 1999. Dudziramutauro re"O" level. Harare: Academic Books.

Nyota, S. & Mapara, J. 2007. Language as Indigenous Knowledge. Cape Town:

CASAS.

Nyembezi, C.L.S. 2000. Zulu Proverbs. Pietermaritzburg: Shuter and Shooter.

Oxford University. Nehoreka Learns His Enemy's Secret. In A Dictionary of African

Mythology. http://oxfordindex.oup.com/view/10.1093/oi/authority.20110803100227563 Accessed on 08 December 2014.

Pelling, J. 2000. Ndebele Proverbs and Other sayings. Salisbury: Longman.

Pongweni, A.J.C. 1989. Figurative Language in Shona Discourse. Gweru: Mambo Press.

Richardson, D. 1993. Sexuality and Male Dominance. In Richardson, D. and Robinson,

V. (Eds) Thinhking Feminist: Key Concepts in Women's Studies. New York: The Guilford Press. Pp 74-98.

Schmidt, E. 1992. Peasants, traders, and wives: Shona women in the history of Zimbabwe,

1870-1939. Harare: Baobab Books.

Schur, E.M. 1983. Labelling Women Deviant: Gender, Stigma and Social control.

Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Spender, D. 1985. Man-made Language. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Ssetuba, I. 2005. The hold of Patriarchy: An Appraisal of the Ganda Proverb in Modern

Gender Relations. In le Roux, E., M.A.J. Ndeda, G. Nyamndi, F.E.M.K. Senkoro and I. Ssetuba. Gender, Literature and Religion in Africa. Dakar: Codesria. Pp 37-47.

Talbot, M.M. 1998. Language and gender: An Introduction. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Tannen, D. 1990. Gender differences in conversational coherence, physical alignment

and topical cohesion. In Conversational Organization and its Development. Edited by B. Dorval. Norwood NJ: Ablex.

Tannen, D. 1991. You Just don't understand: Women and Men in Conversation. New

York: Ballantine Books.

Uchida, Aki. 1992. When 'difference is dominance': A critique of the 'anti-power based'

cultural approach to sex differences. Language in Society 21:547-68.

Vengeyi, O. 2014. Land as an Inalienable Asset: Lessons from I Kings 21: 1-29. In Mararike,

C.G. (Editor). Land: An Empowerment Asset for Africa – The Human Factor Perspective. Harare: University of Zimbabwe Publications. Pp 59-79.

Correlation Of Students' Attitude And Gender Differences On Understanding Of Concept In Physics Practical

Adebisi, Thomas Ajibade (Ph.D)
Department of Science and Technology Education
Faculty of Education
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria

Ajayi, P.O. (Ph.D)
Department of Curriculum Studies,
Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti, .Nigeria

Abstract
The study investigated students' attitude and gender differences as correlate to understanding of concept in Physics practical in Senior Secondary School Two (SSS II) students in Nigeria. 240 SSS II students were randomly selected from six secondary schools in six Local Government Area in Osun State, Nigeria. The research design used was Ex-post-Facto. The instruments for the study were Questionnaire on Student Attitude to Physics Practical (QSAPP) and Physics Concept Test (PCT). Using Crombach alpha method, the instruments were found reliable at 0.82 and 0.72 respectively. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to analyze the data. Findings showed that students' attitude is significantly related to the understanding of concept in Physics practical, but their gender had no significant relationship. In conclusion, positive attitude is very important towards understanding of concept in Physics practical. It was therefore recommended that teachers and the school administrators should boost the morale of students by teaching Physics practical concept through less stressful methods and modifying all influencing factors in the classroom

Keywords: Attitude, Gender Differences, Understanding, Concept, Physics

INTRODUCTION

The modern world is changing in technology, economic, social and political trend from the simple traditional society of ancient times. The change is due to the contribution of technology advancement as a result of scientists' involvement in practical works. The attitude of scientists to increase our understanding of the world around us solve some of the problems nature bestowed on us and the sequence of meaningful conclusions arrived at form the bedrock of different scientific discoveries . The consequence of this attitude in interacting with environment has aided many discoveries and progress in technology. The interactions between other sciences and Physics are profound and dynamic. Physics has immense contribution to technological   needs of the changing society (Juceviciene and Karenauskaite, 2004; Zhaoyao, 2002), generation of electricity, mobile phone communication, optical and satellite communication, portable electronics, radio and radar perception, and X-ray crystallography (Campbell, 2006) and in the application of medicine and in the communication technology.

If science is to be learned effectively, it must be experienced and close to the students through practical activities and the world around us supplies an inexhaustible supply of materials which can be used as the subject matter for practical teaching .If students are to discover the

reality of what science is, they should be equipped with experimental procedures. Omolaran and Mutiu (2003) revealed that the basic truth is that the laboratory is where the students can become involved with his or her environment in such a way that theories and principles are encountered and discussed in the content that has bearing to physical meaning. This is in line with Millar, 2004 that practical work may be considered as engaging the learner in observing or manipulating real or virtual objects and materials. That is, Physics practical is an exciting and intellectual stimulating activity.

However, the reality on ground demands steering up students' attitude towards physics practical in secondary schools as Mustapha (2009) and Danmole (2011) are of the opinion that the development of any nation begins from classroom. Hence, Physics practical is a sharpen tool for actualization technological advancement. Physics curriculum contents emphasized understanding of concepts, experimentation and right attitude, NERDC (2008). Right attitude is crucial to the understanding of concepts in Physics practical. With dynamism of science, an encouraging attitude is necessary in practical activities, attitude regulates the behaviour of the students in their availability, readiness for the subject and their interactive manner during the practical class. According to House of Lords (2006) many students consider Physics as difficult, abstract and theoretical. Olusola and Rotimi (2012) supported this claim that Physics is perceived as a difficult subject for students from secondary school to university and also for adults in graduate education. Such a belief has long way to affect the disposition toward the physics and its practical.

Gender differences in Physics has troubled science educators for decades (Clancy, 1962), this difference has persisted to the present (Ivie & Ray, 2005).There are divergent opinions as regard to the resultant achievement of male and female. These differences are due to disparities in understanding of concept. The international student science assessment survey report different gender patterns. Euridice Network (2010), Matin (2004; 2008); QECD (2004) in International Mathematics and Science Study(TIMSS) often find gender gaps in favour of boys. Whereas the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) reports generally show no significant gender differences.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of the study is to find out the relationship that exist between students attitude and gender differences with understanding of concept in physics practical.

Research Hypotheses:
1. There is no significant relationship between students' attitude and understanding of concept to Physics practical.
2. There is no significant relationship between gender difference and understanding of concept to Physics practical

Significance of the Study
It is hoped that the result of the findings will give information to teachers on the need to assist the students on reviving their attitude to concept of physics practical, besides the school administrators will deem it fit to create atmosphere that will promote positive attitude towards physics practical.

It is also envisaged that the results of the findings if utilized will foster secondary students' achievement in practical Physics as teachers will be sensitized and be adequately prepared to

teach with relevant instructional materials having fore knowledge of gender differences   and attitude   of students.

METHODOLOGY
Research Design
An Ex-post facto research design was used for the study. The independent variables are the attitude and gender differences and dependent variable is understanding of concept in physics practical.

Population and Sample
The population of this study comprised of senior secondary two students from   three districts of Osun State of Nigeria. Six schools from six local governments were randomly selected that were exposed to the following practical: Simple Pendulum Experiments, Determination of Hooke's Law, Determination of Ohm's Law, Measurement of Resistance and Simple Moment. Determination of Density and Relative Density .A sample of 240 students was randomly selected.

Instrumentation
Two instruments used for the study are: Questionnaire on Student Attitude to Physics Practical (QSAPP) and Physics Concept Test (PCT)

Questionnaire on Students' Attitude to Physics Practical
This instrument was constructed with the assistance of two experts to measure the attitude of students to Physics practical activities. Section A of the questionnaire consists of personal information such as name, age, gender while section B consists of 25 attitudinal items on Physics practical placed beside a four point scale of Strongly Agree (S.A), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). The Questionnaire on Student Attitude to Physics Practical (QSAPP) was found reliable at 0.82 using Crobanch alpha method.

Physics Concept Test (PCT)
The Physics Concept Test (PCT) was constructed by two test experts from WAEC and the researcher .The items of this test were based on experiments done. The item in PCT consists of symbols, understanding of principles and laws that govern the experiments and   concepts of language and mathematical language. This was used to establish the level of understanding the concept of Physics practical and found reliable at 0.72 using Crobanch alpha method.

DATA COLLECTION
The Questionnaire on Student Attitude to Physics Practical (QSAPP) and Physics Concept Test (PCT) were administered to 240 senior secondary two (SSS 2) physics students.

DATA ANALYSIS
 The data collected was analyzed using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient .The results are presented in line with the   research hypotheses.

FINDINGS
Hypothesis 1
There is no significant relationship between students' attitude and understanding of concept to physics practical.

Table 1: Pearson Correlation between Students Attitude and Understanding of Concept of Physics Practical .

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	Df	R	Level of Significance
Students' Attitude	240	67.1125	15.79046	238	0.948	P< 0.05
Understanding of Concept		34.6417	12.78682			

From Table 1 ,the correlation co-efficient between students' attitude and understanding of concept of physics practical is 0.948 which is significant at 0.05.Thus ,the null hypothesis is therefore rejected .That is students' attitude is significantly related to understanding of concept in physics practical. The positive r-value in the result implies that the higher the students' attitude, the higher the understanding of concept of physics practical. In the other way the lower the students' attitude to physics practical, the lower the understanding of concept to physics practical.

Hypothesis 2
There is no significant relationship between gender difference and understanding of concept to physics practical

Table 2: Pearson Correlation between Gender and Understanding of Concept to Physics Practical.

Variable	N	Mean	S.D	Df	R	Level of Significance
Gender	240	1.5333	0.49993	238	-0.092	P>0.05
Understanding of Concept		34.6417	12.78682			

From Table 2, the correlation co-efficient between gender and understanding of concept of physics practical is -0.092 which is not significant at 0.05.Thus, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

DISCUSSION
The first hypothesis showed that there is a significant positive relationship between students' attitude and understanding of physics concept which will enhance their performance in physics practical. This is line with the view of Mamlok-Naaman, Ben-Zvi, Hofstein, Menis, and Erduran (2005) that 'if students are not interested in science, they tend not to make an effort to learn and understand the meaning of concepts that are being taught to them". This could mean that students mind set in science has correlation to learning and understanding the concepts being taught. The study revealed from the second hypothesis that there is no gender difference to understanding of practical physics concept.

CONCLUSION
The findings of this study have shown that attitudes have significant relationship on students' learning of physics practical concept. It has also spotlighted that gender difference has no significant relationship on students' learning of physics practical concept.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Attitude of the students to understanding of physics practical concept has a great consequence towards their performance ,hence, teachers and the school administrator can enhance the attitude through the following ways: boosting the morale of students by

teaching physics concept guiding a particular practical topic before the practical session instead of fire approach method, modifying all influencing factors such good class room interaction and less stress classroom relationship to encourage the students . Teachers should be prompted by the ministry of Education to acquired higher qualifications, besides, teachers should given opportunity to attend workshop in order to facilitate their resourcefulness and efficiency in appropriate language, methodology in teaching concept of physics topics in practical.

References

Danmole,B.T.(2011).Engaging issues on the universal basic education curriculum in Nigerian: implication for the science and technology component. Pakistan journal of social science.8(1)Pp62-68

Campbell, R (2006). Teenage girls and cellular phones: discourses of independence, safety and rebellion". Journal of Youth Studies, 9, 195-212. House of Lords, (2006), Science Teaching in Schools, Science and Technology Committee, 10th Report of Session 2005–06, pp 8

Clancy, E.P. (1962). Women and Physics. American Journal of Physics, 30(9), 626–629.

Eurydice Network(2010).Gender difference in Educational Outcomes: Study on the measures taken and the current situation in in Europe.Publication of Education,Audio-Visual and Culture executive Agency

Ivie, R., & Ray, K.N. (2005). Women in Physics and Astronomy, 2005. American Institute of Physics Report Juceviciene P. and Karenauskaite V., (2004). Learning environment in Physics: the context of double paradigm shift, Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, University of Crete, 22-25 September Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (2008)

Martin, M.O (2004).TIMSS2003 International Science Report; Findings from IEA's Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study at the Fourth and Eight Grades.Chestnut Hill,MA:TIMSS &PIRLS International Study Center,Boston College

Mamlok-Naaman, R., Ben-Zvi, R., Hofstein, A., Menis, J., & Erduran, S. (2005). Learning science through a historical approach: Does it affect the attitudes of nonscience-oriented students towards science? International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education, 3 (3), 485-507.

Millar R., (2004), The Role of Practical work in the teaching and learning of Science , Paper prepared for the Committee: High School Science Laboratories: Role and Vision, National Academy of Sciences, Washington, DC

Mustapha, M.T.(2009).The imperative of science, Technology and Mathematics Education for attainment of Niger State Development, Vision3:2020.Niger State College of Education.Pp1-5 Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council (2008)

Olusola, O .O and Rotimi, C.O (2012):Attitudes of Students towards the Study of Physics in College of Education Ikere Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria. American International Journal of Contemporary Research Vol. 2 No. 12; December 86

Omolara, F.J and Mutiu A.A (2003) : "Under Development of Manipulative skills: Threat to Chemistry Education .Nigerian Journal of Science Education and Practice".1 (1). 73-78.

QECD (2004). Learning for Tomorrow World: First Results from PISA 2002Paris; QECD.

Zhaoyao, M. (2002). Physics Education for the 21st Century: Avoiding a Crisis. Physics Education, 37(1), 18-24.

Maximizing Employee Happiness and Well-being: An Examination of Value Creation and Competitive Advantage at Zappos

Roger A. Pelletier
Nova Southeastern University
H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL. 33314-7796. USA.

Bahaudin G. Mujtaba
The H. Wayne Huizenga School of Business and Entrepreneurship
Nova Southeastern University
3301 College Avenue
Fort Lauderdale, FL. 33314-7796. USA.

Abstract

A successful organization must embrace a vision, mission, and strategy that creates long-term value and makes all relevant stakeholders happy. In this paper, a foundation for the concepts of happiness and well-being in the workplace is established. A historical perspective of management theories is discussed along with twenty-first century leadership philosophies that have evolved out of these historical perspectives. Employee happiness and well-being is discussed in more detail along with their place in the larger field of positive organizational behavior (POB) and psychological capital. In the modern global workplace, we can see how online retailer Zappos and their CEO Tony Hsieh have created, nurtured, evolved and outwardly shared a culture and management philosophy that promotes employee happiness. Objective benefits occur when top managers incorporate employee happiness and subjective well-being into their holistic management philosophy and practices. In the effort to build sustained long term value for all stakeholders, leaders and indeed all employees will need to continually practice ways to build psychological capital and maximize happiness and well-being.

Keywords: happiness, employee happiness, well-being, subjective well-being, positive organizational behavior, psychological capital, e-commerce, competitive advantage.

INTRODUCTION

The current business environment is extremely competitive. Leaders and organizations of the 21st century will need to maximize employee happiness and well-being within the application of a holistic business philosophy in order to gain and sustain long-term value and a competitive advantage.

A successful organization must embrace a strategy that creates long-term value and satisfies all stakeholders' needs. Twenty-first century management philosophies are an evolution out of these historical perspectives to maximize long-term value and happiness for all stakeholders. As a framework for consideration, we provide a discussion of the capacities of employee happiness and well-being in more detail and their place in the larger field of positive

organizational behavior (POB) and psychological capital (Luthans & Church, 2002; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004).

Zappos has created, nurtured, evolved and outwardly shared a culture and management philosophy that promotes employee happiness. Currently, Zappos is in a period of transition to a revolutionary organizational structure and management paradigm that will define its future.

In the effort to build sustained long term value for all stakeholders, leaders and indeed all employees will need to continually practice ways to build psychological capital and maximize happiness and well-being.

Management: A Historical Perspective

Management has been practiced by leaders of commerce for millennia. Management as a function performs the following primary tasks; "planning, organizing, leading, and controlling human and other organizational resources" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 37). The advancements in management have mostly been instigated by the needs of a few stakeholders such as business owners and their customers. Over time, the proliferation of customer needs along with the needs of other key stakeholders such as employees has triggered the need for management to evolve. Let us look at the major theories of management and the evolution of modern management including scientific management, administrative management, behavioral management, Theory X and Y, management science theory, and organizational environment theory (including contingency theory).

Scientific Management Theory

Fredrick W. Taylor (1856-1915) is known as the founder and father of scientific management. Scientific management is "the systematic study of relationships between people and tasks for the purpose of redesigning the work process to increase efficiency" (Jones and Geroge, 2014, p. 39). The four principles that have come from scientific management include studying the task being performed and experiment with ways to make the process more efficient, creating rules and standard operating procedures (SOPs) for performing the task, selecting workers that can best perform the task, and determining standards and rewards for performing the task (Mujtaba, 2014).

Most, if not all, modern companies still utilize many of the above principles. For example, most companies have SOPs, select employees that have skills and abilities that match the job description for different positions, and have annual employee evaluations based on set objectives for performance.

Administrative Management Theory

Administrative management theory is "the study of how to create an organizational structure and control system that leads to high efficiency and effectiveness" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 45). This theory was an advancement in management led by Max Weber (1864-1920) and Henri Fayol (1841-1925). Weber wrote his principles of bureaucracy that included; specific task and roles, SOPs, a hierarchy of authority, and methods of selection and evaluation. Fayol developed fourteen principles of management including; division of labor, authority and responsibility, unity of command, line of authority, centralization, unity of direction, equity, order, initiative, discipline, remuneration of personnel, stability of tenure of personnel, subordination of individual interests to the common interest, and esprit de corps (i.e. encouragement of enthusiasm) .

Modern management utilizes most of the above principles including job descriptions, SOPs, organizational hierarchies, and hiring processes. With respect to the future of management, if having a happy workforce continues to be recognized as a critical factor in creating a competitive advantage, the principles of equity, initiative, and esprit de corps will continue to be crucial to the field of management.

Behavioral Management Theory
Behavioral management theory is "the study of how managers should personally behave to motivate employees and encourage them to perform at high levels" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 51). Mary Parker Follett (1868-1933) wrote most about this branch of management. Follett proposed that knowledge and expertise should determine who will lead at any particular moment.

Again, modern management stands on the shoulders of these great thinkers and many of today's management practices such as teams, cross functional teams and self-managed teams are built on these principles. Follett believed that the holders of the knowledge should be making decisions and managers should behave as coaches and facilitators.

Theory X and Theory Y
Theory X and Theory Y were named by Douglas McGregor (1906-1964). These two theories are at their core a negative and a positive set of assumptions about the average worker, respectively. Managers that accept the assumptions of Theory X, that workers are lazy and will try to work as little as possible, will try to closely control workers. Conversely, managers that accept the assumptions of Theory Y, that workers are not lazy and will work for the good of the organization, will have looser control on employees and allow them to exercise their initiative and self-direction.

Modern management can look to ways they perform the function of controlling and leading and see which theory is the basis of their behavior. For the future of management, many of the tenants of Theory Y will be in play, especially in self-managed teams.

Management Science Theory
Management science theory "is a contemporary approach to management that focuses on the use of rigorous quantitative techniques to help managers make the maximum use of organizational resources" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 55). There are four major branches of this science and each of them rely heavily on information technology (IT) to perform their set of tasks; quantitative management (using mathematical techniques), operations management (production system analysis), total quality management (controlling production via quality measures), and management information systems. Some aspects of all of the above have made their way into the management processes of most modern corporations.

Organizational Environment Theory
Organizational environment theory is the study of how managers and leaders control the organization's relationship with the external environment . In one branch of this study theorists such as Daniel Katz, Robert Kahn, and James Thompson "viewed the organization as an open system—a system that takes in resources from the external environment and converts or transforms them into goods and services that are sent back to the environment, where they are bought by customers" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 56). In another branch of this study theorists such as Tom Burns, G. M Stalker, Paul Lawrence, and Jay Lorsch developed a contingency theory, the crux of this being that there is no one best way to organize. The way

that managers "design the organizational hierarchy, choose a control system, and lead and motivate their employees is contingent on the characteristics of the organizational environment" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 57). The impact of these theories on contemporary management will be evident as we discuss forces from the external environment that impact firms like Zappos.

For a meaningful discussion, it is important to provide a foundation and definitions for the key concepts and terms surrounding the field of POB, happiness and well-being.

Positive Organizational Behavior
Luthans and Allan (2002) defined POB as "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace"(p. 59).

Traits versus states. Although the difference between a trait and a state has been somewhat controversial (Fridhandler, 1986; Zuckerman, 1983), Luthans contests that a psychological capacity should be considered state-like to be measured and developed (Luthans & Church, 2002, p. 59). Luthans writes in one of his review articles in the Journal of Management that "unlike positive traits, which are characterized by relative stability over time and applicable across situations, positive state like capacities are relatively more malleable and thus are open to change and development" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007, p. 326). It follows that we could then screen for positive traits during the interview process to select the best fit employees and work to develop positive states in these employees once hired.

Positive psychological capacities and capital. Psychological capacities such as confidence, hope, optimism, happiness or subjective well-being, emotional intelligence (Luthans & Church, 2002, pp. 63-69) and resilience (Luthans, 2002, p. 695) are actively reported in the POB literature. Positive psychological capital "consisting of the positive psychological resources of hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism can be extended into the well-being domain" (Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, & Harms, 2013, p. 118).

Happiness and well-being. As a human being, one might believe that we all want maximal happiness in our lives. The American founding fathers wrote in the Declaration of Independence: "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness" (U.S., 1776, para. 2). The Oxford Online Dictionary defines happiness as "the state of being happy" (""happiness", Oxford Dictionaries," 2015) and defines happy as "feeling or showing pleasure or contentment" (""happy", Oxford Dictionaries," 2015). Fred Luthans, a leader in the field of POB and psychological capital (PsyCap) has written that "there is extensive support for the notion that happiness is a process, not a place"(Luthans et al., 2013, p. 124).

Well-being has also been challenging to define. One group of authors pointed out that "any new definition must go beyond an account or description of well-being itself, and be able to make a clear and definite statement of the exact meaning of the term" (Dodge, Daly, Huyton, & Sanders, 2012, p. 222). The authors propose the following as a definition:

> *In essence, stable wellbeing is when individuals have the psychological, social and physical resources they need to meet a particular psychological, social and/or physical challenge. When individuals have more challenges than resources, the see-saw dips, along with their wellbeing, and vice-versa (Dodge et al., 2012, p. 230).*

The terms happiness and subjective well-being (SWB) are often used at the same time or interchangeably in similar contexts. "The field of subjective well-being (SWB), or happiness, has become a thriving area of science, with over 10,000 publications per year on the topic in recent years" (Diener & Scollon, 2014, p. 175). It is indeed an exciting time to be passionate about the study of happiness and the effects of happiness on positive business outcomes, the creation of long term value and competitive advantage.

The field of POB and scholarship on POB, happiness, and well-being in the workplace has grown in the last decades. It is still a field that needs much study in the future to provide managers with the knowledge and tools to implement practical solutions in their respective organizations. What follows is a discussion of key leaders in the field of POB and psychology as well as a high level synopsis of some of the key research in the related management journals. For the scope of this paper, the findings of several journal articles and authors will be briefly summarized as examples of scholarly research in the field of POB.

Leaders in the Field of POB
There are many accomplished scholars in the field of POB, one of the most published authors in the field of POB is Fred Luthans, a distinguished professor at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and editor of the publication entitled Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies.

Another leader in the field of POB is Barbara Fredrickson. Barbara Frederickson's broaden and build theory of positive emotions "describes how individual organizational members' experiences of positive emotions like joy, interest, pride, contentment, gratitude and love—can be transformational and fuel upward spirals toward optimal individual and organizational functioning" (Fredrickson, 2003, p. 163).

Ed Diener is a highly published psychologist and author on subjective well-being. His work with colleagues have led to a better understanding of subjective well-being, its description, definition, and studies linking this concept to individual and organizational performance.

Current Research
During an in-depth review of the current literature using keywords such as happiness, well-being, positive organizational behavior, psychological capital, employee engagement and leadership, it is clear that these topics and the field of POB and happiness in the workplace has captured the interest of scholars. These scholars are generating solid empirical research, thorough review articles, meta-analysis articles, and books. The body of research appears to have good momentum and is moving in the direction towards a better understanding and creation of practical applications for leaders and a linkage to business outcomes such as individual and organizational performance and profitability. After all, it is important for organizations to be great places to work, with leaders and processes that motivate and inspire employees to create long-term value for all stakeholders.

The article entitled Emerging Positive Organizational Behavior by Fred Luthans and Carolyn Youssef (2007), examines positive traits, positive states, positive organizations, and positive behaviors. The authors state that "given the competitiveness of today's environment, it is essential for the impact of positive traits, states, and organizations to manifest themselves in terms of tangible, measurable behaviors that can have a direct performance impact" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007, p. 338). In closing, the authors state that "the vision of the destination of unique competitive advantage through people seems worth a long and arduous trip through more theory building, research, and effective application" (Luthans & Youssef, 2007, p. 341).

In a meta-analysis of 51 studies representing 12,567 employees it was found that "PsyCap as a second order core factor comprised of hope, optimism, efficacy, and resilience, is significantly and strongly related to employee attitudes generally considered desirable by human resource management" (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011, p. 146).

In an empirical research, the authors designed two studies, one to validate a survey to assess levels of hope, resilience, optimism and efficacy and a composite factor of all four facets. The second study looked at the relationship between the four facets with employee performance and satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007, p. 542). The study designs were robust and included several hundred participants. The authors believed the results supported "PsyCap as a higher-order-core positive factor indicated by each of the recognized constructs of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience" (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 566).

Fred Luthans has written a book entitled Psychological Capital and Beyond (2015). In the first chapter the author indicates that "the major intent of this book is to serve as a guide to a promising evidence-based answer to gaining competitive advantage through people" (Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015, p. 1).

Market-Based Management (MBM)
Market-based management is a philosophy that is applied at Koch Industries as well as other firms and with nations throughout the world. Market-Based Management is fundamentally the application of six key concepts of a free market society to an organization. The six key elements of the market system as described by (Gable and Ellig, 1993, p. 15) are division of labor, property rights, rules of just conduct, the price system, free flow of ideas, and market incentives. These six key elements of the market system correlate to an organization's mission system, roles and responsibilities, values and culture, internal markets, open communication, and compensation and motivation, respectively (Gable and Ellig, 1993, p. 15).

At Zappos, employee happiness and well-being are built into and also impact specifically the elements of an organization's mission system, values and culture, and open communication. Discussion of Zappos philosophy and culture will illustrate the above influences more clearly.

Zappos was started in 1999 by founder Nick Swinmurn. In 1999, Mr. Swinmurn collaborated with a venture capital company called Venture Frogs, a company co-led by Tony Hsieh who had just sold his company LinkExchange to Microsoft for $265 million dollars (Hsieh, 2012, p. 11). After a couple of years as an investor and advisor, Mr. Hsieh joined Zappos as CEO. The management philosophy and culture developed from his own core values and as he had a hand in hiring new people whose values were congruent, his values became the company's values. On July 22, 2009, Zappos was acquired by Amazon in a deal worth over 1.2 billion dollars under the stipulation that it would continue to operate independently under the leadership of Mr. Hsieh as CEO (McGregor, 2014, para. 5). Zappos as an organization, the leadership and all employees embrace a holistic management philosophy and culture with an emphasis on positive organizational behavioral. This inspires the entire organization to maximize employee happiness and well-being and create long-term value. One of the best ways to illustrate the culture of Zappos is by quoting the ten Zappos Family Core Values:

- Deliver WOW Through Service.
- Embrace and Drive Change.
- Create Fun and A little Weirdness.
- Be Adventurous, Creative, and Open-Minded.

- Pursue Growth and Learning.
- Build Open and Honest Relationships With Communication.
- Build a Positive Team and Family Spirit.
- Do More With Less.
- Be Passionate and Determined.
- Be Humble (Hsieh, 2012, p. 37).

These core values have been developed by all employees at the company, embraced by all employees at the company and fortified in different ways that is a good representation of market-based management and value creation for all relevant stakeholders. These values and the resulting culture at Zappos directly relate to the market-based management concept mentioned previously, especially relating to mission system, values and culture.

Zappos Practices

Information about the culture in action at Zappos can be found on the Zappos.com website (Zappos, 2015a), in Tony Hsieh's book Delivering Happiness, A Path to Profits Passion, and Purpose (2012), in online articles (McGregor, 2014; Zillman, 2015), in the many recorded videos of Tony Hsieh at speaking events (Hsieh, 2015), and even in textbooks such as Contemporary Management (Jones and George, 2014, p. 367). A good framework for discussion is how Zappos works to maximize value from the impact of their external environment, specifically, the direct and indirect forces that make up their task and general environments.

Environmental Forces

There exist a set of direct and indirect forces that originate from outside an organization and effect how it operates. The task environment includes a set of forces and conditions that can originate with local and global suppliers, distributors, customers, and competitors that regularly deal with a firm (Jones and George, 2014,; Mujtaba, 2014). These forces are closest to the company's daily business operations and therefore are considered direct forces. Although all of these forces significantly impact daily operations at Zappos, three of these forces have had direct impact on major business decisions at Zappos and will be discussed as they directly affect the ability of the company to be effective and efficient and create a competitive advantage.

Customers. The lifeblood of any business is their loyal customers. This is true whether you are a company that provides products or services. In many cases, long-term success is not only the procurement of new customers, but keeping them and making them repeat customers. Zappos has focused on the customer experience so much that their primary vision is to have positive "word of mouth" advertisement from satisfied customers be their primary marketing strategy. Tony Hsieh writes that:

Our philosophy has been to take most of the money we would have spent on paid advertising and invest it into customer service and the customer experience instead, letting our customers do the marketing for us through word of mouth" (2012, p. 33).

Zappos achieved a goal of $1 billion in gross merchandise sales in 2008 and credited this success to the company's investment in three key areas: customer service, culture, and employee training and development (Hsieh, 2012, p. 32). Hsieh said that "Zappos is really just about delivering happiness whether it's the customers or employees" (Erb, 2011, para. 2).

Suppliers. When discussing suppliers we are talking about suppliers of products and human resources. Therefore the vendors supplying Zappos with products to sell and the communities supplying employees to work at Zappos would be considered "suppliers". One major decision in the timeline of Zappos growth has been related to the supply of human resources. Zappos was originally headquartered in San Francisco. At one point in the company's growth it was decided that they needed to move to an area that had a more available pool of people that would work in their call center. These jobs are not particularly high paying and the company was finding it difficult to recruit personnel from the city of San Francisco where there is a high cost of living. Therefore the company moved to Las Vegas, "Hsieh moved Zappos from San Francisco in 2004, in part to take advantage of the relatively inexpensive labor market for call-center employees" (Stone, 2012, para. 7).

Distributors. In the case of Zappos, they are highly impacted by distributors because of the nature of an online retail business. Two major decisions regarding distribution have occurred in the timeline of Zappos history to date. The first was moving their warehouse from California to Kentucky to better serve their customers on the East Coast. Zappos partnered with a distribution company, however, subsequently dissolved the partnership due to their inability to satisfy customer needs for fast and accurate shipping. Zappos' decided to bring the distribution function internal and build a warehouse distribution center in Kentucky currently staffed by approximately 2000 employees. Zappos felt that with their focus on the best customer service, they needed to control the function of order fulfillment and distribution. The company located their warehouse next to the UPS shipping hub in Kentucky (Hsieh, 2013) as this would make it more convenient and efficient in quickly serving their customers across the globe.

Although not as immediate as direct forces, the company must also be aware of and ready to react to indirect forces from the general environment. The general environment of a firm can include the wide-ranging global, economic, technological, sociocultural, demographic, political, and legal forces that can impact the organization and its task environment in all locations around the globe (Jones and George, 2014, p. 167). Technological and demographic indirect forces have a particularly significant impact on Zappos ability to create long-term value.

Technological. The indirect force of technology plays an obvious and important role in the conduct of an online retailer's ecommerce business. A core aspect of the customer experience is the company's website, Zappos.com. Therefore technological advances and user interface issues must be considered carefully to assure continuous improvement and an enhanced customer experience that will inspire customers to purchase goods and return to the site. One example of the company's focus on technology is the improvement in their logistics software to assure the highest level of accuracy in the warehouse inventory system. Zappos' focus on customer satisfaction meant that they wanted near perfect accuracy of their inventory system so that when a customer bought something online, there was little to no risk of the item not being in stock due to an inaccurate inventory system (Hsieh, 2013). Another example is their state of the art fulfillment center technology that allows the company to keep their promise of overnight shipping to a customer from a warehouse that contains over 126,043 different items in various sizes and colors (Zappos, 2015b). One other example is that "Zappos' warehouse boasts a fleet of 70 brand-new robots that allows it to ship a pair of shoes in as little as eight minutes, earning high praise from logistics industry trade publications (Chafkin, 2009, p. 68). Advances in technology and knowledge sharing are strongly correlated to the market-based management concept of open communication within the company. Employees can make better decisions with the technology and knowledge they possess and therefore continuously add more value to the company.

Demographic. As mentioned previously in the section about "suppliers", the company decided to move its headquarters from San Francisco to Las Vegas strategically for the purpose of capitalizing on the pool of available applicants and for efficiency purposes. This move was strategically related to the available workforce it needed to staff the corporate customer care call center. Indirect demographic forces are "outcomes of changes in, or changing attitudes toward, the characteristics of a population, such as age, gender, ethnic origin, race, sexual orientation, and social class" (Jones and George, 2014, p. 176). The demographics of the available workforce in San Francisco (i.e. demand for higher paying jobs and professional positions) was not consistent with the need for a workforce that would be satisfied with lower paying call center positions. The demographics of the population of Las Vegas is better suited to fulfill the human resource needs of Zappos.

Value Driven Management at Zappos
Value driven management is a management philosophy and practice that begins with a simple premise of "What people value drives their actions" (Pohlman and Gardiner, 2000, p. 3). Pohlman and Gardner (2000) describe eight value drivers that when considered comprehensively, create long term value; external cultural values, organizational cultural values, individual employee values, customer values, supplier values, third-party values, owner values, and competitor values. For the purposes of this paper, the value drivers considered to have the most impact on Zappos will be discussed along with the potential impact of employee happiness and well-being. Interestingly, employee happiness has the potential to have an impact on several of the value drivers and thus a potentially significant effect on the creation of long-term value and competitive advantage. The most influential value drivers impacting long-term value creation are organizational cultural values, individual employee values, and customer values.

Organizational cultural values. The organizational culture at Zappos is the most important determinant to their long-term competitive advantage. The organizational cultural values are in part contributed to by individual employee values and owner values. The goal of the company is "to build the Zappos brand into being about the very best customer service" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 30). In addition to that Hsieh wrote, "our belief is that our Brand, our Culture, and our Pipeline…are the only competitive advantages we will have in the long run" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 32). "Over time, as we focused more and more on our culture, we ultimately came to the realization that a company's culture and a company's brand are two sides of the same coin" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 34). "Our employees know that the number one priority at Zappos is our company culture" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 34). In fact Zappos has a hiring process that places 50% of the decision weight on cultural fit and the other 50% on the candidates' skill set (Heathfield, 2015, para. 8). For the cultural interview itself "interviewers have developed five or six behaviorally based questions that illuminate a candidate's congruence with each of the Zappos core values cited earlier" (Heathfield, 2015, para. 9). These are just a few examples of how Zappos focuses on creating and sustaining their organizational culture.

Individual employee values. The information cited above outlines the lengths that Zappos goes to assure that an employee's values are congruent with their corporate cultural values. Pohlman and Gardiner (2000) have indicated that "congruency in this important area is a major contributor to creating and maximizing value over time" (Pohlman and Gardiner, 2000, p. 40). The authors also indicate that "an organizations selection process based on congruent or complimentary values is a proactive strategy that can save a company millions of dollars in terminations and turnovers, and build value by maximizing the firm's human assets over time" (Pohlman and Gardiner, 2000, p. 40). With respect to diversity, one of Zappos core values,

"create fun and a little weirdness" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 37) shows that they value diverse personalities. With respect to value-driven management:

This does not in any way mean that the principle of valuing diversity should be in any way short-changed, but what it does mean is that the individual being hired, and those already in the organization, will not be able to maximize value created for themselves and the organization if they do not fit the corporate culture. (Pohlman and Gardiner, 2000, p. 130)

The individual employee values at Zappos are such that they will feel personally responsible for making sure they deliver the best service to each and every customer and make them happy and loyal.

Customer values. As indicated earlier and worthy of repeating, "Zappos is really just about delivering happiness whether it's the customers or employees" (Erb, 2011, para. 2). Customers value a high quality product and a high quality service experience. Customers appear to value the products and service provided by Zappos, as evidenced by strong sales. Although since being acquired by Amazon in 2009, sales are not broken out, "all the hard work and investments we made into customer service and company culture would pave the way for us to hit our goal of $1 billion in gross merchandise sales in 2008" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 32). The company actually hit this level of sales a full two years before their goal (Hsieh, 2012, p. 32).

Analysis and Recommendations

The total impact of employee happiness and well-being as a core value and cultural imperative on long-term value creation at Zappos is substantial. This analysis is supported by Zappos historical and current growth and performance. The culture of Zappos has appeared to translate into happy employees as evidenced by the company's place on Fortune Best 100 Companies to Work For® list in 2015 and for seven previous years (Fortune, 2015). Interestingly, it has been reported that public companies in this list "generated 2.3% to 3.8% higher stock returns per year than their peers from 1984 through 2011" (Edmans, 2012, p. 1).

As for recommendations for Zappos, if they continue to maximize employees' and customer's happiness then long-term value and competitive advantage should certainly follow. The company should continue to focus on preserving their culture to maximize value creation for the employees and customers. Also, as the company grows they need to scale the business while vigilantly protecting and improving upon the elements of the company that have brought them success. In addition, as two of the company's core values suggest with respect to the future and growth, Zappos should "embrace and drive change…be adventurous, creative, and open-minded" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 37). These recommendations can also be applied by all managers and entrepreneurs, especially those working in e-commerce and retail industries.

Holocracy Structure at Zappos

In January 2014, Zappos announced that they would be restructuring the organization and "adopting Holocracy™, a relatively new philosophy that replaces traditional job titles with a system in which people hold a variety of roles agreed upon during structured meetings with their peers" (Taube, 2014, para. 2). Holocracy™ has been developed by Brian Robertson, a management consultant and software entrepreneur (McGregor, 2014, para. 6). "The idea is to replace the traditional corporate chain of command with a series of overlapping, self-governing circles" (McGregor, 2014, para. 3). The executives at Zappos have indicated that "the move is an effort to keep the 1,500-person company from becoming too rigid, too unwieldy and too bureaucratic as it grows" (McGregor, 2014, para. 4).

The holacracy situation at Zappos is an excellent example of their willingness to live their core value of "be adventurous, creative, and open minded" (Hsieh, 2012, p. 37). Actually, the concepts of market-based management appear to be in play, specifically open communication, compensation, and motivation. With decision making responsibilities lying with the people that hold the knowledge, Zappos will empower employees to use their knowledge and expand their communication of this knowledge to peers. As the authors of Introduction to Market-Based Management, Gabel and Ellig state "to survive and thrive in today's business environment, an organization must be able to learn, adapt, and improve itself continuously" (Gable and Ellig, 1993, para. 20).

Why Maximize Employee Happiness and Well-being

All leaders and managers tend to strive to maximize employee happiness and well-being as this is essential for retention and productivity. The obvious more personal reason is that it is the good and right thing to do as human beings in a global society strives to live happy and fulfilling lives. Diener and Scollon (2014) write that "most people around the world value happiness, and as societies around the world continue to develop, the importance of happiness is likely to rise" (Diener & Scollon, 2014, p. 175). Harter, Schmidt, and Keyes (2002) write in their review of Gallup studies that "the well-being of employees is also in the best interests of employers who spend substantial resources hiring employees and trying to generate products, profits, and maintain loyal customers" (p. 206). The other link that has to be made to satisfy stockholders is that maximizing employee happiness and well-being will lead to objective benefits such as profitability. Let us look at some of the objective benefits that have been reported in relation to employee happiness and subjective well-being.

The World Happiness Report 2013 contains a very well sourced section entitled The Objective Benefits of Subjective Well-Being authored by De Neve, Diener, Tay, and Xuereb (2013). For emphasis, several of the important findings that the authors observed from evidence in the literature are provided. "Happiness on average leads not only to better health, but also to a longer life" (De Neve, 2013, p. 6). If we can live longer, then we must live happily every single day, managers should create this opportunity for their employees in the company as well. "The experience of happiness is beneficial to workplace success because it promotes workplace productivity, creativity and cooperation" (De Neve et al., 2013, p. 9). "Research clearly shows that happy workers are more cooperative and collaborative in negotiations than unhappy ones" (De Neve et al., 2013, p. 10). As such, modern manager of dynamic workplaces must take advantage of such cooperation and collaboration from their happy employees. "Subjective well-being brings about greater success at the organizational level as well" (De Neve, 2013, p. 11). "Research studies also indicate a powerful link between high subjective well-being and social behavior, such as being a better friend, colleague, neighbor, and citizen" (De Neve, 2013, p. 14). Happy employees are not only productive, but their good mood is contagious and can positively impact the organization's culture. "Existing scientific evidence indicates that subjective well-being has an objective impact across a broad range of behavioral traits and life outcomes and does not simply follow from them" (De Neve, 2013, p. 19). Lastly, "levels of subjective well-being are found to predict future, health, mortality, productivity, and income, controlling statistically for other possible determinants" (De Neve, 2013, p. 19). Overall, the well-being of a firm's workers can increase their productivity as well as the profits of the firm. As such, keeping employees happy can be a value adder for the firm and its stockholders.

SUMMARY

As a company that values employee happiness, Zappos with their leadership and organizational innovation appear to be thriving and their employees flourishing. It will be

rewarding and exciting to follow and study this company and their management practices along with their performance in the coming years. The current literature and reported empirical and meta-analysis research supports the concept that maximizing employee happiness and well-being does lead to objective benefits that correlate to the creation of long-term value. We believe that additional business outcomes research will be needed for leaders to embrace a paradigm shift in maximizing employee happiness and well-being within the larger framework of a holistic management philosophy such as market-based management and value driven management. With the influence of Wall Street and the financial markets profit orientation, numerous credible statements and examples of long-term value that includes robust financial considerations will be needed. The way 21st century companies manage their human resources will continue to evolve.

Maximizing employee happiness and well-being will be one of the most important future considerations in adopting and evolving a management philosophy that will maximize long-term value and competitive advantage. Modern managers must focus on their employees' level of happiness in order to sustain long-term productivity and value-creation throughout the company's value chain.

References

Avey, J. B., Reichard, R. J., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. H. (2011). Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 22(2), 127-152.

Chafkin, M. (2009). Get happy. Inc, 31(4), 66-73.

De Neve, J. E. a. D., Ed and Tay, Louis and Xuereb, Cody. (2013). The Objective Benefits of Subjective Well-Being. In J. Helliwell, Layard, R., & Sachs, J (Ed.). New York: UN Sustainable Development Solutions Network.

Diener, E., & Scollon, C. N. (2014). The what, why, when, and how of teaching the science of subjective well-being. Teaching of Psychology, 41(2), 175-183.

Dodge, R., Daly, A. P., Huyton, J., & Sanders, L. D. (2012). The challenge of defining wellbeing. International Journal of Wellbeing, 2(3).

Edmans, A. (2012). The link between employee satisfaction and firm value, with implications for corporate social responsibility. The Academy of Management Perspectives, amp. 2012.0046.

Erb, M. (2011). How Zappos Creates Happy Customers and Employees. Great Place to Work. Retrieved from Great Place to Work website: http://www.greatplacetowork.com/publications-and-events/publications/551-how-zappose-creates-happy-customers-and-employees

Fortune. (2015). Fortune 100 Best Companies to Work For. Retrieved 03/05/15, from http://www.greatplacetowork.com/best-companies/100-best-companies-to-work-for

Fredrickson, B. L. (2003). Positive emotions and upward spirals in organizations. Positive organizational scholarship, 163-175.

Fridhandler, B. M. (1986). Conceptual note on state, trait, and the state–trait distinction. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50(1), 169.

Gable, W., and Ellig, J. (1993). Introduction to Market-Based Management. Fairfax, VA: Center for Market Processes.

"happiness". (2015). Oxford Dictionaries Online. Retrieved 03/05/15, from: http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/happiness

"happy". (2015). Oxford Dictionaries Online. Retrieved 03/05/15, from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/american_english/happy

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Keyes, C. L. (2002). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived, 2, 205-224.

Heathfield, S. (2015). 20 Ways Zappos Reinforces Its Company Culture. Retrieved from about.com website: http://humanresources.about.com/od/organizationalculture/a/how-zappos-reinforces-its-company-culture.htm#

Hsieh, T. (2012). Delivering Happiness. A path to profits, passion, and purpose. Mundelein, IL: Round Table Comics.

Hsieh, T. (2013). MI Forum: Delivering Happiness: A Path to Profits, Passion, and Purpose Retrieved 03/02/15, 2015, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k3YK8WkS3qQ

Hsieh, T. (2015). Retrieved 03/02/15, 2015, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dV7eliclaZA#t=2355

Jones, G. R., and George, Jennifer M. (2014). Contemporary Management (8th ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. Journal of organizational behavior, 23(6), 695-706.

Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. Personnel psychology, 60(3), 541-572.

Luthans, F., & Church, A. (2002). Positive Organization Behaviour: Developing and Managing Psychological Strengths. Academy of management executive, 16(1), 57-75.

Luthans, F., Luthans, K. W., & Luthans, B. C. (2004). Positive psychological capital: Beyond human and social capital. Business horizons, 47(1), 45-50.

Luthans, F., Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). Psychological Capital and Beyond: Oxford University Press.

Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. Journal of Management, 33(3), 321-349.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., Sweetman, D. S., & Harms, P. D. (2013). Meeting the leadership challenge of employee well-being through relationship PsyCap and Health PsyCap. Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20(1), 118-133.

McGregor, J. (2014). Zappos says goodbye to bosses. The Washington Post. Retrieved from The Washington Post website: http://www.washingtonpost.com/blogs/on-leadership/wp/2014/01/03/zappos-gets-rid-of-all-managers/

Mujtaba, B. G. (2014). Managerial Skills and Practices for Global Leadership. ILEAD Academy: Davie, Florida.

Pohlman, R. A., Gardiner, G. S. (2000). Value-Driven Management: How to Create and Maximize Value over Time for Organizational Success. United States: AMACOM.

Stone, B. (2012). Tony Hsieh of Zappos bets big on Las Vegas. SFGATE. http://www.sfgate.com/business/article/Tony-Hsieh-of-Zappos-bets-big-on-Las-Vegas-3057698.php

Taube, A. (2014). Even CEO Tony Hsieh's Inner Circle Can't Describe Zappos' Insanely Complicated Management Philosophy. Business Insider. Retrieved from Business Insier website: http://www.businessinsider.com/zappos-ceo-hsiehs-friends-argue-about-holacracy-2014-10

U.S. (1776). Declaration of Independence.

Zappos. (2015a). The Zappos Family Story. Retrieved 03/02/15, from http://about.zappos.com/zappos-story/in-the-beginning-let-there-be-shoes

Zappos. (2015b). Zappos Home Page. Retrieved 03/02/15, 2015, from http://www.zappos.com/search?term=&globalsearch=1

Zillman, C. (2015). Zappos is bringing Uber-like surge pay to the workplace. Retrieved from Fortune website: http://fortune.com/2015/01/28/zappos-employee-pay/

Zuckerman, M. (1983). The distinction between trait and state scales is not arbitrary: Comment on Allen and Potkay's" On the arbitrary distinction between traits and states.".