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Introduction – Dr. David Adewuyi, Managing Editor

The African Symposium is becoming more and more popular as authors interested in African educational and human development issues all over the globe continue to send articles to it for publication. The obvious "downside" of this article submission boom is that the percentage of article rejection is becoming higher with each issue. It is therefore important to remind prospective authors that strict adherence to the journal's publication guidelines is a must for them for their submissions to have a good chance of competition. At the CODESRIA's conference on electronic publishing and dissemination held in Dakar, Senegal between 6 and 7 October, 2008, I presented a paper highlighting the human and technological problems that African authors face in getting their papers published by an American online journal. What is relevant here concerns what I termed human problems whereby authors fail to follow guidelines especially APA formatting, incompetent use of the English language, and authors' disregard for deadlines. Paying more attention to these lapses will increase authors' chances of getting their articles published on time.

It is gratifying to notice a healthy development in the quality of the articles being received by the journal. There are noticeable collaborative studies among scholars within the same institution and across institutions. Scholars from different departments in the same institution and researchers from different institutions work jointly together to produce original work and this trend is highly encouraged. Moreover, scholars from American institutions, more than ever before, now send articles to the journal. The bulk of articles still comes from Africa, especially Nigeria and Botswana. I recently received four textbooks from the Commonwealth Office in Britain, requesting that the books be reviewed and the review published in ***The African Symposium.*** The books will soon be sent to reviewers. This is another testimony to the prestige and reception of our journal as a veritable tool of academic and social service to scholars all over the globe who are interested in African issues.

This issue completes the eighth volume with nineteen articles on various and important contemporary issues in and about Africa ranging from teacher education, technology, HIV/AIDS, sports, politics, and the economy. **Hassan and Ogunyemi**, both of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Nigeria, investigated the differential effectiveness of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery techniques in fostering creativity of Nigerian

adolescents in Nigerian public secondary schools. The study also determined whether gender moderated the effects of the three treatment programmes on creativity. Findings from the study revealed among other things that the treatments differentially and significantly affected participant's level of creativity. On the basis of the findings, suggestions were made on how to enhance creative competence skills of adolescents. In a collaborative study, **Ajayi and Adeniji** of Olabisi Onabanjo University and Adu of University of Ibadan discussed graduate unemployment which they termed "a blind spot" in the Nigerian educational system. Their paper discussed the genesis, trends, as well as implications of graduate unemployment on Nigeria's socio-economic and political development. They also proffered solutions towards resolving and ameliorating the undesirable situation.

Ifamuyiwa also of Olabisi Onabanjo University carried out a study to determine the quantity, quality and commitment of mathematics teachers to teaching in Ogun State secondary schools. Four hundred mathematics teachers were randomly selected from the one hundred public secondary schools across the twenty local government areas of the state. Findings revealed that while the teachers' quality in terms of professional status and years of teaching experience appeared to be adequate and manageable, the quantity of the teachers across the twenty local government areas actually fell below expectations. **Agbatogun and Oyewumi** examined the views of the University of Lagos lecturers on the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication in large classes. Teachers of varying academic statuses were found to have different opinions about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of CCTV. The authors suggested that teachers, irrespective of their academic attainment, should disregard the impossibility of achieving effective communication in large classes, but rather focus on effective use of appropriate technology that can enhance effective communication in large classes.

Owu-**Ewie** of Harvard University used content analysis to look at the science, mathematics and social studies curriculum, textbooks and external tests used in pre-service teacher institutions in Ghana to see how they reflect the various thinking levels. The study revealed that there was a gap between the curriculum objectives and what is portrayed in other learning materials in terms of developing students thinking. The gap, the author suggested, can be bridged by embarking on rigorous staff development on materials development that enhance students' thinking and use of teaching strategies anchored on cognitive development. **Omolawon** of University of Ibadan and **Arogbonlo** of Federal College of Education, Kano, assessed the administration of inter-scholastic sports in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria, to ascertain its adequacy. The assessed administrative parameters were found to be significant and it was recommended that inter-scholastic sports programmes should be handled by professionals and government should provide adequate funding for organizing inter-scholastic sports programmes.

The use of the controversial female genital mutilation as a method of HIV/AIDS prevention among the **Annangs** in Nigeria was the central issue in the study carried out by **Roseline Akpan, Edem, Ekpenyong, and Nsemeke Akpan,** all of the University of Uyo, Nigeria. Their survey-study revealed that while some people use female genital mutilation, others use other traditional methods to prevent the spread of the epidemic. To some, the use of impediments such as jelly-like prepared soap and concoction during sex kill off the HIV infected sperms. Some opted for scarification on either the woman's vagina or the spine of the man to kill the HIV. Other people preferred the use of either magic rings or padlock to ward off the virus. To others, sealing of the womb is used to prevent the entry of the infected sperm. Some people use spiritual entities to prevent HIV/AIDS. It is recommended that some of these strategies be further researched and modified for use in the prevention of HIV/AIDS spread. **Ijaiya and**

Fasasi of University of Ilorin studied the integrity of school inspectors as perceived by secondary school teachers in Kwara State of Nigeria. Findings from the study revealed that school inspection conducted by State and Federal inspectors were not adequate. The inspectors were considered to be of high integrity, though the teachers did not approve the extra gift given to the inspectors by some principals outside the normal accommodation and feeding of the inspectors.

Adegbile of University of Ibadan and **Adeyemi** of Obafemi Awolowo University investigated the relationship that existed between teacher quality variables and primary school pupils' achievement in English Language. Two research questions were raised in the study. Multiple regression statistical method was used for data analysis. Results indicated that significant relationship existed among the variables of interest. It was therefore recommended that more studies on various disciplines were needed in Nigeria so that efforts at improving the standard of education could be enhanced. **Monyatsi** of University of Botswana utilized combined quantitative and qualitative approaches to evaluate the impact of primary education programmes of the University of Botswana on the education sector in the country. The results indicated that the Department of Primary Education had had a positive impact on graduates of primary education though with some challenges, which were highlighted.

Bassey, Mfonobong, Umobong, and Usoro all of University of Uyo examined how effective management of the three levels of education (primary, secondary, university) led to poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. . It was found that there was a significant positive impact of successful completion of the levels of education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State. **Adeola Onyewadume** of the University of Botswana investigated the use of vernacular as a resource for teaching Guidance and Counseling in Botswana secondary schools. Findings showed that the teachers preferred to combine lecture, students' class presentations and class discussion to teach non-controversial issues; while they used debate to discuss controversial issues. Furthermore, the interviews, focus groups and the observed lessons showed that teachers and students switched from English to vernacular for ease of making clarifications. Other findings were that teachers opined that it was necessary to professionalize the teaching of Guidance and Counseling especially in terms of skillful application of vernacular resources like proverbs and folklore to the teaching of Guidance and Counseling.

Adesoji and Alao of Obafemi Awolowo University contend in their paper that the dividing line between indigenes and settlers is very thin and that in the context of modern Nigeria, the issue of citizenship needs to be strengthened. This involves going beyond mere constitutional provisions to enforcement as well as strengthening of statutory provisions. The paper therefore argues that the resolution of the central issues involved in citizenship/indigeneship conflicts will no doubt redefine the concept of federalism in Nigeria. **Michael Ejieh** also of Obafemi Awolowo University sought to find out how some secondary school students in lle-Ife, Nigeria, perceived student teachers in their school, their views about the impact of student teaching on their learning and their opinions about being taught by student teachers. It was found that they not only liked being taught by student teachers but they preferred them to their usual teachers. Some implications of the findings for policy and practice were drawn.

Olutayo of University of Botswana argued in his polemic paper that the construction of the history of sociology, in its micro-sociological bent, has continued to perpetuate the peripheral status of Africa as it delimits the impact of received knowledge in the reconstructions of African societies. It is therefore almost inconceivable to understand the cultural creations, or otherwise, without the impact of the 'global' requirements. **Okrah** of Indiana University explored the concept of "Sankofaism" as a theoretical framework to identify the valuable aspects of African

cultures, which can be claimed to further advance national development. The educational implications of the customs related to traditional governance, education, and child rearing practices were also investigated.

Jegede and Oluwajunse of Obafemi Awolowo University assessed the quality of teachers produced through the Distance Learning System (DLS) and the Conventional mode in the preparation of teachers in numeracy teaching in Nigeria's basic education. Result showed that conventional teachers excel in subject mastery and instructional skills. However, teachers of the DLS did better in class management and control. **Oyelekan** of University of Ilorin reviewed the current status of Nigeria's use of ICT in educational delivery. The review revealed that Nigeria is gradually advancing towards full integration of ICT into her educational system, even though at a slow pace. **Ashdown Shelly** of Dallas, Texas sought to understanding the relationship between personality and African traditional religion and how personality involves human development issues.

An Overview of the Status of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the Nigerian Education System.

By

Oyelekan, Oloyede Solomon.

Abstract

Efforts are being made in various quarters to ensure that Nigeria is not left behind in the global trend on the use of ICT in enhancing education. This paper provides a brief review of the literature on the status of ICT in the Nigerian education system. The efforts of some agencies involved in the drive are highlighted, while a review is also made on some empirical studies that have been carried out in this regard. The review indicates that Nigeria is gradually advancing towards full integration of ICT into her educational system, even though at a slow pace.

Introduction

The provision of an appropriate framework for the full integration of ICT into the education system of any nation is the responsibility of the federal or central government as the case may be. For the proper integration of the computer, and other ICT elements into the education system, there is the need for a comprehensive policy document to serve as a guide for stakeholders in the education sector. The policy document is expected to give direction to the implementation of the policy in terms of the provision of the conceptual framework, the objectives, the strategy, the action plan and the evaluation of the successes of the integration.

In 2001, the Federal Government of Nigeria published the National Policy on Information Technology, and established the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) to serve as the umpire in the implementation of the policy. However, this document failed to adequately address the issue of the integration of ICT into the Nigerian education system. The document presented the issue of ICT in education vaguely. While some sectoral aspect of our society like Governance, Health, Agriculture, Arts, Culture and tourism etc were given individual sectoral treatment, there was no sectoral treatment for education in the document. The document merely mentioned issues relating to education under the sectoral application for human resources development. One would have expected education to be treated distinctively like the other sectors therein, so that there are clear cut policy statements to guide stakeholders. It is also worthy of mentioning that the document does not give any emphasis on the development of indigenous software that are in tune with the educational needs of Nigerians, neither does it address issues of its incorporation into teacher training, classroom instruction and evaluation.

The policy listed nine major strategies for realizing the objectives of applying Information Technology (IT) in human resources development, one of which is 'making the use of IT mandatory at all levels of educational institutions through adequate financial provision for tools and resources'. While these noble strategies are applauded, the implication of the inadequacies in the document is that the National IT policy cannot adequately take care of the need of the Nigerian education system (Yusuf, 2005). Perhaps it would not be out of place to say that Nigeria has no national policy on the integrations of ICT into her education system'.

However, in the year 2004, the Federal Ministry of Education released a document termed 'the ministerial initiative on e-education for the Nigerian education system. This document is just an approval in principle for e-education project for the Nigerian education system. It does not take the place of a national policy on ICT in education. The document lists the major objectives of e-education in Nigeria as follows:

- To enhance access to quality education.
- To improve the education delivery system.
- To ensure optimal utilization of existing ICT resource.
- To ensure a globally competitive education system, and
- To reduce /eliminate social vices in the school system.

The document also appraised e-education worldwide and makes a case for the Nigerian education system to adopt e-education. It rationalizes the need for e-education while at the same time highlighting the strategies for its adoption. The benefits listed to be derived from e-education include:

- Enhanced access to quality education.
- Improvement in the education delivery system
- Optimal utilization of existing ICT resources
- Ensuring a global competitive education system, and
- Reduction / elimination of social vices.

The strategies proposed are: policy enactment, capacity building, advocacy, and curriculum review. While reflecting on the Nigerian situation analysis on e-education, the Federal Ministry of Education reported in the ministerial initiative on e-education that a pilot study conducted by the National University Commission (NUC) showed that the average number of computers per school increased between 1998 and 2001, and that it witnessed a greater increase between 2000 and 2004. So also it was reported that there was a considerable increase in the percentage of schools connected to the internet, and there was an increase in the percentage of teachers that feel confident on the use of the computer in 2003.

Ict In Nigerian Education.

The Federal Ministry of Education and its agencies have initiated many ICT-driven programmes. These programmes include the SchoolNet Nigeria, the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) and the Virtual Library project. The NUC is implementing a number of ICT projects including Library Automation project, Nigerian Universities Management Information system (NUMIS), Nigerian University Network, Virtual Institute for Higher Education Pedagogy (VIHEP), and the Virtual Institute for Higher Education in Africa (VIHEAF). NUC is also conducting an e-learning pilot programme for Nigerian universities. Nigerian universities have been encouraged by NUC to utilize at least twenty percent of teaching and research equipment grant for development.

According to Jibril (2006), SchoolNet Nigerian was launched in September 2001with the support of the ministries of education, telecommunication, science and technology, and the Educational Tax Fund (ETF). It is a non-profit making organization created to address the secondary education sector in Nigerian. SchoolNet Nigeria embodies a partnership between a diverse range of public and private sector interests in order to mobilize Nigerian's human and

financial resources for the purpose of using the computer in education. It creates learning communities of education and learner who use computers to enhance education within and beyond Nigeria, and contribute to the transformation of the education system in into one which participates in and benefits from the knowledge society.

The virtual library programme commenced operation in 2002 with one thousand electronic books and journal and is now running at www.nigeriavirtuallibrary.com. The Higher Education Integrated Information System is the ICT programme of the department of higher education in the Federal Ministry of Education to act as a network to provide direct access as well as coordinate and capture data from all tertiary institutions, through agencies like the NUC, National Board on Technical Education (NBTE), and the National Council on Colleges of Education (NCCE). The Department of Higher Education intended to bring all of them under one umbrella and the Federal Executive Council (FEC) had given approval in 2004 (Federal Ministry of Education, 2004). With all these programmes being put in place by the Federal Government and her agencies, there is no doubt that Nigeria is on course as far as computer integration in education is concerned, not minding the ninetieth position ranking of Nigeria on the world IT rating (The Punch, 2006).

Conferences, workshops, and seminars are being held across the country on the integration of the computer into the Nigerian education. The science Teachers Association of Nigeria's (STAN) annual conference held in Abuja in August 2003 had many stakeholders in attendance. Lecturers from higher institutions, ministry officials, teachers across the various levels of education, and students were in attendance. This researcher attended the conference. The conference also had attendance from overseas. This included people from the United States, the United Kingdom, Ghana, South Africa, and Botswana. A total of seventy six papers were listed in the proceedings of the conference for presentation, across the various panels. The impact of NITDA was greatly felt as it conducted training for attendance of the conference using two big mobile internet buses. The training was supervised by the Director General of NITDA, the late Professor G.O. Ajayi. There was also a team of experts from the University of Botswana that conducted training for attendants, on the use of ICT in education. The papers presented reviewed the status of ICT in Nigeria as at 2003, and they provided suggestions and recommendations that could enhance ICT integration into the Nigerian education system. Particular emphasis was on the use of ICT in science education since the theme of the conference was 'Information and Communication Technology and Science, Mathematics and Technology Education'.

In their own paper, Cirfat, Zumyil & Ezema (2003) assessed the adequacy, relevance, and utilization pattern of available ICT facilities in the two colleges of Education in Plateau state. A survey design was employed. The instrument used included questionnaires, oral interviews, and personal assessment of visible ICT facilities. The sample for the study covered all departments in the two schools of sciences in the colleges. The result indicated that the status of ICT in the two colleges of education was below average. Very few ICT facilities were available. Apart from the computer department, none of the departments in the school of sciences possessed a computer, and any of its accessories.

Lawal, Ahmadu, & Dogara (2003) also conducted an investigation into the use of ICT in teaching and learning Science, Technology and Mathematics (STM) in six selected secondary schools in Kano metropolis. They aimed at determining whether teachers made use of ICT in teaching STM, whether ICT materials were available, and whether their use enhanced teaching and learning of STM. Data was collected using two sets of questionnaires administered on STM teachers and students. Findings among others revealed that about half of the STM teachers were IT literate but very few used ICT in teaching STM. It was also discovered that ICT

materials were available but inadequate and inaccessible to STM teachers and students. They recommended among other things, that government and private school proprietors should provide enough funds for the purchase of ICT materials and to support the use of ICT in teaching and learning.

Adeyegbe, Oke, & Tijani (2003) conducted a research on the feasibility of teaching and assessing STM with ICT in Nigeria. They sought to find out the level of availability and capacity development of ICT in teaching and assessing STM in Nigeria, and when exactly should Nigeria adopt ICT in teaching and learning STM. A questionnaire was administered to collect data from six sampled secondary schools in Lagos state (two federal government colleges, and four public schools). The respondents comprised of 246 SS3 students (165 males and 81 females), and 46 STM teachers (28 males and 18 females). Analysis of data collected was through the use of frequency counts of the responses to the items on the questionnaire, which was reduced to percentages for each category of respondents. The result indicated a very low availability of ICT materials and equipment in the sampled schools although eighty percent (80%) of the respondents (both teachers and students) indicated their willingness to be trained for ICT usage. This corroborated the low level of capacity development for computer use in teaching and assessing STM subjects. From the free comments of the respondents, it was apparent that there was an eagerness to understand the usage of the computer for teaching and assessing STM subjects. The researchers expressed a high hope for the adoption and integration of the computer in the teaching and assessment of STM in Nigeria. Among the various recommendations made were that STM teachers should be trained on the use of ICT gadgets and that the present STM curriculum should be overhauled to accommodate the use of the computer in teaching and assessing STM subjects.

Busari (2003) carried out an investigation into the training status and ICT support of teacher trainers in institutions of higher learning in Lagos state. All the colleges of education, universities and polytechnics in Lagos state formed the population of the study. She found out that most teacher trainers had little ICT support from their employers and that majority of them rarely applied ICT in instructional delivery. It was recommended among other things that personal computers and ICT training (especially in educational software development) be provided for all teacher trainers and that special computer course be set up for student teachers.

Oloruntegbe & Odutuyi (2003) traced students' poor performance in chemistry to inappropriate teaching methods. They proposed a computer based approach to chemistry instruction. Furthermore, they asserted that Computer Aided Instruction (CAI) is not just a means of transforming knowledge but more importantly, it can be an extension of both the teacher and the chalkboard. This means that topics covered in the syllabus are encoded in various computer programs in a self-instructional mode which makes it easy for the students to use with minimal assistance. It was further stated that topics that are often perceived difficult such as radioactivity, mole and stoichiometry, organic chemistry and electrochemistry can be encoded or programmed and presented in an exciting and captivating interphase that will be suitable for teaching and learning chemistry. The programming options recommend for software development for chemistry instruction include C++, Java, and Visual basics. So also, electronic learning with web-based system with colorful hyperlinks linking related topics to one another in a quick-reference manner can also be developed. This will enable a learner studying in a particular software environment to quickly navigate to other related reference materials either in library or private books collection.

In her own paper, Ezeliora (2003) listed the problems affecting effective use of IT in teaching and learning chemistry in schools to include: computer illiteracy, lack of facilitating structures, insecurity, poverty, and lack of government policy. Among the suggestions made

towards solving these problems are that government should strive to provide uninterrupted electricity to all parts of the country, and that computer education should be given its rightful place in our education system, because of its importance in the development of the system.

Earlier on, Odogwu (2000) had conducted a study to find out STM teachers competence on the use of the computer, as a tool for enhancing STM instruction and learning in secondary schools. The objectives of the study were to examine teachers' awareness, competence and application of the computer in their lessons, and to find out whether teachers awareness, competence and application depend on gender, and subject taught. A total of 95 STM teachers (58 males and 37 females) form the sample of the study. Data were collected from the teachers using a questionnaire, and analysis of the result was done by the use of chi-square and percentage. From the analysis of the result, 21% of the teachers were not computer literate at all while 79% were literate. The analysis also revealed that 16 teachers in the sample occasionally used computer in their schools. These findings indicate that teachers were not applying computer in their teaching and this study seeks to address such deficiency. Furthermore, all the teachers sampled were willing to undergo training in computer competence. This was confirmed in the later findings of Adeyegbe et al. (2003).

Iji (2000) also examined the level of acceptability, effectiveness, and attitude of mathematics teachers towards computer utilization in the teaching of Mathematics in secondary schools. The result of his study revealed that computers could be used in the teaching of Mathematics generally. It was also revealed that the computer is a good instructional tool for the teaching of three dimensional problems as earlier discovered by Etukudo (1995). Among the recommendation from his study were that computers should be utilized in teaching other difficult concepts in Mathematics and that teachers should be further exposed to the capabilities of computers through short term courses, seminars, workshops, as well as conferences as the case may be.

Nigeria also hosted the African sub-regional ministerial conference on the integration of ICT in education in Abuja between the 26th and 30th of July, 2004. The conference had in attendance African ministers of education and experts in the education sector as well as representatives of the international development partners, the civil society, media practitioners, and the private sector. This conference was held under the auspices of the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), and the Federal Ministry of Education in Nigeria. The conference reviewed the actions so far taken by various African countries in enhancing access to and quality education through the use of open and distance learning methodologies and ICT. The ministers developed a common understanding and appreciation of the issues regarding the integration of ICT in education and training and interacted widely with stakeholders present to gather a broad range of information about skills and experiences on the use of ICT in education. They also obtained comprehensive information on models and appropriate practices on the use of ICT in education and training at the various levels and sectors of education and training in the sub-region. The ministers considered and accepted the recommendations pertaining to the main issues, concerns, and challenges associated with the integration of ICT in education and training in the sub-region. The communiqué issued at the end of the conference listed general recommendations under the following headings: infrastructure, human resource development, research/evaluation, and monitoring and content development. Sectoral recommendations were made under the following headings: ICT in primary education, ICT in secondary education, ICT in non-formal / adult education, ICT in teacher education, ICT in higher education, electronic libraries and data project and ICT in technical, vocational and professional training.

Nigeria is benefiting from the One Laptop Per Child (OLPC) programme being championed by Professor Nicholas Negroponte. Two schools in Abuja i.e. Junior Secondary School, Jabi, Abuja and Local Authority Grammar School, Galadima, Abuja have already benefited from the programme since March 2007. In these schools, each class is made up of a maximum of forty students, each having his or her own laptop. According to a Federal Capital Universal Basic Education (UBE) official, fifteen more schools have also been packaged for the project in the 2008 UBE commission's budget (Nigerian Television Authority nationwide news, 24th of January 2008). In the same vein, The Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) is providing 365 schools in Nigeria with ICT centres, each to be provided with 31 computers. The NCC chairman had already commissioned the first one at Oriwu model College, Ikorodu in Lagos (Nigerian Television Authority network news, 3rd of February 2008). At the moment, awareness about the potency of the use of ICT for enhancing teaching and learning continues to increase with schools at all levels of education now making ICT literacy as part of their requirements for recruiting teachers.

Conclusion

From the above review, it is obvious that the utilization of ICT in the Nigerian Education system is still at a very low level. Not many teachers are computer literate. Few schools have computers and other ICT infrastructure, and actual utilization of computers for pedagogical effectiveness is extremely low. However, considering the present status of ICT in education in Nigeria and the various efforts that are being made to make it a reality, it is apparent that Nigeria is advancing towards proper integration of the ICT into her education, even though at a slow pace.

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A Tracer Study To Evaluate The Impact Of The Department Of Primary Education Programmes Of The University Of Botswana On The Education Sector Of Botswana

by

Dr Pedzani Perci Monyatsi

Abstract

One of the aims of the Botswana education since independence was to improve the primary level as a foundation of the whole education system. As a result, the Government of Botswana, in collaboration with other partners the world over, engaged in the mammoth task of improving the primary education sector. One such endeavour was the establishment of the Department of Primary Education in 1991 with the main aim of improving primary education in any way possible. However, since its inception in 1991 and the changes which are taking place since then, no major study if any was ever carried out to holistically assess the impact of the Department of Primary Education's program on the education system. This study utilized combined quantitative and qualitative approaches using a questionnaire survey and interviews. The results show that the Department of Primary Education had had a positive impact on graduates of primary education though with some challenges, which were highlighted. The highlighted concerns need prompt attention if the impact were to be wholly positive.

Key words: Botswana, University of Botswana, tracer study, educational management, Revised National Policy.

Background

Since gaining independence from Britain in 1966, the Government of Botswana pledged to give high priority to the development of basic education as this was the only way to start the arduous journey to the provision of skilled human resources for the various sectors of the economy. Much as the Government of Botswana was committed to achieving this goal and spent a sizeable amount of the country's financial resources in education, it should be realized that one of the main factors in the attainment of quality education is the calibre of the teachers who play a pivotal role in driving the education system (Monyatsi, 2003).

In an attempt to improve the calibre of teachers, including the quality of the education provided, especially in the basic education system, (Marope, 1995) contends that the government of Botswana embarked on an aggressive process of improving teachers and teaching. The Government of Botswana was not alone in this mammoth task, but there was collaboration and support from donor agencies from various countries. Notable and more relevant to this study, was the United States International Development Agency (USAID) which collaborated in the establishment of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana in 1981 under the auspices of the Primary Education Improvement Project (PEIP).

The establishment of the Department was one of the collaborative efforts between the government of Botswana and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) to improve primary education. The project ran from 1981 to 1991.

At its inception, the Department offered two in-service programmes: a one year Diploma and a four-year Bachelor of Education degree in Primary Education. The first intake for both programmes was in August 1982. The first Diploma group graduated in October 1983 while the last graduated in October 2000. About 231 students graduated from the Diploma programme. The first B.Ed. group graduated in October 1985. Until October 2006, more than 1000 students have graduated from the B. ED (Primary) programme (University of Botswana, 2007).

The Department of Primary Education reviewed its Diploma and Degree programmes in April 1995 with an eight member Ad-hoc Committee. The Committee had representation from the DPE, Colleges of Education, Teacher Training and Development and Teaching Service Management in the Ministry of Education. The review was necessitated by the following factors:

During NDP 7 the Ministry of Education decided that Primary Teacher Training Colleges upgrade the Certificate programme they had been offering to a Diploma. This meant that both DPE and Colleges were to prepare Diploma graduates for primary schools, a role the DPE had been monopolizing for a very long time (Republic of Botswana, 1991).

The Revised National Policy on Education of 1994 had future implications for both the Diploma and Degree programmes. For instance, Department of Primary Education B.Ed graduates could no longer be deployed to Colleges, not only because the Colleges were fully staffed but also because the minimum requirements for a College Lecturer were changed to a Master's degree (University of Botswana, 2000). This meant that while DPE has been training teacher trainers, its main focus should now be to train classroom teachers and educational managers in the primary education sector.

The third factor was that the Ministry of Education presented a specific request to the Department of Primary Education to address its special needs in the primary education sector. The request included the following (University of Botswana, 2007):

The programmes should change their orientation to include specializations in the identified areas of need, namely: Remedial Teaching, Special Education, Infant Education Methods, Guidance and Counseling, Teacher Advising and Practical Subjects.

The programmes should establish priorities to strengthen instruction in the areas of Mathematics, Science and English.

The current system of admission into the programmes through the Mature Age Entry Scheme to be reviewed to accommodate the academic requirements for Diploma level training in Primary Teacher Training institutions which is at least a minimum of 3 O' Level subjects (MOE letter dated 21 June, 1994).

The current B. Ed Primary programme was revised and introduced during the academic year 1999/2000 to produce graduates who can contribute, more meaningfully, in the development of primary education as a foundation of education (University of Botswana, 2005). The review of the programme then was a response to the professional and personal needs of the students of primary education. The revision was done to:

- Make the programme more relevant to the world of practice rather than being too abstract.
- Accommodate changes taking place in the schools and primary education field in general.
- Update in-service teachers with modern teaching skills so that they can fit in the demands of Vision 2016.

As the University of Botswana moved into semesterisation or development of an academic structure characterized by semester courses, the Department of Primary Education had yet another opportunity to review its programmes to be in accordance with the new university Mission/ Vision/Values statement which envisages the University to "be a leading academic centre of excellence in Africa and the world".

As a response to the National Development Plan 8 which had as its main objective "to raise the quality of primary education" through training heads of schools as instructional leaders, the B Ed Educational Management programme was developed such that it accommodates other areas of education besides primary (Republic of Botswana, 1997). In other words, instead of confining the program to the in-service of primary school managers, it was opened up to accommodate other sectors such as secondary school managers, police, Botswana Defense Force and Prison's institution managers, and vocational institutions, as long as they met the entrance requirements.

Since its inception in August 2002, the B. Ed programme has attracted clients from various education sectors such as secondary and primary departments, police, vocational colleges, and general educational administrators from various sectors. Candidates for the program are both from within and outside the country. The DPE feels highly indebted to the community and the Botswana education system in particular. To this effect, by developing the B.Ed Educational Management Programme in collaboration with the Ministry of Education (MOE), DPE is responding to an important need at school and other education institutions for improving the educational management.

The objectives of the Department of Primary Education include inter alia, to:

- provide leadership in the improvement of basic education, in collaboration with other departments and the Ministry of Education.
- strive toward becoming a centre of excellence dedicated to improving the quality of teacher education and teaching in the primary schools.
- prepare personnel for higher posts of responsibility in the field of primary education who are capable of being agents for the improvement of primary/basic education.
- contribute to the body of knowledge about the educational enterprise in Botswana through research and evaluation undertakings.
- strive toward becoming agents of innovation and changes in the field of primary/basic education.
- provide leadership skills for the education sector (University of Botswana, 2006).

Statement of the Problem

The Government of Botswana has invested heavily in education and training since attaining independence from Britain on the 30th of September 1966, but very little information is

generally known about the impact of these investments. One of the aims of education in Botswana, which resulted from the report of the National Commission on Education 1977, was to improve primary education as the foundation of other levels of education. As one of the strategies to meet this goal, the Department of Primary Education (DPE) of the University of Botswana was established in 1981. The establishment of the Department was one of the collaborative efforts between the governments of Botswana and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) to improve primary education. The USAID project, which was responsible for this goal, was called the Primary Education Improvement Project (PEIP). The project ran from 1981 to 1991.

Data for assessing the impact of programmes could be obtained in many different ways for different purposes. One of the ways used is a tracer survey that was applied in this study. There were four main reasons why graduate tracer surveys are conducted, mainly to:

- Get valuable information for the development of institutions;
- Evaluate the relevance (and quality) o f higher education programmes;
- Contribute to the accreditation process; and
- Inform stakeholders, students, parents, teachers and administrators on the worth of the product (Teichler & Lenecke, 2005).

Although there had been many changes that took place in the programmes offered by the DPE such as increase in student numbers, termination of certificate and diploma programmes, semesterization, introduction of the B. Ed Educational Management, increase in staff, acquisition of higher qualifications by staff, introduction of more courses, review of courses and programmes, and many others, there has never been an attempt to evaluate the impact of the DPE programmes on primary education in the country. It is therefore the purpose of this tracer study to evaluate the impact of the Department of Primary Education programmes of the University of Botswana in the education sector of Botswana. The main objectives of this Tracer Study are to:

- assess the impact of the B.Ed Primary and Educational Management programmes on the careers of the graduates;
- assess how the graduates perceive the B.Ed Primary and Educational Management programmes in relation to their academic and professional developments;
- assess the graduates' perceptions of the study conditions and provisions while at the University of Botswana;
- determine the extent to which the programmes equip graduates with the knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant to their job requirements;
- establish the strengths and weaknesses of the programmes;
- ascertain the relevance and usefulness of the programmes; and
- make recommendations on the way forward.

Methodology

This study adopted a combined quantitative and qualitative research design. The population for this study comprised of 663 graduates of the Department of Primary Education degree programs who completed their studies between 1995 and 2006. The target population for this study was 200 of the 1995 to 2006 cohorts (graduates). Tracing the graduates proved to be a lot of work as it involved studying records at the University of Botswana Admissions Office, the

Department of Primary Education of the UB, Teaching Service Management, Teacher Training and Development. Another method of tracing them was to ask other Alumni for their colleagues' whereabouts.

A survey questionnaire and a structured interview schedule were used to collect data for the study. The questionnaire collected data on graduate biographical data, information on study and training, study provision and conditions, programmes and courses, and impact of studies on career. The interview was deliberately used to validate the survey data because as it is useful when one needs to explain and illuminate or interpret quantitative data.

To a larger extent the questionnaires were pre-coded. Data imputing into the computer was done followed by analysis through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program.

The researcher after interviewing some subjects immediately developed a case record per interview. The themes emerging from the data were then identified. Coding of the case records was then conducted. This involved identifying text segments, placing a bracket around them and assigning a code word or phrase that accurately describes the meaning of the text segment (Creswell, 2005:238). Content analysis then done with data from interviews. As alluded to by Cresswell (2005) and Baker (1999), content analysis is often used where studies seek to understand values and social perspectives on issues. Content analysis was appropriate in analyzing data from interviews as the study sought to establish perspectives of various subjects on academic programmes. All the data from interviews, documents and questionnaires were triangulated and interpreted.

Findings of the study

These will be discussed under the following headings: factors influencing decision to enroll at the University of Botswana, study provision and conditions at the University of Botswana, usefulness of study programme to current job, overall usefulness of studies at Department of Primary Education, extent studies were helpful, likelihood of choice, usage of knowledge gained during studies, expected abilities and attitudes in current job, extent of satisfaction with professional studies, usefulness of the following elements to work, extent of satisfaction with professional studies, importance of occupation, and recommendations/the way forward.

Factors influencing decision to enroll at University of Botswana

The majority of the respondents agreed that the following factors were important to them in making the decision to enroll at the University of Botswana in the Department of Primary Education for the B. Ed Primary and B. Ed Educational Management degrees: availability of scholarships; reputation of Department; practice-oriented study programme in my subject; chance for specialization in my subject; admission standards and my prior grades; and advice by my parents/relatives, except for the availability and quality of on Campus accommodation which they felt was not important.

Study provision and conditions at the University of Botswana

There were different experiences expressed by respondents with regards the study provisions and conditions at the University of Botswana and these included: assistance/advice for final examinations; opportunity of out of class contacts with teaching staff; academic advice offered; chances to participate in research projects; teaching quality; structure of degree programme;

testing/grading system in examinations; possibility of individual structuring of studies; provision of supervised practical work experience; contacts with fellow students; chance for students to have an influence on department policies; quality of technical equipment (PC, measuring instruments, etc); quality of equipment of laboratories/workshops; supply of teaching material; equipment and stocking of libraries; quality of lecturers; variety of courses offered; quality of course content of major; practical emphasis of teaching and learning; and infrastructure. Most of the respondents in this study were not happy with the study provision and conditions at the DPE although the differences in opinion were not that large in most cases, for example, 49% said the quality of lecturers was good while 41% said it was not good, 39.7% said the quality of course content of major was bad while 38.8% said it was fine, and 43% believed infrastructure was good and 41% were of the opinion it was not.

Usefulness of study program to current job

Any programme of study should be responsive to the job market requirements. The respondents in this study rated the usefulness of the study programme they undertook at the Department of Primary Education to be very useful to their current jobs. However, there are some areas whereby the differences are not that big or they have implications that need to be addressed; for instance, 55.4% say that the course content of the major in the field of studies was useful but 35.3% believe it was not and when one is speaking of content and such a large number says it is not useful, there is need to do something. Another concern is the small difference whereby 42.5% say the courses were relevant to their work while 41.8% say they were not.

Overall usefulness of studies at DPE

Any study that is offered by an institution or one undertakes should be of benefit. Graduates who went through studies at the DPE believe that overall they have found the studies useful in the following: for finding an adequate job after finishing studies; for fulfilling present professional tasks; for your future professional development/career; for the development of personality/education; while there was a tie at 45.3% for the preparation for work situation; and a small difference of 46.8% disagreeing ad 44.6% agreeing for promotion in your job.

Extent to which studies were helpful

Study programmes should help graduates in many ways and in this study many respondents found that the programmes were helpful in fulfilling the following: finding a satisfying job after finishing your studies; for your long-term career prospects; for the development of your personality; develop your confidence in your job; to be informed about your job; and gain more skills and knowledge in your profession. However, the differences of opinion with regards finding a satisfying job after finishing studies was very small with 42.5% agreeing while 38.8% disagreeing.

Likelihood of choice

The respondents differed in their answers; for instance, the majority agreed that they would not choose the same programme of study; choose the University of Botswana; choose the UB but not the Department of Primary Education; choose a higher degree level; not to decide not to study at all; and choose different courses.

Usage of knowledge gained during studies

Respondents indicated that they use the knowledge they acquired during their studies in their current jobs in the following areas: Mathematics; natural sciences (physics, chemistry), material science, environmental Education; social sciences (psychology, sociology, politics); management of resources; legal issues (elements relevant to discipline/subject); knowledge of the English language; contemporary issues in education; integration of HIV/AIDS; and research.

Expected abilities and attitudes in current job

Respondents contend that the following abilities and attitudes were to a high extent expected from them in their current job: willingness to learn; ability to solve problems; reflective capability; ability to express oneself in writing; unconventional thinking; willingness to perform/commitment; ability to coordinate; ability to improvise; reliability; ability to work under pressure; independence; sense of responsibility; creativity; economic reasoning; determination; loyalty to the institution and its objectives; persistence; ability to cooperate; ability to assert oneself; self-confidence; adaptability; empathy; leadership qualities; and initiative. The extent to which they are expected is in the region of 80% and above.

Extent of satisfaction with professional studies

Respondents indicated that they were not satisfied with the following characteristics of their professional studies: relevance of courses to my work; addressing possibility to work in a demanding job; student engagement in own learning; high quality of courses offered in the Department; support services of the Department; hands on approach; opportunity of pursuing continuous learning; equipment of the workplace; workplace surroundings (noise, space, climate); and quality of lecturers. However, the respondents were quite satisfied with the following: depth of content; working atmosphere; possibility to use knowledge and skills acquired during studies; promotion prospects; and the chance of realizing own ideas.

Usefulness of some elements to current work

Respondents pointed out that the following elements of the study programme were useful to their current work: course content of major; variety of courses offered; opportunity for specialization; research emphasis; practical emphasis of teaching and learning; and work experience (internships, etc).

Extent of satisfaction with professional studies

Respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the following characteristics of their professional studies: depth of content; working atmosphere; relevance of courses to my work; possibility to use knowledge and skills acquired during studies; addressing possibility to work in a demanding job; student engagement in own learning; high quality of courses offered in the Department; promotion prospects; support services of the Department; chance of realizing own ideas; hands on approach; opportunity of pursuing continuous learning; equipment of the workplace; workplace surroundings (noise, space, climate); and quality of lecturers.

Importance of occupation

Respondents indicated that they were satisfied with the following different characteristics of the occupation which were important for them personally. In other words, teaching was important to the respondent. They were satisfied with the following variables: largely independent disposition of work; opportunity of undertaking scientific work; clear and well ordered tasks; possibilities of acquired knowledge; job security; social status and respect; opportunity of

pursuing own ideas; high income; chances of political influence; demanding job tasks; good career prospects; lots of free time; coordinating and management tasks; possibility of working in a team; and chance of doing something useful for society.

Recommendations: The way forward

- Less courses per level;
- More research skills to be taught;
- More emphasis on computer and information technology skills;
- Reduce programme duration from four to two years as in South Africa;
- Design courses that are relevant to students' fields of work;
- Provide IT materials and lessons;
- Courses should not be repeated;
- Strengthen student tutor system so that we can be helped;
- Develop professional skills and knowledge in management as we are expected to do management work at schools;
- Subject specialization to correspond with those offered in primary schools to meet the need of the syllabi;
- Train more lecturers to PhD level; and
- Lecturers should be encouraged to change attitude to the better.

From the findings of this study, it is clear that the establishment of the Department of Primary Education at the University of Botswana was a noble venture by the Government of Botswana as its graduates helped improve the quality of education at primary school level throughout the country. This is so because the colleges of education were staffed with qualified lecturers who were able to produce quality teachers who in turn should impact positively on students' achievements. The study has also revealed the need to evaluate programmes regularly in order to offer interventions whenever they occurred. That very little evaluation of impact was done after such a long time indicates that a lot of damage which might have been avoided was not. For quite a long time, the DPE had been operating with some challenges which could have been arrested in time.

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Sankofa: Cultural Heritage Conservation And Sustainable African Development

By

Kwadwo Asafo-Agyei Okrah

Abstract

In the wake of modernization and scientific and technological development, comments abound to the effect that African cultures and traditions are old fashioned; they stifle progress in nation building and that they should be completely forgotten and Africans should adopt new ways of life. Some even say African cultures and traditions are "dirty, primitive and barbaric". However in Africa, these cultures and traditions have helped to mold the attitudes and character of children to become productive and useful citizens. In this paper, I will explore the philosophy of "Sankofaism" (go back to your roots) as a theoretical framework to identify the valuable aspects of African cultures, which can be claimed to further advance national development. The educational implications of the customs relating to traditional governance, education and child rearing practices would also be investigated. Consequently, we can evaluate the cause of the woes of African people whether it is the result of wrong adaptation to Western cultures or a confusion of a healthy marriage between traditionalism and modernism.

Introduction

National development in Africa has always been conceived as a copycat of western ideas at the expense of cultural heritage and these are fundamental issues that require critical examination. This paper is particularly appropriate at this time because more than ever, the world, especially developed nations, is trying to capture for the first time or is in the process of making strenuous efforts to capture their own cultural identities in the form of multicultural education. Hence, education systems have undertaken steps to encourage children to be culturally sensitive, understanding, tolerant, respectful and accepting of other cultures.

The topic cultural heritage and (sustainable) national development are focal points that raise questions, which require in-depth discussion.

Culture

The many definitions of culture bring to the fold that "A people without the knowledge of their past, origin and customs are like a tree without roots". Better still, a man without lineage is a man without citizenship, without identity and without allies. All tribes (ethnic groups) have mythological systems that define their derivation from a common source and, this is critical for social organization and social control.

In his elucidating and radical definition of culture, Said (1994) observes that culture is those practices, like the arts of description, communication, and representation, that have relative autonomy from the economic, social, political, realms and that often exist in aesthetic forms, one of whose principal aims is pleasure. Said goes on to include secular stock of lore about distant parts of the world and specialized knowledge available in such learned disciplines as ethnography, historiography, philology, sociology, and literary history as part of culture.

Taylor (1920) defines culture as a complex whole, which includes knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. It is the sum total of the material and spiritual values created by all our peoples through history. It includes the arts, the sciences, knowledge, manners, education, mode of thought, behaviors, attitudes accumulated by a people in their struggle for freedom from nature and other social systems of domination. Culture is complex and, the sum total of a people's way of life.. This is an indication that culture is embracing and determines people's attitude and perception. The belief system, arts, and way of life of a people also ought to propel the direction of development.

Culture is the unconscious standards by which society – groups of people- operate. These standards are learned rather than acquired through biological inheritance. Since they determine, or at least guide the day-to-day behavior of the members of a society, human behavior is above all cultural behavior. The manifestation of culture may vary considerably from place to place but no person is "more cultured" in the anthropological sense, than any other (Haviland, 1993).

The sentiments articulated above are also expressed in the Cultural Policies of many African governments as strategies for national development. We could thus depend on the understanding of the culture and the adaptation of its elements for political, educational and economic development, as well as its strengths for social integration and development. But if the people have a distorted sense of development, negatively influenced by imported cultural values, then the so-much needed development would continue to be elusive.

People maintain cultures to deal with problems or matters that concern them. To survive, a culture must satisfy the basic needs of those who live by its rules, provide for its own continuity, and provide an orderly existence for the members of a society. In doing so, a culture must strike a balance between the self-interest of individuals and the needs of a society as a whole. And finally, a culture must have the capacity to change in order to adapt to new circumstances or to altered perceptions of existing circumstances (Haviland, 1993).

Culture is not an Abstraction; it is what we experience everyday. In our attempts to define the States in Africa, it is clear that we have not been able to harness the pluralistic cultural setting of our environment. As Mead (1975) observes, the more we know about ourselves and the other peoples of the world, the more harm we can do, as well as good. It is alienating for any individual or ethnic group to realize that nationally, his way of life, his language, religious affinities are not part of correct politics. In other words, to be born in an ethnic group that automatically disqualifies one from certain constitutional rights is an anomaly that ought to be corrected.

Self and collective identities are part of a culture, first of a sub culture, then of the national. In other words, for a broad cultural self to be acceptable, there has to be a clear recognition of the rights of minority cultures. How does it feel culturally, when one realizes that his/her language is not acceptable as a medium of discourse at national level? What happens in many African countries currently is an example of the politics of exclusion. Some cultures draw a blank check in the scheme of things in their respective countries. This is does not augur well for development and, constitutes "local level imperialism. We must build an understanding and appreciation of culture and development on the platform of mutual respect of all ethnicities. The fight for national culture must start with a fight for the liberation of ethnicities within the nation. This is that material keystone which makes the building of a culture possible (Fanon, 1995).

Development

Development, on the other hand, is any form of improvement, progress, enhancement, perfection or growth, for the betterment of society (Okrah, 2002). Forms of development include scientific and technological development, intellectual development, physical development and spiritual/emotional development. In order to create a competent and complete citizenship one needs a combination of all the forms of development. Hiding under the guise of scholarly achievement that places more emphasis on intellectual and physical development at the expense of spiritual/emotional development would lead to nothing but the preparation of individuals to become intellectual giants who are ethical dwarfs.

In the area of political development, all societies need to identify their traditional system of governance and systematically incorporate into the modern system all that is valuable. This is important because the founding fathers of different societies fashioned the system of government based on the needs of such a society. Great Britain and the monarchy alongside their parliamentary system is a classical example. Till today, a prime minister–elect pays homage to the queen before he/she takes office. Ghana has done well by devoting an article (271) of the constitution to the chieftaincy institution of the country. However, this is more nominal than pragmatic. The position of the State Linguist is another example of this integration.

Cultural heritage

The components of cultural heritage including the arts, language and literature and the subjects such as technology, history, archaeology, museums, arts and crafts and all mechanisms stimulate national pride when they are highlighted.

"Sankofa" is an Akan philosophy expressed in a symbol that gives credence to cultural heritage. The word in the Akan language of Ghana translates into English to mean "go back and take" (Sanko- go back, fa- take).

The Akan of Ghana use two Adinkra symbol to represent this idea. One version of it is similar to the Eastern symbol of a heart, and another version is that of a bird with its head turned backwards taking an egg off its back. The symbol means taking from the past what is good and bringing it into the present in order to make positive progress through the benevolent use of knowledge. Symbols (the *adinkra* symbols) are used by the Akan to express proverbs and other philosophical ideas. These ideas are numerous and are used throughout the world because of their aesthetic and spiritual beauty. Both Sankofa and *Gye Nyame* (Except God or the omnipotence of God) have since been adopted by other cultural groups in the area and around the world.

Sustainable development

The concept sustainable development may be described as "all the activities, efforts and expenditure harnessed to support communities to improve and maintain their capabilities to generate and sustain their own socio-economic progress and quality of life (Ite, 2007). It may also refer to guarding against cultural devaluation and disconnection from cultural heritage. The latter can cause the former because the values inherent in cultural heritage have protected bio-diversity over the years through cultural injunctions and sanctions.

Sustainability, in the context of this discourse may also refer to the construction of a nation and the preparation of its citizens in a manner that satisfies the maintenance and sustenance of such structure. Thus, there is the need to identify the improvement or progress in nation building and how best to maintain/sustain such development. Whilst sustainability may refer to the protection of the environment or the physical geo- and bio-diversity including fossil fuels, global warming, ozone layer depletion and green house effect; the concept can also be described as the use, benefit or application of present natural resource – tangible and intangible, material and non-material – whose consumption is consciously reciprocated with appropriate replacement for the benefit of the future and posterity.

The current prevailing wisdom, which places primacy on the development of science as the only source of progress, is indicative of our narrow definition of national development. It is worth noting that most African countries are recognized the world over for their rich cultural heritage. For example, Ghana is highly recognized for her chieftaincy system as well as her kente fabric, which is known in every part of the world. The rich cultural legacy of proverbs embracing all aspects of human experience and wisdom bequeathed to us by our ancestors need not be lost to modernization. Likewise, the first international recognition or acknowledgement of excellence and competence among Nigerian professionals came through the arts by way of the Nobel Prize for Literature. The Nigerian home video industry (Nollywood) has a tremendous impact on how the performing arts are judged outside the shores of Nigeria.

The truth is that any modern government, which relegates one of the fundamentals of society to the background, may lose the focus of development. For, development is holistic and total, encompassing both the scientific and cultural knowledge. The inability of African governments to see through the nuances of development may be one of the factors responsible for the woes of the continent.

In tackling the notion of development, we must appreciate the impact of the superstructure of our culture. For, as we know, the colonial masters created an amalgam of peoples from disparate backgrounds to form the geographical expression called countries. One of the issues we have to contend with therefore is the management of pluralism, a fact that according to Eruvbetine (2001) has impeded development because African leaders have continued to manipulate the socio-political, religious, economic and cultural forces in their various countries to precipitate persistent clashes among individuals and institutions. It is our failure to manage pluralism, for example that has given birth to the Niger Delta crisis, Kenyan post-election crisis, conflicts in Liberia, Sierra Leone, Darfur (Sudan) conflict, Rwandan genocide in 1994, etc.

We need to be reminded of the importance of maintaining indigenous values and forms that are familiar with all cultures. As African people appreciate other people's (Western) customs and cultures by accepting their explanation for why they do what they do, it seems unthinkable and demeaning when they tend to remain in ethnic psychological captivity, that is, look down upon their own culture without finding explanations for what they do.

The point is, any vibrant cultural policy that is enunciated in a country that thrives on acts of imperialism and social injustice can never realize its full potentials. It is commonplace that development, generally, can only take place in a familiar, recognizable, knowledgeable, and friendly environment.

African countries are in a state of a cultural crisis and, the only way to restore traditional rights and the right to say something is culturally is wrong and unacceptable is to stand up to the intimidation and ridicule of western/secular progressive elites. They also need to resist the urge

to stay silent and unsafe under the shameless onslaught of pressure, intimidation, and ridicule from secular progressive/liberal political elites.

Language

The language policy in the educational system is another issue that retards development. Policies vary throughout the African continent between the need to promote social and political cohesiveness through an African vernacular and the need for a European language to assist in the modernization process.

Sadly, the language policy still remains an explosive issue in many African countries.

"You have not mastered the White people's foreign tongue? Then you do not have the right to education in your own country, not even at primary school. You have no right to any worthwhile education, however brilliant you are." (Kum'a Ndumbe III)

Our education continues to perpetuate the negative (colonial) attitude toward African languages and it is implicitly and explicitly 'accepted' that by the time an African has acquired some education, he has learned that English or French or some other European language is "THE" language and that African languages are primitive or even dirty or simply vernacular or dialects (Thairu, 1975). Till today, a candidate who, having passed his/her Secondary School Certificate Examination with distinctions in the other subjects but manages a mere "pass" in English is not accepted for University despite the fact that he/she had written all the examination in English! Judging one by one's English in African is a common reminder that the Native should learn his Master's language. Africans must strongly denounce the situation where the ability to speak "good" English determines one's ability for employment in Africa. It is totally unacceptable for culture to be considered as the privilege of the elite.

The many attempts to substitute indigenous African languages with English or French have not helped in national development. The fact is that language is a major cultural component that gives an individual his/her true identity. Additionally, we can learn from the Asian countries like Japan, China, Korea, India, Malaysia, Singapore and others, which have made successful and meaningful impact in their socio-economic developments through the effective and sustained development of their indigenous languages. These countries in Eastern Asia that compare favorably with African countries in all dimensions of development could do so because they understood the concept of development through the use of their own languages. – We could all observe that language as an important aspect of culture is expressed in the fact that no one cries or dreams in another's language. Also, a person thinks in the culture of the language he speaks. Hence by forcing upon students the language of other, we consciously alienate them from their own culture

Curriculum and African Educational Experience:

When schools help the learner to develop morally and intellectually by expanding their knowledge and understanding of their cultural heritage, the future generation (students) would be empowered to develop culturally and manage their environment and generate greater wealth for their societies. However, schools have actually failed in Africa and other parts of the world inasmuch as the economic and cultural agendas often come into conflict as the curriculums continue to reflect and transmit the cultures of other people (The West). Such education cannot utilize the country's own resources more fully to benefit its own people. Thus the people may be "educated" but the education they receive does not make room for the expression of their cultural values and practices (Okrah, 2003). Thus, when African children are prepared for a

world that does not exist within their own environment, these potentials that are trained for African nation building and development are lost to the already developed Western world.

A critical view of formal education in Africa reveals a difference between the goals of the school curriculum and those defined by social and cultural groups with which many school children identify. The areas of religion and language are perhaps the most obvious but there are others, including those relating to gender and culture. For example it is difficult for the social and emotional orientation of the Krobo secondary school girl (in Ghana) to be harmonized with the developmental goals of a school curriculum designed primarily by male curriculum expert from England or America. Or how can many African students reconcile the values cultivated by their schooling in a metropolitan country with the demands of allegiance to their village or cultural group? It is revealing then to conclude that the greater the discrepancy between the goals of the culture of a student's socialization and that of formal education, the wider the gap that needs to be bridged in order for the student to achieve the outcomes of formal education.

African leaders and delegates in a series of conferences appear to have made conscious efforts to revitalize African education. Attempts have been made several times to highlight several major problems facing educational planners, including education and economic development, financing of education, teacher demand, adult education and the quality of education (Okrah, 2003). Unfortunately none of the studies has addressed the issue of matching the content of the curriculum in African schools with the goals of the African cultural socialization.

Universities in African countries are still not African universities (Prince Kum'a Ndumbe III, 2007). They are universities tied to the aprons of the foreign, West, Europe and North America. Their conception, philosophy, orientation and research, even their academic rituals and ceremonies, are copies of the ancient and modern colonial masters. The argument is neither anti-white nor xenophobic. The issue at stake is how to uncover the mechanisms behind this lethal mindlessness and intellectual genocide that is depriving the whole humanity of precious scientific knowledge acquired by the black peoples over the millennia. When internationalization becomes homogenization, local people's knowledge cease to be ranked by the intellectual academic community; their knowledge is not considered intellectual or academic and, they lose their distinctive culture and what is relevant to their national needs.

Conclusion and Recommendation

In wrapping up, we are being reminded to be mindful of the need to guard against overvaluing a romanticized golden past. We acknowledge that Western knowledge systems are now part of African people and societies but we also need to develop and encourage a pluralistic view of knowledge in order to reflect our region's different cultural heritages. This will not only help us to re-claim our education but also to reconstruct the knowledge-generation process we call "research" (and its associated practices) and move beyond the fascination with ethno-science and other ethno-things, that have no intention of questioning the power relations between various knowledge systems (Hountondji, 2002).

We also need a new way of seeing and talking about education and globalization in the different regions in order to counter hegemonic discourses that continue to challenge traditional societies. Again, we need to be aware that we are not returning to a golden age but creating syntheses between local and global explorations of human and societal possibilities. The reclaiming of education for human development and social responsibility in Africa is not just about being culturally democratic but also about developing critical theory of our own (African) knowledge systems. To achieve this we need to actively participate in discussions about our own knowledge systems, have time to research, record and disseminate that knowledge and build on

their capabilities. This is the only way to counteract the high degree of Western bias in all areas of knowledge as evidenced in the way many international organizations including universities, tend to see themselves as knowledge banks with many experts and consultants seeing themselves mainly as teachers rather than learners. It is only through an exchange of genuine reciprocity that we can ensure effective and sustainable educational programs that will contribute to sustainable national development in Africa.

There is an urgent need to dismantle the logic that ascendancy is achieved through the command of a foreign language that lead to completely losing the memory of ourselves and becoming incapable of articulating our own thoughts in our own languages.

Africans need to re-appropriate their own languages and use them as basic vehicles for thinking, production, education, dreams and outlook on the world. It is not only language that is at stake here, but also the survival of the nation, the collective control of the destiny of a people. It is a question of a development thought out and directed by a nation, so that it may flourish.

The contemporary and future academic research has the obligation to collect, assemble and rehabilitate African scientific heritage in every discipline thus, opening the doors of schools and universities to our heritage.

Universities in Africa should become African universities on African soil. African languages must make their solemn entry into African universities as languages of instruction, research and comparative study with foreign languages. European languages must cease to be languages of self-alienation for Africans, languages of domination and structural alienation. European languages must become partner languages in Africa, languages of opening and frank dialogue. These changes must be made progressively, in stages, but it is imperative that they are made.

We must educate public opinion, those in positions of political, administrative and authority, university professors/lecturers/teachers and students, so that the structure of mental domination in our schools and universities is exposed and the logic of the universities that leads to underdevelopment revealed.

Indeed, they can be achieved if we (a) let our students experience things that matter to them, (b) encourage our students to explore their world more fully and in ways that have significance to their lives, and (c) engage them in learning experiences that help integrate their affective and cognitive development.

This paper has also contended that the real development of culture and the arts, which we yearn for, can never be achieved in a polity that fails to recognize the plural nature (of the many ethnicities) of African countries.

Decision makers will need the political courage to orient our educational institutions, especially African Universities in this new direction. But for the good of the people, this is not a matter of choice. The decision may be deferred for personal political reasons, but it can only be deferred. One day the political and economic shambles and the disintegration of values and perspectives will force the decision makers to act to save the nation/continent.

I believe that "all of us may not live to see the higher accomplishment of an African Empire – so strong and powerful, as to compel the respect of mankind, but we in our life-time can so work and act to make the dream a possibility within another generation" - Marcus Garvey.

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Differential Effectiveness of Provocation, Brainstorming and Emotional Mastery in Fostering Creativity Among Nigerian Adolescents

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Abstract

This study investigated the differential effectiveness of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery techniques in fostering creativity of Nigerian adolescents in public secondary schools. The study also sought to determine whether gender will moderate the effects of the three treatment programmes on creativity. A pre-test-post-test 3 x 2 factorial design was adopted. The simple random sampling procedure was used in selecting participants for the study and assigning them to three treatment groups. 270 participants taken among senior secondary school students in three randomly selected public secondary schools participated in the study. Data were collected using Ideative Originality Scale (IOS). Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was employed for data analysis with significant level fixed at 0.05. Findings from the study revealed among other things that the treatments differentially and significantly affect participant's level of creativity. On the basis of these findings, suggestions were made on how to enhance creative competence skills of adolescents.

Keywords: Provocation, Brainstorming, Emotional Mastery, Creativity, Adolescents

Introduction

The conditions of present day living in Nigeria characterised by unemployment, bad leadership, depressed economy, poor management of resources, complexity and interdependence, hunger, low income earnings and increased health problems, as well as dwindling resources, call attention to the need for enhanced levels of life-long skills to achieve personal fulfilment and quality of life. In this age of massive discontinuities and accelerating change, adolescents more than ever before need new ways of thinking about, and of "seeing" challenges and opportunities to help them develop a steady stream of new ideas and innovations. Adolescents who rely only on what they have learnt in the school for survival will remain trapped in old habits.

The truly successful people in the world today are individuals who have had cause to break ways from tradition and conventional way of perceiving phenomenon. Traditional and stereotypical approaches to problem solving are grossly inadequate in the face of complex realities of our time. We need to be able to "design" ways forward and come up with different alternative solutions to seemingly naughty challenges of life. Unfortunately, the traditions of education and the thinking culture of our society make no provision for "design" – we see it as applying only to buildings and furniture.

However, it is now being recognized that creativity skills are the engines that can drive sustainable human development. Although, the concept of creativity is looked at from different perspectives, there is a general consensus that creativity is the process of bringing into being of something, which did not exist before, either as a product, a process, a concept or a thought because every aspect of human development is initiated by new ideas. Creativity is one topic that cuts across all disciplines, business, organisation, establishment or system. This explains why there are various approaches or techniques of creativity.

Techniques of creativity refer to methods of generating, producing or constructing ideas or concepts. Techniques are like tools in a workshop, with different tools for different parts of the creative process. For instance, there are techniques for defining a problem, exploring attributes for a problem, generating alternatives, visual explorations, metaphors, analogies, and evaluating and implementing ideas. The fact that creativity is an interdisciplinary topic makes the list of its techniques rather inexhaustible. The present study attempts to foster creative thinking abilities of adolescents using two of the numerous creativity techniques (provocation and brainstorming), and emotional mastery with the sole objective of determining which of these techniques will be better off in fostering creative thinking skills of adolescents.

Provocation is a method of generating ideas by unorthodox or apparently illogical methods. It involves "thinking out of the box". That is, moving our thinking out of the established patterns that we use to solve problems normally. The technique involves making deliberately stupid statements (provocations), in which something we take for granted about the situation is not true. The assumption of this technique is that statements need to be stupid to shock our minds out of existing ways of thinking. Once we have made a provocative statement, our judgement is then suspended and the statement is used to generate ideas.

With provocation technique, things or statements need not to follow logical sequence or pattern. As a matter of fact, provocation statements have to be manifestly untrue, illogical or contradictory.

Brainstorming, the second treatment programme used in the present study is a creativity technique, which centres on generating ideas in a group situation based on the principle of suspending judgement. Although, an individual wishing to generate new ideas can use

brainstorming creativity tool, it is a process that works best with a group of people (Gary, 1992). In a brainstorming session, the role of an individual is to say whatever idea comes to his or her mind concerning the topic of discourse; whether relevant or not, the individual will not be criticized. It is the free association of different ideas to form a new whole – ideas or concepts.

Generally, creativity is tied to strong emotions, which both give it power and make it challenging. There is no aspect of human activity that is not influenced by emotion. In order to avoid the damaging effects of emotions, and to harness the creative potential in effective use of the emotions, emotional mastery is fundamental to a successful and meaningful life.

Emotional mastery is about getting our emotions to empower us in getting what we want from life. Emotional mastery is about regaining control over our lives by developing a strong, healthy and stable emotional core. It means bringing our emotions into balance (Castella, 2001). Emotional mastery is the ability to process our emotions so that their massage gets to us, and their energy is used for appropriate action. Very few of us know how to use our emotions in healthy and creative ways. This justifies the essence of the third treatment programme (i.e. Emotional mastery) in the present study.

Many studiess have been conducted on the effectiveness of different creativity techniques at enhancing creative thinking skills of individuals (Zhou et al, 2003); however, the differential effectiveness of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery, put together in fostering creativity has not been subject of formal investigation. The question posed by the present study, therefore is: Will there be any differential effectiveness of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery in fostering creativity of adolescents?

In view of the fact that gender of participants may have impact on the training programme, the present study used gender as moderator variable. The importance of examining creativity in relation to gender is based primarily on the socio-cultural differences among girls and boys (Abra, 1991). Traditionally, girls in our society have been encouraged to conform, whereas boys are expected to be active and dominant risk-takers (Block, 1983). Corroborating this view, Davis & Rimm (1989) acknowledge that most boys are provided with toys that enhance their visual-spatial ability such as trucks, Legos, and model. Lever (1974) also affirms that that the games of girls are often highly structured requiring turn taking and rules. Thus, social expectations and conformity pressures may create ''cultural blocks" to creativity in girls. Beside this, inconsistent findings have been discovered on gender differences and creativity (Boling & Boling 1993; Lau & Li 1996; Tegano & Moran 1989; Torrance 1983;) The present study therefore considers gender as second level independent variable to determine its influence on creative thinking competence of Nigerian adolescents.

Hypotheses

To provide answer to the above question, the following three hypotheses were tested at 0.05 levels of significance:

There is no significant difference in the effect of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity.

There is no significant difference in the effect of gender on subjects' level of creativity.

There is no significant gender difference on the effects of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity.

Method

Design And Participants

A 3X2 factorial design was employed. The various factors are treatments, which exist at three levels (i.e. provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery) and gender, which was observed at two levels (i.e. male and female). A total of 270 senior secondary school students randomly selected from 3 public secondary schools in Ijebu North Local Government Area of Ogun State participated in the study. Thirty of them each were randomly assigned to the three treatment groups with regards to gender in each of the sample school. On the whole, a total of 125 males and 145 females were used for the study. The age range of the participants was between 12 and 18 years with the mean age and standard deviation of 16.89 and 1.43 years respectively.

Instrumentation

The Ideative Originality Scale by Akinboye (1976c) was used in this study to obtain pre-post treatment mean scores of the subjects on creativity. The scale is a part of test battery – Ibadan Creativity Assessment Scale (I.C.A.S). It is a unidimensional behavioural creativity scale. The scale has two sections. Section A was meant to elicit biographical information such as sex, age etc and section B has twenty-five items on creativity. Participants are to indicate their degree of agreement with each item on a five point Likert type scale ranging from 0 (Totally unlike me) to 4 (very much like me). The highest total score obtainable on the scale is 100 (i.e. 4 X 25), while the lowest is 0 (i.e. 0 X 25). A high score indicates high creativity ability, while a score of Seventy (70) indicates a minimum acceptable creativity potential in an individual. Akinboye (1976c) reported an internal consistent co-efficient alpha of 0.71 for ideative originality scale and a test - retest reliability of 0.77 after three weeks of administration. A convergent construct validity with personal motivation creativity inventory also by Akinboye (1976d) revealed r = 0.73. Some of the items of the scale are "I'm attracted to difficult jobs", "I can pick out valuable things out of many seemingly attractive one", "I like solitary life", "I like to do things the way I think right", "innovations and introduction of the unusual makes one happy and healthy", "I follow instructions very closely" etc.

Procedure

Participants were greeted and told that they would be participating in a study that deals with problem solving. They were briefed on the benefits of the programmes and were then randomly distributed into the 3 experimental groups with regard for gender. Creativity test was thereafter, administered on them at each level of the experimental group (i.e. provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery) to collect pre-test score. All participants in each experimental group were then given standardised instructions explaining the task involve in each experimental group through lectures, discussion, case study analysis, simulation exercises and take home assignments.

The tasks considered to be a complex heuristic task were presented at each level of the experimental group after each session of serious lectures/discussions. Participants were asked to respond to them, first, as an individual and later on, the whole group was also made to consider the same problem. In order to ensure that they would focus on the objective of the study (i.e. generation of creative solutions) all participants were assigned a creativity goal – to do their best to generate highly creative solutions to the problem of focus. Creative solutions were described as solutions that are both original and appropriate. Therefore, participants were told that they needed to generate solutions that were not the typical response to the type of

problem presented to them in normal day life situation – that solutions were to be original but not impractical, illegal or the like.

All participants in each experimental group were asked if they understood what was meant by creativity and whether they were willing to try to be highly creative. All participants exhibited an understanding of the concept of creativity, and 100% accepted their goal to be creative.

The programme lasted for 8 weeks of 8 sessions of 1 hour intensive training at each level of the experimental groups. In each session, participants were given 30 minutes lectures/discussions plus 15 minutes for individual work/practice in creativity, and another 15 minutes for group work/practice in creativity. In some cases where participants could not provide genuine creative solution to problems presented, they were encouraged to work on them at home. At the end of the 8th week, creativity test was again administered on the participants to collect post-test scores. Some of the tasks presented to them to solve at each level of the experimental group are:

"Imagine you caught your spouse making love with another person on your matrimonial bed what is likely to be your first reaction?" (One of the tasks given to participants in emotional mastery group). "Houses do not have roots" (One of the provocation statements given to participants in provocation experimental group). "How best can the problem of corrupt practices be addressed in Nigeria" (One of the tasks given to participants in brainstorming group).

Method of Data Analysis

The Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was employed to analyse the data collected through pre-post test treatment administration.

Results

Hypothesis One

There is no significant effect of provocation, brainstorming, and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity.

Table 1:　　Analysis of Covariance of the main and interaction effects of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery and gender on subjects' level of creativity

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1643.407(a)	6	273.901	2.669	.016
Intercept	27493.435	1	27493.435	267.918	.000
Procreativity	37.924	1	37.924	.370	.544
Group	1156.399	2	578.199	5.634	.004
Gender	328.643	1	328.643	3.203	.075

group gender	*	24.208	2	12.104	.118	.889
Error		26988.760	263	102.619		
Total		907573.000	270			
Corrected Total		28632.167	269			

a R Squared = .057 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)

The results in Table 1 revealed that there is a significant effect of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity ($F (2,263) = 5.634$; $p <. 05$). However, no significant effect of gender on subjects' level of creativity was indicated ($F (1,263) = 3.203$; $p >.05$). Also no interaction effect of treatment and gender was shown ($F (2,263) = .118$; $p >.05$).

Table 2:   Univariate Analysis of Covariance of the effects of provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	1156.399	2	578.199	5.634	.004
Error	26988.760	263	102.619		

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

The results in Table 2 above revealed that there is a significant effect of treatment in the level of creativity of subjects. The calculated F Ratio of 5.634 was found to be higher than the critical F ratio of 3.00 at 2 and 263 degrees of freedom. This finding rejected the null hypothesis of no significant effect of provocation, brainstorming, and emotional mastery on subjects' level of creativity. To determine the directions of difference, a pairwise comparison was done on the treatment programmes. Results are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3:   Pairwise comparison of the differences in creativity scores of subjects in provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.(a)	95% Confidence Interval for Difference(a)	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
provocation	brainstorming	2.755	1.520	.071	-.237	5.748
	emotional mastery	5.116(*)	1.526	.001	2.112	8.121
brainstorming	provocation	-2.755	1.520	.071	-5.748	.237
	emotional mastery	2.361	1.525	.123	-.641	5.363
emotional mastery	provocation	-5.116(*)	1.526	.001	-8.121	-2.112
	brainstorming	-2.361	1.525	.123	-5.363	.641

Based on estimated marginal means

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

Results in Table 3 showed that significant difference existed in the level of creativity only between subjects exposed to provocation and those exposed emotional mastery, but not between subjects exposed to brainstorming and those exposed to emotional mastery and between those subjects exposed to provocation and brainstorming.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant effect of gender on subjects' level of creativity.

Table 4:   Univariate analysis of covariance of the differences in creativity scores of male and female subjects.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Contrast	328.643	1	328.643	3.203	.075
Error	26988.760	263	102.619		

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

The results in Table 4 revealed that there is no significant effect of gender on subjects' level of creativity. The calculated F-Ratio of 3.203 was found to be lower than critical F-Ratio of 3.84 at 1 and 263 degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis of no significant effect of gender on subjects' level of creativity was therefore accepted by this finding. This implies that level of creativity of subjects is not gender specific.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant gender difference on the effects of treatments (i.e. provocation and emotional mastery) on subjects' level of creativity.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of creativity scores of male and female subjects in provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery treatment groups.

group	gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
provocation	male	61.283(a)	1.571	58.189	64.377
	female	58.226(a)	1.462	55.347	61.105
brainstorming	male	58.003(a)	1.494	55.061	60.945
	female	55.995(a)	1.531	52.981	59.009
emotional mastery	male	55.455(a)	1.668	52.170	58.740
	female	53.821(a)	1.394	51.077	56.566

    a Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pre-test creativity = 51.4704.

The results in Table 5 indicated that there is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender in the level of creativity of subjects.

Male subjects under the provocation group had a higher mean score of 61.283 and a standard error of 1.571 compared to those under the brainstorming group with mean and standard error of 58.003 and 1.1.494 respectively, and those under the emotional mastery with mean score of 55.455 and standard error of 1.668.

Also female subjects under the provocation group had a mean score of 58.226 and a standard error of 1.462 compared to those under the brainstorming group with mean and standard error of 55.995 and 1.531 respectively, and those under the emotional mastery group with mean and standard error of 53.821 and 1.394 respectively.

The null hypothesis, which stated that three is no significant interaction effect of treatment and gender on subjects' level of creativity, was sustained by this finding. The finding implies that treatment would not interfere with gender to foster subjects' level of creativity.

Discussion

Results of this study revealed that the treatments (i.e. provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery) had significant effects on participants' creative thinking abilities; thereby confirming that creativity requires a cognitive-perceptual style that involves the collection and application of diverse information, use of effective heuristics and the ability and inclination to engage in deep concentration for long periods of time (Amabite, 1988). It is evident that the positive change revealed in the post-test scores of participants was as a result of the long period (8 weeks) of teaching specific skills in the various domains of the three treatments (provocation, brainstorming and emotional mastery) used for the study. The result was consistent with the findings of Akinboye (2000); Animasahun (2002); Botwin (2002); Robert and Rawana (2001) who opined that creativity could be fostered through training. And that individual ability and capacity can be enhanced through subject matter instruction.

Results in table 3 which show the pair wise comparison indicating the source and direction of the difference in the treatments' effects on participants' creativity level is quite revealing and interesting. While significant difference exist in the level of creativity between participants exposed to provocation technique and those exposed to emotional mastery, there is no significant difference in the creativity level between participants exposed to provocation technique and those exposed to brainstorming techniques. Also no significant differences exist in the brainstorming group and their counterpart in the emotional mastery group. This finding is in the expected direction. Provocation and brainstorming techniques are creativity tools specifically designed to foster individual's creative thinking skills; while emotional mastery is a strategy for fostering emotional literacy skills in individuals. It is therefore expected that the post-test scores of participants on creativity in the brainstorming and provocation groups would be higher than those in the emotional mastery group.

Although, there is slight difference in the mean score of participants in the brainstorming and emotional mastery groups in favour of participants in the brainstorming group. But, one would have expected a significant mean difference between participants in the brainstorming group and their counterpart in the emotional mastery group. The implication of the finding here is that emotional mastery technique is as good as brainstorming technique in fostering creative thinking abilities of adolescents. Furthermore, another salient point that is worthy of note concerning the finding is that there is symbiotic relationship between creativity and emotions. The findings established the fact that emotions precipitate creative activity and it also lends support to Akinboye (2003) assertion that creativity is tied to strong-emotions, which both give it power and make it challenging.

The finding that no significant gender effect on participants' level of creativity was consistent with the works of Selby, et al (1993); Gonen, (1993); Hoover, (1994) and Khaleefa et al. (1996). It also confirms the assertion of de Bono (1992b) that creativity skill is not a mysterious talent peculiar to some people. This finding support his claim that creative thinking can be learned, practiced and used by everyone irrespective of gender.

Although, the finding revealed that there is no significant gender effect on participants' level of creativity, but it is worthy of note that the mean score of male participants is slightly higher than their female counterpart in all the three treatment groups. The implication of this is that male participants fairly performed better than females. While acknowledging the fact that previous research findings on this have been in favour of the female gender (see Johnson & Johnson, 1992; Kim & Michael, 1995; Orieux & Yewchuk, 1999), a plausible reason for the difference in findings could be due to diverse cultural groups in the research sample since most of these studies were conducted in the developed nations. However, there may be need for more research efforts to establish this.

Other findings of the present study indicated that gender could not interact with the three treatments to significantly affect participants' level of creativity. Although there is dearth of research on gender interaction and creativity, but results of the few researches so far conducted are unequivocal about the interaction of gender on creative thinking abilities of individuals (see Gonen, 1993; Hoover, 1994; Khaleefa, et al, 1996; Tegano & Moran, 1989; Torance, 1983). However, it is to be noted that in all the three treatment groups, male gender maintains a lead, and provocation creativity technique appears to be the most effective among the three treatments in fostering creativity levels of both male and female adolescent. This finding has added to the body of knowledge on creativity, and it is equally instructive to future researchers and especially employers of labour who may be interested in fostering the creativity thinking skills of their employees using this technique (i.e. provocation).

Recommendations

The findings of this study underscore the need for teachers, and especially Nigerian government and policy makers to give creativity its rightful place in the school curricular for purposeful education, and by extension societal development. For government to achieve the kind of life long education emphasized in the national policy on education (1981, P8), that encourages all children to learn, work and contribute to their fullest potential; the aspects of education that have been referred to as "Art and nature work" need to be reinvigorated. It is this form of education, when added to academic learning that provides teachers with the possibilities of capturing the balanced children need.

Government concerns and determination presently, for a total re-engineering of the educational system is a step in the right direction. However, for this objective to be adequately achieved and for Nigerian students to stand shoulder-high among their colleagues in the advanced countries, creativity skills should be among school subjects to be formerly taught and examined as part of the cornerstones of primary and secondary education curricular, if not at all tiers of education.

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Teachers' Perception Of Secondary School Inspectors' Integrity In Kwara State, Nigeria.

By

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Abstract

This study focused on the integrity of school inspectors as perceived by secondary school teachers in Kwara State of Nigeria. The sample for the study consisted of 100 teachers randomly selected from 10 secondary schools in Ilorin West Local Government Area of Kwara State. Questionnaire on teachers' perception of inspectors' integrity was designed and validated by the researchers. Its reliability co-efficient, determined through a test-retest method, was 0.78. One hundred copies of the instrument were completed and returned. The data were analyzed, using frequency counts and percentages. Findings from the study revealed that school inspection conducted by State and Federal inspectors were not adequate. The inspectors were considered to be of high integrity, though the teachers did not approve the extra gift given to the inspectors by some principals outside the normal accommodation and feeding of the inspectors. Increase in frequency of school inspection, discouragement of gratifications being offered by principals and preparation of inspectors and teacher's code of conduct on academic integrity were recommended.

Introduction

In the present globalizing world, the issue of integrity, whether in public or in personal affair, is increasingly in demand. Qualities such as honesty, fairness, firmness, objectivity, dedication, commitment and transparency are considered globally as key demands on individuals, institutions, governments, professionals and students for true development, even in international politics and business. Conversely, vices such as corruption, fraud, bribery, favoritism, lying, discrimination and dishonesty, are condemned as anti-development (Adegoke, 2002).

In Nigeria, the issue of integrity is topical now, because of high level of corruption that has become a long-standing social ill and a disgrace to Nigerians. Recent happenings in form of bribe-for-budget scandal between the Federal Ministry of Education and the National Assembly, and the Federal Government's stand of 'zero tolerance' of corruption, has unprecedentedly drawn education into the issue of integrity. This is just an addition to many issues of integrity that have been plaguing education in recent times, namely examination malpractices, embezzlement of school funds by school heads and teachers, fraud in some educational agencies, fake results, certificate swapping, admission fraud, sales of illegal handouts and plagiarism.

When western education was introduced into Nigeria by the missionaries, the early teachers were mostly catechist. This possibly explained why teachers in those days were regarded as epitome of honesty, maturity (no matter how young), high sense of responsibility and good disciplinarian. In short, teachers were seen as men and women of integrity. Many parents voluntarily surrendered their children to live with teachers in order to acquire good discipline (Fafunwa, 1974).

Educational supervision evolved from the school system as a result of the need to ensure that the teachers were doing what was expected of them by the missionary proprietors (the Baptist, the Church Missionary Society, the Methodist and the Roman Catholic). However, Government control of schools in Nigeria came in through the 1882 Education Ordinance which was promulgated for the whole of British West Africa by the British Colonial Government. Among other provisions of the ordinance was grant-in-aid for inspected and approved mission schools and Her Majesty's Inspectorate Office with headquarters in Gold Coast (Ghana), headed by Rev. Metcalf Sunter as the first Chief Inspector. The main purpose for setting up the inspectorate was to monitor the quality of teachers, pupils' attendance and the curriculum in the grant-aided schools and the unassisted ones seeking for such grants. The 1887 Education Ordinance was specifically made for Nigeria and become necessary when its administration was separated from the rest of the British West Africa. Since then, the Inspectorate Division has become a part of the Ministry of Education at both Federal and State levels, and a major quality control strategy.

Early inspectors were drawn from the civil servants and classroom teachers due to lack of professionally trained inspectors. Later and till date, both Federal and State Inspectorate offices lack subject specialists in sufficient number for inspection of secondary schools in all states, Subject specialists are always drawn from classroom teachers for inspection especially for a full-scale type. This is probably not an ideal situation for objectivity demanded of inspectors. Until recently, these classroom teachers, though specialists in their subjects, were not professionally qualified inspectors, since they received no formal training in inspection. This affected their job performance and a lot of criticisms were leveled against them, Traditional supervision was said to be coercive, witch hunting and unhelpful to teachers. The inspectors behaved like tin gods. Every inspection visit was a nightmare for teachers (Ijaiya, 1997).

However, with the development of human relation school of thought and more importantly the introduction of courses on educational supervision into teacher education programmes, the behavior of school inspectors and supervisors is changing for better (Eferakeya & Ofo, 2001). Teachers and inspectors are more relaxed with each other and the former are no longer afraid of inspection (Ijaiya, 1997).

Types of Inspection

According to regulation, a secondary school in Nigeria should receive at least one full-scale inspection in three to five years. A full scale inspection involves combing every aspect of the school from classroom teaching to finance, school tone, hostels (if any) other facilities and government policy implementation to determine the standard of performance and effectiveness of the school. This could serve various purposes such as school recognition for external examination and special investigation. It could take up to 4 days depending on size of the school. In addition, inspection could be advisory for the purpose of interacting with teachers, to improve on all aspects of their work (Eferakeya & Ofo, 2001).

Inspection as a quality control strategy

The ever-pressing need to ensure and promote quality in education, now recognized globally as a catalyst for development of the individual and the society, necessitated putting in place quality control strategies. In Nigeria, school inspection is one of such long-standing strategies. Operations of National Council on Education (NCE) and Joint Consultative Committee on Education (JCCE) are meant to control quality of education. (Akpofure & N'dugu, 2000). However, the Inspectorate Division of the Ministries of Education are more direct in terms of contact with the school, the teachers and the pupils. They serve as a bridge between the school and the Government. They carry out observation, assessment and evaluation of school activities and achievement, and provide or proffer solutions to the school problems. They also make recommendations to Government on difficult problems and school needs such as teachers and facilities. They are not supposed to make promises they can not fulfill to schools (Okafor, 2005). In fact they are supposed to be men and women of high integrity.

Concept of Integrity

The concept of integrity has been viewed as a synonym to ethics (Adegoke, 2002), and high level of discipline (Noha, 2003). Olasehinde (2004) sees it as transparency and self discipline. Its components include fairness, firmness, freedom from corruption and deceit, moral uprightness, competency at job, and aspiration towards doing what is good (Adegoke, 2002).

Discussions on integrity within the academic environment revolve around all stake-holders in education such as parents, students, teachers, non-teachers and school inspectors. The teachers and the inspectors play a significant role in maintenance of integrity because they interact with one another in upholding high educational standard and ensuring the achievement of educational objectives. Their task is so important that their personal, professional and institutional integrities are at stake, should they be lacking in high level of academic integrity.

Academic integrity implies the pursuit of scholarly activity in an open, honest and responsible manner. It is an academic honesty (Olasehinde, 2004) Personal integrity refers to respect for human dignity, right and property. It also implies creating and maintaining an environment in which people can succeed through the fruit of their efforts.

Adegoke (2002) refers to professional integrity as business ethics. Regular attendance and punctuality at work, loyalty to employer, cordial relationship with colleagues, avoidance of favoritism, focusing on one's area of specialization, avoidance of taking bribe under any guise and knowing one's limit as an inspector, are different aspects of professional integrity (Okafor, 2005).

Institutional integrity refers to production of goods and services that meet specifications of regulatory authorities and consumers' expectations (Adegoke, 2002). When institutional integrity is related to an educational setting, an institution will be maintaining a high level of integrity when it effectively pursues the objectives of education as laid down by the government and also satisfies the needs of the community it is supposed to serve. Thus, inspectors of education and teachers are supposed to work towards maintenance of institutional integrity while they are at the same time protecting their personal and professional integrity. Essentially all of them are working towards maintenance of high academic integrity.

Incidentally, academic integrity has suffered at all levels, in all places, not only in Nigeria, but also globally. Parents and the general public are worried about the quality of discipline among teachers at all levels. They are very anxious today about the outcome of their children's education. Anderson (1992), discussing American education, noted that,

Today, there are many students in the university who are surprised by the lack of intellectual challenge, and disappointed by lack of integrity that demeans so much of higher education. There are even a growing number of professors and academic administrators who don't like what they see happening all around them (p. 10).

This observation is also applicable to Nigeria. Lecturers have been accused of poor teaching, backed by hurriedly prepared handouts which they are also forcing students to purchase. There are also absentee lecturers whose attitude to work is killing the system. Examination malpractice, aided by teachers and lecturers, is also on the increase. It has been observed by Anderson (1992) that academy is more insulated from public accountability and professional ethics than their commercial counterparts in profit-making sectors.

At present, teaching is not a profession in Nigeria; neither is school inspection a profession. This is probably the reason why both of them have no written code of conduct that could guide the practitioners on the job, although many teachers are aware of their unwritten moral expectations. In other professions like medicine, practitioners have been tried, based on their written professional code of conduct.

Problems Facing School Inspection in Nigeria

The literature has identified many problems facing educational supervision in Nigeria, for instance, inadequate facilities (Eferakeya & Onyere, 2001). During the 2003 Kwara State Education summit, the staff of the Inspectorate Division seriously lamented the poor condition under which their office was operating especially the issue of personnel and funding. The inspectors stated further that they were attached to the Ministry of Education and their dependence did not make it easy for them to get money to undertake school inspection as they would had wished to. Inspectors' allowances were usually not paid on time and they were not properly motivated. Poor funding could lead to inspectors' taking of 'brown envelop' (cash) or gift from the heads of schools. This could have a serious implication for decision making by school inspectors. A school can be unfairly treated for not offering a 'brown envelop' or over-praised because of its largesse. This is contrary to professional ethics which inspectors are supposed to uphold. The inspectors, in addition to their being professionally competent, should be above board in character. They should be of high integrity in academic, professional and personal affairs. As observed by Okafor (2005), they could be likened to auditors of account, whose duties are often assessed as to the level of probity they exhibit on their operations.

Incidentally, the inspectors are parts of the society where, although bribery is seen as both illegal and immoral, it is offered and taken (Nwaokolo, 1998). The tendency is for the inspectors to be influenced by the social practices in the society.

Moreover, the duties of the inspectors involve provision of guidance to teachers and assessment of teaching-learning situations. As a result of the summative type of assessment which many inspectors would make after their visitation to schools, many teachers tend to treat every inspector with suspicion (Ijaiya, 1991) In such a situation, one can not rule out the possibility of teachers trying to find out who can affect their careers and "dance" round them or try to impress them (Farounbi, 1982 p.13). The demand for and offer of any form of gratification could affect the productivity of both teachers and inspectors, the overall educational objectives and consequently the development of the nation. The willingness on the part of teachers to offer such gratification depends to a large extent on the perception of inspectors' integrity by the teachers. Also the demand for and acceptance of it depends to a large extend on factors surrounding the inspectors' job performance. This study is therefore set to examine teachers' perception of the integrity of the inspectors in their job performance.

The problem

By its nature, educational inspection demands a high sense of integrity, because it involves a lot of decision-making, sometimes pronouncing pass or fail on the school. In the past, inspection teams were normally carefully selected. In particular, the team-leader would be a very highly efficient and well respected senior officer in the Ministry of Education, a senior past or present principal of a secondary school. Team members were also carefully selected. Though there is nothing to suggest that this practice has changed, the level of corruption in Nigeria today, and because academic integrity of principals, teachers, students and school managers at all levels have been seriously dented, make it a pointer to the fact that there is a need to look closely at the school inspectors too. The importance of school inspection to good quality education, and inspectors as watch-dog over school activities to educational policy implementation, justify the need for this study.

Research questions

(1)   How often are schools supervised in the last five years by school inspectors in Kwara state?
(2)   How often are teachers supervised in the classroom by school   inspectors in Kwara State in the last five years?
(3)   What is the teachers' perception of the level of academic integrity of secondary school inspectors in Kwara State?
(4)   In which aspect of academic integrity are the school inspectors considered strong by the teachers?
(5)   In which aspect of academic integrity are the school inspectors considered weak by the teachers?
(6)   How do teachers perceive inspectors' entertainment by the school?

Method

The design for this study was a descriptive survey of teachers' opinion on inspectors' academic integrity. Aspects of inspectors' behavior, relationship with teachers and entertainment of inspectors in the field were examined as they affected the integrity of the inspectors in Kwara State secondary schools with particular focus on Ilorin West Local Government Area Secondary Schools.

Out of 17 public secondary schools in Ilorin West Local Government Area, 10 were selected, using simple random sampling technique. In each of the selected schools, 10 teachers were randomly selected as respondents, making 100 subjects in all.

An instrument, tagged 'Questionnaire on Teachers' Perception of Inspectors' Job Performance' (QTPIJP) was designed by the researchers. It was divided into three sections. Section 'A' comprised of two items on the frequency of supervision conducted by the State and Federal Inspectors. Section "B" consisted of 21 items on inspectors' integrity in job performance which were rated on a 5 point Likert Scale: 'Very High; High; Low; Very Low, and Nil. Section C contained four items demanding teachers' opinions on gift or entertainment to inspectors. Response modes for items in this section were 'Yes' or 'No'.

Content and face validity of the instrument were determined. Also, the instrument was found to be reliable at 0.78 co-efficient, derived from test-retest method. All 100 copies were competed and returned. They were analyzed, using frequency counts and percentages

Data Analysis and Discussion

Research Question 1:

How often are schools supervised in the last five years by external school inspectors in kwara state?

Table 1: Frequency of visits to secondary schools in Ilorin West Local Government Area, Kwara State

No. Of Visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
By State Inspector (No. of respondents)	2	23	41	17	8	4	-	95
By Federal Inspectors (No. of respondents)	20	48	12	2	3	-	-	85

Source: Computed from Fieldwork

Table 1's result showed that out of 100 respondents, 95 indicated that their schools were visited at various times by State Inspectors. Similarly, 85 out of 100 respondents stated that their schools were visited at various times by Federal inspectors in the last five years. This implies that 20 teachers were not supervised within that period. The reason may be that such teachers were newly recruited or had been transferred just before their schools' inspection, apart from the inadequacy of the Inspectorate Offices. From the Table also, 41 teachers said that their schools had been supervised three times, 23 claimed two visits while 17 mentioned four times. Two teachers indicated one visit by state inspectors. Most of these visits are likely to be advisory, since full scale inspection, by regulation, can normally take place once in three to five years except there is an emergency. However, three visits claimed by 41 out of 95 teachers are grossly inadequate and so are the others.

In the case of Federal Inspectors, 48 out of 85 teachers claimed that their schools have been visited twice in five years, 20 claimed once and 12 said three times. Whether advisory or full scale inspection, this is also inadequate. The implication of this inadequacy is that the schools are more or less on their own and can hardly benefit from the wisdom of the inspectors. Under-funding problems may be responsible for the inability of the inspectors to schedule school visits.

Research Question2:

How often are teachers supervised in the classroom by school inspectors in Kwara State in the last five years?

Table 2: Frequency of classroom supervision of secondary school teachers by school inspectors in Kwara State

No. of visit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
By State inspectors (No. of respondents)	40	30	6	9	5	1	-	1	-	1	93
By Federal Inspectors (No. of respondents)	56	11	4	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	76

Source: Computed from Fieldwork

The result in Table 2 showed that 40 teachers were supervised once by state Inspectors; thirty: twice; six: three times; nine: four times; one teacher each for six, eight and ten times out of 93 teachers in the last five years. This is also grossly inadequate especially for advisory visits.

Similarly, the Federal Inspectors have not been regular in classroom supervision in Ilorin West Local Government secondary schools as shown in Table 2. Fifty six teachers claimed to have been supervised once in the last five years, most likely to be full scale inspection visit. Eleven teachers were supervised twice and the others claimed three, four and five times.

The results in Tables 1 and 2 taken together imply that school inspection cannot have the desired impact on quality control in those secondary schools. This partly explain why the quality of teaching and facilities are declining without corresponding attention paid to them in many public secondary schools in the State.

Research Question 3:

What is the teachers' perception of the level of academic integrity of secondary school inspectors in Kwara State?

Table 3: Level of academic integrity of secondary schools' inspectors in Kwara State as perceived by the teachers in Ilorin West Local Government Area.

(N=100)

Items	Very High		High		Low		Very Low		Nil	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	20	20.0	56	56.0	18	18.0	6	6.0	-	-
2	14	14.0	61	61.0	21	21.0	2	2.0	2	2.0
3	15	15.0	66	66.0	16	16.0	3	3.0	0	0.0
4	15	15.0	60	60.0	21	21.0	4	4.0	0	0.0
5	16	16.0	73	73.0	11	19.0	1	1.0	0	0.0
6	18	18.0	65	65.0	16	16.0	1	1.0	0	0.0
7	15	15.0	56	56.0	29	29.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
8	22	22.0	56	56.0	20	20.0	2	2.0	0	0.0
9	12	12.0	64	64.0	24	24.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
10	16	16.0	57	57.0	27	27.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
11	16	16.0	16	16.0	14	14.0	5	5.0	49	49.0
12	17	17.0	63	63.0	18	18.0	2	2.0	0	0.0
13	16	16.0	60	60.0	24	24.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
14	26	26.0	44	44.0	25	25.0	5	5.0	0	0.0
15	16	16.0	58	58.0	18	18.0	10	10.0	8	8.0
16	12	12.0	58	58.0	22	22.0	8	8.0	0	0.0
17	11	11.0	34	34.0	25	25.0	10	10.0	20	20.0
18	18	18.0	50	50.0	26	26.0	3	3.0	3	3.0
19	8	8.0	54	54.0	30	30.0	7	7.0	1	1.0
20	12	12.0	46	46.0	32	32.0	4	4.0	6	6.0
21	14	14.0	61	61.0	24	24.0	0	0.0	1	1.0

Source: Computed from Fieldwork

The teacher, according to the results presented in Table 3, rated the secondary school inspectors high on academic integrity. In most of the 21 items investigated including diligence at work, trustworthiness, firmness, skillfulness, respect for teachers, moral uprightness, etc, (see appendix 1) the inspectors were rated above 50.0%

The worrisome aspect is item 11 on bribe-taking where as many as 51% of the sample believe that it exists. In Nigeria, recent events in the bribe-for-budget scandal between the Ministry of Education and the National Assembly showed that bribes are taken to mean 'welfare' package or public relation (PR).

However, the Government's stand is that whatever name it is called, it is still bribery and corruption which does not augur well for Nigeria's development.

Research Question 4;

In which aspect of academic integrity are the Inspectors considered strong by the teacher?

The result in Table 3 is considered for answering this question. Items 5,6,3 and 12 which were scored high as 86%, 83%, 81% and 80%, respectively stand out as the inspectors strongest quality. They include 'level of cooperation with teachers; vigilance during inspection, objectivity in evaluating classroom instruction and level of moral uprightness. These four items suggest that school inspectors take their job seriously on the field and the noticed it. This is good for result-oriented inspection if only it is more frequent. In spite of their infrequent visits, 75% of the sample feels that inspection has impact on school effectiveness.

Research Question 5;

In which aspect of academic integrity are the school inspectors considered weak by the teachers?

Again the result in Table 3 is used to provide answer to the question. Two items, 11 and 17 are prominent. For item 11 (Demand for bribe, cash or kind) and item 17 (covering up school's inadequacies, e.g. fraud) rated high by 32% and 45% of the sample respectively is considered unhealthy for school inspection. It also contradicted the result of items 12 where 80% rated the inspectors' moral uprightness as high. Respondents who think bribery does not exist in school inspection are 49. The question is; What could have been responsible for the confusion? Perhaps the teachers separated the inspector's objectivity in classroom supervision from their so-called entertainment or overall report on the school.

Research Question 6;

How do teachers perceive inspectors' entertainment by the school?

Table 4; Teachers' perception of inspectors' entertainment by secondary schools in Ilorin West Local Government.

S/NO	Yes		No	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	30	30.0	70	70.0
2	54	54.0	46	46.0
3	18	33.3	36	66.6
4	61	61.0	39	39.0

Source: Computed from Fieldwork

Four direct questions were raised in this section. On the question which asked if teachers consider inspectors' entertainment (i.e. provision of accommodation and feeding) as bribe, 70% of the respondents stated no and 30% felt it is. This shows that majority saw nothing bad in such practices.

On the question of whether their schools offer brown envelopes (i.e gifts) to inspectors, 54% stated 'yes' while 46% stated 'no'. This result confirms that the practice exists. In item 3 of the section, teachers 33.3% of the 54 who responded 'yes' to item 2 considered the practice appropriate while 66.6% of them did not think so. On whether such brown envelopes influence the decision of the inspectors in their report, 61.0% agreed that it did while 39.0% answered 'no'.

The interpretation one could give to this section is that the teachers are comfortable with the entertainment of inspectors as long as it is limited to accommodation and feeding but disapproved of brown envelopes' or gifts offered to inspectors because of the influencing possibility of their decision making.

Conclusion and Recommendations

From the findings of this study, it can be concluded that school inspection visits whether State or Federal, are not adequate and therefore their impact on school effectiveness is questionable, although teachers may hold a contrary opinion. Also, teachers, judged by this study, still consider inspectors academic integrity as high. However, the gifts to them by their principals appears unacceptable to the teachers and if unchecked, the inspectors' integrity may be dented.

Based on these finding, it is recommended that:

- Both the federal and state government should fund their Inspectorate Divisions adequately and increase inspectors' allowances to avoid the temptation of taking gifts from schools
- To achieve (1) above it may be necessary to fund the Divisions directly by deducting their subvention from source and not through the Ministry of Education.
- School principals should be warned by the government to stop offering gifts to the inspectors.

- The inspectors should resist the temptation of taking gifts.
- Government should take their zero tolerance for corruption campaign to the schools and other educational agencies
- Government should implement inspectors' recommendations so that their impact can be seen in the schools.
- There is now an urgent need for a code of conduct document on academic integrity for teachers and inspectors at all levels.

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Appendix A

Section B Of Questionnaire On Teachers' Perception Of Inspectors' Job Performance

Level of diligence in instructional supervision
 Level of trustworthiness
Objectivity in evaluating classroom instruction
Firmness decision making
Level of cooperation with teachers
Vigilance during inspection
Level of skill in school inspection
Level of self-confidence in performance
Level of self respect in relating with teachers
Clarity of expression during inspection
Demand for bribe (whether cash or material)
Level of moral uprightness level of modesty in speech
Level of modesty in speech
Ability to utilize educational facilities judiciously
Diversion of school facilities for private use
Level of empathy with teachers
Covering up school's inadequacies (e.g fraud)
Ability to handle confidential matters (e.g investigation reports)
Level of respect for students
Promptness in submission of inspection report
Impact on school

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Perspectives Of Nigerian Lecturers On Assuring Effective Communication In Large Classes Via Closed-Circuit Television

By

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And

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Abstract

This study examined the views of the University of Lagos lecturers on the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication in large classes. 375 respondents were selected through simple random sampling for the purpose of the study. The Lecturers Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) with Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of 0.85 was used for the collection of data. The three null hypotheses generated for the study were tested at 0.05 alpha level using t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical tools. It was discovered that lecturer's year of experience and gender played insignificant role in influencing their perceptions about the use of Closed-Circuit Television for effective communication in large classes. Lecturers of varying academic statuses were found to have different opinions about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of CCTV. It was suggested that lecturers, irrespective of their academic attainment, should disregard the impossibility of achieving effective communication in large classes, but rather focus more on timely utilization of the appropriate technology that can enhance effective communication in large classes.

Introduction

The phenomenon of large classes is fast becoming the vogue of higher institutions in Africa, especially in Nigeria. The large class syndrome can be attributed to the expansion in annual students' enrolment. At any rate education, which is as old as man has been characterized by mass instruction and this, is the peculiarity of large classes in various institutions (Centre for the Enhancement of Learning and Teaching, 2003). Students, as many as three or four hundred, often cluster in a small hall tending to pay attention to the "talking and chalking" lecturer who occasionally scribbles on the chalkboard, while it is mostly assumed that, as the lecturer passes the necessary information through verbal means, learning takes place. Awoniyi (1998) found that in such a situation, much teaching goes on, but little learning takes place with only a few of the students as a result of the gap between the lecturer, the taught and the content.

In a large class, where lecture method is typically the mode of instruction, meeting the needs of the variety of students through effective communication has therefore been found to be a challenge. Though it is often thought that learning occurs in proportion to class size, that is, the smaller the size the more the students learn, however, the size of a class may not absolutely be a predictor of students learning and quality of teaching (Felder, 1997). In essence, there is the need to be conscious of the fact that the key to effective instruction and students learning is effective communication. However, Roger (1995) expressed that in most universities and other higher institutions, large classes are sometimes handled by graduate teaching assistants who have been assumed to know both "what" to teach and "how" best to teach it, despite the fact that

most of them enter into teaching without experience. The question that may bother one's mind is, are these graduate teaching assistants aware of what the students need and expect from classroom communication?

Communication is a vital key to effective teaching and learning, thus the ability of a teacher to effectively convey a concept to the students so as to understand and synthesize what the teacher is presenting is of paramount importance. Ogunsaju (2004) saw effective communication as the most viable tool for achieving effectiveness in teaching and learning. There is the need for exchange of meanings to take place between the teacher and learners before communication can be assumed to have taken place. Learning in itself is the resultant effect of effective communication between the teacher and the learner (Andrew, 2000). Sleeman (1976) emphasized that effective communication in the classroom exists when there is a good interaction between the learner, the information and the instructor. If the interactive nature must be achieved in a large class, the traditional syndrome of a lecturer talking to a sea of heads seeming to attend his lecture, while many of them engage in other activities other than those related to what is going on in the class, is a problem that must be attended to. All students, even those with disabilities must have been considered to benefit from the process of teaching and learning before effective communication in teaching can be achieved Protrowski & Reason (2000) as cited by Norkeliunas (2003). It could be felt that, one of the primary purposes of effective communication in the classroom is to spark, and guide active mental processing, develop competencies, gain attention and catch the interest of the students when they have access to information and make meanings from such information.

Awoniyi (1998) advocated that, for the quality of education to be improved, technology must be employed. Riesland (2005) was of the opinion that communication; even in the classroom has been positively influenced through the use of appropriate instructional media, at least for the purpose of ensuring that all students benefit from the teaching and learning process. It is worthy of note that in most cases, a scenario of educational environment is not created in large classes because, many students of such large classes turn the back of the class and outside the classroom into market place by chatting and discussing with friends (Valenzi, 1997). No wonder, Adekomi (1999) suggested the need for teachers to have a change of style in order to meet the demands of learners and avoid complaints about poor performance.

Research findings have shown that audio-visual media: contribute immensely to learners' understanding (Arthur & Stephen, 2003); improves learners' performance (Awoniyi, 1988); and encourages learners' participation (Jenkins, 1978). It is interesting to know that the speed at which technology is altering classroom communication is alarming, because of the strength it adds to the students and teachers interaction. Riesland (2005) in a study found that students were excited with the idea of content presentation through the visual and sound elements of the media he used. He further reported the overwhelming attention and active participation he received from the students through the audio-visual media. In spite of the enormous communicative problems being faced in large classes of various institutions, effective communication can still be achieved through the use of appropriate technology. It follows therefore, that the use of Closed-Circuit Television in a large class will create a better interaction between the taught, the content and the teacher.

Oluyitan (1998) described the Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) as a signal received on specific private receiver that can be achieved by direct transmission from the camera to the receiver through a cable system. Marc (2000) explained Closed-Circuit Television as a television broadcasting received only by a selected set and is connected to the source by cable or by over the air signals (those receiving over the air signals are equipped with decodes or adapters). To Marc, this medium is a good tool for achieving effective dissemination of information, skills to

learners, even at different locations. Ebert (1998) observed that the use of Closed-Circuit Television increases students' involvement in learning. Zimmer (2003) remarked that the use of Closed-Circuit Television allows for the incorporation of animation, moving pictures and sound into the lessons and this encourages students' interaction with the subject matter. According to him, students irrespective of their location in the class can watch experiments in action, look microorganisms up close by through the magnification ability of the camera. Martyn (1996), Foundation for the Blind Children (2002) Haynes (2005), and Mills (2003), revealed that the auditory and visual capabilities of CCTV, promote acquisition of knowledge, improve understanding and foster student's ability to learn than the mere use of traditional method of teaching

The use of CCTV for instruction in Nigerian institutions is no longer a new phenomenon. For instance, Obafemi Awolowo University (then University of Ife), Ile-Ife Distance Learning Institute and College of Medicine of University of Lagos, make use of CCTV for instructional purposes in the classrooms and laboratories. Few studies such as Norkeliunas (1995), Valenzi (1997), and Yiu (2000) have been conducted on the use of technological devices such as television, video recorder and Television as well as audio-visual media to enhance and facilitate learners' performance, but none ever sought the opinions of the practicing university lecturers being the ones that are actually on the field. It is against this background that this study focuses on a survey of the perceptions of Nigerian lecturers and students on effective communication in large classes via the use of Closed-Circuit Television (C.C.T.V.) with a view to making suggestions that will promote effective communication in university classes in Nigeria.

Hypotheses

The following were hypothesized for this study:

1. There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the less experienced and experienced lecturers about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.
2. There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female lecturers about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.
3. There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the lecturers of different academic status about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.

Method of study

Design

This study adopted a descriptive survey research approach.

Sample

Three hundred and seventy five (375) respondents from University of Lagos, constituted the sample for this study. Through simple random sampling technique, three hundred and seventy five lecturers 166 males (44.2%) and 209 females (55.8%) were selected from four faculties, and the Distance Learning Institute of the university. Amongst the lecturers, 119 (31.7%) (Mean = 60.25, SD = 4.54) were holders of Senior lecturers, 211 (56.26%) (Mean = 57.72, SD = 3.75) were Professors, while 15 (4%) (Mean = 57.53, SD = 2.94) were lecturer 1 and below. The respondents

drawn from the selected institution were randomly selected by simple random sampling method.

Instrumentation

The instrument used to collect data for this study was the Lecturers Perception Questionnaire (LPQ). The instrument was designed on 4-point Likert type scale of SA (Strongly Agree), A (Agree), D (Disagree), SD (Strongly Disagree). The instrument consists of two sections. Section A consists of related demographic information of the respondents, while Section B of the instrument consists of 18 items. Lecturers with years of teaching experience below ten years were grouped as less experienced lecturers, while those with ten years and above working experience were categorized as experienced lecturers. The instrument was given to educational technologists and a psychometrician to ascertain its validity. The comments of each of these experts were considered in the production of the final draft of the instrument. Meanwhile, the test-retest reliability of the instruments yielded 0.85.

Procedure

The questionnaires were administered on the respondents with the help of four research assistants. The administered questionnaires were collected back within two weeks and were later scored.

Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed with the independent t-test and Analysis of Variance statistical tools.

Results

Ho 1:

There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the less experienced and experienced lecturers about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.

Table 1:

t-test on perceptions of less and highly experienced lecturers on the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication.

GROUP	N	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	df	t- cal	t - tab	p	Remark
Less experienced	277	58.89	4.30						Do not reject
				.78667	373	1.642	1.98	>0 .05	
Highly experienced	98	58.11	3.32						

The results in Table 1 shows that there exist no significant difference between the perceptions of the less and highly experienced lecturers about the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication in large classes. The calculated t-value of 1.64 was found to be less than the t-tabulated value of 1.98. Thus, the hypothesis was not rejected. By implication, years of experience had no influence on the lecturers perception on achieving effective communication in large classes through the Closed-Circuit Television.

Ho 2:

There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female lecturers about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.

Table 2

t-test on the perceptions of Male and Female lecturers on the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication.

GROUP	N	Mean	SD	Mean Diff	df	t-cal	t - tab	p	Remark
Males	166	58.81	4.16						Do not reject
Females	209	58.42	4.03	.392	373	.898	1.98	>0 .05	

The results on Table 2 show that there is no significant difference in the perceptions of male and female lecturers on the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication in large classes. The calculated t-value of 0.898 was found to be less than the t-tabulated value of 1.98. Thus, the hypothesis was not rejected. This implies that the perception of lecturers of the use of CCTV for effective communication in large classes was not gender specific.

Ho3:

There will be no significant difference between the perceptions of the lecturers of different academic status about achieving effective communication in large classes through the use of Closed-Circuit Television.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of lecturers by academic status.

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Professors	223	57.7251	3.57242	.24594
Senior Lecturers	132	60.2521	4.54957	.41706

Lect. 1 and Below	20	57.3333	2.94877	.76137
Total	375	58.5884	4.08754	.22007

The results in Table 3 indicated the mean and the standard deviation of the Lagos State University. Amongst the lecturers, it is obvious that the Senior lecturers had the highest (Mean = 60.25, SD = 4.54) followed by Professors (Mean = 57.72, SD = 3.75) while lecturer1 and below had the lowest (Mean = 57.53, SD = 2.94).

Table 4

Analysis of variance of Lecturers' perception based on academic status about the use of CCTV in large classes for effective communication.

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
Contract	503.326	2	251.663	16.412	.000
Error	5244.227	372	15.334		<.05
Total	5747.554	374			

The results in Table 4 revealed that there is a significant difference in the perception of the lecturers based on their academic status on the use of CCTV in large classes for effective communication. This is because the f-ratio 16.412was found to be higher than the f-ratio 3.00 at 0.05 level of significance. Therefore the hypothesis was rejected.

Table 5

Pairwise comparison of mean of difference of lecturers based on academic status

(I)Highest Academic Qualification	(J)Highest academic qualification	Mean difference (I − J)	Std. Error	sig
Senior lecturers M=60.24 SE=.41706	Professors Lect.1 and Below	2.52698 2.71877	.44892 1.07290	.000 .042
Professors M=57.72	Senior Lecturers Lect.1 and Below	-2.52698 .19179	.44892 1.04639	.000 .983

SE=.24594				
Lect.1 and Below	Senior Lecturers	-2.71877	1.07290	.042
M=57.5333	Professors	-.19179	1.04639	.983
SE=.76137				

The results on Table 5 showed that there are statistical differences between the perceptions of lecturers with various academic statuses. There exist difference between Senior lecturers (Mean =60.24, SE=.41706), Professors (Mean = 57.72, SE = .24594) and Lect.1 and Below (Mean= 57.5333, SE= .76137). Similarly, there existed difference between the Professors (Mean = 57.72, SE = .24594) and the Senior lecturers (Mean =60.24, SE=.41706). Lecturer 1 and below (Mean= 57.5333, SE= .76137) when compared with the Professors (Mean = 57.72, SE = .24594) had a significant difference. The inference drawn here is that there is a relationship between the perception of the lecturers about the use of CCTV for effective communication in large classes and their academic status. To further test the level of significance, a post hoc analysis was conducted and the result was indicated below.

Table 6

Scheffe Post- hoc Analysis of Lecturers' Academic Status

Academic Status	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Lecturer 1 and Below	20	57.5333	
Professors	223	57.7251	
Senior Lecturers	132		60.2521
	161	.978	1.000

The results shown in Table 6 indicated that two subsets were identified. They are Lecturer 1and below and the Professors (the first subset) while the second subset was the Senior lecturers. Lecturers of the academic status under each of the subsets were found to have the same perception on the use of CCTV in a large class for effective communication. Meanwhile, the lecturers of the academic status in the second subset were found to have different perception. Thus, hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Discussion

Arising from the results of this study, lecturers' years of experience had no influence on their opinions about the use of Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) for effective communication in a large class. This positive disposition of the lecturers may not be un-connected with the fact that the use of CCTV in the classroom affords the opportunity to display highlights of lessons,

illustrations and demonstrations on the screen to a large number of learners while teaching. This outcome is in consonance with the findings of (Norkeliunas, 1995) who recorded high level of effective communication with the use of CCTV in teaching Russian language. Similarly, researchers such as Davis, Desforges, Jessel, Somekh, Taylor, & Vaughan (1997), Ebert (1998), Zimmer (2003), Adejoh & Ozoji (2005), Gusen, Olarinoye & Garba (2005) and Ifegbo & Emenyonu (2006) attest to the fact that lecturers of different years of experience have found CCTV useful in large classes to evoke and sustain learners' interests, promote learners' participation and improve learners' accessibility to accurate information irrespective of distance during teaching and learning.

Another major finding of this study is that the perceptions of the lecturers about the use of CCTV in large classes for effective communication were not significantly gender differentiated. The finding of this study is in agreement with the findings of Smith (1990), Davis (1991), Levin and Thurston (1996), Nathanael (1998), White (1999) and Chester (2000) who discovered that lecturers without gender bias believe that students become more involved in instructional process when multimedia gadgets such as CCTV is used for teaching and learning in large classes.

The results of Tables 3-6 are quite revealing, in that academic status of lecturers was found to have influence on their perceptions about the use of CCTV in achieving effective communication in large classes. One would have expected that the negative perception of lecturers on issue of the magnitude should diminish as their level of education increases because of academic exposure. Unfortunately, such trend is unpredictable by the outcome of this study as reveled in Tables 5 and 6. Lecturers of professorial cadre and lecturer 1 and those below appear to share different opinion about the use of CCTV in achieving effective communication in large classes when compared with the views of those that were at the cadre of Senior lecturer. Slightly lending support to the outcome of this study, Equity Resource Center (2000) noted that few Ph.D holders have flair for the use of technology in instructional process. However, little or no researches have been carried out about the influence of lecturers' academic qualification on their views about the use of CCTV for effective communication in large classes.

Conclusion

Large number of student enrolment in higher institutions is becoming unavoidable, especially in Nigeria. The desire to meet the needs of all the students in such large classes through effective communication should not just be an issue for discussion but also a challenge that must be addressed adequately and given necessary positive approach. The idea that effective communication in large classes is unachievable has been proved to be obnoxious because the perceived potency of the efficiency of Closed-Circuit Television. Whatever the feelings of individuals, it should be accepted that technology has come to play a central role of information and communication between instructor, the content and the students. There is therefore, the need to enlighten and sensitize the lecturers of large classes about CCTV as a "magic wizard" that can be used to improve the quality of communication and open up communication among students and lecturers.

Recommendations

As a result of the outcomes of this study, it is recommended that lecturers of large classes should discard the notion that effective communication is not achievable with large number of students; rather they should focus more on the utilization of the appropriate technology that can enhance effective communication in large classes. If lecturers are taken through the operation and the use of technology in education during seminars and workshops, they will be more equipped with

information, strategies and skills that will help them to overcome the challenges associated with large classes.

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Nigerian Students' Views About Student Teachers In Their Schools

By

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Abstract

Owing to the large number of teacher education institutions in the country and the importance of field experience in the teacher education programs, many Nigerian head teachers and school principals make their schools available to teacher education institutions for teaching practice almost all the year round. Some of the students in their schools are, therefore, taught by student teachers for a greater part of the school year. This study was designed to find out how some secondary school students in lle-Ife, Nigeria, perceived student teachers in their school, their views about the impact of student teaching on their learning and their opinions about being taught by student teachers. It was found that they not only liked being taught by student teachers but they preferred them to their usual teachers. Some implications of the findings for policy and practice were drawn.

Introduction

All programs for preparing teachers for the different levels of the education system in Nigeria, like other teacher education programs the world over, incorporate teaching practice or student teaching experience as an essential element. The Nigerian government, believing that "no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers'" (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1998:33), has expended vast amount of resources to train teachers for the country's educational system.

In a reform aimed at improving the quality of teaching in the nation's schools the Federal Government prescribed the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) as the minimum qualification for entering into the teaching profession. Consequently, Teachers Grade Two training institutions have been phased out. The institutions recognized for the professional training of teachers in the country include colleges of education, university faculties and institutes of education, the National Teachers' Institute and the Schools of Education in the Polytechnics (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1998).

There are at present about 58 Colleges of Education in the country and almost all of them run part-time programs together with full-time programs for the award of the NCE. In addition to these, a majority of them especially in the southern part of the country also run part-time degree programs in education in affiliation with some of the universities in the country. Not less than 40 universities in the country run degree programs in teacher education and most of them also have part-time degree programs in teacher education. The National Teachers' Institute has study centers all over the federation for part-time studies leading to the award of the NCE (Primary). Part of the requirements of each of these programs (both lull-time and part-time) is

the completion of two separate six-week block teaching practice by participants. Consequently, the number of teacher education students for teaching practice is usually large. As neither the universities nor colleges of education in the country run a uniform academic calendar, there are always student teachers on teaching practice in many primary and secondary schools almost all the year round. In the schools where head teachers or principals are either very permissive or understanding, there could be up to two or more groups of student teachers from two or more institutions with their numbers ranging from two to over 20 on teaching practice at the same time. Another set of student teachers may come in as one set leaves or is about to leave. In effect, in some public schools, especially in the southern part of the country, student teachers can be on teaching practice almost throughout the year.

The Problem

Many primary and secondary school authorities have been cooperating with -teacher education institutions by making their schools available for teaching practice exercises almost all the year round. School-university or college of education partnership is undoubtedly necessary if trainee teachers are to have the opportunity to develop their teaching competences in classrooms. However, in situations where more than half of the instructional periods in schools are taken up by student teachers, often with little or no involvement of the pupils' or students' usual teachers in lesson delivery, an apt question to be asked is 'do pupils or students in the practice schools benefit from the exercise?' How do they perceive the impact of student teachers on their learning?

A search through the literature shows that there is a dearth of studies on students' or pupils' perceptions of student teachers Unlike the other aspects of student teaching or field experience, only a few studies have focused on the perspectives of the pupils or students in the placement schools. Danaher (1994) investigated the opinions of students in an Australian secondary school about having student teachers in their school. Carney & Hagger (1996) carried out a similar study among some secondary school students in the United Kingdom while Campbell and Kane (1998) and Everton, Hopper, & Thwaites (1999) focused on primary schools also in the United Kingdom. In Nigeria, there are no published studies of how pupils or students feel, being taught by student teachers despite the fact that many of them are taught by student teachers for a greater part of the school year. This study was therefore, designed to explore students' opinions about student teachers in their schools. The objectives were to find out: what the students thought about student teachers in their schools; whether or not they felt that the student teachers helped them to learn; and, their feelings about being taught by student teachers almost throughout the school year

While opportunities for teaching practice are provided to student teachers in schools, it is necessary to find out whether pupils or students of such schools benefit from the exercise. Otherwise, it will largely amount to sacrificing students' learning for student teaching. This study is necessary especially in Nigeria where the quality of teacher education candidates is generally below average (Fadipe, 1992; Ejieh, 2003) and where, as has been pointed out, many pupils or students are taught by student teachers for a greater part of the year. Furthermore, this type of study is necessary in order to make the voices of students or pupils heard. As Whitehead & Clough (2004) have rightly argued, there is the need to recognize pupils (who they referred to as forgotten partners) as key participants in the educational process.

The study was undertaken in Ile-Ife, a semi-urban university town, located in the southwestern part of the country where there are over 12 colleges of education and 12 universities. Almost all of the colleges of education run both regular and part-time programs for the award of first degrees in education. Being easily accessible, and having fairly good internal road network, Ile-

Ife is a town of choice for student teachers and even polytechnics students on teaching practice. Consequently, there are always students on teaching practice in many of the schools, especially at the secondary level, almost every term of the school year.

Data Collection

This study, which was conducted in September 2007 when student teachers on the part-time degree program of a federal university were on teaching practice, adopted a qualitative case study approach as it was an attempt at describing and interpreting the experiences of the subjects of the study. The participants were 30 students from two secondary schools which colleges of education and universities use regularly as placement schools for their student teachers. Only the students in years one to three to which student teachers are usually assigned for teaching practice were involved in the study.

In keeping with Krueger's (1994) observation that rich data can be generated if individuals in the group are prepared to fully take part in the discussion and if a homogeneous group used, five volunteers who were willing to engage in the discussion freely with their colleagues and the researcher, were purposively selected from each of the year groups in each of the two schools. The total sample was made up of 17 boys and 13 girls organized in six different groups with the five volunteers in each of the year groups constituting a group.

The key technique for data collection was focus group interviews using a semi-structured interview schedule with occasional probes, supplemented by observation and field notes taken by the investigator. The interviews focused on what the participants thought about the student teachers in their schools; whether they felt that the student teachers were able to make them learn and how they made them learn; and, their opinions about being taught by student teachers for much of the school year. The students were assured of their anonymity and the confidentiality of any information disclosed by them.

The interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed verbatim. The interview transcripts and field notes were analyzed inductively by reading through them several times and assigning a code representing an idea associated with each comment, sentence or paragraph (McMillan & Schumacher,. 1997). The codes with common elements were merged to form categories which contributed towards answering relevant research questions.

This study is not without the limitations associated with qualitative cum small-scale researches. As the participants in this study were volunteers, the sample might not be representative of the population. The objective of this study, however, was not to generalize about anything but to portray some of the realities of teaching practice. Another major limitation of this kind of study is the problem of bias arising from the researcher's identity, background and beliefs on the creation, analysis and interpretation of data. In regard to this second problem, however, conscious efforts were made by investigator to suspend personal beliefs and values in the production and analysis of data.

Findings And Discussion

The findings from the study and their discussion are presented under three headings: students' perception of student teachers; their views about the impact of student teachers on their learning; and their attitudes towards being taught by student teachers.

Students' perceptions of student teachers

In this study, an attempt was first made to find out whether the students knew who student teachers were. Analysis of data showed that there was no doubt that the students knew that student teachers were still undergoing some training and were not professional teachers.

They are people still learning how to become teachers ... they send them to schools to come and learn how to teach... some of them are in the university, some of them are from colleges of education

They are students who want to teach when they finish their studies. They are not yet teacher(s) so they come here to learn how to teach. The ones with us now are from a university

In addition to knowing who student teachers were generally, the students easily recognized the ones in their schools after they were introduced to either the whole students by the school principals usually during morning assemblies, or when they were introduced to them in their classrooms by their usual class teachers whose subjects would be taken over by the student teachers.

When the students were asked what they liked and/or disliked about the student teacher(s) that were teaching them during the study or those who taught them for the past years, their responses to what they liked about student teachers far outweighed what they did not like about them. What they liked about student teachers fell into three categories: their personal qualities, how they taught them in class; and, how they related with them in class.

There were more comments about the personal qualities of the student teachers than the other two aspects mentioned above. Almost all the participants, irrespective of school or year group, were very pleased with the personal qualities of the student teachers.

Our student teacher dresses very well and speaks correct English. He jokes with us whenever he comes to our class ... but makes us work.

Interviewer: Do you mean that he comes into your classroom to joke with you?

Student: No. It is not that he comes to joke with us. He teaches us very well but he says many things that make us laugh when he is teaching. We just enjoy his lessons.

Student teachers come to teach us whenever they have lessons. Some of our teachers do not come to the class in time to teach us but not with the student teachers. They come in time to teach us and we do not have to go and call them first before they come.
.

Our student teacher...the one teaching us now... is very gentle and works very hard. He does not get angry with us easily.

Interviewer: Do you try to make him angry with you sometimes?

Student No, but when some of the students in my class begin to make (a) noise in class he does not shout at them and he does not beat them.

All the groups passed favorable comments on how the student teachers taught them. They emphasized the student teachers' ability to explain things to them. They were of the opinion that the student teachers performed their duties diligently and they liked how student teachers made their lessons interesting.

I like student teachers because they explain things very well. Anything you do not understand, they will explain it to you.

I like her because whenever she teaches us I (use to) understand her lesson …because she will explain things to us when anyone asks a question. She teaches us more than we can imagine.

Student teachers work very hard. They cover every topic every week. I like their lessons because they come with diagrams, pictures, calendars and many things…they use them to teach us lessons that are interesting.

The students also liked how the student teachers related with them. Almost all of them perceived the student teachers as being friendly and showing much consideration for them.

Student teachers do not beat us. They give us good advice that will be useful to us. One of them told us to change to arts or social science if we are not doing well in science so that we (shall) have no regrets in future. Our class teacher will just teach us and go away.

It is not surprising that the students in this study passed favorable comments on the personal qualities and behavior of student teachers. Teacher educators in colleges of education and universities usually instruct their students going for teaching practice to be of good behavior in their placement schools and apply strict sanctions to those that do not behave well. This is because misbehavior by student teachers in their placement schools had often led to refusal by school principals to allow their schools to be used for teaching practice. Moreover, those of them who wished to earn good grades in the exercise had to comply with these instructions and do their work in their placement schools.

The student teachers in this study were perceived by their pupils as good in making explanations, hard-working, making use of teaching aids and having some consideration for them as well as 'joking' with them. These comments are in line with students' expectations of a good teacher and good teaching. Brain (2005), for instance, found in his study that the core qualities recognized by students in good teachers include the ability to explain material in a way that students can understand and use, and having a deep-seated concern and respect for the students in the classroom. Also, Leblanc (2005), commenting on 10 top requirements of good teaching, states that good teaching is about humor which often involves making of innocuous jokes so that students can learn in a more relaxed atmosphere.

Not all their comments about the student teachers were complimentary, however. A notable adverse comment which was widely shared by the members of a year-one group was this:

They are good but sometimes they miss some lessons and after that, they come and they will combine some classes to teach together

This type of behavior is not unexpected among student teachers mainly because many of the students in teacher education program in the country are there not because they are interested in teaching but because they are not fit to enter other programs. Unlike those of them that are genuinely interested in teaching, such student teachers are bound not o be involved in their own teacher identity formation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) during the exercise.

Impact of Student Teachers on Learning

Opinions of the students were sought on whether or not they felt that the student teachers were able to help them to learn and how they were able to make them learn, if they did. The general opinion, without any dissenting voice, was that the student teachers in their schools during the time of the study were good teachers. They were also of the opinion that student teachers who had taught them in the past were also good teachers and were able to make them learn. In response to the question on how either their present or past student teachers made them learn, the ways in which they accomplished this were categorized into four. The first way that emerged very strongly was, again, ability of the student teachers to explain things to them:

He explains things very well.

They explain to us more deeply than our permanent teachers.

She helps us to learn because, people that do not understand, she will listen to them and help them to understand.

Interviewer: How does she help them to understand?

 Student: She explains everything to them in simple words or in vernacular,

A second way in which they felt student teachers helped them learn was by the use of teaching aids. The general opinion was that almost every student teacher used teaching aids when teaching them.

Most of them come into the class with many things - diagrams, pictures, calendars, real objects and many other things for us to see or learn with - in order to make us understand.

A third way in which the students believed that student teachers made them learn was by keeping them on task and evaluating their work. This opinion was strongly held by the year three group in one of the schools.

When he comes to class he explains things, and gives some examples and then he gives us plenty of exercises to do in the class. ... and everybody is busy.

He asks us his own questions. After that .he gives us some work in do to know whether we understand ... and he marks them. It is not this one alone. Whenever they come they give us something to do at home.

Another way in which they felt that student teachers made them learn was by spending more time with them either during the break period or during free periods for more discussion of what was done in class.

The students in this study reported that student teachers helped them learn by making use of teaching aids and that they were very explanatory in their approaches to lesson delivery. These are some of the ways of making lessons interesting to students and naturally, students learn better when lessons are made interesting to them. That student teachers are capable of making work interesting is in agreement with Everton, Hopper & Thwaites's (1999) study of primary school pupils in England. Campbell & Kane (1998) found that primary school children

appreciated the entertainment value offered by student teachers in their lesson delivery. One of the ways of bringing about this entertainment value is through the use of teaching aids which the subjects in this study reported as having helped them to learn. The students' favorable comments on the use of teaching aids by student teachers can also be ascribed to the fact that most classroom teachers, in Nigerian public schools, with the possible exception of those teaching science subjects or conducting practical classes, no longer make use of teaching aids as soon as they leave teacher education institutions. The students, therefore, found lessons more interesting and entertaining when student teachers made use of teaching aids. Interaction with the students by this investigator revealed that virtually none of their class teachers gave them any assignments to do at home.

The students in this study reported that some student teachers spent more time with them after class periods holding more discussions on what they did in class. These are in agreement with Everton et al's (1999) findings in respect of primary school pupils who, according to the authors, reported that student teachers were able to spend more time with them (the pupils) and take more trouble in offering them some help. Carney & Hagger (1996) also report that the secondary school pupils in their study felt that student teachers offered more individual attention, were better listeners and tried to develop better relationships. The students in this study also reported that student teachers were always ready to listen to them. Interpersonal relationships between especially between some male student teachers and some female students may also partly account for the willingness of the former to spend more time with the students after their lessons.

Feelings about Being Taught by Student Teachers

One of the objectives of this study was to explore the feelings about being taught by student teachers for many weeks almost every term. The general impression created by all the groups was that they liked being taught by student teachers every term. The reasons they gave for this fell into three broad categories. One of these was on the Student teachers' positive attitude to work. Student teachers were reported to be always ready to teach them and to be punctual to class any time they had classes with them.

They are regular in class and they do not waste any time before they come into the class Most of them do not wait for our class captain to come and call them before they start coming (to teach).

They are always ready to listen to us... and to help us to learn

The second category of reasons had to do with how the student teachers performed the teaching functions in the class. A recurring theme among the students in all the groups was the ability of student teachers to explain things well in class.

They explain things very well to us. The one that is teaching us now, she knows how to explain very well and I understand her.

Interviewer: Does it mean that your usual teacher does not explain things very well to you?

 Student: He does, but not like this one.

The respondents were also delighted with how most of the student teachers used some audio-visual aids in lesson delivery: They reported that almost every student teacher that had taught them made use of these materials and that they found such lessons very interesting:

Many student teachers use different materials to teach us. When we see them... and sometimes we practice with them or use them, we enjoy the lesson.

The third reason bordered on classroom discipline. In this regard the students expressed delight with how student teachers handled disciplinary problems in the classroom. Some of them found learning under student teachers less threatening than learning under some of their usual teachers..

Student teacher does not come with cane into the classroom but our teacher, he comes with cane to cane us

Many of our teachers are very strict   in class ... but student teachers are not strict.

Interviewer: Does it mean that student teachers do not control your behavior in the classroom?

Student: No. Student teachers control our behavior in the class but permanent teachers are more strict. For any small offence, they flog us.

The students were asked who they would prefer to teach them for the most part of the year: their usual teachers or student teachers and why? There was a slight division of opinions on this issue. While almost all the students in one of the schools would like to be taught by student teachers for most part of the year, some of the third year students in the other school preferred their usual teachers. The reasons given by those who preferred being taught by student teachers were just the same reasons given for why they liked being taught by them:

They (the student teachers) are always ready to teach us. They come to class early. But for our teachers, we have to look for them and call them... and they come late to teach us. Sometimes they do not come at all... but they will be in the school.

My class teacher does not use pictures, diagrams and other materials to teach us...

            but my student teacher brings them.

If we make (a) noise in the class our student teacher warns us and does not flog. But our school teachers flog us

The other reasons given for preferring student teachers included their ability to explain things in the class and to give them useful advice from time to time. Some of their comments showed that some of them had no specific reasons for preferring student teachers to their usual teachers. An example of such comments was:

 I like student teachers more because they use to teach us more than we can imagine

Those who preferred being taught by their usual teachers for the greater part of the year based their reason on the fact that their class teachers were more experienced in teaching than student teachers:

- Our permanent teachers have gone through some training and have learnt more about how to do many things

- Permanent teachers control themselves more than student teachers because they have succeeded on their own part but student teachers are just learning how to teach.

These findings suggest that the students had a positive attitude towards being taught by student teachers for a number of reasons including their attitude to work, ability to explain things very well, making use of teaching aids, being regular to class and being able to listen to them.

In contrast to the primary school pupils in Everton et al's (1999) study who were reluctant to criticize their usual classroom teachers, the secondary school students in this study made some critical remarks about their own teachers. Contrary to the investigator's expectation, there was a strong preference for student teachers to their usual class teachers among the students. One of the reasons why they preferred student teachers to their usual teachers was that the latter usually came into the classroom with canes and actually caned them while the former did not. This is not surprising as students' usual teachers who have established themselves and their authority with the students are bound to be perceived as being stricter with discipline in the classroom than student teachers who want to make good grades and would need the cooperation of their pupils. They cannot get this by being or appearing to be harsh to the pupils. Furthermore, students prefer to learn under such non-threatening situations perceived by the subjects of this study as existing when they were under student teachers, to learning under the usual teachers who were stricter with discipline.'

The students in this study criticized their teachers for coming late to class and also for occasionally not showing up at all to teach their lessons even when they were present in the school. This is a reflection of the generally poor attitude to work by teachers in public schools in many parts of the country. Teachers' apathy towards their work rose to the level of national awareness in the early nineties during the military era when teachers in many states of the federation were not paid their salaries for months. The attendant long periods of strike offered some of them the opportunities to engage in trading and other businesses. In regard to the attitude of teachers to their work during this period, the Personal View columnist of Daily Sketch described the situation in 1995 as follows: "... the teacher is not as patriotic as before. Neither is he as selfless. He has to paddle his own cause, leaving the pupils untaught, uncounselled, as a result of trade dispute. He, too, wants to live and compare favorably with other professions..." (Personal View, 1995: 2).

Although teachers' salaries have increased over sevenfold since that period, many teachers, especially in public schools, are yet to develop a more positive attitude to their work. This single factor probably explains to a great extent, why the students in the two schools involved in this study preferred student teachers to their usual teachers, it would seem that students preferred people who liked to teach them and who kept them on-task at scheduled lesson periods to those they would have to look for at such periods and who might either be late to class or might not even come at all to teach them. The students' preference of student teachers to their usual teachers could even be explained by the fact that student teachers were presenting easier or less challenging tasks to them than their usual teachers. However, this problem is almost non-existent in private schools where principals and school proprietors exercise stricter supervision and control of teachers' activities than in public schools.

Conclusion And Implications For Policy And Practice

The findings from this study suggest a number of conclusions about how the students in this study viewed student teachers and their teaching. First, even though they knew that student teachers were still learning how to teach, the students perceived them as having the qualities of good teachers and being capable of making them learn. The second conclusion is that the students had positive attitudes towards being taught by student teachers and did not mind being

taught by them for a greater part of the academic year. This implies that they did not feel that they were losing anything by not being taught by their usual teachers whenever student teachers were around to teach them. The third is that the students preferred student teachers to their usual teachers not only because the former showed more consideration and were less strict than the latter in the class but also because of the poor attitude of their usual teachers to work.

Although the outcomes of this study suggest that the students were satisfied with the performance of the student teachers in class, the investigator does not share the idea that students should be taught by student teachers for a greater part of the academic session as is presently the case in some public schools. The investigator observed during the study that many of the teachers in the two public schools left their classes entirely under the control of the student teachers instead of working with them as would be expected. This does no good to either their own students or the student teachers who they were supposed to guide as they performed their functions in the classroom. A situation in which students prefer student teachers to their usual teachers should be a cause for concern to educational administrators. There is, therefore, the need not only to ensure that such teachers perform their statutory functions but also that they work collaboratively with student teachers for the benefit of both the student teachers and their own students.

This implies that educational administrators have to explore various ways of making teachers do their work. It calls for closer supervision of their teaching functions by the appropriate supervisory bodies and the application of sanctions whenever necessary. Organization of workshops and seminars designed to sensitize teachers and school principals to their roles in the field experience of student teachers will also be in order. School principals have to ensure that teachers put into practice the idea of working together with student teachers in their respective classrooms and actually helping them in learning teaching skills which is one of the major objectives of teaching practice.

Even though the students in this study indicated that they liked being taught by student teachers, there is the need to maintain adequate contact periods between teachers in public schools and their students with minimum interruption of this contact by student teachers or student teaching. The implication is that teaching practice has to be restricted to specific periods in either the school term or year which should be communicated to teacher education institutions so that they can adjust their schedules for the exercise accordingly. During such periods, classroom teachers should not abandon their classes but should work together with student teachers to ensure that both their students and the student teachers benefit from the exercise.

Evidence from this small-scale study suggests that the participants were favorably disposed to student teachers in their schools and that they felt that the student teachers were able to make them learn. Owing to the sizeable amount of the school time taken up by student teaching in some parts of the country, a replication of this in the other parts of the country is being suggested. In addition, quantitative studies aimed at ascertaining the extent to which students benefit from student teaching, will provide useful complements to this type of study.

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Graduate Unemployment In Nigeria:

A Blind Spot In The Nation's Educational System

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Abstract

The Nigerian educational system particularly university education has grown in leaps and bounds in recent years. This is particularly noticeable owing to the emergence of private and state universities in the country. Before independence, Nigeria had only one university (University of Ibadan). Between 1960 and 1999, the country had a total of 39 universities. In the last two years, the nation's universities had risen to a total of 89, comprising 27 federal 30 state and 32 private universities. One state alone (Ogun State) has a total of ten (10) universities. Closely connected with this is the turnover from these universities which has increased with astonishing rapidity. With over eighty universities in Nigeria today and an average of one hundred and sixty thousand graduates each year, the country is now bedeviled with severe graduate unemployment, since there seems to be a mismatch between graduate training and the world of work. Thousands of graduates that are turned out every year end up roaming the streets for years without any hope of securing paid employment even after sacrificing one year to serve their fatherland through the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) Scheme. The resultant effect is the fear of a revolution which may consume all if care is not taken as these jobless graduates have become very desperate and willing to do anything including armed robbery in order to survive. This paper is set out to discuss in retrospect the genesis and trend as well as implications of graduate unemployment on Nigeria's socio-economic and political development, with a view to proffering solutions towards resolving and ameliorating the decadent situation. One of the policy thrusts of the paper is the need for universities in Nigeria to respond to the current challenge of graduate unemployment through a thorough and complete restructuring of their curriculum content in order to make them more relevant to contemporary needs. Besides, the concept of university education for self-reliance which will make the graduates job creators rather than job seekers will need to be pursued vigorously. The concept of entrepreneurial skill development recently introduced by the NUC will have to be imbibed by all universities. Finally, the paper tries to underscore the need for a thorough and close monitoring of the new universities just springing up, especially the private ones in order to ensure that the academic currency is not debased or sacrificed at the alter of financial gains.

Introduction

Nigeria, in the last two decades has experienced an alarming high demand for university education. This demand cannot be unconnected, with the ever increasing population of the nation. Also, there is a very social demand for university education in Nigeria compared to other countries of the world because of the psychic benefit and the high rates of returns to be derived by the individuals.

Going down the memory lane, the Nigerian Educational System particularly university education have experienced the greatest rate of expansion in the last decade. Before independence, Nigeria had only one university (University of Ibadan). Between 1960 and 1999, the country had a total of 39 universities and in the last two years, the nation's universities had risen to a total of 89 comprising 27 federal, 30 state and 32 private universities. The concomitant effect of this is that an average of about one hundred and sixty thousand graduates are turned out into labor market annually. These thousands of graduates that are turned out every year end up roaming the streets for years without any hope of securing paid employment even after sacrificing one year to serve their fatherland through the National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) scheme. In the mean, it has become very imperative and expedient now to discuss graduate unemployment in Nigeria as a blind spot in the nation's educational system with a view to proffering solutions towards resolving it.

In this paper therefore, an attempt is made to:

(i) Have a global survey of Enrolment Trends in Nigerian Universities as well as examine the Graduate Output by Nigerian Universities;
(ii) Briefly examine the issue of unemployment;
(iii) Examine the labor demand and Graduate unemployment, and finally,
(iv) Have a look at the panacea to graduate unemployment in Nigeria.

A Global Survey of Enrolment Trends in Nigerian Universities

By the figure of 2005 census, Nigeria's population was put at about 140 million people. This makes the country the most populous in Africa and one of those with the high potentiality for human resources development. One natural effect of this has been a phenomenal growth in enrolment leading to hysterical expansion of the school system at all levels; an expansion which, although more prominent at the lower levels of the educational system has put more burden and pressure on the tertiary level. For example, between 1960 and 1961, when there were only two universities in Nigeria, the total student population stood at 1,396.

Table 1 below shows that this figure rose to 38,286 in thirteen universities by 1975; 116,822 in twenty-seven universities in 1983; and 180,871 in thirty-one universities by 1990.

Table 1 - ENROLMENT IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES, FEDERAL AND STATE: 1960-1990

Year	No of Universities	Total Enrolment	Year	No of Universities	Total Enrolment
1960/61	2	1,396	1990/91		230,420
1961		1,476	1991/92		302,580
1962	6	3,646	1992/93		408,859
1963		5,106	1994/95		452,653
1964		5,707	1995/96		453,784
1965		7,709	1996/97		481,280
1966		8,888	1997/98		490,933
1967		7,058	1998/99	39	574,723
1968		8,588	1999/00		547,867
1969		9,695	2000/01		582,996
1970		14,468	2001/02		586,323
1971		17,093	2002/03		572,509
1972	6	20,889	2003/04		620,852
1973		23,228	2004/05		810,220
1974		26,448			
1975	13	38,286			
1976		40,552			
1977		47,499			
1978		52,755			
1979		59,294			
1980		77,791			
1981		90,751			
1982		101,774			
1983	27	116,822			
1984		126,265			
1985		135,783			

1986		151,967
1987		160,767
1988		160,174
1989/90	31	180,871

Source;   National Universities Commission, 2006.

Total enrolment of undergraduates in Nigeria rose from 180,871 in 1990 to 490,933 in 1998 (Table 2). This implies a growth rate of 15 percent per year during the period. By world standards, this is quite high. In the 1990s alone, enrolment numbers almost doubled, increasing from 180,871 in 1990 to 490,933 in 1998 and 810,220 in 2005.

According to the Executive Secretary of the National Universities Commission, Prof. Julius Okogie, as at 2006/2007 session there were 1,096,312 students in Nigerian Universities out of this number 87 percent were undergraduates (953,792) while 6% were non-degree students (65,778). The remaining number consists of postgraduate students.

Table 2 – Total Enrolment by Institutions and Year

Institution	95/96	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/2000	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Ibadan	18,127	19,520	19,650	20,120	20,550	20,850	20,920	21,050	21,210	21,820
Lagos	14,942	14,850	14,920	15,010	15,520	15,820	16,773	16,920	17,692	18,722
Nsukka	21,852	21,520	21,920	22,102	22,520	22,850	23,010	23,520	23,870	24,240
Zaria	34,380	33,850	34,220	34,520	34,850	35,010	35,220	35,110	35,810	36,120
Ife	19,959	19,820	20,050	20,230	20,640	20,920	21,150	21,280	21,520	21,750
Benin	20,058	20,220	20,450	20,750	20,920	21,830	20,920	21,730	22,113	22,520
Jos	11,900	10,100	11,500	11,820	12,010	12,220	12,380	12,510	12,910	13,010
Calabar	14,122	14,320	14,510	14,630	15,050	15,200	15,420	15,820	15,905	16,105
Kano	11,706	11,802	11,920	12,050	12,130	12,330	12,540	12,620	12,705	12,850
Maid.	10,342	10,020	10,210	10,380	10,520	10,610	10,820	10,905	11,105	11,280
Sokoto	8,480	8,510	8,605	8,720	8,650	8,880	8,905	9,102	9,300	9,520
Ilorin	14,052	14,210	14,132	14,210	14,330	14,520	14,620	14,750	14,810	14,920
P/Harc.	8,250	8,130	8,210	8,410	8,520	8,395	8,498	8,760	8,905	9,120
Uyo**	9,436	9,510	9,620	9,615	9,720	9,580	9,820	9,980	10,120	10,225
Awka**	5,904	5,820	5,925	5,900	6,120	6,220	6,310	6,350	6,854	6,925

Abuja	1,777	1,980	2,010	2,105	2,210	2,350	2,410	2,480	2,770	3,125
Owerri	5,564	5,610	5,650	5,690	5,710	5,820	5,910	6,102	6,185	6,785
Akure	4,839	4,920	4,950	5,010	5,120	5,185	5,250	5,380	5,435	5,825
Minna	3,907	3,820	3,980	4,025	4,103	4,195	4,205	4,285	4,310	4,483
Bauchi	3,704	3,720	3,785	3,905	4,012	4,103	4,205	4,285	4,320	4,422
Yola	4,910	4,942	5,023	5,182	5,310	5,385	5,410	5,480	4,513	4,623
Makurdi**	2,684	2,690	2,780	2,910	3,010	3,132	3,152	3,282	3,343	3,432
Abeokuta	2,755	2,852	2,913	2,618	2,998	3,023	3,158	3,618	3,792	3,985
Umudike**	331	394	450	455	465	580	780	1,200	1,350	1,450
Total	74,331	85,904	97,330	111,513	120,670	198,221	210,421	218,244	236,261	253,981

NOTES: Adapted from NUC Statistical Digest, 2006

A more sensitive indicator of enrolment growth in universities is the number of first time entrants rather than total enrolments, especially when graduation rates are significantly less than 100 percent. Evidence shows that new admissions also rose sharply (see Table 3 below).

Table 3 – New Entrants by Institutions and Year

Institution	89/90	90/91	91/92	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/2000	2000/01	01/02	02/03	03/04	Ave. Annual Growth '90-'04
Ibadan	3,993	3,909	4,501	9,945	13,993	4,309	4,409	4,509	5,590	5,690	5,790	2.09%
Lagos	5,079	5,079	4,682	10,757	11,036	6,892	6,992	7,092	7,190	7,290	7,390	4.54%
Nsukka	4,369	5,094	6,430	9,126	8,596			4,845	4,845	4,945	5,045	-1.02%
Zaria	6,071	6,071	6,857	7,623	7,709	4,645	4,745		6,800	6,900	7,000	2.99%
Ife	3,870	4,542	6,857	6,400	6,978	6,635	6,735	6,835	3,060	3,060	3,140	5.38%
Benin	3,590	4,542	3,114	9,993	5,913	2,760	2,860	2,960	5,728	5,828	5,928	4.63%
Jos		2,982	5,581	9,993	5,073	4,482	4,582	4,682	2,244	2,344	2,444	-8.97%
Calabar	2,80		6,160	6,107	4,531		2,04		4,935	5,035		4.02%

												%Growth
Kano	9	4,528	3,551	4,859	4,243	1,944	4	2,144	3,625	3,725	5,135	-0.02%
Maid.	2,263	3,250	3,459	4,088	3,754	4,635	4,735	4,835	4,108	4,208	3,825	4.59%
Sokoto	2,488	3,327	2,763		3,165	3,321	3,421	3,521	2,800	2,900	4,308	5.68%
Ilorin	1,854	2,597	1,373	5,079	2,830	3,888	3,988	4,088	3,254	3,354		2.19%
P/Harc.	1,755	1,521	3,165	5,533	2,367		2,600	2,700	4,316	4,416	3,000	5.21%
Uyo	2,266	2,905	3,055	2,417	2,037	2,500			4,316	4,416	3,354	6.27%
Awka	2,684		3,811	2,681	1,602	2,954	3,054	3,154	1,823	1,823	4,516	3.55%
Abuja		2,443	1,228	2,417	1,030	3,860	3,960	4,216	1,594	1,694	4,516	21.52%
Owerri		2,136	298	1,585	809	4,016		4,216	2,055	2,155	1,923	8.25%
Akure			1,941	1,191	632	1,623	4,116	1,723	1,298	1,398	1,794	5.78%
Minna		224	616	1,059	444	1,294	1,723	1,494	1,712	1,812	2,255	16.91%
Bauchi	549	860	346	502	257	1,755	1,394	1,955	1,455	1,555	1,498	9.63%
Yola	386	602	635	511	222	998	1,855	1,198	1,680	1,780	1,912	12.98%
Makurdi	700	346	766	210	160	1,412	1,098	1,612			1,655	
Abeok.	811	505	454	222	98	1,155	1,512	1,355			1,880	
Umudike	295	463	739	125	42	1,389	1,255	1,580				
	204	454		115			1,489					
	319	739		45								
Total	28,909	30,367	34,263	39,935	39,176	39,369	44,038	46,355	54,577	64,625	92,590	
%Growth Per Year	3%	5%	13%	17%	6%	0%	12%	5%	18%	18%	21%	

Adapted from Statistical Information on Nigerian Universities (Oct. 2006) Section B, Tables B1-B12

It could be seen from the table above that between 1990 and 2004, the number of new entrants increased by 75 percent – an average of 5 percent per year. This phenomenal expansion of student population was experienced by all institutions and regions. However, some differences are observed. In general, first generation universities experienced significantly lower than average (5 percent) enrolment growth rates. Between 1991 and 2004, enrolments in these

elite first generation universities increased by an average of 8.5 percent per year. Although the second generation universities had stronger enrolment growth than first generation universities, their rates were still a modest 6.2 percent per year over the same period. In contrast, the third generation universities displayed annual enrolment growth rates around 15 percent. Among regions, the highest enrolment growth rates (about 12 percent) occurred in the North-East and South-South. Below average growth rates were observed in the South-East (6 percent) during these years.

A breakdown of the student population by gender is shown in Table 4 below

Table 4 – Enrolment by Gender

Institution	91/92		95/96		96/97		97/98		2000/2001		2004/2005	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Ibadan	9889	3968	11994	6133	13792	7469	13976	8453	15976	10453	16076	10654
Lagos	9657	4411	9490	5452	10383	6458	10469	7409	10696	7690	10869	7609
Nsukka	12695	5862	13134	8718	13134	8719	12526	10563	12762	10736	12926	10963
Zaria	20954	0	34380		26219	5790	12364	5457	12500	5676	12700	5867
Ife	11576	3435	14027	5932	14474	5429	11832	5468	12032	5668	12232	5886
Benin	9606	5829	15038	5020	14567		13469	7369	13696	7569	13860	7800
Jos	10397	4164	7871	4029	8067	4169	6926	4119	7026	4319	7226	4519
Calabar	5986	2648	9131	4991	8111	5138	9089	6348	9289	6548	9498	6784
Kano	6523	1754	11706		9771	878	7891	3543	8091	3743	8219	3934
Maid.	7115	2085	7455	2887	9171	4368	8155	2964	10155	3064	10255	3246
Sokoto	3405	587	6714	1766	7110	1933	7110	1933	7310	2033	7501	2233
Ilorin	7437	2368	9865	4187	11006	4821	10454	4964	10654	5064	10854	5246
P/Harc.	5931	4894	5162	3088	8776	6163	8758	4400	10758	4600	10985	4800
Uyo	6035	3919	5740	3696	7619	4832	6673	5510	6873	5810	7073	6010
Awka	3450	3090	3374	2530	3586	2510	3586	2510	3786	2710	3986	2901
Abuja	348	249	1777		3961		3864	0	4064	0	4246	0
Owerri	2733	1207	4476	1088	4223	1068	5384	1351	5584	1551	5748	1715
Akure	1811	285	4051	788	4978	966	5466	995	5666	1095	5866	1295

Minna	2073	0	3283	624	3702	740	3584	703	3784	930	3948	1003
Bauchi	2041	563	2686	1018	3465	810	4844	935	5444	1035	5644	1035
Yola	2081	480	4250	660	4125	426	5459	581	5659	781	5859	918
Makurdi	1180	214	2285	399	2291	400	2076	375	2276	557	2467	775
Abeok.	1536	570	747	747	2046	768	2071	1001	2271	1201	2271	1410
Umudike			220	111	329	172	513	278	731	487	913	678
Total	121,432	52,582	140,993	63,864	176,378	74,027	172,675	87,229	172,870	88,220	174,710	89,209
Combined	197,041		252,720		268,933		263,768		280,786		285,687	

Source: Adapted from NUC Statistical Digest, 2006

Between 1991 and 2005, the population of male students grew by 52 percent. Over the same period, the population of female students rose by 76 percent. Consequently, the proportion of female students in the population of all students increased from 37 percent in 1991 to 53 percent in 2005.

An estimate of the real supply of skilled workers/graduates is presented in table 5 below

Table 5 – Total Graduate Output by Institution, Discipline and Year

Institution	86/87	88/89	91/92	95/96	96/97	2000/01	2004/05	Ave. Annual % Growth
Ibadan	3,821	3,040	3,173	6,813	6,929	8,992	9,092	9.59%
Nsukka	4,359	3,826	5,924	4,259	4,611	4,811	8,011	2.10%
Kano	1,060	983	1,380	3,922	4,317	4,317	4,500	17.87%
P/Harc.	817	2,264	2,107	3,519	3,826	4,026	4,200	6.00%
Jos	1,344	2,181	2,888	5,961	3,565	3,700	3,900	5.61%
Ife	3,269	2,756	4,397	3,427	3,427	3,600	3,800	2.45%
Lagos	3,436	4,126	4,709	3,135	3,372	3,500	3,700	-2.22%
Benin	1,453	3,630	3,392	3,873	3,299	3,400	6,600	-1.06%
Maid.	1,363	1,279	1,474	2,706	3,166	3,200	3,400	9.30%
Ilorin	1,382	1,420	2,750	3,346	3,162	3,361	3,500	-1.10%
Uyo	0	0	1,404	1,314	1,314	1,300	1,500	6.84%
Awka	0	0	858	1,274	1,276	1,400	1,600	-7.54%

Calabar	1,103	2,447	1,587	1,208	1,208	1,4080	1,4200	3.00%
Sokoto	711	817	749	1,169	1,066	1,2066	1,2200	14.86%
Owerri	81	213	296	490	741	800	2000	15.44%
Akure	61	136	260	408	495	600	1000	20.43%
Bauchi	90	73	121	298	389	500	1300	20.09%
Abeok.	5	0	123	369	369	501	10601	22-46%
Makurdi	85	57	224	298	353	525	6025	24.95%
Yola	0	45	169	334	334	550	7500	20.15%
Minna	0	23	124	120	120	300	5000	2.08%
Zaria	2,872	2,980	3,249	0	0	850	1050	
Abuja	0	0	0	0	0	720	9220	
Umudike	0	0	0	9	0	910	1010	
Total	27,312	32,296	41,358	48,243	47,339	48,220	82,500	4.34%

Source: Adapted from NUC Statistical Digest, 2006

In 1986, federal universities alone supplied 27,312 job-seekers with degree training. Five years later (1991), this output had risen to over 41,000. By 2005, annual labor market entrants with a university education had topped 82,500. It is important to bear in mind that these figures are lower bound estimates because in addition to federal universities, numerous state universities also send graduates into the labour market. Moreover, supply will increase further if post-graduate entrants are counted.

The composition of skills i.e. specializations that entered the labour market between 1986 and 2005 is given in Table 6 below

Table 6 – Graduate Output by Discipline and Year

Discipline	1986/87	1988/89	1991/92	1995/96	1996/97	2000/01	2004/05
Administration	1897	2088	2459	2233	2332	2532	2802
Agriculture	1120	1366	1681	2371	2453	2635	2853
Arts	3907	4072	4292	5569	5596	5700	5820
Educaiton	7836	10686	13950	14449	12390	12500	12705
Engineering	1569	1871	2246	2867	3210	3510	3710

Environment	842	814	942	779	669	869	1069
Law	1440	1714	1892	1264	1417	1671	1817
Medicine	1439	1593	1646	2205	2402	2602	2820
Pharmacy	295	298	551	421	405	605	8050
Science	2582	3503	5109	6593	6989	7098	7389
Soc. Science	4190	4139	6383	9199	9201	1021	1212
Vet. Medicine	195	152	207	293	275	475	657
Totals	27,312	32,296	41,358	48,243	47,339	48,933	49, 990

Source: Adapted from NUC Statistical Digest, 2006

At the beginning of the period, the largest share of labor market entrants with university education found employment in the education sector (40 percent) followed by general social sciences (26 percent) and natural sciences (20 percent).

The above analysis of university enrolment and output trends reveals that the supply of university educated workers in Nigeria has grown in leaps and bounds over the years.

The Issue of Unemployment

Unemployment is the state in which a worker wants, but is unable to work. As defined by the International Labor Organization (ILO) "unemployed workers" are those who are currently not working but are willing and able to work for pay, currently available to work and have actively searched for work. The unemployment rate is the number of unemployed workers divided by the total civilian labor force. The unemployment rate is also used in economic studies and economic indexes such as the Conference Board's Index of Leading Indicators.

There are so many alibi for unemployed individuals. Unemployed individuals are unable to earn money to meet financial obligations. They are susceptible to malnutrition, illness, mental stress, and loss of self-esteem, leading to depression. Besides, they constitute a big drain on the nation's lean resources.

There is considerable debate among economists as to the causes of unemployment. Keynesian economics emphasizes unemployment resulting from insufficient effective demand for goods and service in the economy (cyclical unemployment). Others point to structural problems, inefficiencies, inherent in labour markets (structural unemployment). Classical or neoclassical economics tends to reject these explanations and focuses more on rigidities imposed on the labour market from the outside, such as minimum wage laws, taxes and other regulations that may discourage the hiring of workers (classical unemployment). Yet others see unemployment as largely due to voluntary choices by the unemployed (frictional unemployment). On the other extreme, Marxists see unemployment as a structural fact helping to preserve business profitability and capitals.

Others argue that unemployment actually increases the more the government intervenes into the economy. For example, minimum wages raise costs of doing business and businesses respond by laying off workers. Laws restricting layoffs make businesses less likely to hire in the first place leaving many young people unemployed and unable to find work.

Some say that one of the main causes of unemployment in a free market economy is the fact that the law of supply and demand is not really applied to the price to be paid for employing people.

In developing countries unemployment is often caused by burdensome government regulation. The World Bank's Doing Business project shows how excessive labor regulation increases unemployment among women and youths in Africa, the Middle East and Latin America.

Unemployment is a bane not only peculiar to developing countries like Nigeria but also developed countries of the World. According to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2007) there was an official measure of 6.8 million unemployed in the United States of America as of April 2007, a rate of 4.5 percent. This number is inclusive of University Graduates which constitutes about 2.2 percent.

In Nigeria, the national unemployment rate has continued to ratchet upward unabated. As the Vanguard of December 23, 2004 noted, it has moved from 4.3% in 1985 to 5.3% in 1986, to 7.0% in 1987 and jumped to 60% in 1997. The report shows that in 2003 primary school accounted for 14.7% unemployment, secondary school 53:6% and tertiary schools constituted 12.4%. It is important to stress that the weak economy has exacerbated the unemployment condition in Nigeria as the nation's poverty level has reached 70% with more than 91 million Nigerians living on less than one dollar per day.

Labor Demand and Graduate Unemployment

Graduates complain of high levels of unemployment. The situation is of such concern that hundreds of unemployed graduates mounted a demonstration in front of the presidential offices (Aso Rock) on October 18, 2000. They demanded that government provide them with jobs.

Obtaining accurate information on graduate unemployment is perhaps the most difficult challenge in collecting labor market information. This is because hiring decisions by firms are typically coordinated and in many cases unannounced. Therefore, it becomes necessary to infer labor demand for university graduates through secondary data such as manpower surveys, and the few existing labor market studies available.

Since 1983, the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS) has conducted studies and produced reports from sample surveys of the Nigerian labor force taken on a regular basis. The findings of these surveys are summarized in the agency's Annual Abstracts of Statistics. According to the latest report (1997), overall unemployment rates in Nigeria ranged from 2 to 3 percent between 1992 and 1996. At the same time, urban rates were at most 6 percent while rural unemployment never exceeded 4 percent. If we turn our attention to unemployment by level of education (Table 7 below), two important conclusions emerge.

Table 7 – Percent of Unemployed Persons by Level of Education

Educational Level	Period				
	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996

All levels	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No schooling	19.0	17.2	13.3	18.7	20.0
Primary	15.7	17.9	13.2	36.7	11.5
Secondary	59.2	60.9	68.7	37.5	51.3
Post-secondary	6.1	4.0	4.8	7.1	17.2

Source: Federal Office of Statistics (1997)

First, workers with more than secondary education experience significantly higher labor market success than those with secondary education or less. The data in Table 7 indicate that the proportion of workers with post-secondary education is smaller among the unemployed than for any other groups. These differences are particularly sharp when secondary school certificate holders are compared with post-secondary graduates.

Second, the employment advantage of post-secondary graduates has been eroding throughout the 1990s. In 1992, only 6 percent of all unemployed claimed to have completed post-secondary education. But four years later, 17 percent of the unemployed possessed post-secondary education. This supports the common argument that unemployment rates among university graduates have risen in recent years. It has even gone to the ridiculous extent now that Masters and Ph.D holders are finding it difficult to get jobs. The same applies to medical doctors despite the fact that we are far from the WHO-ratio of medical doctors to the population of a nation. Even teaching that used to offer succor to graduates is longer offers this succor. Thousands of trained teachers cannot get jobs talk less of those that are not professionally qualified. Evidences abound of graduates getting jobs meant for school certificate holders and earning as low as N5,000.00 per month. What a waste?

Alternative sources of information for inferring the labor market prospects of university graduates are provided by the recent labor market studies undertaken by the National Manpower Board. One of the studies looked at labor market conditions in the selected metropolitan areas of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

Table 8 below shows the unemployment rate by level of education.

Table 8 – Unemployment Rate by Level of Education

Metropolitan Area	Secondary	Polytechnic/ Monotechnic	University (1st degree)	Overall unemployment rate
Aba	15.2	30.0	26.3	16.2
Abuja	29.9	23.2	16.0	19.2

Ibadan	22.4	24.0	19.0	17.5
Jos	26.0	16.0	5.0	16.3
Kano	15.3	21.0	0.0	10.7
Lagos city	16.5	19.5	29.4	12.9
Maiduguri	13.6	18.0	13.3	8.9
Port Harcourt	48.5	28.4	29.1	34.7
All metro areas	23.5	15.0	21.7	17.2
Lagos state	22.6	23.2	17.3	17.2

Source – Adapted from Labor Market Study FGN – NMB (1998a)

A cursory look at table 8 above reveals four major findings. First, the overall employment rates in local area labor markets are much higher. The average unemployment rate across all metropolitan areas is 17 percent. Second, unemployment rates for university graduates are high. The data presented show that for every 100 graduates, 22 report being unemployed. Third, the severity of the unemployment problem among graduates varies across regions. For example, whereas graduate unemployment was negligible in two of the northern metropolitan areas included in the study (Jos and Kano), it approached 30 percent in some areas of the South. Finally, although in many of these local markets, unemployment rates for graduates are lower than for individuals with secondary education, there are places – Aba and Lagos – where the rates are higher for graduates.

Three main sources of employment exist for university graduates in Nigeria: (i) the public sector including government ministries, schools and parastatals; (ii) the private sector which comprises of small to medium-sized private business as well as multinational corporations (iii) self-employment. Any good assessment of graduate employment prospects in the country must therefore include reasonable indicators of graduate absorption rates in all three of these areas. The trends in graduate employment distribution among these sectors will certainly give us useful clues to the more recent experience of graduates in the labor market.

The public sector in Nigeria has historically been a major employer of university graduates.

Table 9 below shows the applications and hires into the Federal Civil Service between 1993 and 2000.

Table 9 – Applications and Hires into the Federal Civil Service

Year	Number of applications	Number of graduates (+)	Proportion of graduates	Number of offers	Percent absorption
1993	9650			2459	25.5

1994	8694	5673	65.2	617	7.1
1995	14,312	9398	66.5	756	5.3
1996	10,250	7220	70.4	329	3.2
1997	9441	6390	65.6	179	1.9
1998	8172	5139	62.9	138	1.6
1999(*)	63,414			226	0.35
2000(**)	50,000+			3301	6.6

Source: Figures from FGN (2000)

At the end of 1997, the federal government employed a total of 163,991 Federal Civil Servants (FGN 1999). Of these, 42,695 (or 26 percent) held grades 8 and above which have traditionally been the grades dominated by university graduates. The figures given in table 9 should not be mistaken for all available Federal Civil Service positions. Instead, they represent only grade levels 7 and above i.e. senior positions, whose filling is the responsibility of the recruitment division of the Federal Civil Service Commission. As expected, the majority of the applicants for the senior positions are university graduates. What actually compounded the problem of graduate employment into the Federal Civil Service is that regular recruitment into the civil service was suspended between 1994 and 1998. This was done in order to carry out an internal audit of the Federal Civil Service. This exacerbated the problem because by 1999 when all the delayed applications came on stream, less than one percent of all qualified applicants could be hired.

State and local government, two other sources of public sector employment could not have done better in employment generation for university graduate. The best evidence in support of this conclusion comes from a study of state and local government employment from four states and the Federal Capital Territory of Abuja (FGN – NMB, 1998b). The total number of state and local government employees is shown in table 10 below.

Table 10 – Employment in State and Local Government Areas (LGAs)

State	No. of LGAs	No. of LGAs Surveyed	No. of Responding LGAs	No. of Employees
Abuja	4	4	4	3,149
Bauchi	23	23	23	30,493
Niger	19	19	19	22,984
Imo	21	21	21	8,837
Ondo	26	26	26	12,403
TOTAL				77,866

Source: FGN-NMB (1998b). LGAs denotes Local Government Areas.

These states represent four major zones in the country. According to the surveys, only 4.4 percent of the employees surveyed were university graduates. From the raw numbers, 1,167 individuals with university education or 233 per state were employed by both state and local governments. Since, there are 36 states in the federation, this could imply that on average, 8,388 graduates would be working for state and local governments.

Data on graduate employment in the private sector and in self-employment are exceedingly rare. The little data available regarding private sector share of graduate employment come from tracer studies.

Table 11 below shows the advertised job openings in the Nigerian Economy between 1991 and 1999.

Table 11 – Advertised Job Openings

Sub-sector	1st Quarter 1991		1st Quarter 1993		1st Quarter 1994		1st Quarter 1996		1st Quarter 1997		1st Quarter 1998		1st Quarter 1999		Total 1991 – 1999	%
Engineering	191	18	267	23	136	16	118	30	65	17	53	18	72	10	902	19
Computer Services	97	9	79	7	52	6	19	5	61	16	35	12	72	10	415	9
Administration	176	16	159	14	249	30	109	28	68	18	61	20	73	10	895	19
Accounting	147	14	173	15	139	16	44	11	87	23	49	16	80	11	719	15
Marketing	132	12	90	8	84	10	61	16	67	18	51	17	9	1	439	9
Education	96	9	71	6	74	9	10	3	5	1	20	7	1	0	277	6
Insurance	30	3	40	4	17	2	6	2	5	1	2	1	2	0	100	2
Agriculture	34	3	23	2	1	0	4	1	4	1	--	--	6	1	72	2
Health	165	15	245	21	93	11	18	5	13	4	31	10	390	56	955	20
Total	1068	100	1147	100	845	100	389	100	375	100	302	100	703	100	4774	100

Source: Labor Market Quarterly Report, (2000) NISER, Ibadan

The table above reveals that the share of graduate employment in the private sector both historically and at present has been smaller than in the share of the public sector. Secondly, the share of graduates finding jobs in the public sector has fallen drastically relative to the private and self-employment sectors.

Tracer studies of university graduates provide the evidence for both observations. A tracer study of graduates of the University of Benin found that only 33 percent of the sampled respondents worked in the private sector while just 8 percent were self-employed. (Omoifo, Badmus & Awanbor, 1998)

However, with current government policy of promoting a private sector-led economy, the demand for engineering, accounting and related skills seems likely to expand. This has direct implications for the mix of graduate skills that universities should produce for the labour market.

Panacea to Graduate Unemployment in Nigeria

The issue of graduate unemployment has caught the attention of policymakers, parents, educationists as well as media commentators. In fact, the situation is almost certainly worse than expected as over 2.5 millions graduates from the nation's universities are presently roaming about the streets looking for unavailable employment. In share desperation many university graduates have traveled to foreign countries searching for job. Unfortunately, this attempt has not yielded positive result as reported by Punch of 15th October, 2007. The Nigerian High Commissioner to India, Ambassador Dutsina Lawal has warned all job seekers particularly university graduates from traveling to India in search of employment. Hear him:

"You can't go to India and get a job because they have about 1.3 billion people to take care of. Half of them are educated and qualified. Every one of them is trained in one skill or another. So don't go there and think you will get a job, there is absolutely no job."

The first panacea to solve graduates unemployment is the need for universities in Nigeria to respond to the current challenge through a thorough and complete restructuring of their curriculum content in order to make them more relevant to contemporary needs. According to Obanya (2002) quality of education is now an issue of global concern and most of the world and regional deliberations and studies in the last decade focused attention on it. The famous four pillars of the Delors Report on Education for the 21st Century [learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be] are intended to link education to development, the aim of which should be the "complete fulfillment of the individual's personality".

The Jomtien declaration on education for all [article 4] had earlier stressed that:

"The focus of basic education must be on actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively upon enrolment, continued participation in organized programmes and completion of certification requirements."

What is perhaps the most distinguishing characteristic of quality in education is that it is [in the words of the World Declaration on Higher Education] a "multi-dimensional concept." Quality thus pervades every action that goes into making the process of educating possible, every element of the activities undertaken in the process of education and the wide array of beneficial results of educational activities on both individual learners and the wider society.

This multi-dimensional nature of quality in education is illustrated in table 12.

Table 12 – The Essential Elements of Quality in Education

Inputs	Processes
Society	Participatory processes of programme development. Full societal acceptance and ownership of programme
Policy	Democratic formulation and articulation of policy, adaptability to local conditions
Management Framework	Decentralization/devolution of power and initiatives to the grass root levels empowerment and autonomy for operators down the line
Curriculum	Responsive to individual and societal needs and aspirations, comprehensive coverage adaptable to changing needs, times and conditions
Teaching Force	Quantitatively adequate Adequately educated and professionally prepared, well motivated
Infrastructure	Quantitatively, aesthetically and spatially adequate learner and teacher friendly Integrated pedagogical space: classrooms, workrooms, recreational facilities, toilets and first-aid facilities
Materials	Quantitatively adequate User friendly A judicious mix of print/text, audio, video, electronic teaching/learning facilitators closely related to the goals of the curriculum

Source: Obanya (2002) p. 27

To the inputs should be added funding, which should be quantitatively adequate, targeted to those things that will really make a difference, made readily available at the school and other decentralized levels of educational administration and prudently managed.

It is only a combination of quality inputs and quality processes that can produce quality outcomes, which can be classified into four broad categories:

Successful learning [the acquisition by learners of socially useful intellectual and other skills, including learning-to-learn skills].

Full-fledged societal support (permanent, unqualified societal interest in the promotion of education, leading to the emergence of a learning society).

A well-motivated teaching and education management force.

A self-regenerating national educational system for a self-regenerating society – the ultimate goal, a committed, learning society with critical mass creative/productive citizens.

Now that the educational system is clearly growing faster than the number of available jobs and the economy has not been anything to write home about, it has become very necessary for drastic policy decisions to be taken in regard to the increasing disparity between education and employable youth roaming the streets of our cities. The educational system is possibly growing two to three times faster than the economy and the number of new jobs available. Clearly this cannot continue. The collection of a pool of developed but unemployed an unemployable manpower in the urban centers of the nation is a potential threat to social, economic and political stability. We are already witnessing the effect of this crisis represented by drug trafficking, swindlers or the 419 syndromes, etc. Consequently, our graduates should be job creators rather than job seekers.

Furthermore, the establishment of the department of student support services in the National Universities Commission (NUC) in March 2007 is quite commendable. This department was entrusted with the role of developing and deploying career management initiatives that will enable students develop mission-critical life skills, then make informed decisions on their future and also plan and implement social responsibility and advocacy programmes including initiatives that will eliminate current and potential social ills pervading the entire spectrum of the Nigerian University System.

It has been well documented that Nigeria's higher institutions (due to many years of neglect) lack the tools to give students the skill employers need and this situation seems to apply to graduates in all disciplines. There should therefore be some form of genuine school-work-based learning incorporated in some studies as part of the national economic development strategies. The development of apprenticeship scheme would give new graduates some work skills and experience. Thus university education should encompass economic, educational and social objectives.

In addition, the concept of entrepreneurial skill development recently introduced by NUC will have to be imbibed by all universities. The mandates of the entrepreneurship section of NUC is to:

i.   Facilitate and coordinate the establishment of Entrepreneurship Studies Centers in all Nigerian universities.
ii. Develop and implement master plan for entrepreneurship in Nigerian universities.
iii. Promote linkage between university research on one-hand and industry/financial institutions on the other hand.
iv. Coordinate and monitor Entrepreneurship Units in all Nigerian universities.
v.   Promote the exhibition of commercialized researches in Nigerian universities.
vi. Facilitate the establishment of spin-off (research based) companies by Nigerian university students.
vii. Promote Knowledge Transfer Partnership between Nigerian universities and industries.
viii. Serve as secretariat for the Presidential Committee on Entrepreneurship in Nigerian Higher Education Institutions.

It should also be emphasized that there is the need for a thorough and close monitoring of the new universities just springing up especially the private ones in order to ensure that the academic currency is not debased or sacrificed at the alter of financial gains. The current pre-occupation with university education in Nigeria is counterproductive, as not everyone needs a university education. It also reduces economic opportunities for students who are more oriented toward work than academic.

In the Punch of 20th October, 2007, the former Minister of Industry and a leading industrialist Chief (Mrs.) Nike Akande gave an effective way to tackle graduate unemployment. According to her:

"The government can improve the employment situation by adding value. By encouraging industries to operate, employment would naturally be generated. This can only be done through effective policy implementation. Manufacturing, by nature, is employment – generating and poverty-alleviating. If we encourage more people to go into manufacturing, they will employ more people and poverty will be reduced".

Suffice to say that if all the above suggestions are taken by government, universities and all stakeholders of university education, unemployment will be drastically reduced.

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Indigeneship and Citizenship in Nigeria: Myths and the Realities

by

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Abstract

Like in many societies the world over, the indigenes-settlers' syndrome in Nigeria is an age long problem. The distinction between autochthonous people and migrant groups even in ancient kingdoms and primordial communities attest to this assertion. However, unlike in the contemporary period when the problem has assumed a more serious dimension perhaps due to its manipulation for individual and group gains, this was not the case in the distant past when highly hybridized people and culture emerged from the blending of autochthonous and migrant groups. As a way of justifying the distinction between indigenes and settlers and reaping the gains therefrom, myths have been built and certain positions have been established. Not surprisingly, crises have been generated, some of which have defied all known logic. Considering these realities, the contention of this paper therefore, is that the dividing line between indigenes and settlers is very thin and that in the context of modern Nigeria, the issue of citizenship needs to be strengthened. This involves going beyond mere constitutional provisions to enforcement as well as strengthening of statutory provisions. The paper therefore argues that the resolution of the central issues involved in citizenship/indigeneship conflicts will no doubt redefine the concept of federalism in Nigeria.

Introduction

Defining who an indigene of a particular area is could be a difficult task particularly in the light of the mass movement of peoples over time and across cultures and space. Yet the relative association of peoples with different areas, a product of their settlement and the seeming dominance of their cultures or perhaps the outcome of their ability to conquer and occupy a relatively virgin area, has resulted in situations whereby some came to identify themselves as the indigenes of a particular place.

While this could be right in a sense, it is also clear that many states, societies and communities all over the world, emerged from a blend of different layers of migrants sometimes with the supposedly aborigine groups or even among themselves. Interestingly such groups have so blended among themselves or even with the autochthonous groups that they have produced relatively homogenous cultures. The Swahili civilization in East Africa is a very good example of the scenario painted above (Greaves et al, 1997:559-560). The process of state formation among different Nigerian groups also bears eloquent testimony to this development. Interestingly,

citizenship in these and similar societies came to be defined not only in terms of obligations or responsibilities alone but also in terms of rights and privileges. In other words, there was no discrimination on the basis of descent, period of arrival or even extent of stay although the princely and the merchant/business class among others continued to enjoy the privileges conferred on them by their ascribed or achieved status.

Arising from the development described above, it is plausible to argue that the relative peace witnessed in Nigerian societies as well as the attendant socio-political developments could not be completely divorced from the ability to manage relationship among groups, devoid of over-glorification of indigenes-settlers differences. With a few exceptions, this was particularly the situation beginning from the emergence of states to the onset of colonial rule in Nigeria.

Meanwhile, it would appear that the seemingly unnoticeable differences among groups brought about by their blending over a long period was resuscitated perhaps due to a number of factors including the colonial legacy, desire by the elite for power and position, the changing status of land and other natural resources as well as desire for separate identity among others. Beyond generating crises with the attendant loss of human and material resources, more of which have not been satisfactorily resolved till the present time, the indigene-settler problem has called to question the basis of citizenship in Nigeria. Consequently, some questions become pertinent. These include but not limited to the following: Who is a Nigerian? What are the qualifications for Nigerian citizenship? Does one qualify as a citizen in any part of Nigeria irrespective of his location, ethnicity and religious affiliation? Should such factors such as indigeneity, migration or any other extraneous factor determine/deny/limit what a citizen can enjoy or the level he/she can aspire to. These questions and other related issues bothering on the problems of citizenship in Nigeria would be discussed. This is with a view to seeking to break the myths, addressing the realities and attempting a re-definition of the principle of federalism in the light of the problems associated with citizenship in modern Nigeria.

Between Indigenes And Settlers: Myth Versus Reality

In justifying the dichotomy between indigenes and settlers, protagonists would easily contend that one is mostly an indigene of a particular place. The argument was that one can only belong to a particular ethnic group and that by virtue of that, one might not be in a position to enjoy those benefits associated with settling in a place or among groups with different history, culture and language. However in his x-ray of the genealogy of Alhaji Ismail Babatunde Jose, Oyeweso (2006) contends that the idea of ethnic purity is neither illogical nor impracticable. Echoing Jose (1987:1-2), Oyeweso (2006:30-31) traced Jose's genealogy first to Ikare-Akoko, where his great grandfather was born and later to Ijebu-ode where his grandfather got married to a royal family. His genealogy was also traced to Sokoto and Bida, the roots of her great grandmother and grandmother respectively and finally Lagos where Ismail was born. Also his grandfather residency at Calabar where Hamza Jose, his father, was born was also considered relevant. Some pertinent question raised here are, Is Alhaji Jose, an indigene or a settler of Lagos? Does he have a right or legitimate claim to Owa-Ale Chieftaincy in Ikare? Can he embrace or will he be embraced by the royal household of Ijebu Ode? Can or should he be discriminated against by the Nupe or Fulani based on fixed and unchanging notions of ethnic identity or indigeneity. Arguably, the meaning one could make out of this development is that there could be multiple indigeneship.

Arising from the issue raised in the preceding paragraph is the notion or the perception that the indigeneship of a particular society, group or region confers certain rights, which others should not enjoy by virtue of being settlers or migrants or strangers. Such rights included but not limited to unhindered access to education and employment opportunities, land, political

participations or even right to produce the chief or head of a community. This notion perhaps informed the Jukun's attitude and disposition to the Tiv in Wukari divisions of the present-day Taraba State.

The Jukun saw themselves as the indigenes of the region having being firmly established there by the 17th century. Their contention therefore is that while other groups in the region like the Tiv as well as the Hausa-Fulani have other places to go to, the Jukun have only Wukari as home. Whereas the Tiv had arrived in the region as far back as the 1840s when the present Wukari was established and notwithstanding the efforts made by the colonial government to recognize them as being part of the society where they lived, the Jukun essentially saw them as settlers. More importantly, the political reversals suffered by the Jukun at different times not only woke them up from their slumber, they became more rigid in refusing or denying the Tiv access, relevance, entitlements, political participation and power on the ground that they were settlers (Best et al, 1999:82-115).

Meanwhile, settlers' groups in different parts of the country have consistently maintained that having settled in a place for a long period it is not proper to refer to them as settlers but rather as indigenes. Their contention is that while their kiths and kins could be located elsewhere, they could not really trace their root appropriately neither could they fit properly into the old society they or their forbears left several years ago. To worsen matters, there have been raised in the new locations, some generations of people from their lineage who have come to see where they were born and raised as their homes. For instance the prolong crises between the Tiv and other ethnic groups particularly the Azara in present-day Nassarawa State could be explained from this perspective. Whereas other groups in the region considered the Tiv as non- indigenes, the Tiv who constitute a strong numerical force in the areas considered themselves indigenes of the areas particularly on account of their long residence (Ali & Egwu, 2003:113-115).

In the light of the development discussed above and without justifying unnecessarily the claims of the Tiv in Nassarawa, it is plausible to argue that establishing dichotomy between indigenes and settlers could be pretty difficult. In the light of the emergence and growth of communities in Yorubaland in particular, it could be said that some of the groups that claimed to be autochthones were in fact earlier or more powerful group of settlers who were challenged by the hostile environment in which they found themselves to seek better accommodation elsewhere. A close study of three closely settled Yoruba communities of Ifon-Osun, Erin-Osun and Ilobu illuminates this issue better.   Ifon-Osun for instance was founded by a prince from Ile-Ife having settled at different places before finally arriving at the present location. Similarly Ilobu was founded by some groups of Oyo and Nupe elephant hunters in search of adventure before finally being organised by Ayonu, a prince from Iregba who eventually established a dynasty. In a similar vein, Erin-Osun was founded by migrants from Erin-Ile who left their location in order to escape the Fulani rampages in the region. Although the problem of which group settled first plagued the region for so long, it is clear that different wave of settlers moved into the region at different times, just as some others moved out of the regions. Implicitly some measures of homogeneity were attained (Adesoji, 2003). The emergence of Osogbo, originally an Ijesa town and Ibadan initially as an all comer settlement later dominated by the Oyo elements are other relevant examples.

Although the examples given above could be easier because the different groups were mostly Yoruba the point being made is that in a loose sense all could be said to be settlers who at different times settled in places that are now indigenous to them. Beyond having little or nothing to do with their former roots, it is almost impossible to fit into the society from where they emerged in the first instance. Consequently, their desire to enjoy certain rights in places they now regard as their homes and where they have been for so long should neither be

jeopardized nor denied. Oyeweso (2006:31) has however rightly observed that while the assertion that "we are all settlers may sound outlandish or anachronistic to sustain, the claim that we are not all indigenes can be considered with more sobriety and reciprocity. This according to him makes the claim "we are all citizen" more defensible and democratically acceptable.

Perhaps another myth being bandied about is that no matter the number of years a settler had lived in a place, he/she will remain a settler. The relationship between the Hausa-Fulani settlers on one hand and the indigenous population of present plateau state better illustrate this position. As far as the Berom, Amo, Buji, Anaguta, Jere, Jarawa and Afizere are concerned, they are the indisputable indigenes of the state (Jos and its surrounding villages) whereas the Hausa-Fulani are settlers or strangers who migrated into the region for various reasons ranging from commerce and employment to desire for fortune. In particular, tin mining was seen as a major factor for the influx of the settlers though with the active encouragement of the colonial government. Even after mining was no longer lucrative, the Hausa/Fulani embarked on dry season farming which proved so lucrative that it attracted more of them to the region. However for the Hausa-Fulani, the contention is that they had produced the rulership in Jos since 1902 up to 1947 and are therefore not strangers or settlers. Specifically, the Hausa-Fulani desire to have an emir appointed in Jos and to have the Gbong Gwon institution abolished. Besides, they aspire to political leadership position and succeeded a few time (Jibo et al, 2001:64-72). Not surprisingly crises arising from a clash of interests occurred in the state at different time between 1994 and 2002.

Realistically, however and particularly in the context of a modern nation state it is not impossible for a settler to aspire to enjoy rights and attain positions ordinarily reserved for indigenes particularly as citizen irrespective of origin, place of birth or ethnicity. The Hausa-Fulani in Plateau State as in other parts of the country could have been emboldened by this understanding, hence the clamour for entitlements, rights and relevance in the places where they are located. But the problem associated with this development is the nature of successive Nigerian constitutions which emphasize what constitute indigeneship in a state and more importantly who a citizen is. This has led to distinguishing between national and local citizens (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1979). More importantly, it has made it difficult to promote citizenship and constitutionally guaranteed citizen rights particularly in the absence of any enforcement strategy or procedure.

A corollary to the issue raised in the preceding paragraphs is yet another myth that the dividing line between being an indigene and being a settler is very thick as it is very difficult for a settler to become a native. In this regard, reference could be made to Igbo migrants in different parts of Nigeria, the Ijebu in Ibadan or even the large Yoruba population in Jos as in other parts of the North. Also relevant is the Cow Fulani settlers all over Yorubaland. Although it has been possible for the Igbo outside Igboland as well as the Yoruba in the North to establish a semblance of political structures (with the creation of Eze N'digbo and Oba Yoruba just like the Hausa-Fulani also have Sarkin Hausawa in the South) perhaps to safeguard their interest and attain a measure of relevance, that has not changed their ethnicity. Neither did it guarantee them any entitlement. And where entitlements are made possible mostly as rewards of political participations, they are more of product of political rather than ethnic alignment particularly at the elite level. Even for the Ijebu at Ibadan, an intra-Yoruba issue, the seeming dominance of the Ijebu particularly in the 1960s with the ascendancy of Chief Obafemi Awolowo resulted in the emergence of the Mabolaje group, (made up mostly of Ibadan indigenes but decidedly anti-Action Group, a political party led by Chief Awolowo) to challenge the Action group supremacy (Sklar & Whitaker, 1964:597-654). Although despite its emergence, the A.G. continued to

command majority support not only in Ibadan but the whole of Yorubaland, it is clear that the emergence of the Mabolaje group was a gang up of some Ibadan elite against a supposedly settler group the Ijebu. What all these meant is that a settler will remain a settler, even within the same ethnic group. Summing up the situation Kazah-Toure (2004) asks,

> What for example makes a Hausa from neighbouring Niger Republic
> still carrying a Nigerien passport, illegally settled in Katsina five years
> ago to be considered as an indigene, while a Nigerian citizen of Igbo
> origin (born, bred, working and paying tax in Katsina) is treated as a
> non-indigene. In another instance, take a Yoruba from neighbouring
> Benin Republic accepted as an indigene of Ota and not so a Nigerian
> who is Kanuri that was born, educated and pay tax in Ota which is
> the only home for him /her in the country.

On the contrary however, it could be argued that the dividing line between indigenes and settlers is very thin more so that an indigene somewhere could be a settler in another place in which case the rights enjoyed, as indigenes are limited or non-existent as settlers. The wider implication of this situation is that while one may enjoy some rights as indigenes, such rights could be limited by virtue of being a settler, a stranger or a migrant elsewhere whereas as citizen of Nigeria, there are constitutional guaranteed rights for every citizen to enjoy irrespective of his/her ethnicity, location or place of birth.

In what perhaps appears as a summary of some of the issues raised so far, Mamdani (2001:651-664) in his examination of the indigene/settler question, enunciates a number of principles in understanding identity crisis. One of the principles is that the indigene/settler category is interconnected and interloping as one defines the other. According to him, settlers exist because some people have succeeded in defining themselves as indigene in order to exclude others, whom they have defined as settlers. He therefore contends that the indigene/settler relationship is based on the principle of exclusion. Besides he maintains that settlers are not defined merely by immigration more so that almost all African groups and peoples somehow, have migrated from one part of the continent to another over an enduring period of time. Consequently he contends that the concept of a settler is a political construction with roots in conquest, state power, coercion and law. Furthermore according to Mamdani, the settler can never become an indigene or a native since the basis of differentiation is the denial of civic citizenship through a political imposition of a permanent and exclusionary tribal or religious label10.

Beyond the Myths: Citizenship in Nigeria.

Arguably, the satisfactory resolution of issues of citizenship could have gone a long way to address and resolve in a more concrete manner the indigene-settler problem but this has not been the case. Interestingly, successive Nigerian constitutions since political independence had emphasized the issues of citizenship and fundamental human rights. Chapter III of the 1999 constitution especially identifies who a citizen is and how one can become a citizen. Specifically sections 25 to 27 identify how citizenship can be attained in Nigerian. These are by birth, registration and naturalization (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). In the same vein, chapter IV of the constitution dwells extensively on the Fundamental Rights of Nigerians irrespective of their ethnicity, location or place of birth (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). Obviously these provisions were meant to act as safeguard against or to provide redress for violations of one's citizenship rights. It would seem however that these provisions did not envisage or perhaps display a total ignorance of situations whereby the enjoyment of citizenship rights will be handicapped or prevented by extraneous considerations such as indigeneity or ethnicity. Even

where there are clear provisions on the fundamental rights that Nigerians can enjoy, the situation is not in any way different. For instance section 42 of chapter IV of the constitution provides for the right to freedom from discriminations. Specifically it states that, a citizen of Nigeria of a particular community, ethnic group, place of origin, sex, religion or political opinion shall not (a) be subjected to disabilities or restriction to which citizen of Nigeria of other communities, ethnic groups, places of origin, sex, religions, political opinions are not made subject or (b) be accorded any privilege or advantage that is not accorded to citizen of Nigeria of other communities, ethnic groups, places of origin, sex, religious or political opinions (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999).

Lofty as these provisions are, the reality is far from the ideal. The contention of Oyeweso (2006:36) is that the constitutional provisions are negated by political consideration in which case there is a focus on what he refers to as indigeneship rights which are either ethnic or sub-ethic groups' rights. This he argues has exposed the federal system to a certain level of divided or dual citizenship between group rights and individual rights. Consequently, it places group rights over individual rights and hence the rights of ethnic groups particularly of indigenes over citizens.

It has been argued that the problem of citizenship in Nigeria today largely stem from the discriminations and exclusion meted out to people on the basis of ethnic, regional, religious and gender identities. This is because those who see themselves are "natives" or "indigenes" exclude those considered as "strangers" from the enjoyment of certain rights and benefit that they ought to enjoy as Nigerians upon the fulfillment of certain civic duties, such as the payment of tax (Bamidele & Ikubaje, 2004:65). The 1979 constitution from which the 1999 constitution was modified has been seen as laying the basis or foundation for the indigeneship problems. This is because it expressly provides that in order to enjoy access to positions and opportunities on the basis of "federal character" one needs to be an "indigene" of the state or local government concerned. Being an indigene involves showing evidence of belonging, through one's parents or grand parents to a community indigenous to a State or Local Government, which in effect suggests the membership of a local ethnic and linguistic community. Inability to prove such membership of a group of people will result in being defined as a "stranger" who cannot enjoy all the rights and privileges of indigenes and/or natives (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1979; Bamidele & Ikubaje, 2004:76). Similarly section 147 of the 1999 constitution states that the president shall appoint at least one Minister from each state, who shall be an indigene of such state.

It should be quickly pointed out however that the motive behind the incorporation of these provisions into the constitution ostensibly is to strengthen the Federal Character principle. Specifically chapter 2 section 14(3) of the 1999 constitution explains the reasoning behind the provision thus;

> The composition of the government of the federation or any of its
> agencies and the conduct of its affairs shall be carried out in such
> a manner as to reflect the federal character of Nigeria's and the
> need to promote national unity, and also to command national
> loyalty, thereby ensuring that there shall be no predominance of
> person from a few states or from a few ethnic or other sectional
> groups in that government or in any of its agencies. (Federal Republic of
> Nigeria, 1999)

In other words, the Federal character principle was meant to promote unity in diversity while encouraging accommodation at the federal level particularly in term of appointments. Without holding brief for the framer of the constitution therefore, it could be said that the principle was not meant to achieve anything sinister or divisive. However when it is considered that the Federal Character principle and its ancillaries such as the quota system as well as zoning among others have promoted mediocrity at the expensive of merit particularly with the abuse that characterized its application in civil service appointments, promotion, admission into schools and so on, then it could be seen as a solution that has become problematic. More importantly, the exclusion of Nigerians on the basis of ethnicity or sub-ethnicity and the consequent denial of access to land, education, employment and even political offices could not have been envisaged or perhaps deliberately ignored/glossed over by the framer of the constitution.

Remarkably, one major thesis running through the preceding discussion is that the constitutional provisions on both citizenship and fundamental human rights should have provided the needed antidote to the indigene-settler dichotomy but they did not; first because some of the provisions were seriously flawed and even contradictory in some cases, for example, citizenship versus federal character and more importantly the promotion of group rights over individual rights through political concept like indigeneity. Second, because the provisions did not envisage or contemplate or perhaps deliberately glossed over some problematic situations. In essence, citizenship had not and might no able to resolve the indigene-settler problem particularly in its present form.

Breaking the Myths: Re-thinking Citizenship in Nigeria.

In defining who an indigene is particularly in the context of Federal Character principle, the 1999 constitution emphasizes showing evidence of belonging to a community indigenous to a state or Local Government through one's parents or grandparents which in effect suggests membership of a local ethnic and linguistic community. Ironically the experience of the different groups referred to as settlers or strangers in different parts of the country indicate that they settled in places now known with them several years ago. In other words, several generations of these groups, perhaps not limited to that of parents and grandparents or even great grandparents were born or grew up in their present locations.

Consequently beyond being eminently qualified as members of communities indigenous to a State or Local Government, they are also in position to participate meaningfully in the socio-political and economic life of the community, fulfilling their obligations and enjoying basic rights. Interestingly therefore, the provision, which was meant to exclude some people particularly from the political life of their community and by extension, the whole country could actually serve their interest if properly interpreted.

Fundamentally however, the provisions expose the weakness inherent in determining Nigerian citizenship particularly in the light of limitations imposed by the Federal Character principle. Implicitly, there is the need for a re-thinking or a redefinition of citizenship vis-à-vis other limiting factors. Apart from involving or introducing changes that are capable of challenging the status quo, a re-thinking or strengthening of citizenship will to a large extent address the problem of indigene versus non-indigene.

Essentially, there appears to be agreement among authors and scholars on the need to strengthen individual rights and accord them more importance than group rights, the reason being that the efforts at protecting and promoting group rights have been directly responsible among other things, for the escalation of indigene versus non-indigene problems including the numerous crises witnessed in different parts of the country in the past. Towards this end, it has

been suggested that citizenship rights should be tied to either place of birth (different from one's ethnic groups) or residence such that any Nigerian who has lived in any part of the country for certain number of year can enjoy full residency rights, which must include all rights normally available to the traditional indigenes of the states. While observing that the political bureau set up in 1987 had recommended this and suggested ten years residency for the enjoyment of this right, Oyeweso (2006:36-37) commended the example of Group Captain Dan Suleiman who as governor of Plateau state in 1976 had proposed that any Nigeria born in Plateau state or from any other state who has lived in Plateau state for twenty years should enjoy all the rights and privileges of a native of Plateau State. Observably, progressive as the Suleiman principle was, it was not adopted as a national policy neither was there any evidence of its workability even in Plateau State.

Beyond being a mere proposal, it has been suggested that there is need to build a national citizenship through a reform of the Nigerian constitution. This involves incorporating the "Residency Right" mentioned above into the constitution. This section as suggested should provide that a Nigerian citizen who has resided continuously for a period of five years in any state of the federation and performs his/her civic duties, including the payment of taxes, shall be entitled to all the rights and privileges of the state. This it was contended will be in accord with the practice in most federations and would strengthen the provisions in the constitution in addition to removing restriction on who can contest elections in different parts of the country (Bamidele & Ikubaje, 2004:81-82). Whether twenty, ten or five years, what is being advocated and what is considered relevant is that residency right should be incorporated into the constitution. Besides, the need to reform the proviso to section 147 of the 1999 constitution was suggested. This proviso states that those to be appointed as ministers from each state of the Federation must be indigenes of that state. In this sense it was suggested that indigenes must be defined as those who meet the residency requirement in any particular state (Bamidele &Ikubaje, 2004:81-82).

Meanwhile, while agreeing with the issues of residency as a major factor in defining citizenship, Taiwo (2001:86-117) maintains that every Nigerian citizen has a right to everything; land, resources and so on within the borders. His contention is that if a foreigner could become a Nigerian after fifteen years of residency through naturalization, then it should not be difficult for Nigerians to enjoy citizenship right irrespective of where he lives stressing that anything short of this represents a diminution of citizenship. While contending further that there cannot be abbreviated citizenship within an undivided polity, he observed that most restrictions that can be placed upon the definition of residence within Nigeria may be the requirement of some length of time before a citizen can claim a place as his/her home. More importantly, he stresses that a basic principle of modern citizenship seems to be, where you pay your tax there your home is and there you demand services and enjoy benefits. In essence, residency defined by a determined number of years and qualified by the performance of such obligation as paying tax should make a Nigerian eligible for citizenship any where in the country irrespective of his ethnicity or place of birth.

It would seem that incorporating the Residency Right into the constitution would be the first step in guaranteeing citizenship to all Nigerians and solving the indigene-settler problem. Beyond it there is need for implementation such that it does not remain an order on paper. Relevant in this regard is the suggestion for entrenchment in the constitution, independent commission that would monitor the implementation of some of the very critical provisions of the document (Bamidele & Ikubaje, 2004:83). In the case of citizenship, the National Human Rights Commission would be relevant. Interestingly the country has in place the commission but the pertinent question is how functional, effective or pro-active is the commission? Yet what is

required is a very vibrant, efficient and responsive Human Rights Commission, otherwise it is better that it is non-existent in the first place.

However, if it is realized that enforcing individual or residency right in the context of the Nigerian situation could sometimes lie with the people, then there is the need to prepare Nigerians to seek to enforce their rights. Enforcement in this sense will involve being ready to take up the gauntlet as occasion demands. This could involve seeking legal redress or seeking constitutional interpretation on citizenship cum residency right issue and being willing to explore all legal avenues and to any level. Empowerment no doubt is central to the ability of Nigerians to seek enforcement. Awareness is therefore necessary. This would involve employing all known media of creating awareness and using different languages to reach the mass of the population. The content of the awareness programme should include what the rights are, the constitutional provisions backing them up, ways of enforcing the rights and ways of seeking redress in the case of infringement or denial. In addition, non-governmental organizations with bias for citizenship rights could be involved to create and sustain awareness and facilitate enforcement.

Beyond creating awareness to facilitate enforcement or even implementation of constitutional provisions, awareness is also needed particularly to guard the masses against political manipulation by the elite. This is necessary when it is considered that the elite had often played up or down the issue of indigeneship and settlers depending on which one will serve their interest better. For instance, it has been observed that party politics was central to the conflicts between the Tiv and the Jukun in Wukari Local Government Area of Taraba State. Not only were the two groups polarized into opposing political parties at different times, efforts at achieving equation between the two groups had played dominant roles in the emergence of public office holders like governors at different times. In the Second Republic for example, Alhaji Abubakar Barde who became governor of the old Gongola State on the platform of the Great Nigeria Peoples' Party (GNPP) gave preference to the Tiv over the Jukun for not supporting him. This he did by appointing a Tiv, Iyotyer Tor Musa as the chairman of Wukari Local Government, a situation that did not go down well with the Jukun who saw it as an insult on their collective psyche (Best et al, 1999:93-95).

Similarly, when Governor Jolly Nyame became civilian Governor of Taraba state in the aborted Third republic, he appointed some Tiv people into the government perhaps on the basis of the support he got from the Tiv. Although these appointments deepened the hostility between the Tiv and Jukun of Wukari, the end as far as parties and politicians are concerned, justifies the means (Best et al, 2003:48-56). On the other hand, the Second Republic in Plateau State witnessed a situation whereby Chief Solomon Lar who emerged on the Platform of Nigeria Peoples' Party (NPP) saw his mission as emancipating the indigenes from the unfair dominance of the Hausa-Fulani settlers in commerce, and appointments to traditional institutions. He subsequently restructured chieftaincy institutions to create room for an indigene to be appointed or upgraded many stools occupied by the indigenes. The Hausa/Fulani settlers who were angered by these moves, eventually got accommodation in the National Party of Nigeria (NPN) led Federal Government as they were compensated with board appointments. In essence, the Hausa-Fulani settlers in Plateau state got the slots allocated to the state as a form of reward for their loyalty (Jibo et al, 2001:68).

Consequently, an elaborate programme of awareness is needed to alert the masses who are always at the receiving end of indigenes-settler crises, to the danger inherent in allowing themselves to become pawns on the chessboard of the political elite, whose major goal mostly is the realization of their selfish interests /desires of attaining and sustaining themselves in political offices.

Furthermore, the awareness is needed to educate the masses on making choices of leaders not on the basis of ethnic origin or indigene-settler basis but rather on the quality of candidates, their antecedents as well as their ability to deliver. As argued by Akinyele (2002:39), ordinarily the concept of citizenship should suggest that an individual has a right to contest in an election wherever he resides. This he argues will begin to happen when Nigerians begin to focus on the ability of politicians, rather than their ethnic origins.

Conclusion

The indigenes-settlers problems in Nigeria had become protracted due to the narrow definition of citizenship both in theory and practice, among other factors. The desire by the elite to enjoy the benefits of both indigeneship and citizenship has not helped matters. Thus rather than playing down divisive tendencies and promoting uniting factors, the reverse has been the case. Beyond generating crises of diverse proportions with attendant loss of human and material resources in the past, there is no indication that worst crises might not be generated in the future. This is because the fundamental cause of the crises is either being ignored, glossed over or wished away as if it were capable of solving itself. Hence the need to take the bull by the horn and address comprehensively the root cause of the problem.

In an age of global citizenship, becoming a citizen in Nigeria both in words and in deed should not be circumvented either by constitutional provisions which are meant to guarantee them in the first instance or by political considerations through which some elite might want to feather their nest. Rather citizenship should be strengthened beginning with constitutional provisions, which should not only be enforced by the government, but also by the people after all he who the shoe pinches feels the pain most and should ordinarily seek relief first. Otherwise nobody will know if any pain is felt and if relief is needed. Their differentiation as well as the diversity of their interest, background and goals notwithstanding, the people matters hence the relevance of large scale programme of awareness to inform, sensitize or conscientize them and prepare them to take their destiny in their hands.

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Influence Of Teacher Quality Variables On Nigerian Primary School Pupils' Achievement In English Language

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationship that existed between teacher quality variables and primary school pupils' achievement in English Language. The study was a correlational type. The sample of the study consisted of three thousand three hundred and seven (3307) pupils and four hundred and twenty five (425) teachers that were selected through multi-stage sampling technique among primary five pupils and their teachers in South Western Nigeria. The instrument used for the data collection include: Teacher Assessment Style Questionnaire (TSQ) and English Language Achievement Test (ELAT). Two research questions were raised in the course of the study. Multiple Regression Statistical Method was used for data analysis. Results indicated that significant relationship existed among the variables of interest. It was therefore recommended that more studies on various disciplines were needed in Nigeria so that efforts at improving the standard of education could be enhanced.

Introduction

The importance of English Language in Nigeria cannot be over emphasized. Though it is a foreign language, it is being used as a second language (L2). It is the language of the government, business, commerce, the mass media as well as education, Adepoju (1996). In the school system, be it primary school or higher institution of learning, English Language is an instrument for effective teaching and learning of the language so as to improve learners' academic performance. Adepoju (1996, 2002); Kolawole (1997); Adegbile (2007); Ayodele (1998, 2007) have observed through their empirical findings that failures in other subjects may be as a result of not having a sufficiently sound background in English Language, since instruction in all these subjects are in English Language. The importance of English Language in our society thus demands that we continue to probe more into variables contributing to learner's achievement.

It should be stressed, at this juncture, that at the primary school level, especially in Nigeria, the English Language is very crucial to anything a learner has to study in the school system. It is therefore obvious that without a thorough mastery of its use, it is not possible to

have a sufficiently firm grasp of what the learner has to learn. It is a pity that English language is one subject in which most of our primary school learners' fare terribly poorly. The reasons for this are obvious. In the first instance, according to Ayodele, Adegbile, Nnamani & Ofoego (2007), English is introduced to many learners after their mother tongues have been firmly acquired and mastered. Thus, when it is taught to them, it has to compete seriously with their first language. Then, there is the factor of the environment in most situations; the English Language is not used in the learners' environment. Thus, the teachers' effort in the classroom is not complemented with the home and the larger environment. There are other factors militating against learners' effective learning of the language in the school. One of the major ones is the types of books available which are often not the most suitable to promote the teacher's efforts in making learners efficient users of the language .This is a factor which designers and writers of English textbooks should always bear in mind.

The challenge in the educational programme of Nigeria as a country is to examine how some teacher's quality variables could be geared towards ways of facilitating productive learning by the pupils in order to enhance academic standard. Research findings suggest that quality of instruction affect both student learning rate and achievement levels (Darking-Hammond 1999, Walsh & Snyder, 2004, Raymond, Fletcher & Lugue 2001, Darling Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin & Heilig, 2005). Research consistently shows that teacher quality whether measured by content knowledge, experience, training and credentials or general intellectual skills is strongly related to student achievement. Many researchers and analysts argue that assigning experienced, qualified teachers to low performing schools and students is likely to pay off in better performance gaps.

Donna (2007) in his study found that teacher experience has significant effects on students' achievement. His study found a dramatic improvement in student achievement between one and five years of teaching experience and a more gradual boost in the years followed. He therefore made a preliminary recommendation that any changes in the way teachers are paid should emphasize financial rewards for experience rather than higher pay for teachers with graduate degrees. Findings about the influences are relative contributions as teacher training and experience levels are reinforced by those of 60 production functions studies (Greenwald, Hedges & laine, 1996) which found that teacher education, ability and experience along with small schools and lower teacher – pupil ratios are associated with increases in students' achievement across schools and district. In their estimate of the achievement gains associated with expenditure increments on various resources, spending on teacher education was found to be the most productive investment for schools, outstripping the effect of teacher experience and reduced pupil – teacher ratios.

Fettler (2001) found a strong negative relationship between average students' scores and the percentage of teachers on emergency certificates, as well as a smaller positive relationship between student scores and teacher experience levels after controlling for student poverty rates. When students' characteristics are held constant, the relationship of teachers' qualification to students' achievement is more pronounced. A study of high and low achieving schools with demographically similar student populations in New York City found that differences in teacher qualifications (educational degrees, certification status and experience) accounted for approximately 90% of the total variation in average school – level student achievement in reading and mathematics at all grade levels tested (Armour – Thomas etal, 1989).

School Reform News staff (2001) carried out a study and found that better qualified and more experienced teachers tend to move to schools with higher achieving students. Also, it was found that experience does not mean achievement as the result of Education Intelligence Agency Communiqué indicated that fourth –grade students whose teachers held a bachelor's degree

scored 225 on WACE math test. Students whose teachers held a mater's degree scored 227. Students whose teachers had been teaching for two years or less scored 223, three to five years' experience 224, six to 10 years' experience 226, 11 to 24 years' experience 227 and over 25 years' experience 228.

Also, in the first annual "Report to the Region" made possible by a partnership between University of California, Riverside and the Bank of America Foundation, researchers connected the dots to show a striking correlation between credited status of teachers and the academic achievement than students on the API – the Achievement Performance Index. Teaching styles according to Stein, Steaves and Smith (2001) include Formal Authority, Demonstration, Facilitator and Delegator. Formal Authority can be defined as teacher – centered approach, where teacher dominates the entire class, in formal authority style, the teacher is not concerned with establishing relationship among learners. Demonstrations teaching style also refers to as teacher- centered approach strategy but here teacher acts as a coach or guides to learners and learners are allowed to express their views and opinions. There is therefore opportunity for students to participate in teaching and learning process.

Facilitator as a teaching style is a student – centered approach, here students have great responsibility to play in teaching and learning process. There is therefore room for student to student interaction. The role of the teacher is just to facilitate the entire classroom atmosphere. Delegator as a teaching style is equally a student–centered approach, but here the role of students is a bit higher than that of facilitators. Students are to design learning materials by themselves.

Teachers' level of awareness of assessment style also plays a very important role in the teaching – learning process. It helps the teacher to be creative and resourceful. This implies that being a trained teacher also involves the development of awareness of assessment style. In a study carried out by Egbnonu, Ezechukwu & Chukwuka (2007) on level of awareness of the baby friendly initiative among Nigerian Home Economics, teachers reported that only 34.5% of the teachers were aware of the concept while 60% could define breastfeeding prevented malnutrition in babies, only 12.5% knew about the protective effects of colostrums.

However, it should be pointed out that most of the previous studies reviewed so far centered on secondary schools. Therefore, there is a need to examine the primary school level and also to consider some teacher quality variables that can enhance pupils' achievement in English Language. The foregoing explains why the major purpose of this study was the investigation of the influence of teacher quality variables on Nigerian primary school pupils' achievement in English Language.

Research Questions

On the basis of the problem stated earlier, the following research questions were formulated to guide the researcher:

What is the composite effect of some teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English language?

What are the relative effects of some teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English Language?

Methodology

Research Design

The research design is a correlational survey study. Correlational research design seeks to investigate whether any relationship exists between or among variables of interest.

Sampling and Sampling Technique

The target population comprised all the primary school pupils and their teachers in South Western Nigeria. A multi-stage sampling technique was employed in selecting sample for the study which involved three thousand three hundred and seven (3,307) pupils and four hundred and twenty-five (425) teachers in the arms of primary five. Three states (Osun, Ogun and Lagos) were involved in the study and five local government areas were randomly selected. Only an arm of primary 5 was randomly chosen from each of the schools. All the pupils and their respective teachers teaching English Language constituted the sample for this study.

Instrumentation

Two types of instruments were used for the purpose of this study. These include:

Teacher Assessment Style Questionnaire (TASQ)

English Achievement Test (EAT)

The Teacher Assessment Style Questionnaire (TASQ) was developed by the researchers. The instrument was used to collect information on teachers regarding their assessment style in eliciting feedback from their pupils. It was given to other experts in the area of Educational Evaluation. The final form of the item was then validated in terms of administering it on a sample of forty teachers and a cronbach alpha of 0.89 was obtained.

The second instrument, which centered on English Achievement Test, was a standardized instrument that comprised 20 items. The instrument was revalidated through Kuder Richardson formula 20 to establish its internal consistency. The reliability co-efficient was 0.80, the difficulty index was 0.4.

Results and Discussion

RQ 1: What is the composite effect of some teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English Language?

Table 1: Multiple Regression of Teacher Quality Variables on Pupils Achievement in English Language.

Parameter	Value
Multiple Regression (R)	.260
R Square	.067
Adjusted R Square	.049

Sts Error of Estimate	1.11
Regression F- ratio	3.76
P value	0.000

Table 1 shows that the multiple regression correlation coefficient (R) revealing the linear relationship between the independent variables (teacher quality variables) and dependent variable (pupils' achievement in English Language) is 0.26. The adjusted R Square equals 0.049, meaning that all the teacher quality variables taken together accounted for 4.9 percent variation in pupils' achievement in English language. Multiple regression ANOVA was used to further test the significance of the linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables. F- ratio value equals 3.76; $p < 0.05$. This implies that the linear relationship between teacher quality variables and pupils' achievement in English Language is significant at 0.05 alpha level. This result corroborated Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain (2005) who found that teacher quality differences explained variation in student reading ability which is an aspect of English language.

RQ 2: What are the relative effects of some teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English Language?

Table 2: Coefficient indicating relative effects of teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English Language.

	Standard Coefficient Beta	t	p value	Remark
Year of Experience	-.176	-3.532	.000	S
Teacher qualification	.145	2.949	.003	S
Formal authority	.117	1.075	.283	NS
Demonstration	-.102	-1.095	.274	NS
Delegation	-.064	-.822	.415	NS
Facilitation	-.046	.415	.678	NS
Assessment style	.032	.528	.598	NS
Awareness of assessment style	-0.006	-.096	.924	NS

S = Significant at 0.05 alpha level

NS = Not significant at 0.05 alpha level

The relative effects of the teacher quality variables on pupils' English Language achievement in the order of absolute magnitudes indicated by standardized Beta (B) weights are presented in Table 2. Teachers' years of experience contributed most, though inversely to pupils' achievement in English Language (β = -.176; t = -.3.536; $p < .05$). Next to year of experience of teachers is their educational qualifications which also contributed significantly to pupils'

achievement in English Language (β = .1451; t = 2.949; p < .05). The magnitudes of contributions of the other predictors to English Language achievement of pupils are:

Formal Authority (β = -.117; t = 1.075; p > 0.05)

Demonstration (β = -.102; t = -1.905; p > 0.05)

Delegation (β = -.064; t = -8.22; p > 0.05)

Facilitation (β = -.046; t = -.415; p > 0.05)

Assessment style (β = .032; t = -.528; p > 0.05)

Awareness of assessment (β = -.006; t = -.96; p > 0.05)

Only two predictors - teachers year of experience and educational qualification have been found to have significant relative effects on pupils' achievement in English Language. This finding disagrees with a wide range of findings in the relationship between years of teaching experience and students' outcomes. Hanushek (1986) found that fewer than half of the 109 previous studies on the estimated effects of teacher experience showed that experience had any statistically significant effect of students' achievement. Of these, 33 studies found that additional years of experience had a significant positive effect. Also on teacher educational qualifications, the results taken with Straness & Vogt, (2001) who were of the view that measures of teachers' academic qualification represent one of the best predictors of teacher quality variables.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study, it could be deduced that there existed linear relationship between teacher quality variables: level of awareness of assessment style, educational qualification, length of service and teaching style on pupils' achievement in English Language. Also, of the eight variables designed as teacher quality variables on pupils' achievement in English Language for this study as far as relative effect is concerned, two variables (teacher's years of experience and teacher's educational qualification) were found to be significant while the remaining six variables were not significant. At this juncture, it is very obvious that teacher quality plays a very significant role in the teaching-learning process. Adegbile (2001) opines that the development of a student in terms of the quality of education he receives depends largely on the qualities of the various teachers' behavior in desired directions.

One of the major sources from which students learn the language is the classroom. Adegbile (1999) points out that students' inability to perform very well in the subject may be as a result of wrong teaching methods in the class which could also be due to the teacher's quality. The foregoing implies that teacher variables have been regarded as one of the major causes of poor students' performance. It is therefore recommended that further studies should be conducted at various levels of educational level with the prime purpose of assessing other teacher quality variables capable of enhancing academic upliftment of the learners.

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Managing Education For Poverty Alleviation In South-South Nigeria

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Abstract

Scholars believe generally that the higher the literacy level, the higher the standard of living of the people, thereby reducing poverty levels in society. The paper examined how effective management of the three levels of education (primary, secondary, university) will lead to poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria. The study was ex-post facto and it sampled 260 (males 140 (53.8%); females 120 (46.2%) lecturers from eight faculties in three universities in south-south Nigeria out of a total population of all teaching staff of the three institutions. A 15-item instrument tagged "Managing Education for Poverty Alleviation: Trainers' Perception" prepared by the researchers for data collection purposes had a reliability coefficient of .81. Independent chi-square statistics was used in data analysis. It was found that there is a significant positive impact of successful completion of the levels of education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State ($\chi2$ = 235.62; 219.91; 144.46, respectively at .05 level). It was therefore recommended that education at all levels should be carefully and properly planned, monitored, evaluated and funded and its curricula re-engineered to be functional, relevant and self-reliant, with the teaching methods changed from the traditional didactic approach to practice-oriented, student-centered, competency-based modes of instructional delivery.

Introduction

In Nigeria, education is regarded as instrument "par excellence" for effecting national development (FRN, 2004). This statement suggests that education is a powerful tool which can be used to solve most of the problems facing a nation. For this to happen there is need, therefore, that education should be managed effectively. Effective management of education implies, among others, that education at the three levels should achieve its predetermined objectives. According to the National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004), education will be effectively managed when students are trained to be literate, be able to count, have manipulative skills, trained in trades and crafts of the community at the primary level (p.14); prepaid for higher education, provided with technical-vocational and other skills for employments at the secondary level (p.18); and also trained for skills in paid employments, self-employments and research at the university level (p.36). The change that transformed the American society was the magnification of the functions the universities were called upon to perform (Bassey, 2005). The fundamental roles of the university in Nigeria are teaching, research and community service. The National Policy expects university education to make optimum contribution to national development, including alleviating poverty (p.14). Babalola (2007a, p.19) believes that Nigerians need education beyond the basic to alleviate poverty at individual level. This implies that while government has embraced the good idea that improvements in basic education will lay a sound foundation for national development, they should not forget that access to quality tertiary education provides the superstructures for increased productivity and wealth on the side of individuals and that of the nation. Nwangwu (2007, p.7) argued somewhere that programmes on poverty alleviation and/or other strategies aimed at reducing unemployment and improving the standard of living of people may not yield the expected positive result unless graduates of tertiary institutions are equipped with skills with which to be self-reliant.

Poverty is a condition in which human beings are subjected to all forms of socio-economic deprivations, leading to a drastic fall in the quality of life (Jones, 2002). Also poverty is a state or condition in human development characterized by lack of basic life skills, good education, productive assets, water low level of energy consumption, poor health, unsanitary condition and a general lack of economic infrastructure alongside lack of active participation in decision-making process as it affects individuals or the community (Udosen, 2007). Poverty can be measured through the use of either the poverty line or human development index (HDI) (Ebong & Mbalisi, 2005). While the poverty line divides the poor from the non-poor; the HDI provides a composite quantitative measure of both the economic and social indicators of human development. In terms of basic needs, poverty is classified as absolute and relative poverty (Anyanwu,1979; UNDP, 1998). Globally, an absolute poverty line of US$1.00 per day is fixed by the World Bank for developing countries (Srinivasan, 2004). A study by the World Bank (World Bank, 1995) indicated that poverty line of N395 per person per annum at 1985 prices was a close approximation of poverty line in Nigeria; while The Federal Office of Statistics had earlier derived a poverty line of N395.4 per annum for the moderately poor, and N197.7 for the core poor in 1985. Using the same approach, Ogwumike and Ekpenyong (1995) computed the overall poverty line as N3,360 per head per year.   More than 314 million Africans live on less than US$1 a day (Ifinedo, 2007). Thirty-four of the world's 48 poorest countries and 24 of the 32 countries ranked lowest on the United Nations Development Programme HDI are in Africa. Poverty is both endemic and widespread in Nigeria and it appears that the poverty level contradicts the country's immense wealth, as it is reported that more than 45% of the Nigerian population live below the poverty line, while 67% of the poor are extremely poor (chronic poverty) (Kings & Bones, 2000). According to the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy

(NEEDS) document, major causes of poverty in Nigeria include: inadequate growth rate of the GDP, volatility of the oil sector, high unemployment rate, limited growth of investments and technological innovations, low labor absorption capacity, heavy dependence on imports, low savings propensity, growing income inequality, decline in the living standards of pensioners, governance problems (including corruption), limited effectiveness of past poverty alleviation measures, and internal conflicts (Babalola, 2007a). Several World Bank studies (World Bank, 1996a, 1996b) identified other causes to include: low human capital endowment, destruction of natural resources resulting in environmental degradation, poor maintenance culture, corruption and political instability. Others are inadequate access to employment, physical assets, markets, means of supporting assistance to those living at the margin and those victimized by transitory poverty. Also, recent World Development Report (Ekpo & Uwatt, 2005) believes that poverty is caused by lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities; a sense of voicelessness and powerlessness in the institutions of state and society; and vulnerability to adverse shocks linked to an inability to cope with them. Effective management of the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education has the potential to develop and equip the citizenry with appropriate skills, habits, and competencies necessary for self and paid employments and consequently lead to the reduction of poverty level of citizens.

Literature Review

The federal government of Nigeria in 1986 initiated and implemented IMF-World Bank supported adjustment programme (Ovat, 2001). The introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme was based on the belief that it would facilitate growth and in the process reduce poverty. Empirical evidence has however shown that the conditions of the core poor have continued to deteriorate unabated. Their real income and consumption have been reduced and hence their standard of living worsened. Using the research question: what are the impacts of existing strategies, schemes and programmes for poverty reduction on the poor? Ebong and Mbalisi (2002, p.125) found that the strategies and programmes have not been effective in poverty reduction because majority of the people are still poor. The strategies adopted by the government included massive recruitment and employment of the poor, development of practical skills in sewing, welding, electrical works, hairdressing, confectionaries and woodworks, cash disbursement and provision of basic amenities such as pipe-borne water, good roads, primary health care and schools. Despite the existence of these strategies and programmes, poverty has been on the increase. Jegede and Fayomi (2007, p.66) investigated the impact of astronomical growth of educational institutions on poverty alleviation nation-wide. The result showed that the impact of these institutions on poverty alleviation in Nigeria has been minimal. About 84% of the respondents were of the opinion that the astronomical growth in the number of educational institutions in the country up till now has not helped much in alleviating poverty among Nigerians. Ubom (2002, p.11) investigated the topic "Corruption: an impediment to poverty alleviation among rural dwellers in Nigeria", using three null hypotheses: there is no significant relationship between corrupt practices and measures of poverty alleviation among rural dwellers; there is no significant difference between male and female rural dwellers in their degree of poverty; and financial discipline in government does not relate significantly to poverty alleviation among rural dwellers in Nigeria. Data analysis revealed that (i) there is a significant positive relationship between corrupt practices and measures of poverty alleviation (rxy = 0.215); (ii) there is a significant difference between the male and female rural dwellers in their degree of poverty (tob = 4.59); and (iii) there is a positive significant relationship between financial discipline in government and measures of poverty alleviation among rural dwellers in Nigeria (rxy = 0.392). The report of the findings, in other words, were that: the higher the incidence of corrupt practices, the higher the level of poverty among rural dwellers; female rural dwellers have a higher measure of poverty than their male

counterparts; and the higher the measure of financial discipline in government, the higher the measure of poverty alleviation among rural dwellers, and vice versa. Researchers in support of these findings included Ukoha (1992), Ochiaga (1994), Ijewere (1999), and Echebiri (2002).

The Federal Office of Statistics (FOS, 1996) classified Akwa Ibom State as the seventh poorest State in Nigeria, with a headcount of 72.3% comprising 33.4% core poor, 38.9% moderate poor and 27.7% non-poor. Nine years after, Ekpo and Uwatt (2005, p.124) reported that poverty is widespread and severe in the State with about 57% of the people living in poverty; while the non-poor are 43%, the moderate poor are 29% and the core poor are 28%. Other findings were that poverty incidence varies greatly among the local government areas; poverty is more severe among household heads earning less than N10,000 per year and who are either self-employed, unemployed, or retired; poverty is more among rural residents than urban dwellers; and that poverty is higher for household heads with no access to basic socio-economic facilities. Some key determinants of poverty in the state were identified to include age of household heads and age group, household size, level of education, employment status and types of primary job, income groups, access to credit, sources of food and water supply, and ethnic group. Commenting on the efforts of Akwa Ibom State government on poverty alleviation, Udosen (2007, p.121) observed somewhere that the government was eagerly pre-occupied with empowering the people with a view to reducing poverty, creating employment opportunities, promoting entrepreneurship and sharpening skills. She constructed a twenty-item poverty alleviation perception questionnaire to be answered by beneficiaries of Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP) in the state. A sample of two hundred and forty beneficiaries was randomly selected from eight local government areas. Data analysis revealed that there is no significant effect of poverty alleviation programmes on the economic empowerment of the beneficiaries in Akwa Ibom State. This finding is at variance with the report of Ukpong (2005, p.22) who disclosed that poverty level is creditably reduced in the state through the programme of Life Enhancement Agency.

Theoretical Framework

This study used the human development theory as its theoretical framework, since the theory recognizes human beings as the main aim of genuine development and emphasizes the satisfaction of basic capacities for the realization of their development (Ebong & Mbalisi, 2005). Comparing the concept of human development with other concepts of economic development in its report, the UNDP (1995) concluded that the human development concept is broader in scope than the conventional theories of economic development, since it analyses all issues in society from the perspectives of people. Human development ensures adequate building of human capacities and the construction of self-reliance of people. Therefore, investment in people contributes to growth and employment for dynamic participation in cultural, social and productive affairs (Arimah, 2001).

Problem

The federal government of Nigeria had introduced several poverty alleviation programmes over the years in an attempt to raise the living standards of its citizens. Almost all sectors of the economy were involved, namely, education, health, agriculture, transport, housing and financial sector programmes (Ovat, 2001). Other multi-sectoral programmes included Better Life Programme, Family Support Programme, Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), including a special package called Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) Relief Package to cushion the effects of SAP in 1989, National Directorate of Employment Scheme, Directorate of Food, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure, Skills Acquisition Youth Employment Scheme and NEEDS. In-depth analysis of the actual performances of these avalanche of poverty alleviation

measures in reducing poverty has been marginal and infinitesimal (Egware, 1997). The problem of this study, therefore, was to examine how effective management of education, especially higher education, will lead to a reduction in the levels of poverty in south-south Nigeria.

Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were stated in the null to guide the study:

There is no significant impact of successful completion of primary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

There is no significant impact of successful completion of secondary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

There is no significant impact of successful completion of university education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

Methods

The survey research method was employed. The population consisted of all teaching staff in three universities in south-south Nigeria (Universities of Calabar, Uyo and Cross River University of Science and Technology) while 275 respondents were randomly selected from eight faculties (Education, Pharmacy, Business Administration, Engineering, Medicine, Agriculture, Arts and Law) for the study. A total of 260 respondents returned the questionnaires correctly completed. The sample size for the study therefore stood at 260: males 140 (53.8%); females 120 (46.2%). The researchers prepared a 15-item (5 items for measuring each level of education) 4-point scale of strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree tagged "Managing Education for Poverty Alleviation: Trainers' Perception" for data collection. This instrument which was validated by two measurement experts had a reliability coefficient of .81, while independent chi-square statistics was employed in data analysis.

Results

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant impact of successful completion of primary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State. In order to test the hypothesis, independent chi-square analysis was done and the result is as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 - Chi-square analysis of the impact of primary education

on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State

(N = 260)

Primary Education	SA	A	D	SD	Total	χ2
Ability to read	80 (46.8)	180 (159)	0 (42.6)	0 (11.6)	260	
Manipulative skills	32 (46.8)	183 (159)	34 (42.6)	11 (11.6)	260	
Numerical ability	51 (46.8)	186 (159)	20 (42.6)	3 (11.6)	260	235.62*
Trades and crafts	40 (46.8)	136 (159)	62 (42.6)	22 (11.6)	260	
Paid employments	31 (46.8)	110 (159)	97 (42.6)	22 (11.6)	260	
Total	234	795	213	58	1300	

*< .05; df = 12; critical χ2 = 21.03

The obtained χ2-value 235.62 was greater than the critical χ2-value (21.03) at .05 level and 12 degree of freedom. Hence the result was significant, indicating that there is a significant positive impact of successful completion of primary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant impact of successful completion of secondary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State. In order to test the hypothesis, independent chi-square was done and the result is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 - Chi-square analysis of the impact of secondary education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State

(N = 260)

Secondary Education	SA	A	D	SD	Total	χ2
Technical/vocational skill	75 (58.4)	152 (138.4)	24 (48)	3 (15.2)	260	
Paid employments	59 (58.4)	141 (138.4)	40 (48)	9 (15.2)	260	
Higher education	97 (58.4)	141 (138.4)	19 (48)	3 (15.2)	260	219.91*
Self employment	20 (58.4)	110 (138.4)	86 (48)	44 (15.2)	260	
Clerical Officers	41 (58.4)	131 (138.4)	71 (48)	17 (15.2)	260	
Total	292	692	240	76	1300	

*< .05; df = 12; critical χ2 = 21.03

The computed χ2-value (219.91) was higher than the critical X2 value of 21.03 at .05 level of significance with 12 degree of freedom. The result was therefore significant meaning that there is a significant positive impact of successful completion of secondary-technical education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant impact of successful completion of university education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State. In order to test the hypothesis, independent chi-square was done. See Table 3 for the result.

Table 3 - Chi-square analysis of the impact of university education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State

(N = 260)

University Education	SA	A	D	SD	Total	χ2
Paid employment skills	146 (109.6)	94 (108.6)	11 (248)	9 (17.4)	260	
Self employment skills	112 (109.6)	89 (108.6)	26 (24.8)	33 (17.4)	260	
High level manpower	137 (109.6)	108 (108.6)	15 (24.8)	0 (17.4)	260	144.46*
Entrepreneurship	73 (109.6)	107 (108.6)	44 (24.8)	36 (17.4)	260	
Conducting Researches	78 (109.6)	145 (108.6)	28 (24.8)	9 (17.4)	260	
Total	546	543	124	87	1300	

*< .05; df = 12; critical χ2 = 21.03

Table 3 reported a significant impact of university of education on poverty alleviation, since the calculated χ2-value of 144.46 was found to be greater than the critical χ2-value (21.03) at .05 alpha level with 12 degree of freedom. This finding suggests that there is a significant positive impact of successful completion of university education on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State.

Discussion

Research results reported significant positive impact of successful completion of the three levels of education (primary, secondary, university) on poverty alleviation in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria (χ2 = 235.62; 219.91; 144.46, respectively at .05 level and 12 degree of freedom). This position is supported by the research findings of Ekpo and Uwatt (2005) and World Bank (2000). These findings were, however, different from the research report of Jegede and Fayomi (2007, p.71) that there is little or no (i.e. minimal) impact of education on the poverty level of citizens in spite of astronomical growth in the number of educational institutions in the country. Scholars tend to believe generally that the higher the literacy level, the higher the standard of living of the people thereby alleviating poverty. The findings of Ekpo and Uwatt (2005, p.73) after investigating the poverty profile and economic transformation of Akwa Ibom State corroborate this position that for the highest educational grade attained, poverty incidence oscillates between 64% and 75% for primary, 49% and 60% for junior secondary, and 49% and 64% for senior secondary; while advanced level GCE/OND was 37.96%, B.Sc/HND was 27.60%, and post-graduate was 25%. Poverty is said to be more severe among households with no

schooling. Education can therefore be seen as a potent means of breaking the vicious circle of poverty.

This report of significant positive impact of successful completion of primary and secondary education on poverty alleviation implies, in other words, that if the quality of educational delivery at both levels is pragmatic and relevant, then products of the system should be self-reliant on graduation and consequently self-employed to an extent, where paid employments are not forthcoming. The provisions made by the National Policy (FRN, 2004) for the primary and secondary levels of education appear sufficient for preparing youths to be self-reliant on successful completion, for instance, the policy specifies that at the primary level pupils will be trained to read and write, acquire manipulative skills, be able to count and compute, master the trade and crafts of the community; and at the secondary level training will be focused on science, vocational-technical education, preparation for higher education and general training in basic skills for employment with the junior secondary being prevocational and academic in orientation (p.14, 18). Unfortunately, this lofty aim of the federal government cannot be actualized because the education system in the country has been abysmally incapacitated through neglect and under-funding for decades – there is improper planning in terms of infrastructure, manpower, and financing to match the explosion in student enrolment at all levels of education (Nwangwu, 2007; Babalola, 2007a).

The finding of hypothesis three (see Table 3) was a significant positive impact of university education on poverty alleviation at .05 level (χ^2 = 144.46). Researchers in support of this position included Dabalen and Oni (2000), World Bank (2000), and Babalola (2007b). Ekpo and Uwatt (2005) affirm that higher level of education and indeed qualitative education give birth to lower, middle, and higher level professionals which negatively but significantly impact on poverty. Thus, the higher the level of education, the lower the incidence of poverty and vice versa. At the successful completion of university schooling, graduates should move successfully to become productive workers, self-reliant entrepreneurs, responsible parents, good citizens and live healthy lives. The current thinking worldwide is that higher education should develop in the beneficiary a certain number of generic skills to a level that will ensure the continued creative productivity of the individual (World Bank, 2000). These generic skills which are transversal in nature will assist to break the artificial barriers among disciplines. It is the possession of these skills that will empower and reposition every graduate to engage himself productively, create jobs where paid employments are absent and thereby maintain a high standard of living.

Conclusion and Recommendations

On the basis of data analysis and findings, we conclude that it is possible for graduates of primary, secondary and universities to be groomed in such a manner that they become self-reliant at graduation to the extent that they can create employments for themselves and others, where there are no paid job openings.

If education should be managed for self-reliance, self-employment and hence poverty alleviation, then this calls for a complete reorientation and re-engineering of the educational management machinery at all levels of training, specifically as touching: proper planning, monitoring and evaluation of education; curriculum contents and implementation; teacher factor and motivation; adequacy of infrastructure and funding.

There should be proper planning and effective monitoring of primary and secondary education, especially the 9-year Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme. Careful evaluation of the UBE scheme will ensure and help to guarantee a more effective programme implementation. Programmes and activities of our universities should be more properly planned and monitored

by the supervising body (the National Universities Commission). There should be peer and student personnel evaluation and there should also be programme assessment alongside internal self-review (or assessment) at tertiary education level (Bassey & Bassey 2007).

The curricula of study at the primary and secondary levels should be more functionally implemented under the present policy, while the curricula for universities should be re-engineered to achieve the objective of self-reliance and hence alleviate poverty. The focus of science teaching at the secondary school should be to develop the scientific methods, attitudes and scientific culture; while science education at the primary school should be made mandatory (Jegede & Fayomi, 2007). The traditional mode of teaching/lecturing in the universities should give way to a practice-oriented, competency-based mode of instructional delivery with entrepreneurial studies as a core course at the undergraduate level.

Adequate number of qualified teachers should be recruited for our educational system. The explosion in pupil-student enrolments at all levels of education calls for a commensurate increase in the number of instructors recruited so that teacher-pupil/student ratios for the three levels are reduced for effective class management and better results to be expected. There is need to properly motivate teachers so as to reduce attrition rate and increase productivity.

Functional and effective implementation of the programme of a school system calls for adequate stock of appropriate type of infrastructure in the form of buildings for classrooms, lecture theatres, halls, laboratories, workshops, etc.; various types of equipment and facilities; alternative source of electricity supply; and a good source of water supply.

Inadequate funding has been identified as a major factor that retards the progress of education in Nigeria. The clarion call therefore goes to the government in power, private sector, and the public to increase allocations, contributions and donations to the education sub-sector and educational institutions, if education should be goal-oriented.

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Managing Education For Poverty Alleviation:

Trainers' Perception Questionnaire (Mepatpq)

Dear Respondent,

It is believed that if education is properly managed at all levels, poverty will be alleviated. Kindly respond to these items as a trainer in the system.

Institution: Unical (   )   Uniuyo (   )   CRUTECH (   )

Faculty:Education   (   )   Pharmacy   (   )   Medicine (   )

            Business Administration (   )   Engineering (   )

            Agriculture   (   )   Arts (   )   Law (   )

Please place a tick ( ) in the appropriate column of your choice using the key Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD).

Items	SA	A	D	SD
Primary education impacts poverty alleviation through:				
Training for ability to read and write				
Training for manipulative skills				
Training for numerical ability				
Preparing for trades and crafts of the locality				
Preparing for paid employments as unskilled labour (office messenger)				
Secondary education impacts poverty alleviation through:				
Providing technical-vocational skill				
Providing skills for paid employment				
Preparing for higher education				
Providing skills for self-employment				
Preparing for paid employment as clerical officers				
University education impacts poverty alleviation through:				
Acquisition of skills for paid employment				
Acquisition of skills for self employment				
Training of high level manpower				
Training in entrepreneurship				
Conducting of researches				

The Relationship between Ndorobo Personality and African Traditional Religion as a Human Development Issue

By

Ashdown Shelly

Abstract

Personality (olkuak) is a salient non-physical self element featured in Ndorobo practice of African traditional religion. Personality is the primary sociocentric element of a person divinely placed in an individual to serve as a conscience. The ideals of personality are valued by Ndorobo as behavioral precepts for the foundation of traditional religion. Understanding the relationship between personality and African traditional religion and how it involves human development issues is the subject of this paper.

Introduction

Among the Ndorobo, a small Maa-speaking ethnic group in Kenya, personality (olkuak) is a central non-physical element of self featured in Ndorobo practice of African traditional religion. Understanding the relationship between personality and traditional religion and how it involves human development issues is the subject of this paper. Ndorobo world view is a rich, multicolored fabric intricately weaving together social, individual, and spiritual aspects of human existence. Addressing needs in one of these areas demands attention to all the dimensions. Surprisingly, the personality is a key non-physical Self component in the discussion of Ndorobo world view and community development.

Ndorobo personality

Ndorobo believe a person is born into a particular social group by the will of Creator God, Enkai, and are destined to be a product of social forces within that culture. The Ndorobo non-physical Self encompasses elements which join the person and community members together in an integrated fashion. The primary sociocentric element of the person is called, olkuak. The Ndorobo individual always and necessarily exists as a bearer of olkuak.

Olkuak is often translated 'personality' but bears little resemblance to the English translation. It is conceived in a radically different mode of thought. Ndorobo view the person as an extension of the community, one pebble in a bucket of sand. One grain is meaningless and easily overlooked; a handful takes form, fills space, and therefore has meaning and use. The personality of the person, their olkuak, submerges Self within the community thereby providing a person with purpose, value, strength and most importantly, a means of expression.

Self is made continuous with community by olkuak. The initial capacity for personality is given to a newborn by Enkai and content is generated from the social environment. Shaping olkuak into an acceptable personality is insistence by parents and community elders on obedience from those younger members of society. Personality is to be submissive to the will of the collective Other and by doing so olkuak becomes what community makes a person.

As alluded to earlier, personal identity as a Ndorobo with a Ndorobo personality is construed as a destiny appropriated by Creator God. In this way, individual destiny cannot be separated from the social reality of which the person is a member. A Ndorobo proverb teaches, "You cannot jump over what is destined for you" (Impaayo Ngayami, personal communication, September 24, 1997). Destiny is not a predetermined set of occurrences naturally expected in a Western scientific cosmology. It is personality, a social identity. Herein lays the limit of individualism. Self existence is intricately linked with social existence and cannot be adequately grasped outside it. Destiny confirms the status of personality and joins the person to the community in such a way as to intertwine individuality and community. Olkuak is rendered meaningful by appeal to destiny as a divine course and community as a divine destination. The proverb declares, "One does not collect the honey from someone else's beehive," meaning, "That which is destined to be yours will remain yours" (Julius Ngayami, personal communication, October 13, 1997).

Olkuak rejects the idea of an isolated existence. Instead personality is an imitation of those around the person. It is the product of the environment in which a person lives, "the behavioral habit of the person" learned from the community (Thomas Nchonshoi, personal communication, June 23, 1998). The personality issues directives to the person in what to believe and how to behave and changes as the community affects it. If one turns away from their personality, one does not only betray the community and cultural heritage, one betrays themselves. A Ndorobo proverb teaches, "Whoever leaves his olkuak is a slave," meaning the one who departs from Ndorobo cultural principles for life chooses evil and becomes a slave to evil (Leintoi Turo-omom, personal communication, June 26, 1998).

Developing a good personality is synonymous with valuing and acting out Ndorobo ideology, otherwise the person will suffer the consequences of being ruled by evil. One elder related the most important point he could convey to his children concerning their enkishui, translated 'life' or 'soul,' was not to go against or abandon their olkuak, because it is given by Enkai. This implies olkuak exercises great influence over life - a life that has been divinely chosen and predetermined. The person is expected, not only by the community but by Creator God himself, to act in accordance with cultural constraints.

The Ndorobo personality of olkuak defies the Western theoretical concept as something inner and thus not directly observable. If anything, it is the exact opposite. Olkuak is manifested in overt and recognizable forms of social behavior. Ndorobo believe personality comes from the actions of the person. It is considered cultural behavioral habits which express features of Ndorobo behavior expected and shared by members of the community. The individual presents themselves to the community by way of olkuak. It is an observable phenomenon and not an Abstraction to the Ndorobo psyche. The person is what is observed by others. Either the person has developed a good olkuak and behaves accordingly or has chosen an unsavory personality and shows this by behavior deemed socially inappropriate. Behavior is a mirror of an inner state the individual is not capable of hiding or masking.

The individual has a strong need to belong, work and live cooperatively with others in the community. This sociocentric Self and the cultural provisions that sustain it are found in personality. Olkuak is a culturally encoded dogma transmitted from generation to generation as

pragmatic, authoritative principles endorsed by the divine. It is considered a moral link, giving the person the necessary rudder to steer into acceptable, culturally moral waters. When this link is severed the person is doomed to wander into all manner of social ills, become lost to himself and society, and suffer severe reprisals.

The norms of propriety and appropriateness dictated by olkuak require self expression conform to those mandates. Olkuak provides individual acceptance and value, and places it in the realm of the social environment. Personality guarantees an inner life of harmony if developed into a good, strong olkuak. Conformity to personality becomes a moral issue sanctioned by Enkai as a means of coercing members to follow community dictates. It is believed a person shares the soul of God when he is good, that is when he follows his olkuak. Personality is perhaps the most important moral concept in Ndorobo belief. A person is morally evaluated according to their personality, whether good or bad.

Olkuak provides each individual with a course way through life to, at the very least, survival and beyond to a satisfying life. Proper orientation of Self toward Ndorobo moral code is the result of a good, inner personality. Olkuak is a qualification of moral oughts. Nowhere is this more adequately shown than in a narrative depicting a greedy son. A boy working in the fields sees visitors approaching and quickly runs in the house to eat the porridge ready for that morning's breakfast. He begins gulping down the porridge and in his excitement does not realize it is boiling hot. Suddenly his throat is burned, he becomes deaf and faints. Instantly knowing his folly, his mother comes in and curses him.

The son has committed an unpardonable social error. Sociability is the highest value in Ndorobo world view and is defined partially in terms of offering sustenance to visitors. The son's greed was an immoral act quickly resulting in harsh consequences and punishment. His personality chose an iniquitous attitude, prompted him to wrongful behavior, and tortured his physical body. The concept of olkuak creates a link whose connectors weave across that which is moral, social, physical and non-physical and, in the process, make the causes in one realm affect others.

Olkuak provides the ultimate purpose of individual life wherein all that is good and pure is sought and found. It is commitment to community survival by individual devotion and service to what society defines as Ndorobo. Individual members are recognized and appreciated for their individual contributions and respected as such on an individual basis. But individual achievement or success is always measured against the standard of fulfilling the values and expectations of one's olkuak. Nevertheless personality can be bribed, cajoled, influenced, and corrupted. If one does not treat one's olkuak properly or elders fail in responsibility of shaping an acceptable personality, it will become tainted and lead the person astray.

The ideal notions of olkuak should not be considered just as a varnish covering an otherwise unruly Self. Olkuak gives the fabric of social relationships emotional meaning guided by conscience, character and honesty. Through olkuak the person is made aware of a personality model of life which is a cultural persona derived from divinely instituted tradition. The validity of the model is substantiated by the knowledge that elders shaping the young personality were taught and influenced by respected forefathers.

The continual reference to tradition is a constant and plays an active role in the development of personality. Olkuak infuses the person with tradition through the personality element. It is a complex of attitudes and conduct guiding present behavior by reference to the past. It is an awareness of others from the past, in the present, of the future. Identity is linked to the past and implicates future generations. For this reason, olkuak is a predominant characteristic of the non-physical Self and traditional religion in Ndorobo world view.

Ndorobo personality and African traditional religion

Olkuak is the moral ideal in Ndorobo thought giving rise to harmonious integration of the person with the world. It is a guiding force over Self aspiring a quintessential social order in which members of the community live in harmony without quarrelling. Abandoning one's olkuak is equivalent to lost knowledge. It is ignoring a knowledge of right and wrong by rejecting the moral imperative and values of one's social heritage. This can only be restored by Creator God, Enkai, through corrective measures causing a repentant heart. In this way, personality serves as conscience. The idea that conscience is "a complex of residual habits" imposed by society is somewhat descriptive of the Ndorobo notion of conscience (Gbadegesin 1991:68).

The foundation for conscience is laid out in the young, developing olkuak. Personality then serves as the definitive source of right and wrong throughout the lifetime of the individual. Again, it is divinely sanctioned and divinely instituted to act in this way. Enkai has endowed each individual with a rational heart to acquire a personality with a moral and socially conscientious nature.

Olkuak serves as conscience by issuing the standard of ethics the person measures himself against and as proctor of moral reasoning. The ideas of moral rightness and wrongness are not found in a separate, bounded element but are included in the functional role of personality. Personality is a discerning element, one that determines good and evil. The individual notions of right and wrong which distinguish people from one another in part are the result of what each olkuak has been taught and subsequently accepted.

The role of conscience by personality refers to defined consequences for individual action. The reasons one seeks to be morally good is a prudential answer of a social nature in Ndorobo thought. First and foremost, death is caused from immoral, sinful behavior. The termination of life is commonly believed a consequence of evil deeds. The motivation to follow a good personality is an extended lifespan.

The moral ought is also strengthened by the affection parents have for their offspring. Perhaps it cannot be guaranteed a person will reap the benefits of honoring their conscience in their lifetime, but surely successive generations will be blessed or cursed from inherited consequences. Children receive portions of good or evil commensurate with the moral actions of the parent. Allowing the conscience to steer the person into peaceful relations in the community causes children to benefit from these relationships after the parent dies.

Inherited consequences are applied to a living parent also. Children born with birth defects or born dead are explained as the result of the mother's guilt of iniquity while carrying the child. If the mother sins, then the unborn has sinned also. Of course, this is not the will of Enkai; nonetheless, a child cannot enter the world with sin already inside. Creator God is the giver of pure, unblemished life. A new life that is somehow less than perfect has to be the result of sin, and specifically, by the mother. The value of human life is too highly regarded not to beware of any inappropriate behavior.

Equally as compelling as a long life and a blessed life for children is that goodness should reap a harvest of blessing for the person during their lifetime. Enkai is the purest form of goodness, the embodiment of virtue. Hence all that is good is given by him and has no other source. Goodness begets blessing; blessing translates into material wealth and social unity. Undesirable experiences are defined by social beliefs and are induced by wrongful action as punishment. The ultimate appeal for allowing olkuak a commanding position in one's life is that it will benefit you to do so.

Within olkuak is a reverence for divine omnipresence, the inescapable eye of Enkai on man. To understand how complete this belief is to Ndorobo, consider the following folktale of a good child.

Long ago there lived a man and his wife and children. He called his children and his whole family together and it seemed that they had come to believe in Enkai like those who knew the Word of Enkai. So one day he called his children because there were rotten eggs that were hidden inside the house. He called his young boy and young girl and told them to go and throw these rotten eggs away where no one could see.

The young boy took the eggs and went running to a place far away and easily seen and threw the eggs there. The young girl respected her parents and had a healthy fear of her mother and father. She tried to find a place to throw the other rotten eggs but she could not because there was not anywhere void of a person - Enkai is everywhere. He sees in a hole and there is no place that does not have His presence.

The girl went home and told her father, "I did not find a place to throw these eggs. I thought that even if I go inside a hole, Enkai is watching." Her father told her, "Come my child. You are a good child and obedient because you saw and respected that Enkai is the overseer of all. There is not a place anywhere that you can hide from Enkai. Enkai is in heaven and you are under His eyes. You cannot escape Him by entering a hole." (Jackson Ngayami, personal communication, June 18, 1998)

Enkai is the overseer of all creation including the individual actions of the person. Each individual is "under His eyes" and "cannot escape Him" even for a moment (1998). This is a threat to child and adult alike and a constant reminder personality uses to coerce good behavior. Ndorobo emphatically state that wrong behavior is always wrong even if the person does not suffer bad consequences. Why? Because Enkai is watching. The Ndorobo personality element is a "remembrancer" that Creator God witnesses both good and evil and will justly reward accordingly.

Motivation for Ndorobo behavior

The knowledge of Self Ndorobo come to understand through the personality element and its relationship with their notion of traditional religion may be viewed as a significant regulator of ongoing behavior. This interpretation and shaping of conduct is accomplished by personality producing specific motivation toward fulfilling the divine mandate of responsible community membership. One motivational source which encourages the person to comply with their personality is that social i.e. moral misconduct can cause physical and mental illness. A second significant motivation is one of divine vindication and blessing on those fully accepting the gift of personality.

The pure and righteous nature of Creator God underscores a major connection between the supernatural and personality. Because Enkai is anthropopsychic, the activities of man influence him; because he is kindhearted and generous, he is moved with pity for those calling to him in need. Since Creator God represents the image of complete goodness, he must therefore demand goodness from his creation. Man is obliged to behave in a righteous manner according to the code of good and evil Enkai has given through personality. All that is good comes from Enkai as the result of following the precepts of one's olkuak.

While the primary function of Enkai is to protect and give prosperity to man, he also allows misfortune such as an illness or natural disaster as a punishment for wrong actions. The

consequence of breaking from olkuak is exposure to evil and suffering. The belief in divine vindication is a core belief. Socially approved behavior is rewarded by the Creator and deviancy is punished. Divine punishment and reward are dispensed to the person in their lifetime rather than following death. All the dead have the same fate regardless of their earthly existence. Enkai has provided personality to define good and evil during earthly life.

One young Ndorobo man concluded the most important tenet to teach children concerning the soul is that respect for others comes from the soul. Disrespect shown to others damages the soul (enkishui) because respect is a product of olkuak which is controlled by the spirit (inkinyanget). If the spirit element which is housed in the soul causes the personality element to act against social expectations of deference, then the soul may be blemished by an undisciplined personality influenced by an evil spirit (Jackson Ngayami, personal communication, June 16, 1998). A person must exercise self control found in personality over emotion, desire, and decision by conforming to cultural expectations for behavior otherwise enkishui, representing soul or life, is threatened.

These beliefs relating to the community and supernatural demonstrate how personality is intertwined with soul and spirit to influence behavior and contribute to the maintenance of social order which is a feature of African traditional religion. An individual must weigh personal emotion and desire against the cultural pressure of sanctions and incentives in everyday life personality advocates and the consequences, positive or negative, guaranteed by spirit forces. The individual is strongly motivated by the ability of the divine to vindicate with either blessing or punishment.

Relational dichotomy of two aspects of Ndorobo behavior

A Ndorobo views himself as subject to the will of Enkai for his overall life journey and secondly, to the operation of spirit forces present in daily life. There is a continuous competitive struggle between good and evil spirits to occupy each human spirit element. Ndorobo refer to this as a tug of war for purity between the soul element as Creator God's representative presence in a person and the spirit element as man's choice for personal desire. Given the pure nature of the soul originating in Enkai and coming directly from him to the person, the soul desires only that which is good. The soul can never deviate from this inherent state of virtue. This places the soul element in direct confrontation with the spirit element and evil spirit entities.

Metaphorically, the soul represents Enkai, his unchanging pure nature, and his life giving power; the spirit represents man, his ever-changing nature from good to evil, and his mortal life. The soul element is incorporeal continuity of the divine, and the spirit element is incorporeal discontinuity (see Figure 1). The soul element is an enduring virtuous presence just as the eternal existence of God. The spirit element vacillates between good and evil making the inhabitant impermanent. This characterizes the temporary existence of man and his unpredictable behavior.

Figure. 1. Relational dichotomy of two aspects of Ndorobo behavior: behavioral continuity and discontinuity.
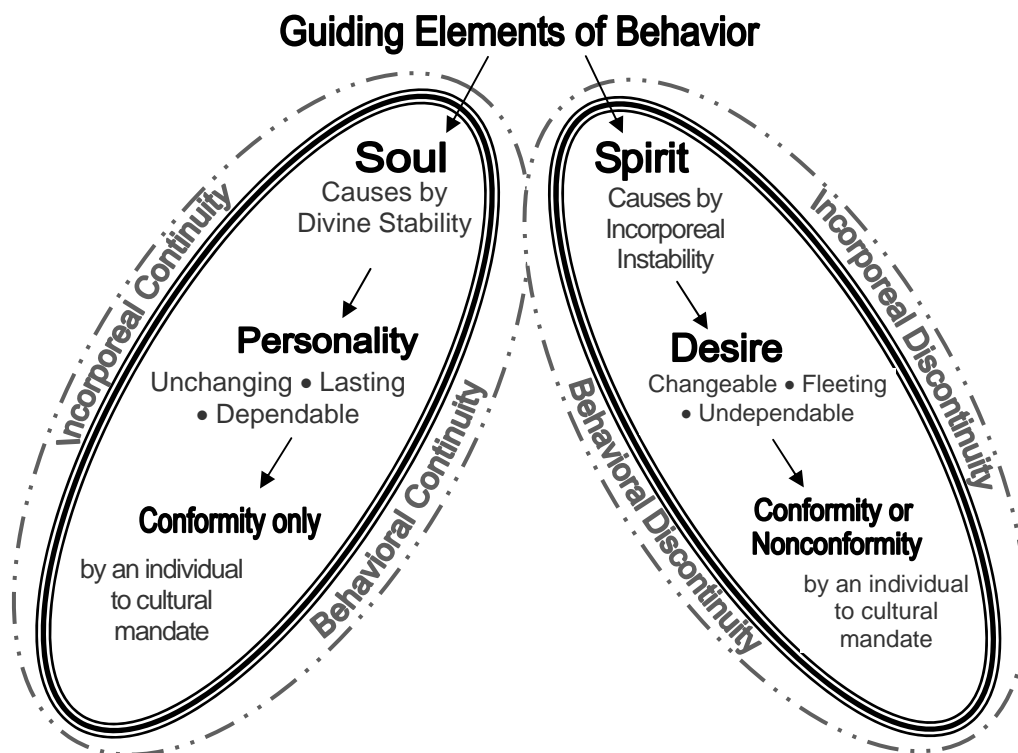
That which is an enduring goodness in this life, the community, is a natural accompaniment to the divine nature of the soul and is represented by personality. The divine stability of the soul is symbolic of personality and regarded as unchanging, lasting, and dependable. Just as the soul and personality are an enduring forces of goodness given by God, so too is the community. The integrity of community precepts are always to be trusted and accepted by a person to lead toward that which is morally correct. Thus personality directs a person toward conformity to cultural mandates of behavior by divine appointment.

On the other hand, personal desire is recognized as anything but trustworthy. The changing nature of the spirit element produces an incorporeal instability within a person. This instability is symbolic of desire. Desire as well as emotion and decision are characterized as changeable, fleeting, and undependable. These elements are greatly influenced by the causal power of spirits and represent the wants and counsel of one rather than the culturally valued needs and advice of community order.

Conclusion

The importance of Ndorobo personality is underscored by its divine design. Creator God has authorized the element of olkuak to establish identity and membership for a person in the community. By doing so, personality serves to protect the individual and contribute a vital safety net to his survival. It is also a guiding force of how Self is expected to develop throughout life by defining the appropriateness of behaviors, values, and beliefs. Personality is given by the Creator as a socially interactive concept firmly bound to correct behavior.

Olkuak describes the extent and context autonomy versus cooperation are tolerated or expected in the Ndorobo context. An individual is offered a particular way of participating in his world by Enkai especially in regulating human relationships. A Ndorobo then defines himself through these interrelationships with community Other by the principles outlined in olkuak. Olkuak serves as custodian of cultural heritage and the guarantor of cultural continuity. In practice, the element of personality is mostly presented as a traditional, literal prescription for individual behavior. The impact of this notion of olkuak is the description of each person as a particular community member who is exclusively a socially determined being and as such, also fulfills divine destiny and will.

It should be clear the concept of olkuak as it is threaded throughout Ndorobo traditional religion plays a significant role in human development issues for the Ndorobo context. Any long term initiatives toward individual and community change will be impeded without honoring the ideals of olkuak. The development process should draw on the values of a good personality as a motivation for cooperating behavior and ownership of projects by the Ndorobo community. Ignoring these fundamental world view assumptions fails to capture the unique motivating forces behind Ndorobo behavior.

Human development, according to the United Nations Development Programme, is about creating an environment in which people can develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives in accord with their needs and interests (UNDP 2006). Thus the reference is to resources beyond material goods and includes intellectual and social resources as well as religious ones. Most policymakers today accept that sustainable development can be achieved only if people build on their own resources. Infatuation by the European Union with development in African countries has largely ignored the centrality of religion to African world view (Ter Haar and Ellis 2006). By doing so, the EU has failed to consider metaphysical questions in development planning which dominate African life because the EU operates from a Western social evolutionist paradigm (Tyndale 2001).

African religiosity has shown the secular world that religion is not destined to fade from public memory once a society enjoys technological advancement. Africans continue to assimilate new forms which aid in development without changing basic assumptions about spiritual realities, and the results have been mixed. Sustainable development has been fleeting thereupon leaving some experts to consider whether religio-spiritual assets are an untapped means of support (Marshall and Keough 2004). McCleary (2007) argues major religions (Hinduism, Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam) have salvific merit/damnation incentives which encourage social action resulting in economic success and this can also be argued for African traditional religion. In the Ndorobo context, community members associate prosperity with acting upon social precepts in personality ordained by Enkai. The success of whatever change is suggested in the Ndorobo context is dependent on engaging the cultural assumptions comprising olkuak.

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An Evaluation Of Inter-Scholastic Sports Administration In Selected Secondary Schools In Ibadan Municipality Of Oyo State, Nigeria

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Abstract

The study assessed the administration of inter-scholastic sports in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria to ascertain its adequacy. Descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study, while a structured questionnaire was used for data collection. The study sample consisted of 1,500 respondents from selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality, Oyo State. Descriptive statistics was adopted to analyze demographic characteristics of respondents, while the hypotheses designed was tested with Chi-square (X2) analysis.

The probability level was set at 0.05 alpha level. All the assessed administrative parameters were found to be significant and it was recommended that inter-scholastic sports programmes should be handled by professionals and government should provide adequate funding for organizing inter-scholastic sports programmes.

Introduction

Sports is very popular the world over. This is because many nations and societies have realized that it is the key to a healthy development of the citizens. Edegbai (2002) notes that sports dates back to the very origin of man. He further states that, the primitive man's physical education was informal and not organized as compared to what obtains today. Awosika (2003) describes sports as a symbol that has become a unifying factor in Nigeria and views it as an essential ingredient for nation building. He further states that sports cuts across all barriers — ethnic, religion, or social and has served as a medium for the development of youths. He concluded that great nations of the world have used sports to develop their young ones, attaining a success that science, religions and politics have failed to achieve.

Bucher and Krotee (2002), opine that sport contributes to character building, discipline, economy, ideology, patriotism, education, mental development, human communication, physical fitness, and health; while Onifade (2003) views sports as an institutionalized competitive activity that involved vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by individuals. Sports competitions, seminars, conferences, and meetings of

various types provide the opportunity for individuals from different countries to exchange ideas and knowledge which in turn would be of immense benefit in educating the citizens of their countries. Sports as a social institution teaches and reinforces societal beliefs, norms, and values thereby assisting in socializing athletes into major cultural and social behavior patterns in various societies (Onifade, 2001).

Inter-scholastic sports is an important part of the education system or programmes of secondary schools in Ibadan metropolis, western Nigeria. With each passing year, the significance of inter school competitive sports has increased, not only to the schools but to the community as well. It is also observed that secondary school administrators are becoming increasingly concerned about how best to conduct their inter-scholastic sports programmes on a sound educational basis, in light of the ever increasing students' and community's interest.

Inter-scholastic sports is one of the most interesting part of school life. They are important in boosting the vitality and morale of the school, and have implications for the total community. Secondary school administrators conduct most of their school programmes with a thorough regard for educational principles and procedures. Inter-scholastic sports should be conducted in the same manner. It is possible to eliminate the ills and evils of the society through the influences of inter-scholastic sports when administrators are willing to reorganize these activities as a part of the physical education programme. It is however important for the administrators to have a thorough knowledge of the many facets of the inter-scholastic sports programme.

According to Nwankwo (2003), inter-scholastic sports programme is designed for the skilled individuals in one school who compete with skilled individuals from other schools in selected physical education activities. She further stated that, inter-scholastic sports programme is meant for the highly skilled in sports, for it recognizes challenges and rewards. While Daughtrey and Woods (1999) assert that, inter-scholastic sports are contests between selected individuals or teams representing two or more schools organized and controlled by the school authorities.

Inter-scholastic sports programmes need to be conducted in such a way that its values and expected results would continue to be appreciated by the participants. This can be made possible through good leadership — capable and well informed physical education administrators who have good knowledge of sports administration.

Statement of the Problem

It is a common knowledge that in public secondary schools, students athletes, mostly of secondary schools within Ibadan municipality, do not feature prominently at the national inter-scholastic sports competitions, thus hampering the realization of the objectives and aims of inter-scholastic sports programme in the state. This may be due to some organizational and administrative problems which prevent the student athletes from performing credibly well in inter-scholastic sports competitions.

Objective of the Study

The objective of this study, is for it to serve as a guide for sports administrators and other sports policy makers when developing a meaningful and worthwhile inter-scholastic sports programme for secondary schools. The study has also brought out the inadequacies in the allocation of sports practices and scheduling before inter-scholastic sports competitions are held and it has equally identified some sports administrative parameters which bring about a

successful sports programming when conducting secondary school inter-scholastic sports programmes.

Research Hypothesis

In evaluating inter-scholastic sports administration in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality, it was hypothesized that qualified personnel, adequate sports programming and administrative styles of sports leaders will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programme in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria.

Methodology

The descriptive survey research design was used for data collection. The population for this study comprised all participating athletes, games masters and games mistresses who are respondents from the selected secondary schools within eleven (11) local government areas which makes up Ibadan municipality, Oyo State, Nigeria.

The simple random sampling technique was adopted to draw 1,500 respondents comprising participating student athletes, game masters and mistresses, and sports organizers who participated in the "2007 All Ibadan Oyo-State Inter-Scholastic Sports Championship".

The main instrument for this study was a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into two sections i.e. A and B. Section A covered the demographic characteristics of the respondents, while section B sought information on the parameters selected for the study. The questionnaire was content validated, while the test-retest method used to establish the reliability of the measuring instrument yielded a correlation coefficient of r = 0.87.

To ensure high questionnaire return rate, the copies of the questionnaires were given to the athletes through their games masters and game mistresses. After a week's interval, the researcher and four research assistants collected the completed questionnaires.

The completed questionnaires were collated, coded and analyzed using descriptive statistics which included frequency counts, and percentages. These were used to analyze participants' demographic data in Section A. Responses obtained from Section B of the questionnaire were analyzed using Chi-square (X2) method and this analysis was subsequently used to test the hypotheses designed for this study. The hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level.

Findings and Discussion

Hypothesis 1

Qualified personnel will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programmes in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 1:   Qualified Personnel

Responses	Frequency	Percentages	X2 value	Table value	df	Remarks
SA	419	27.93				
A	417	27.80				
D	358	23.87	23.33	7.82	3	Significant
SD	306	20.40				
Total	1,500	100.00				

X2 = 23.33, Table value = 7.82, df = 3, P<0.05.

Table 1 indicated that 419 (27.83%) and 417 (27.80%) respondents strongly agreed and agreed with the statement respectively, while 358 (23.87%) and 206 (20.40%) of them disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. The table further revealed that the calculated chi-square value of 23.33 was greater than the table value of 7.82 at 3df, P<0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis which stated that qualified personnel will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programmes in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria, is rejected.

In support of this finding, Sogbesan (2002), is of the opinion that our sports institution is a public organization that requires in all its facets of administration well skilled and professionally competent personnel for its smooth running, while Atoyebi (2002) reports that parallel to the increased emphasis on competitive sports, is the premium placed on the need for qualified personnel as tools for excellence in sports participation. In respect of personnel policy, Awosika (2003) advises that experienced and capable persons who are knowledgeable in the field of physical education and sports should be involved in handling inter-scholastic sports programmes — for this will enhance fair judgment and officiating of the programme activities.

Hypothesis 2

Adequate sports programming will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programme in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 2:   Adequate Sports Programming

Responses	Frequency	Percentages	X2 value	Table value	df	Remarks
SA	435	25.73				
A	341	22.73				
D	338	22.54	16.65	7.82	3	Significant
SD	309	20.60				
Total	1,500	100.00				

X2 = 23.33, Table value = 7.82, df = 3, P<0.05.

Table 2 reveals that 435 (25.73%) and 341 (22.73%) respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively, this constitutes the highest number of the total number of respondents. On the other hand, 338 (22.54%) and 309 (20.60%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively with the stated hypothesis. The table equally revealed that the calculated Chi-square

value of 16.65 was greater than the table value of 7.82 at 3df; P<0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis which stated that adequate sports programming will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programmes in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria, is rejected.

Awosika (2003) defines sports programming as the process of outlining and implementing the order of activities to be pursued in a plan of work schedule that should not just be made, but they are prepared, based on the needs of the institution or organization — if not, they will be of no relevance or use to the institution or organization. This statement supports the present findings.

Hypothesis 3

Administrative styles of the games masters and games mistresses will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programmes in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria.

Table 3:   Administrative Styles of Sports Games Masters and

Mistresses

Responses	Frequency	Percentages	X2 value	Table value	df	Remarks
SA	373	24.87				
A	404	26.93				
D	438	29.20	34.48	7.82	3	Significant
SD	285	19.00				
Total	1,500	100.00				

X2 = 23.33, Table value = 7.82, df = 3, P<0.05.

The findings showed that 373 (24.8%) and 404 (26.93%) of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while on the contrary 438 (29.20%) and 285 (19.00%) of the participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively, that the administrative styles of the games masters and mistresses did not influence the inter-scholastic sport in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria. The computed Chi-square value of 34.48 was greater than the table value of 7.82 at 3df; P<0.05. Consequently, hypothesis 3 which stated that, the administrative styles of the games masters and mistresses will not significantly influence inter-scholastic sports programme in selected secondary schools in Ibadan municipality of Oyo State, Nigeria, is rejected.

In support of the above responses, three administrative styles have been identified by sports specialists. They include authoritarian, democratic, and laisser-faire (Bucher & Krotee, 2002; Nwankwo, 2003). These methods are referred to as traditional administrative styles, and they have been criticized by modern sports management specialists in the sense that one cannot be an absolute authoritarian, democratic, or laisser-faire, but a mixture of the various administrative styles depending on specific situations.

Conclusion

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions can be made:

(i)   It was found that some secondary schools lacked qualified personnel to manage inter-scholastic sports competition effectively.
(ii)   Inter-scholastic sports in Ibadan municipality were inadequately programmed.
(iii)   The administrative styles of sports managers as well as the attitude of student athletes significantly influenced the success of inter-scholastic sports programme.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following are recommended:

1.   The school administrators should improve the on educational qualifications of their sports personnel. Most of them were holders of National Certificate in Education (N.C.E.) and very few had university degrees.
2.   Sports programming should be prepared well in advance, as this will increase adequate participation and expected results from the participants.
3.   The school sports administrators should vary their administrative styles and improve on their inter-scholastic sports programmes in their schools by providing adequate incentives to motivate and promote the participation of student athletes in inter-scholastic sports.

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Teacher Preparation Models For The Teaching Of Numeracy In Nigerian Primary Schools: A Comparative Study

By

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And

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Abstract

The study comparatively assessed the quality of teachers produced through the Distance Learning System (DLS) and the Conventional mode in the preparation of teachers in numeracy teaching in Nigeria basic education. One hundred and fifty primary school teachers with National Certificate in Education were randomly selected from five local governments of Osun State in Nigeria. The selected teachers consisted of 65 teachers who had undergone conventional mode and 85 teachers who passed through the DLS of the National Teachers Institute. Six trained inspectors observed the teachers teach numeracy and assessed them based on subject matter mastery, instructional skills and class management and control. Data were analyzed using t-test of independent samples. Result showed that conventional products excel in subject mastery and instructional skills. However, products of the DLS did better in class management and control.

Introduction

The Universal Basic Education (UBE) programme of the Federal Republic of Nigeria was launched almost a decade ago. One of the main objectives of this programme was to make education free, compulsory and accessible to every Nigerian child of school age for the first nine years of schooling from primary one to Junior Secondary School. The curriculum content at this level concentrate mainly on numeracy, literary and life long skills. (FME, 2000).

To cope with the envisaged upsurge in primary schools enrolment under this scheme the National Teachers Institute of the country embarked on the Pivotal Teachers Training Programme (PTTP) by means of a Distance Learning System (DLS). This is to supplement the National Certificate in Education programme also delivered through DLS mode which had earlier been established by the institute to cater for teaching at primary schools levels (Osonde & Omoniyi, 2000)). The Institute actually came into existence through Act No. 7 of the Federal Government of Nigeria in 1976 (NTI, 2001; 2002).

However, there have been informal insinuations and widespread reservations regarding the qualities of the teachers produced through the Distance Learning Programme. Much of the reservation resides with teachers' competence in the teaching of numeracy. It is generally believed that teachers prepared through this mode lacks quality and would not compare with the quality of teachers produced through the DLS mode and their conventional means. This insinuation till now lacks empirical evidence. Thus, this study attempts to assess and compare the quality of teachers produced through the DLS mode and their conventional counterparts in numeracy skills. The assessment was made based on mastery of numeracy content, instructional skills, class management and control.

 Findings are expected to provide informed data based decision that will help in curriculum revision in the preparation of teachers for basic education.

Methods

The study adopted an observational survey design with 150 primary school NCE teachers randomly selected from 5 local governments in Osun State of Nigeria as participants. The participants consisted of 65 conventional NCE teachers and 85 DLS NCE teachers. The practice Teaching Assessment form (PTAF) of the Faculty of Education, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria was used to assess the teachers.

The instrument had been officially validated by the team of experts in the institution before being used for annual assessment of student teachers. Thus this study did not repeat the validation procedure. The instrument consisted of 20 items bordering on subject mastery, instructional skills and method as well as class control and management. The observation procedure involved watching the teachers teach as well as checking the lesson notes. Six professional school inspectors were employed as assessors in the study. Each of the teachers was assessed twice within a school term of 3 months. The weight average scores for the teachers were obtained as data for the study.

Results

Table 1: Difference between the Subject Matter Mastery of Conventional and DLS NCE teachers in Numeracy

Variable	N	Mean	SD	df	tcal	ttab	Significant Level	Remarks
Conventional	65	33.38	11.1	148	3.02	1.96	0.05	Significant
DLS	85	29.48	12.7					

Table 2: Difference between Instructional Skills of Conventional and DLS NCE teachers in Numeracy.

Conventional	65	26.87	9.12	148	3.02	1.96	0.05	Significant
DLS	85	23.87	12.01					

Table 3: Difference between Class Management Skills of Conventional and DLS NCE teachers during Numeracy Instructional lessons.								
Conventional	65	15.05	2.43	148	3.02	1.96	0.05	Significant
DLS	85	23.87	3.78					

From table 1, the mean scores of conventional NCE teachers on mastery of subject matter was 33.38 with standard deviation of 11.1 while their DLS counterparts had a mean score of 29.48 and standard deviation of 12.7. The calculated t-value was 3.02 which is greater than t-value in the table. Thus conventional NCE teachers were of significant higher subject mastery in numeracy than those trained through the DLS.

In assessing differentials in numeracy instructional skills, the mean score and standard deviation of conventional NCE teachers were 26.87 and 9.12 respectively (see table 2).

The calculated t-value of 3.02 exceeds the t-value in the table, thus the difference in instructional skills was significant with conventional NCE teachers exhibiting better instructional skills than the DLS.

Examining possible differences in class management skills in numeracy classes between conventional NCE and those of the DLS. The mean scores of conventional and DLS NCE teachers were 15.05 and 23.87 respectively, with standard deviations of 2.43 (conventional) and 3.78 (DLS). The t-value calculated (3.02) exceeds the table t-value (1.96). Thus significant difference exists in class management skills of these two cohorts with the DLS displaying better ability.

Discussion

Results have shown that products of conventional NCE teachers have better mastery of numeracy subject matter and better instructional skills than those that went through DLS.

The reason for this is probably as a result of entry behaviour. Entry into conventional NCE programme is by competitive entrance examination in addition to meeting basic requirements while that of DLS is solely based on satisfying basic requirements of ordinary level or grade two teaching certificate. It is not unlikely that similar finding will be obtained if the same study is replicated for other subjects. Though Owotunde (2008) reported no significance difference in chemistry performance of undergraduate students in conventional and open universities. The study of Owotunde employed self developed chemistry items that covered very limited chemistry content. Apart from this Owotunde's study was on undergraduate students while the present study was conducted on college of education students.   In a study conducted by Osunde and Omoniyi (2004) evaluating the same DLS training program organized by NTI in Edo State with the students of the programme as participants, 63 per cent of the respondents were of the opinion that the program is fairly effective while 17 percent agreed that the program is not effective. About 8 and 13 percent considered the program highly effective and moderately effective respectively. The respondents in Osunde and Omoniyi context were final year students of the program. What can be deduced from their report is an evidence of some reservations by the trainees themselves. This is because only 21percent of the respondents considered the program very effective. However, the difference between this study and that of Osunde and Omoniyi is that theirs was an evaluation or assessment of the training program. The present

study is a comparative one bordering on relative deficiency and not absolute deficiency. Other factors that may have impeded relative effective learning or training in the DLS programme may be that of teaching manpower. Instructors and lecturers in the programme are largely secondary school teachers who would merely want to take advantage of DLS lecturing appointment as additional means of income. Lecturers of conventional programme are full-time staff with relatively better qualifications. This factor coupled with that of learning environment give cause for possible better performance among the conventional products.

In addition, skills in numeracy teaching were exhibited more by conventional NCE products than those of their DLS counterparts. The reason for the difference in teaching skills is not immediately apparent. This is because the curriculum contents of the two training models exposed the trainees to two teaching practice programmes in the course of training. Apart from this, many of the DLS trainees were teachers already teaching with Grade Two Teachers Certificate before embarking on the programme. It would then be expected that if there would be discrepancy in teaching skills of the products, such discrepancy should be in favour of DLS products. The reason for this might still be related to the quality of teaching manpower in the programme. Lecturers of conventional programmes are more qualified than those of their DLS counterparts. Furthermore, conventional NCE lecturers do innovate their professional practices with current research findings. On the other hand most of the DLS lecturers are not researchers. It is therefore likely that this may have resulted in the   instructional output differential of the lecturing personnel. The axiom which states that teachers teach the way they are taught and not the way they are told to teach as stated by Britzman (1991) and Lortie, (1975) becomes relevant in this case.

However, DLS products were of better class management and control ability than conventional products. A possible cause of this might be due to age differentials and teaching experience: DLS products were comparatively older this is in addition to the fact that their teaching experiences were more than the conventional. The relevance of age in this context is that of the fact that older teachers often assume parental roles in the classroom (Turanli et al, 2006) thus making class management easier.

The major burden in this study is that of assurance of quality. The National Teachers Institute has put in place quality assurance procedure including:

- Strict adherence to admission requirements.
- Regular monitoring of programmes
- Adequate number of qualified staff.
- Adequate supply of course materials.
- External moderation and accreditation of courses
- Qualify Assurance Framework developed and implemented for each programme.
- Working with cooperating innovates to ensure standard
- Regular consultative meetings with stakeholders.
- Training programmes for permanent and part-time staff. (NTI, 2006)

While these stated steps in quality assurance appear germane, a major factor is the extent to which the institute adheres to the steps. Thus routine independent programme evaluation is needed to determine the extent of adherence. This would also provide insight into new area of quality assurance thus enhancing the programme effectiveness. A further study is needed in comparing conventional NCE products with DLS NCE products in all the subjects. This will present clear picture on the general state of the quality of the programme.

A possible limitation of the study is that the observation took place in only one state. A wider study encompassing at least 6 states with each state chosen from each of the 6 geopolitical zones of the country is needed.

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Social Construction in the Creation of the Periphery in Africa

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Abstract

Borrowing from other spheres of knowledge, social constructionism seems to have seeped into sociological thinking through micro-sociological theories. Unlike earlier classical and 'modern' sociological theories, micro-sociology tends to circumscribe analysis of human behavior to 'everyday sociology' and the social construction of experiential knowledge. Thus, human behavior is not perceived as being informed by a 'top-bottom' /society/individual but that in which individuals create and re-create their social situation. As such, rather than the colonial creation often adduced for the underdevelopment of Africa, the argument drops in the lap of Africans! What have they made of their independence? The paper argues that the construction of the history of sociology, in its micro-sociological bent, has continued to perpetuate the peripheral status of Africa as it delimits the impact of received knowledge in the reconstructions of African societies. In other words, it is almost inconceivable to understand the cultural creations, or otherwise, without the impact of the 'global' requirements.

Introduction

The history of sociology is, definitely, incomplete without the contributions of the Enlightenment thinkers from whom classical and modern social theorists derived most of their ideas, albeit, with their own new meanings. Interestingly, it was from the Enlghtenment thinkers that Africa was incorporated into sociological theory with the social philosophers like Thomas Hobbes, John Locke and J.J Rousseau deriving their notion of the 'state of nature' (from Africa) against which they theorized about their own societies. Thus began the evolutionary sequence of stages built up by Turgot, Condorcet, and Saint Simon, culminating in the explicit sociology of Auguste Comte (Collins, 1994:18). Since then, the understanding of African societies as a periphery commenced, and persisted in sociological thinking. From the classical to modern theorists, Africa, and in fact all developing nations, are expected to follow the paths of development of Euro-American societies.

With Max Weber's highly imaginative definition of social action in its subjective interpretation and his concept of life chances developed by Ralf Dahrendorf, the idea of what I call 'everyday sociology' began (olutayo,2001/2002) thus the reconstruction of sociological theory became enriched in symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, ethnometodology and, even, post-modernism. All of these have, in one way or the other, been incorporated into social

constructionism. What becomes obvious from this, somewhat new, sociological thinking is the relocation of the development process in the indigenous societies with a pretense to preclude the 'global' and the 'external' from the explanation of actions and interactions within nation states.

This paper attempts to show how these theories have been applied in the explanation of the development of the peripheral nations and the implications for the history of sociology, in the next three sections. In doing this, the next section presents the application of classical and modern social theory to the explanations and recommendations for development in Africa, as represented in modernization theory. The second section traces the change in this thought process as the underdevelopment/dependency theorists attempted to debunk the veracity of modernization theory. Ironically, this latter attempt, especially with the triumph of capitalism, has been subordinated and social constructionism seems to be holding sway as peripheral nations are being held responsible for their predicaments. Essentially, this is represented by the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) to which most nations of Africa have been subjected. Interestingly, the explanation for this has a place in the history of sociology as 'everyday sociology', especially through social constructionism, came to the fore. The third section concludes the paper as it shows the implications for the history of sociology, especially at the periphery.

Classical and 'Modern' social theory and the peripherization of Africa

As adumbrated above, the unilineal stages of growth/development began with the Enlightenment thinkers and, in spite of the limited knowledge about this continent, classical sociological thinkers like Karl Marx, Max Weber, Auguste Comte, Emile Durkheim, among others, perceived the European society as the 'ideal' society along which line the developing nations should tow. For instance, one of Marx's popular quotation in the Preface to volume one of Capital is that '…the country that is more developed industrially only shows, to the less developed, the image of its own future'. In the same vein, all the classical sociological theorists succumbed to the IDEA OF PROGRESS as an inevitable history of human societies. This is in spite of the fact that capitalism, which all of them attempted to analyze, carried with it, societal destructions or, at least, fundamental restructuring. Furthermore, though almost all of them subscribed to the importance of history of these advanced societies, the history of the backward nations are almost completely made irrelevant! Indeed, in many cases, they were presented as non-existent.

Ironically, their ideas were popularized with evidence even without knowing much of these latter nations. It was not surprising, therefore, that 'modern' social theorists received wide acclaim from the 1950s still within the generalizing tendency of their ideas. Perhaps the most successful was Talcott Parsons' systems model emphasising equilibrium, evolutionary universalities and the identification of properties that are common to all societies. Standing on the shoulders of giants like Hobbes, A. Marshall, V. Pareto, E.Durkheim and M. Weber, and with little interest in empiricism, his central concern was how to account for 'smooth', harmonious', and 'orderly' existence of society especially with the situation Perdue (1986) described as the bizzare and the banal comprising of postwar problems of unemployment and inflation superimposed on runaway urbanization amidst other social problems, during which period Parsons was writing. His theory was therefore hinged on value consensus, roles and expectations within physical and social allowance, societal norms regulating human actions in order to ensure conformity through effective socialization and internalization of 'agreed' societal ideals. This process is ensured, according to Parsons, in a 'society' which is differentiated in terms of functional prerequisites of the popular AGIL/P system (Parsons, 1977). Except a society is so differentiated, it is not recognized as a society. Consequently, social change is expected to be guarded within societal norms embedded in differentiated social institutions. Within these

differentiated social institutions are pattern variables of behaviour between a 'society' and a 'non-society', so to say.

As such, the 'non-societies' of Africa, the undertanding of which had become known through slavery and colonialism and perceived as 'uncivilized' by the slave traders and colonial apologists, have to become so differentiated as in 'societies' of Euro-America. Thus began the process of what Morse et al (1969) refered to as Modernization By Design. Social institutions have to be redesigned in the forms present in colonizing nations. Starting with colonial policies undermining the political institutions prevalent in precolonial societies, the ways of life was restructured such that the pre-existing social structure was modified. Unfortunately, especially with the British indirect rule policy, a position informed by the need to expend as little as possible in the colonies, these restructurings were not fundamental. Since the ultimate aim was to 'civilize' the 'barbarians', as outlined in Lugards, The Dual Mandate… little contact was needed so as not to disrupt the structure, in so far as markets are not hindered and taxes are promptly accounted for by the 'Native Authotities'. Indeed, where these were hindered, direct command of resources, manpower and imposition of martial laws resulted (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indirect_rule accessed 28th February, 2008). Native authorities, who were taught 'civilization', were expected to be loyal to Her Majesty in the process of expropriating their products to Britain, thus the idea of the Bible and the Plough. Over time, the economies of colonized territories were subordinated to their overlords as the former were being 'modernized'-to become like Europeans in the norms governing their total ways of life-even as erstwhile unknown kingship and chieftaincy titles were created and recreated sustaining tyrannical and corrupt governments and promoting divisions in the populations (Crocker, 1936; http://www.stmarys.ca/administration/library/links/shist13/files/collins5.pdf accessed 28th february, 2008); religious institutions were redefined; and the economy restructured to become export dependent. Even, the language of communication was modified (We shall come back to this later).

In short, the problem of development, within the classical and modern social theories, is located in the internal social structures of Africa. And as Rose (1966: 197) posited, sociology provided both the larger hypotheses about the nature of development and of political and economic processes in the emerging nations as well as much of the language of which political scientists and economists conceptualized the problems and the studies of transitional societies, including Africa. The dependency theory, in the history of sociology, gives the obverse side of this picture where the impact of the external/global/developed nations is used to explain the development of underdevelopment. It is to a consideration of this persperctive that the paper now turns.

Dependency Theory: The Development of Underdevelopment

Until the 1970s, dependency theory, which started in the late 1950s with the works of Paul Baran in his The Political Economy of Growth, was not recognized in the social sciences. The idea of progress continued to hold sway with systems theory being the most popular in most sociology departments in Africa. By this time (1970s), modern social theory had started to be discredited as the works of Ralf Dahrendorf began to pave way for 'everyday sociology'.

Central to Dahrendorf's argument is the location of the understanding of each social structure within its own boundaries. His position was informed by both his personal experience and that of his nation, Germany, as well as standing on the shoulders of earlier social thinkers (Olutayo 2001/2002). Not only was he born into an influential family, his father was a member of the national parliament in Germany which industrialized from the top, negating the ideas of democracy and development, without any major revolution to disrupt its social structure as experienced in the other parts of Europe. Germany, during this period, did not operate the

market principle with the government persistently intervening in regulating the economy, a position the German historical school of economics approved of, arguing that each nation defines its own rationality, substituted with 'nationality', and based on its internal culture. Thus, specific societal contexts and institutions bacame important in any analysis rather than a general theory of society. In this wise, development does not evolve in a unilineal direction, which the colonial policy implemented, and obvious in classical and modern social theories.

Around the same time that Dahrendorf's book, Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society was published, in 1959, a modification of his doctoral thesis of 1952, Ervin Goffman's-The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life also came out. Interestingly, the historical movement of phenomenology as a philosophical tradition was also launched in the first half of the twentieth century by Husserl, Hiedegger, Merleau-Ponty, Jean-Paul Sartre, among others (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2003).

Of course, the two World Wars, necessitated by Germany's challenges of other world powers (Garranty and Gay,1981), within the first four decades of the 20th century, may have informed these new approaches to knowledge, but the struggle for independence in Africa was also its fallout. Expectedly, therefore, these new knowledge, emphasizing particularism rather than generalization, should have been incorporated into the understanding of these new nations (I shall come back to this later). Unfortunately, this was also the Cold War era during which there were contestations about world ideologies, thus the struggle for the survival of Africa still persisted! Consequently, which political and economic knowledge suitable for Africa was in contest and this played itself out in the universites and among the elites in Africa.

As noted by Rose (1966), these elites and university students were being bombarded, daily, with information from both the West and the East, along which lines the ideologies existed. Indeed, he asserted, the urban African, during this period, was likely to be superior in 'knowledge-ableness' in world political and economic affairs than comparable urban American (or European) since the latter only read information about his/her society whereas the African was exposed to 'news' from all parts of the world. Since the African elites' and university students' images/orientations were, however, created and whetted by the political and economic social existence in Europe and America, their desires were for good things of life in these societies. It was these desires of the 'frontiers' that the world ideologists tapped into leading to the doling out of foreing aids and the emergence of the Debt Squads (Olutayo and Omobowale, 2007; Bradford, S. and Kucinski, B. 1989), rather than a concern for particularistic values in African societies. Again, Rose (1966) has noted that this was connected to the fact that most sociologists who came to Africa were with non-empirical social science orientation trained in continental Europe with heavy bias toward anthropology. It is not therefore surprising that most African universities have department of sociology and anthropology merged together. Ironically, the important sociological contributions that later emerged are based on pre-empting, or is it studying, 'social problems', as existed in America, thus demography, inovation/adoption studies, often based in agricultural extension departments, and urban social problems are the foci without attempting to decipher the impact of the World Capitalist System in these emerging nations.

Sociologically, in summary, dependecy theory(ies) that surfaced from the works of Andre Gunder Frank, Samir Amin, Furtado, among others, emphasized the nature of social relations that the World Capitalist System created in the 'dependent' nations. Thus, rather than independence, social relations in dependent nations are seen to be 'unreal' dictated by the exigencies of the capitalist system within which they subsist as the 'periphery', a relationship that permeates the entire social structure. Within this social arrangement, lumpenbourgeoisie/lumpenproletariat exist, the result of whose relationship has been

lumpendevelopment (Frank,1972). This is because, it is argued, the lumpenbourgeoisie's interests, as well as the 'labor aristocrats', in the periphery, are linked to those of the capitalists in the metropole (and the semi-periphery), thus the former are only concerned with perpetuating capitalism rather being interested in the welfare of the majority of the poor in rural areas which constitutes more than, on the average, 64% (World Bank 2008). Implicitly, therefore, disorder is not to be tolerated with the use of state resources in subordinating any deviance and/or insurrection, or not expected, haven established a social network of dependencies, or what Joseph (1987) referred to as prebendalism. Consequently, rather than development, the nations of Africa are experiencing underdevelopment, not as a result of internally created conditions but due to external factors which structured/s their existence. So, rather than endogenous factors explaining, for instance, the determination of public budget across education stages, as Su (2005) found out, one needs to find out the bases of the group the author defined as the 'top class' dominant political power. It is only then that it becomes rational to explain why the class will prefer exclusive participation and large schooling expenditure at higher level at the expense of basic education. Indeed, it is a known fact that the World Bank, which used to favour the latter, shifted gear in the 1990s towards the recognition of higher education. One asks, why this sudden change? What were the effects of earlier policy? Without a consideration of these external factors, the social construction of Africa cannot be easily grasped.

Social Constructionism and Africa

Social constructionism seems to have seeped into sociological thinking through micro-sociological theories which, as alluded to above, began with the works of Ralf Dahrendorf. Unlike earlier classical and modern sociological theories, micro-sociology tends to circumscribe analysis of human behavior to 'everyday sociology' and the social construction of experiential knowledge. Thus, human behavior is not perceived as being informed by a 'top-bottom'/society/individual categorization but that in which individuals create and re-create their social situation. As such, rather than the colonial creation, adduced above, by the underdevelopment/development theorists, the argument drops on the laps of Africans! What have they made of their independence? Thus, even if the independence is, as some are wont to argue, a 'sham', or ordinary 'flag' rather than genuine, it is disturbing that, after about four decades of independence, the so-called lumpenbourgeoisie/lumpenproletariat have not realized their existential situation and attempt to re-orient their societies. Why have universities not been restructured to train students who are intetrested in the welfare of the majority of the citizenry, rather of a limited few?

Of course, the prominence of constructionism cannot be traced outside Berger and Luckmann's most popular books, especially in African universities, The Social Construction of Reality published almost a decade after the works of Dahrendorf and others mentioned above in the 'everyday sociology' category. As in everyday sociology, social constructionism presents reality, as not being a social fact, like in classical and modern social theory, but a duality of both individuals and society which is never a conclusive schema, informed by different social contexts. In these contexts, it is asserted, human beings create, and recreate, together, the social world in which they live. As such, individual experiences determine her/his behavior, thus s/he must be held accountable for her/his actions/inactions. These actions/inactions are played out, according to Burr (1995) at the level of language, organized into discourses, conversations, narratives and stories by which we experience our world; meanings emerge from the relations based on the language becoming the accepted version of reality in a particular local context, which are continually being worked out within different historical and cultural contexts. These meanings do change depending on what is acceptable in different contexts, just like in

Goffman's. Social constructs are, generally, understood, summarily, to be the by-products of choices individuals and societies make by, and for, themselves rather than an effect of an outside 'will'.

By implication, African societies cannot be dissociated from whatever situation they have found themselves. This is because they also participate in the creation and recreation of their situations. Nonetheless, these situations are not conclusive as the 'knowledge', 'dominant ideology', and their 'objective'positions are only temporary and need to be continually interrogated. What is presented as 'real' is only given, depending on who is determining the situation. But is what is presented as 'real', though depending on different contexts, not both interpreted by the 'controlling'/'dominant' knowledge system?

Perhaps it will be of immense benefit to re-interrogate colonialism and its consequences for Africa. Central to this re-interrogation are Mudimbe's (1994;1988) attempts to show that, in the latter, even the term Africa was an Invention of the colonizing nations, carrying along with it, certain Idea (in the former) which, to all intent and purpose, was fabricated by the people who invented it. These Invention and Idea were created by the colonial anthropologists who laid the foundation of the European world view as the acceptable form of knowledge which was transmitted through the educational institutions, again, created, as an ideological state apparatus, by the colonizing nations (Olutayo,2002). Indeed, as the British Online Encyclopedia (2007) alluded, even 20th century education in Africa should be treated according to former colonial status, except in some few instances. And, central to the colonial interest was not to 'educate' the subject peoples but to extend the language and policies of the colonizer. Most especially through linguistic anthropologists who, in spite of their 'spectacular ignorance', 'kidnapped' indigenous languages in order to re-present them in acceptable forms to the European audience (Greenblatt, 1991). Ironically, this was the legacy inherited by the elites who were, more or less, 'priviledged', as they were 'chosen', being those who could understand the ways of the colonizers. They could understand because they were taught, especially with the struggle for independence, to 'take-over' from where the Europeans left. And it was what they were taught, which they know and which they could give, and that which they have continued to give! Where they attempt to 'disobey' they are brought in line either through the engineering of insurrections, in the form of coups, or are sanctioned. The Iraq attack is too obvious as a case in point, and an enough 'warning' for any dissenting nation, of Africa especially. Even within tertiary institutions in Africa, unlike in other parts of the world, it is mandatory that lecturers, before they can be promoted, publish in international journals, international journals defined mostly in terms of publishing outside the continent. Ironically, the politics of acceptance of ideas for publication, often defined by the editors of these journals based on their own knowledge and world views, are jettisoned, as if they do not exist. Most especially in the humanities and social sciences, therefore, it is often difficult to, using African experience, debunk the existing world paradigm!

This has been the 'language' of development and it is within this understanding that it becomes apposite to discuss the creation and re-creation of behaviour in neo-colonial Africa. This is more so with the, seemingly, 'forced' globalizing tendencies imposed on Africa through the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs). Central to SAPs is the assumption that the indigenous structural arrangements of Africa explains its underdeveloped status, especially with the 'overbearing' or 'overburdened' state trying to supply all the needs of its citizenry. As an alternative, the free-market economy should come to the fore with African economies further opening their gates for free trade. In this, supposedly, new arrangement, private organizations should take over the responsibilities of the state since, as in classical, modern and even 'everyday' sociology, these individuals are 'rational', operating within the norms and values of

the society. And the government is to provide the enabling environment/principles/rules, within which they are to operate. But does the state operate outside global norms? Indeed, what seems to have come out is the adeptness of the state in mimicking the interests of the international organizations and 'selling' such to its citizenry. The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) will suffice as an example in this respect.

The crafting of the NEPAD document was a fall-out of the formation of the African Union (AU) which, in turn, was an attempt to merge, more or less, the political aims of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) with its economic aims located in the Abuja Treaty of African Economic Community (AEC) of May, 1994 (http://www.dfa.gov.za/foreign/Multilateral/africa/oau.htm accessed 7th March, 2008, Africa Union, 2008). Fundamentally, the formation of AU followed, simultaneously, with the need to gear Africa for the challenges of the changing world wherein the Cold War had given way to the free-market economy, driven largely by globalization. Consequently, the rhetorics of colonialism, along with the end of apartheid, had to be driven to the background with the assumption that all structures created by colonialism (and apartheid), and the arguments for and against its impact on African structure had subsided. As such, the aim is to create a 'new relationship of partnership between Africa and the international community, especially the industrialised countries, to overcome the development chasm that has widened over centuries of unequal relations' (NEPAD 2001, p.2). Thus, the overall objective, having identified the historical improverishment of the continent, is to locate Africa in the global revolution directed mainly by the Information, Communication and Technology (ICT). From here, virtually every statement is couched within the neo-liberal economic framework. In doing this, ironically, the aim, as in the 1960s, is to 'catch up'/'bridging the divide or gap' with the industrialised world, even for education! This is in spite of the fact that the document claims that Africans will '...determine (their) own destiny and call on the rest of the world to complete (their) efforts'(NEPAD p.2). In other words, received knowledge will continue to determine what is taught in the educational institutions and its change is to be conditioned by what happens in the developed world.

This is not surprising, when viewed against social constructionism, because even the official languages of the AU, though recognizing African languages, currently uses Arabic, English, French and Portuguese-all colonially inherited. By implication, the union of Africans cannot still be dissociated from their colonial forebears. Each constituent unit has to, first, change its opinion to that understandable, depending on the former colonial overlord's language. Consequently, even among the indigenous elites, language has to be ' kidnapped' before development policies can be made and implemented. As such, the limits of social constructionism becomes obvious.

Conclusion

It seems clear, at least in its implication for development in Africa, that as the history of sociology 'pretends' to be changing with different historical epochs, it does not effect any fundamental change in its basis. Though the debate started with the society determining the 'fate' of the individual, thus, perhaps, justifying the unilineal development paradigm recommended, as it were, for African nations, in the World Capitalist System, the recognition of the individual in micro-sociology does not seem to have given much to the individual contribution to the determination of her/his fate. This is because it is always difficult to dissociate the individual from societal norms which govern accepted behaviour. In the definition and redefinition of the situation, sanctions exist which define the limits within which actors can exhibit their behaviour. This dilemma has been well brought out in Giddens' (1984) structuration theory as he exposes the dialectics of the society and the individual. It is in this

same vein that there is a dialectical relationship between Africa and the world capitalist system within which it operates.

Consequently, social constructionism is inadequate for the understanding of social situations, even at the micro-level at which it is expected to be applicable. The recommendations for development have always not only jettisoned the historico-sociological existence of the people, it has also grafted the histories of other nations on the societies of Africa. In this wise, the historical experiences that took centuries to mature to full grown capitalism, which is itself never static, is expected to materialise in Africa within a few decades, the UN decades of development of the '60s and '70s, later termed 'lost decades'. Ironically, as the continent prepares itself to 'catch up', based on these policy recommendations, new ones are foisted on them as the developed nations experience new political and economic situations. This has come out clearly even in the recently recommended SAPs expected to reduce poverty, the basis for which new 'regulations' are being constantly designed and redesigned depending on what has been referred to as contextual experiences. Nonetheless, the basic frameworks/stereotypes already exists to which the nations are expected to adjust. Interestingly, these stereotypes are already being called to question with the financial turmoil in the United States of America. Thus, in a speech by the First Deputy Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2008), the potential transmission channels of contingent risks was acknowledged to reflect the reality of the globally integrated economies. More importantly, is the fact that the IMF now considers the importance of 'thinking the unthinkable' rather than the strait-jacketed economic policies. Part of the 'unthinkable', especially with the recession looming in the US and its effect on other economies, will be the realization of limited rationale for isolated continents in a globalized economy which micro-sociology, in its social constructionist bent, recommends. In the survey findings of Wakeman-Lynn and Drummond (2008), of the IMF African Department, they alluded to the fact that food prices have been increasing in Sub-Saharan Africa due to high prices for fuel and other commodities. These rises, however, has had impact, the survey showed, on food price-related riots in Burkina Faso, Cameroon and Niger. In the same vein, Goretti and Weisfeld (2008) posited that for the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) to succeed, it has to form an Economic Partnership Agreement with the European Union in order to for WAEMU to gain political momentum needed to address the weakness of the current trade regime. Of course, this recommendation is in line with the fact that the nations constituting WAEMU still have long-standing relationship with their former colonial masters, especially the Francophone nations. It is not only the financial aspect of the world economy, therefore, that is integrated but also the social behaviour of the people which the political and economic realities impact upon. As such, the instabilities in developing economies cannot be dissociated from the global arena and so is the behavioural tendencies that respond to these instabilities. Granted, the different nations may respond differently, this also has to be examined against the backdrop of the differential impacts of globalisation in these economies.

By implication, therefore, the history of sociology needs to carry along with it the political and economic as well as psychological and geographic situations affecting bahaviour. This is why sociology was once titled the the 'queen' of the social sciences. The professionalisation, (is it?), that pigeon-holes knowledge in sociology seems to distill from this advantage thus narrowing the ability to fully grasp the understanding of complex human behaviour. The assumption of rationality that pervades in economic thinking, and which is gradually being realised as 'incomplete', should also be noted in sociological analyses as sociologists start to 'think the unthinkable'- once an important part of social thought recognising non-rationality. Indeed, this was what constituted, and perhaps, still constitutes the foundation of the political economy of, the African social sturcture which modernisation theory attempts to change!

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Status And Commitment Of Teachers' Human Resources To Mathematics Teaching In Ogun State Secondary Schools

By

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Abstract

This study determined the quantity, quality and commitment of mathematics teachers to teaching in Ogun State secondary schools. Four hundred mathematics teachers randomly selected from the one hundred public secondary schools across the twenty local government areas of the state participated in the study. A questionnaire, STMQ, designed and validated by the researcher was used to collect data. Data was analyzed using frequency counts, simple percentages and t – test of significance. Findings revealed that while the teachers' quality in terms of professional status and years of teaching experience appeared to be adequate and manageable, the quantity of the teachers across the twenty local government areas actually fell below expectations. The study also found that the Mathematics teachers' commitment to teaching is significantly influenced by their professional status. It was therefore recommended that more qualified mathematics teachers be employed by the state's teaching service commission to strengthen the number of qualified mathematics teachers in the state secondary schools. It was also suggested that some indices of commitment like remuneration, promotion, sponsored training and special allowance be provided for the mathematics teachers in order to improve their commitment to teaching.

Keywords: Commitment to Teaching, Mathematics Teachers, Professional Status, Quality, Quantity.

Introduction

The concept of resources in teaching according to Onwuakpa (1999) means equipment and materials, which the teacher can use to help in the achievement of his lesson's objective. In terms of the human resources required in the secondary school, the most important are the teachers and their pupils. Oloyede (2003) classified teaching resources into two: human and material resources. Human resources indicators include staff strength, teacher quantity, quality, qualification and experience while material resources include physical size of a school, physical facilities, and instructional facilities such as libraries, laboratories and workshops. The availability and adequacy of these resources in schools have been shown to relate significantly

with students' academic performance and teaching effectiveness. Oni (1995) emphasized that the availability and adequacy in quantity and quality of these facilities promote effective teaching and learning activities in schools, while their inadequacy affects the students' academic performance negatively. Obemeata (1995) corroborated this assertion by submitting that if all the factors, which are indicators of school quality are provided, the achievement of the objectives of secondary school education will be high.

A teacher, according to Dada (1999), is someone who has been specially prepared and trained to exercise the profession of teaching by imparting knowledge, skills and other personal qualities to learners in a formal school setting. He is the professional engaged in the development of the learner's head, hand and heart (the 3 H's). The principal role of a teacher is to instruct the students. This involves dissemination of information such as ideas, skills knowledge, values and competencies about a particular subject (Mathematics inclusive) to the students. Teachers are largely responsible for the translation and implementation of educational policies, curricular contents, instructional materials and packages, as well as assessment of students' learning outcomes. The teacher also exerts a lot of influence on the process of socialization and character formation of the students within the learning environment.

The importance of teachers and teacher education has been clearly underscored in the National Policy document which states that "no education can rise above the quality of its teachers" (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). The policy stipulates that the government of Nigeria shall continue to give to teacher education deserved emphasis in all educational planning and development, and that the Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) shall be minimum qualification for entry into the teaching profession. The quantity and quality of teachers produced in Nigeria for Science, Technology and Mathematics Education over the years however have not been able to meet up with the national expectations and needs. Inadequate teacher training and preparation as well as dwindling enrolment of pre-service teachers remain a big issue in the Nigerian educational system (Adeogun, 1999; Maduewesi, 2005).

Teacher-related problems like poor teacher preparation, shortage of qualified and quality Mathematics teachers, poor teachership in terms of commitment, devotion and dedication to duty and poor motivation have been shown to exert considerable influence on students' learning outcomes in Mathematics (Buhari, 1994; Ifamuyiwa, 1999). The researchers pointed out that many of the teachers teaching Mathematics in secondary schools in Nigeria are non-professionals who lack necessary knowledge of elementary principles and practice of education. Nigerian secondary schools are thus faced with the problem of shortage of suitable Mathematics teachers, added the researchers. Generally, teachers in Nigeria (Mathematics teachers inclusive) are not respected like other professionals as a result of the very low status, which the Nigerian society accorded the teaching profession. This had consequently affected the teachers' attitudes to teaching and suitability on the job. Thus, the average Nigerian secondary school Mathematics teacher lacked the motivation, morale zeal, commitment and devotion needed for effective Mathematics instruction in the schools.

However, available literature in this area of study showed that the adequacy or otherwise of teachers and other school resources as they affect students' academic achievement have been the major concern of the researchers. Thus, a study of the status and commitment to teaching of mathematics teachers at the secondary school level requires empirical verification as considered in this study.

Statement of the Problem

This study sought to determine the supply of mathematics teachers, in terms of quantity (number) and quality (professional status and years of teaching experience), in Ogun State secondary schools. The teachers' commitment to Mathematics teaching according to their professional status was also investigated.

Research Questions

This study found answer to the following questions:

1.   What is the distribution of mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools?

What percentages of the available teachers are professionally qualified to teach secondary school Mathematics?

What is the distribution of the available teachers in terms of years of   teaching experience?

Hypothesis

The hypothesis tested in the study is stated as follows:

Teachers' commitment to mathematics teaching in Ogun State secondary schools is not dependent on their professional status.

Methodology

The study adopted a survey research design in carrying out the investigation.

Population and Sample

The target population for the study consists of all the Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools. Five secondary schools were randomly selected from each of the twenty local government areas of the state to ensure uniformity. Four mathematics teachers were then randomly selected from each of the one hundred chosen schools. Thus, four hundred mathematics teachers (220 males and 180 females) participated in the study.

Instrument

The major instrument used for the study was a researcher designed and validated questionnaire named "Status of Mathematics Teachers Questionnaire" SMTQ). The SMTQ had two sections. Section A focused on the teachers' personality data like gender, class(es) taught, qualifications, area of specialization and years of teaching experience. Section B contained twenty-one statements, to which the teachers were requested to respond on a four point Likert rating of Strongly Agree (4), Agree (3), Disagree (2) and Strongly Disagree (1), indicating teachers' commitment to Mathematics teaching. The twenty-one statements consist of 14 positively and 7 negatively framed items. The positive items are scored with the points indicated by the ratings while the scoring was reversed for the negative items.

The SMTQ was subjected to expert's scrutiny for the purpose of ensuring face and content validity. The corrections and suggestions of the experts (two professors of educational evaluation) were used to modify some items in the questionnaire before its use. The reliability

off the SMTQ was also determined by administering it on a sample of 30 mathematics teachers selected from five schools in Ibadan metropolis. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of SMTQ is 0.812, an indication of a high internal consistency of the instrument.

Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed using frequency counts, simple percentages and the t – test of significance at the .05 confidence level.

Results

Research Question 1

What is the distribution of Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools?

Table 1: Distribution of Mathematics Teachers in Ogun State Secondary Schools

Local Govt. Area	Expected No. of Mathematics Teachers (in 5 Schools)	Number of Mathematics Teachers (in 5 Schools)	Percent (%)
Abeokuta North	60	40	66.67
Abeokuta South	60	46	76.67
Ado-Odo Ota	60	30	50.00
Ewekoro	60	28	46.67
Ifo	60	27	45.00
Ijebu East	60	30	50.00
Ijebu Ode	60	42	70.00
Ijebu North	60	36	60.00
Ijebu North East	60	26	43.33
Ikene	60	28	46.67
Imeko Afon	60	26	43.33
Ipokia	60	24	40.00
Obafemi Owode	60	32	53.33
Odeda	60	28	46.67
Odogbolu	60	35	58.33
Ogun Water Side	60	28	46.67
Remo North	60	26	43.33
Sagamu	60	37	61.67
Yewa North	60	38	63.33
Yewa South	60	36	60.00
Total	1200	671	55.92

The result in table 1 revealed that the number of Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools fall below expectations in all the sampled schools across the twenty local government areas. Out of the expected 1,200 mathematics teachers, just 671 (representing 55.9%) teachers were found teaching the subject in the schools. In addition, 9 local government areas (comprising 45 schools) had less than 30 mathematics teachers in their schools while only

2 local government areas (just 10 schools) had 42 Mathematics teachers in their schools. None of the local government areas recorded the maximum number of mathematics teachers (60) in their secondary schools in the state.

Research Question 2

What percentages of the available teachers are professionally qualified to teach secondary school Mathematics?

Table 2a: Distribution of Mathematics Teachers in Ogun State Secondary Schools According to Qualification

Qualification	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
NCE (with Mathematics)	93	23.25
OND/NCE (other disciplines)	37	9.25
HND/B.Sc. (without education)	100	25.00
B.Sc. (Ed), B.Ed (Mathematics)	142	35.50
B.Sc. (Ed), B.Ed (other disciplines)	28	7.00
Total	400	100.00

The result in table 2a revealed that about 36% of the teachers had B.Sc. (Ed) or B.Ed in Mathematics, only 7% had B.Sc. (Ed) or B.Ed in other subject disciplines, 25% had HND or B.Sc. (without education), about 23% had NCE in Mathematics while 9% had OND or NCE in other disciplines. The summary of the teachers' distribution according to their professional status is presented in table 2b.

Table 2b: Distribution of Mathematics Teachers in Ogun State Secondary Schools

According to Professional Status

Mathematics Teachers	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Professionally Qualified	235	58.75
Non Professionals	165	41.25
Total	400	100.00

The result in Table 2b revealed that about 59% of the available Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools are professionally qualified to teach Mathematics while the remaining 41% are the teachers who teach Mathematics in the schools but are not professionally qualified to do so.

Research Question 3

What is the distribution of the available teachers in terms of years of teaching experience?

Table 3: Distribution of Mathematics Teachers in Ogun State Secondary Schools According to Years of Teaching Experience

Teaching Experience	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Less than 5 years	103	25.75
Between 5 & 10 years	170	42.50
More than 10 years	127	31.75
Total	400	100.00

The result in table 3 revealed that about 43% of the mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools had taught Mathematics for between 5 and 10 years, about 32% of the teachers had put in more than 10 years of mathematics teaching while the remaining 26% are relatively young in the system with less than 5 years experience of teaching mathematics in the schools. That is, about 74% of the available Mathematics teachers in the schools have been teaching Mathematics for more than 5 years.

Hypothesis

Teachers' commitment to mathematics teaching in Ogun State Secondary Schools is not dependent on their professional status.

Table 4: Difference in Mathematics Teachers' Commitment to Teaching According to Professional Status

Mathematics Teachers	N	Mean	S.D.	d.f.	t	Sig.
Professionals	235	66.44	9.08	398	2.85	0.005*
Non Professionals	165	62.62	7.11			
Total	400					

* revealed significant t at .05 confidence level

The results in table 4 revealed a significant outcome (t = 2.85, P < 0.05). This implied that the difference between the mean commitment to mathematics teaching scores of the professionally qualified and the non-professionally qualified mathematics teachers is statistically significant at the 0.05 confidence level. As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected. The professional teachers with a higher mean commitment score of 66.44 had better commitment to mathematics teaching than the non-professional teachers whose mean commitment score is 62.62. Hence, teachers' commitment to Mathematics teaching in Ogun State secondary schools depended on the professional status of the teachers.

Discussion

The findings of the study revealed that the quantity of mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools is not low. More than 50% of the expected teachers are in the schools teaching Mathematics. There is however need for improvement. In the twenty local government areas of the state, only two had more than 70% of the expected/required mathematics teachers in their schools. This finding corroborates the submission of Oyedeji (1996) that there is shortage of human and material resources needed for effective teaching of Mathematics. The study found out that in Ogun State secondary schools there are more professionally qualified Mathematics teachers than the non-professionals. This finding contradicts the earlier findings of Buhari (1994) and Ifamuyiwa (1999) that many secondary schools' mathematics teachers are non-professionals. In addition, the study found that majority of the teachers teaching Mathematics in Ogun State secondary schools (about 74%) had taught Mathematics at that level for more than 5 years. This implied that majority of the Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools are experienced teachers. It thus appears that the quality of Mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary schools (in terms of professional status and years of teaching experience) is adequate. This situation is not however true for all the schools covered in the study.

Another finding of the study is the significant difference found between the commitment of professionally qualified mathematics teachers and their non-professional counterparts to mathematics teaching. The professionally qualified teachers are more committed to their jobs than the non-professionals. This outcome may be attributed to the exposure of the former teachers, during their training, to elementary principles and practices of education and the methodology of teaching Mathematics in schools. The qualified teachers have come to believe in what they are doing and are prepared to put in their best as against the non-professional teachers who are still hopeful of better jobs somewhere else, the so called greener-pasture, as soon as the opportunity presents itself.

Recommendation

From the results obtained in this study, it appears that the quantity of mathematics teachers in Ogun State secondary school is high in a few local government areas but fell below expectations in all the twenty local government areas of the state. It is hereby recommended that the state's teaching service commission should employ more qualified mathematics teachers especially in the local government areas where the number falls very much below expectations. The non-professional mathematics teachers in the state should be encouraged to attend in-service training that would ensure that they become professional mathematics teachers. Necessary incentives such as proper and timely remunerations, special allowances, sponsorship to seminar, workshops and conferences and regular promotions could be provided for mathematics teachers in the state in order to improve their job commitment and thus help to improve students' performance in Mathematics in Ogun State secondary schools.

One limitation of this study is its scope. It is hereby suggested that a national study in this area be carried out in order to ascertain the quality and quantity of the human resources available for mathematics teaching in Nigeria. This will ensure that the objectives of secondary school education in Nigeria are achieved.

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Teaching/Learning Materials and the Development of Students' Thinking Skills: The Case of Pre-service Teacher Training in Ghana

By

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Abstract

The goal of any meaningful education is to develop the cognitive skills of learners (Bruner, 1960) and make them think critically. According to Dewey (1966), schools as learning institutions should seek to develop the learners' abilities to think. This can be achieved by placing thinking at the core of the educational process (Fisher, 1998). The school curriculum and other educational materials should aim at fostering problem solving and inquiry skills in learners. However, most materials like test items, curriculum, and textbooks used in learning institutions reflect lower level thinking (Bloom, et. al., 1956, Hummel& Huitt, 1994; Black, 1980; Holden, 1992; Risner, Nicholson & Webb, 2000). This qualitative single case study used content analysis to look at the science, mathematics and social studies curriculum, textbooks and external tests used in pre-service teacher institutions in Ghana to see how they reflect the various thinking levels.

KEY WORDS: Teaching-learning materials, thinking, pre-service teacher, Ghana

Introduction

The development of thinking in schools is very crucial as society shifts from an industrial model to a learning society (Costa, 2008). Swartz and Perkins (1994) indicate that in this age of technological challenges and multicultural world, good thinking is key to success and personal advancement. For this to be achieved, schools must prepare learners to "exercise critical judgment and creative thinking …" (Swartz & Perkins, 1994; p. 1). This requires an educational establishment that develops individuals with knowledge, problem-solving skills, cognitive processes, intellectual disposition and the habit to engage in lifelong learning (Costa, 2008). Such skills do not come to learners accidentally. They need to be nurtured by teachers but research has shown that most teachers are inadequately prepared for such a task (Acheampong, 2001; Ministry of Education, 1994). According to Wideen, Mayer-Smith and Moon (1998), traditional teacher education programs do not engage their pre-service teachers in reflective thinking. Pre-service teacher institutions should therefore put the development of students'

thinking at the core of their proceedings but certain factors like ineffective testing and overloaded curriculum inhibit the development of thinking (Beyer, 1988). It is essential to investigate this phenomenon in a particular context and setting to determine how they hold back the development of thinking skills in pre-service teachers.

Methodology

The study was conducted at Assai Hills Teacher Training College (a pseudonym). It is a 3-year pre-service teachers' training institution for high school graduates leading to a teachers' certificate in Diploma in Basic Education (DBE). The selection of the site for the study was based on the fact that it is representative of teacher training institutions in Ghana. It recruits students from all the ten regions of the country, it is coed, it is both science and liberal arts bias and trains teachers for both programs A and B (Program "A" teacher training colleges specialize in training teachers to teach at the lower primary level (Primary 1-3) and upper primary (4-6), while Program "B" institutions train teachers for the upper primary (Primary 4-6) and the Junior Secondary School - JSS 1-3). The data collection strategy used was documents analysis. The documents included curriculum, textbooks, and test items from mathematics, science and social studies. These were analyzed using content analysis. The analysis was based on lower-higher level thinking dichotomy (Bloom et. al., 1956) and described using simple percentages. In this study, lower level thinking encompasses Knowledge and Comprehension while higher level thinking includes application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The data were presented using narrative-logic approach. The researcher combed through the literature to find the various verbs used to describe the various cognitive levels. The curriculum had only its objectives analyzed while the questions at the end of each unit/chapter of the textbooks and each test item in the 2004 and 2005 external examinations written by the Institute of Education at University of Cape Coast were analyzed.

Literature Review

The goal of education should be intellectual development (Bruner, 1960) and this begins with the curriculum. However, the traditional curriculum does not encourage learners to view themselves and the world from multiple perspectives. A curriculum that ensures intellectual development creates a climate of inquiry in the classroom. At its core is problem solving and practical work (Nisbet, 1993), planning, evaluating, decision making and teaches learners to use knowledge even after school (Nisbet, 1990). The realization of these begins with the objectives of the curriculum. However, Acheampong (2001) notes that objectives in science and mathematics curriculum in pre-service teacher institutions in Ghana emphasize lower level thinking. Lower level thinking in teaching learning materials is not peculiar to the curriculum; most test items emphasize lower level; knowledge and comprehension (Bloom et. al., 1956; Hummel & Huitt, 1994; Black, 1980; Marzano & Costa, 1988; Ole Takona, 1999). Besides, textbooks are also found to portray lower level thinking in subject areas like mathematics (Nicely Jr., 1991), reading skills development (Hoeppel, 1980) and in science (Risner, Nicholson & Myhan, 1991). Notwithstanding, Risner, Nicholson and Webb (2000) have found that some social studies textbooks emphasize higher level thinking skills. This phenomenon does not promote students' thinking. As Stiggins, Rubel, and Quellmaiz (1988) put it, if we want to boost the thinking skills of learners, our instruction and materials must be conducted and planned in the same manner.

Findings And Discussions

Curriculum Objectives

The curriculum discussed in this research is for the first and second years since the third year class is an out program. The curriculum for the three subject areas were divided into two sections; methods and content. The first year curriculum is devoted to content while the second year concentrates on methods with the exception of mathematics which combines content and method in year two. Semester one and two of year two is devoted to methods of primary and junior secondary school teaching respectively. Each of this curriculum had four sections; namely the unit, topic, subtopic and suggested duration. The curricula listed only the topics and subtopics with no suggested activities for achieving the objectives. The objectives analyzed below were the broad objectives. The following are the individual analysis:

Mathematics

The mathematics curriculum had a total of 25 objectives for the first and second years for both content (12) and methods (13). On the whole, 27.88% of the objectives expressed lower level thinking while 72.12% indicated higher level thinking. A breakdown of this showed that 25% and 30.77% of the objectives in content and methods were lower level thinking respectively, while 75% of the content objectives and 69.23% of the methods objectives were higher level thinking. A critical look at the higher level thinking objectives showed that application which was in the majority. About 77.65% of the content and 55.56% of the methods were higher level thinking objectives were application. 66.66% of the total number of higher level thinking objectives was application and out of the 25 objectives, there were analysis (3), synthesis (2) and evaluation (1). The higher number of application objectives is not a good sign of the mathematics curriculum emphasizing higher level thinking since most authors classify it as lower level (Bloom, et. al., 1956) or intermediate level thinking (Stronge, Tucker & Hindman, 2004).

Science

Generally, the thinking skills level reflected in the science curriculum was slightly skewed toward higher level thinking. There were 19 stated objectives for both content and methods of which nine (56.25%) were higher level thinking and seven (43.75%) lower level thinking. Further analysis indicated that 44.44% of the content objectives were lower level and about 55.56% higher level. In the methods section, 71.43% were geared toward lower level thinking while 28.57% were higher level thinking. A second look at the various higher level objectives indicated that in the content section only 20% of the objectives were application and 75% above application in the methods section. The analysis showed that higher level thinking was more in the methods section where learners were supposed to apply the teaching methods and techniques they have acquired in their training than in the content section.

Social Studies

The social studies curriculum for the first two years had a total of 19 objectives, of which 10 were in content and nine in methods. An analysis of the objectives showed that they were skewed towards higher level thinking. 10 of the stated objectives (52.63%) were higher level thinking while nine (43.37%) were lower level thinking. A second look at the data on content-methods basis showed that most of the higher level thinking objectives were in the content area. About 70% of the content objectives were higher level and 30% lower level. Contrary, six (66.67%) of the methods objectives were lower level and four (33.33%) higher level. The most commonly used words were know (4 times), acquire (4 times) and create (3 times). Looking further, it was

realized that the social studies curriculum has more objectives above application than science and mathematics curricula. It had six (60%) of the higher level objectives above application.

Test Items (Test Questions)

Examinations play an essential role in pre-service teacher preparation. It is the main evaluation tool used in certifying graduates. Students' assessments are made up of 40% internal examinations and 60% external examinations organized by the Institute of Education of the University of Cape Coast. The test items discussed in this research was for the years 2004 and 2005 for the three subject areas. In each of the years the original (first) papers were analyzed. For easy analysis, the two years' test items for each subject were analyzed together.

Mathematics

The 2004 and 2005 mathematics test items analyzed in this section was for both methodology and content. The content paper was made up two sections A and B. Section A items were of simple problems for students to solve without necessarily showing how they arrived at the answer while Section B involved solving complex problems by showing detailed step-by-step process of arriving at the answer. Students were to answer all questions in Section A and four questions from Section B. The methods paper also had two sections. Section A required simple answers. Students answered four questions from Section B. This involves a lengthy writing of at least two pages. An analysis of the test showed a total of 75 items. The content area had 14 (18.67%) and 61 (81.33%) higher level and lower level thinking items respectively. In the methods section, there were a total of 34 test items of which 3 (8.83%) tested higher level thinking and 31 (91.17%) tested lower level thinking skills. In the content section, find (LLT) was used about 38 times (50.66%) followed by draw (5 times) and simplify (7 times), while the methods section, describe was used 9 times (26.47%), explain (7 times) and show (4 times). Only three test items in the methods category tested higher level thinking skills (How which is level 3). In general, about 86.25% of the test items in mathematics (method and content) for the two years tested lower level thinking skills while 13.75% tested higher level thinking skills.

Social Studies

The findings from the analysis of the social studies content and methods test items for the two years were as follows. Each paper comprised two sections (A and B). Test items in section A involved completing statements, writing a sentence or two and sometimes selecting from multiple answers while test items in section B involved detailed writing. This was the same for the methods paper. An analysis of the test items showed that there were a total of 56 questions in the content and 17 in the methods. Out of the 56 content questions, 50 (82.28%) tested for lower level thinking and six questions (10.72%) tested for higher level thinking (HLT) of which only six questions were synthesis while the remaining were in the lowest category of the spectrum. The most frequently used verbs in the content area were state (11), explain (10), list (7) and what (6) while explain (5), what (4), and write (3) were in the method section. In general, test items in social studies for the two years tested for lower level thinking (98.78%).

Science

The science content test was made up of four sections. Candidates were expected to answer all questions in section A and one each from sections B, C, and D. Questions in section A required simple answers while those in the other three sections required students to respond with at least two or more pages of writing. The methods paper consisted of two sections and candidates were expected to answer all questions in section A and 4 questions from section B. Section A test

items required short answers while those in section B required detailed writing. The analysis showed that there were a total of 86 content questions and 43 methods questions. On the whole, the questions were skewed towards testing lower level thinking. In the content area, 83 test items (96.51%) were lower level and 3 (3.48%) tested higher level. The most commonly used question types were what (18 times), state (13 times), give (10), and describe and name (7 times each). The three higher level questions were all application. The methods section had a total of 43 test items of which 4 (9.30%) were higher level and 39 (90.69%) were lower level. The most frequently used type questions were what (14 times), write (10 times), and state (8 times). Overall, approximately 94.51% of the test items were lower level.

Textbooks

Textbooks influence the content and strategies used in teaching/learning and in most cases form the focal point in curriculum and/or course design. It plays a major role in enhancing the thinking skills or cognitive development of learners. The criteria for selecting these books included the following: the book must be recommended by the institution, liked by both teachers and students and had questions or students activities at the end of each unit/chapter. Every single question in the content and method textbook was analyzed. For double-barrel questions, they were treated as two separate questions and analyzed as such. The following were the analysis:

Social Studies

The social studies textbooks analyzed were the Environmental and social studies for teacher training institutions in Ghana published by Salt and Light + Mantdik Press, Ghana in 2006 (content) and Teaching social studies in basic schools published by the Ghana Education Service, Ghana in 2001. The content textbook was written by three renowned social studies experts and teacher educators while the methods book had two authors. There were 13 and 10 units in the content and methods textbooks respectively. The analysis showed that there were 58 questions in the content and 32 in the methods textbooks. This totaled to 90 questions which indicated that there was an average of four questions (3.91%) per unit. Further analysis showed that 96. 88% of the method and 82.75% of the content questions were lower level, while 3.12% of the methods and 17.24% of the content questions reflected higher level thinking. The most commonly used higher level thinking questions in the content textbook were analysis while application was the most commonly used in the method textbook. What questions (31%) were the most frequently asked questions in the methods textbook while discuss type questions were the most common (17%) in the content textbook. In summary, the questions in the social studies textbooks for both method and content emphasized lower level thinking; 89.81% lower level and 10.18% higher level.

Mathematics

The mathematics textbooks used in the study were Mathematics for Diploma Colleges (content) published in 2006 by Ash Metro Printing Press, Kumasi, Ghana and Teaching basic mathematics for college education (2006) published by Learner's Publishers, Kumasi, Ghana. These books were selected because they were written with the syllabus for the new teacher program as a guide. The content textbook had 29 chapters while the methods on had 18 chapters. There were a total of 288 questions in the content and 141 questions in the methods book. An analysis of the cognitive level of the questions in the textbooks indicated that in the content area, there were 194 lower level thinking questions about 67.36% and 94 higher level questions about 32.63%. The type of question with the highest frequency in the lower level thinking is find which is 102 about 52.51%. Other question types with high frequency include

how many/long (18 times), simplify (14 times), what (12 times), and write (11 times). Further analysis revealed that calculate was the must commonly used – 23.4% (22 times) among the higher level thinking type questions. In the content area, there were a total of 141 questions of which 129 about 91.48% were lower level and 12 about 8.51% were higher level questions. The frequencies of the questions in the lower level thinking were describe (47 times) and explain (22) state (14 times) and give (12 times). Illustrate had the highest frequency in the higher level thinking category. Generally, the questioning levels in these two textbooks were skewed towards lower level thinking; 20.57% higher level thinking and 79.43% lower level thinking. This finding is collaborated by earlier study by Nicely Jr. (1991) in mathematics textbooks.

Science

The two books analyzed here were the Methods of teaching elementary school science by the Center for Continuing Education of University of Cape Coast in 2005 (methods) and Integrated Science 1 (content) written by three authors and published by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in 2004. The method textbook had 225 pages while the content had 499 pages. The method book was meant for distant education teacher students for a diploma certificate but it is liked by students of initial pre-service teacher institutions. There are trial questions at the end of every lesson and sample examination questions at the end of the book. All these questions were included in the analysis. The picture portrayed in the science textbooks was not different from that in the social studies and mathematics textbooks. There were a total of 171 questions in the content textbook and 153 in the methods. In the content textbook, there were 12 (7.02%) and 159 (92.98%) higher level thinking and lower level thinking questions respectively. The higher level thinking questions were from application and analysis categories. The most frequently asked questions required students to explain (39 times), state (20 times), and describe and draw (13 times) and what (10 times). The method textbook portrayed a similar pattern. There were 14 (9.15% higher level thinking questions and 139 (90.85) lower level questions. The most commonly asked questions were in the area of what (45 times), list (18 times), state (17 times), give (15 times) and explain (13 times). In totality, there were 8.08% higher level thinking questions and 91.92% lower level thinking questions in the science textbooks which is consistent with previous studies by Risner, Nicholson, & Myhan (1991) in science textbooks.

Table 1: Summary of thinking levels portrayed in science, mathematics and social studies curriculum, tests and textbooks

Thinking levels	Curriculum	Test	Textbook
Lower level Thinking (LLT)	39.67%	90.85%	87.05%
Higher Level Thinking (HLT)	60.33%	9.15%	12.95%

Fig. 1: Bar chart summary of thinking levels in curriculum, tests and textbooks in science, mathematics and social studies.

LEVELS OF THINKING IN PRE-SERVICE CURRICULUM, TEST, AND TEXTBOOKS IN SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS, AND SOCIAL STUDIES
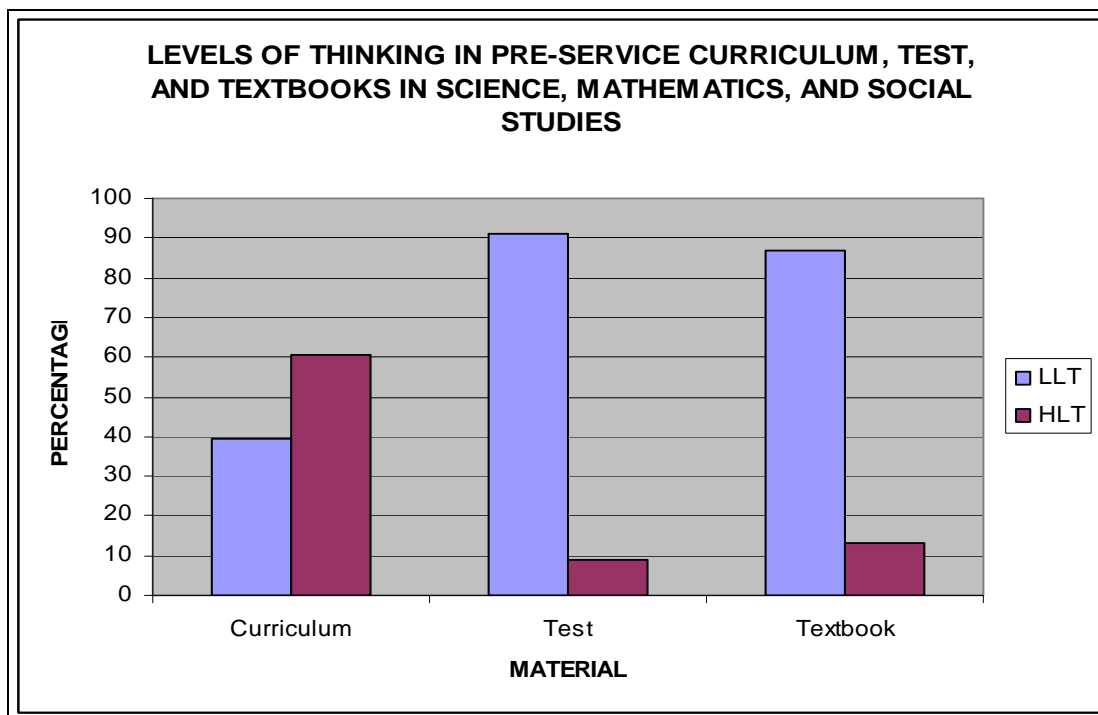
Conclusion

To develop students' learning, there is the need to develop quality materials that help students construct knowledge of their own. VanTassel-Baska (2008) indicates that the field of material development should take a second look at existing materials to ensure that they are of high quality and positively impact students' learning. The study has revealed that there was a gap between the curriculum objectives and what is portrayed in other learning materials in terms of developing students thinking. This gap can be bridged by embarking on rigorous staff development (teachers) on materials development that enhance students' thinking and use of teaching strategies anchored on cognitive development. There is also the need to train independent textbook and test developers with the focus on higher level thinking. Finally, extensive research needs to be conducted in the development of materials and effective teaching methods aimed at stimulating learners' thinking at all levels of education in the country

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Vernacular as a Resource for the Implementation of Guidance & Counselling Curriculum in Botswana

By

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Abstract

This study investigated the use of vernacular as a resource for teaching Guidance and Counselling in Botswana secondary schools. The sample comprised 48 teachers from ten randomly selected secondary schools in Botswana. Qualitative research design was used to conduct the study while in-depth interview, focus group discussion and observation of guidance lesson were used as the methods of data collection. Findings of the in-depth interviews, which were later confirmed by the focus group discussions, showed that the teachers preferred to combine lecture, students' class presentations and class discussion to teach non-controversial issues while they used debate to discuss controversial issues. These were modern teaching methods; they seemed oblivious that vernacular methods may be used to enhance teaching and learning of Guidance and Counselling. Furthermore, the interviews, focus groups and the observed lessons showed that teachers and students switched from English to vernacular for ease of making clarifications. Other findings were that teachers opined that it was necessary to professionalize the teaching of Guidance and Counselling especially in terms of skilful application of vernacular resources like proverbs and folklore to the teaching of Guidance and Counselling.

Introduction

The goal of education is to transform the self and to expand the mind through the process of internalization and the application of previously acquired information to subsequent real life situations (Live Alive, 2005). In pursuit of this goal, various countries develop and implement their respective National Policy on Education; with the view to enhance sustainable development. An example is that Botswana's educational development may be attributed to two major landmark policies, the National Policy on Education (NPE) and the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE), (Tau, 2007). Particularly through the RNPE, the government of Botswana identified seven key issues considered to be vital to development of education; the most relevant to Guidance and Counselling among this is effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and work. In response to this key issue, the Botswana Ministry of Education advocates a two- prong approach to the development of the school child: The school curriculum should offer cognitively focused (examinable school subjects) as well as offer affectively focused curriculum.

Guidance and Counselling is an affective curriculum initiative in Botswana which stipulated that Guidance and Counselling should be taught as a school subject and that guidance services should be offered in schools to promote students' overall development (Botswana Government, 1994). As a school subject, it is time-tabled and taught as stated by Policy guidelines on Guidance and Counselling (Botswana Government, 1996).

Statement of the Problem

The mandate that Guidance and Counselling affective-based curriculum should enhance overall adjustment and sustainable development in students requires that students should acquire knowledge and life skills offered in this curriculum to the extent that they can apply them in their daily living. Language is pivotal to acquisition of knowledge and life skills. Therefore, lack of proficiency in the language of instruction puts the students at the risk of inadequate acquisition of the knowledge and skills. To avert this risk, students should freely express their thoughts and clarify their issues which they find difficult to understand or to express.

Botswana language policy approved English language solely as the language of instruction in all school subjects except one; Setswana, the local lingua franca. Yet being foreign, students in particular are grappling with learning the language. This means that the students have to process information received in Guidance and Counselling classes in a language in which they are not proficient; while Setswana the language they are more proficient in, is considered unofficial during Guidance lessons. By implication, English language is accorded a higher status than the students' vernacular, a phenomenon which has been termed linguistic genocide (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2004). Explaining the adverse effects of this phenomenon, Skutnabb-Kangas argued that English –only submersion programmes are attested as the least effective educationally for minority students. He argued that this experience fosters monolingualism and it is responsible for linguistic genocide. He suggested that, in keeping with The Hague recommendations regarding the educational rights of national minorities, bilingualism and multilingualism should be encouraged.

To ease the concomitant difficulties of monolingualism in the Guidance and Counselling classroom thereby enhance students' understanding and application of these concepts. Apparently therefore, it seems expedient to engage students' thinking skills in the resources of the local lingua franca, like proverbs, folktales, myths and legends; even if this might require translating them into English or using their equivalents.

Yet another issue is that there is scarcity of professionally trained personnel who could proficiently teach the subject with the help of Setswana linguistic resources. From the inception of the teaching of Guidance and Counselling in Botswana till date, mostly, the subject is being taught by non-professional –volunteers. Some are teachers without any professional training whatsoever in Guidance and Counselling who volunteered to teach it and simultaneously teach the subjects in which they specialized. Others are teachers with Minor Degree or an elective course in Guidance and Counselling in their First Degree or at teacher colleges. Others are teachers designated by the Botswana Ministry of Education as Senior Teacher Guidance due to their demonstration of interest in implementing guidance and counselling programs; these may or may not have any iota of training in Guidance and Counselling. Overall, the entire scenario is one in which Guidance and Counselling is taught mostly by teachers who lack training on how to teach Guidance and Counselling.

Theoretical Model

The theoretical underpinnings of this research are the humanistic and multicultural perspectives of counselling, and bilingualism. The humanistic perspective advocates that learning should be phenomenological while the multicultural perspective asserts that language is the vehicle of culture, everyone's language should be respected and because school results are better when children are taught in their mother tongue; children should be taught in their mother tongue (Committee on Culture, Science and Education, 2006).

Beyond these explanations, bilingualism asserts that the bilingual approach enhances deeper understanding of concepts, and it makes thinking and expression of oneself better (Live Alive, 2005). Furthermore, Live Alive argued that when children continue to develop their abilities in two or more languages, they gain a deeper understanding of language and how to use it effectively. As such, as they have more practice in processing language, especially when they develop literacy in both, they are able to compare and contrast the ways in which their two languages organize reality. Children who think in their mother tongue may learn better, faster and most importantly internalize learning. If applied to the Botswana scenario, it may be beneficial to apply Setswana proverbs, folktales, myths and legends to explain certain Guidance and Counselling concepts which may enhance their understanding and future applications .

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to find out if vernacular (Setswana) is being applied in teaching of Guidance and Counselling in Botswana secondary schools.

Research Questions

The following research questions were asked in order to attain the purpose of the study:

What language was used by the teachers to teach Guidance and Counselling?

What methods did the teachers use to teach Guidance and Counselling?

What is the teachers' attitude towards the use of Setswana to teach Guidance and Counselling in Botswana schools?

Methods and Procedures

The study used qualitative research design. The study sample comprised 48 teachers, [ten Senior Guidance Teachers, 4male, 6 females in each school]. These were government approved coordinators of the school guidance team. Only the Senior Teacher Guidance taught in a particular school (nineteen classes); therefore, only this Guidance teacher was interviewed and only the Senior Teacher Guidance (STG) counsellor was available in another school for interviewing. Therefore altogether, ten STG, 16 teachers (two from each of eight schools) were interviewed. There were four Focus Group discussions (comprising of members of the school guidance committee). These ranged in size from a minimum of four to a maximum of eight persons.

For purposes of triangulation, data were collected with three data collection methods: In-depth interview, focus group and observation of guidance and counselling lessons (three lessons were observed from three of the ten schools). The researcher observed the unique protocols for obtaining permission to collect data per school. Therefore,   in some schools, informed consent

of the Head or the Deputy Head of school had to be obtained prior to obtaining that of the Senior Guidance Teacher while in others, the informed consent of the Senior Guidance Teacher sufficed. The Senior Guidance Teachers introduced the researcher to the teachers. The researcher explained the research intention, the data collection procedures and emphasized that the information would be kept confidential; except for research purposes. The researcher read out the questions that would be asked during the in-depth interview and the focus groups and explained that the intent of observing the lessons was to obtain information which may help to improve on the teaching of Guidance and Counselling. It was emphasized that participation was voluntary, and one may withdraw from participating as one dims fit one would not be liable. Then, teachers who agreed to participate in the study were enlisted.

As the personnel officially designated by the Ministry of Education to teach guidance classes, and as the Coordinator of the school guidance team, the researcher regarded the ten Senior Guidance Teachers as the primary source of data. Therefore, on obtaining their informed consent, they were all subjected to the in-depth interview. In addition, the sixteen other teachers who were volunteer teachers of the subject were similarly interviewed. Focus group interviews were conducted in four (The numbers of persons per group were eight, five, four and four persons per group). Information which were obtained during the in-depth interview and the focus group discussions were recorded as much as possible verbatim, by the researcher in the researcher's journal. Three Guidance lessons which were conducted by teachers who had volunteered to be observed were also observed and the data which were obtained were similarly recorded in the researcher's journal.

Data Analysis

Guided by Grounded theory, the themes that emerged from the data which were obtained were identified (Malott & Herrmandorfer de Zaid, 2007). This method is used in qualitative research to assess recurring patterns of responses.

Findings

Guided by the research questions, the following themes were obtained from the in depth interviews, corroborated by the focus group discussions and later by the classroom observations:

What language was used by the teachers to teach Guidance and Counselling?

Information which was received from the in-depth interview, focus group discussions and the three lessons which were observed showed that, in line with the Botswana Language policy, the teachers used English language to teach Guidance and Counselling. Simultaneously however, as acknowledged by some teachers, "some teachers and students expressed themselves in Setswana. Students did if "they found it difficult to express themselves in English" while teachers did to make clarifications in order to improve students' understanding of explanations.

What methods did the teachers use to teach Guidance and Counselling?

All the 48 teachers preferred to combine lecture with student class presentation and discussion as their teaching. For the presentation, students were divided into groups. Each group discussed their given topic and they made conclusion on the issues. Afterwards, their representative presented their views on their allocated topic to the class. A few teachers asked students to 'research' (find information on the topic from home, including to survey opinions of people in their community about the topic. Out of 16 teachers interviewed in the ten schools, only four teachers from three schools use proverbs and folktales to drive their point's home. For example,

a teacher used folktale to teach the concept of Time Management. These three teachers used proverbs from time to time.

Interestingly, these methods were not consciously used. Explaining, the teachers stated that they "just used common sense" ... "we did whatever occurred to us".

3. What is the teachers' attitude towards using Setswana to teach Guidance & Counselling in Botswana schools?

All participants of the study supported the Botswana language policy which stipulates that English is the sole language of instruction for Guidance and Counselling, just like other subjects except Setswana. On the contrary, they opined that Setswana should be used for clarification of issues. Therefore, they noted that there was need to accommodate switching between English and Setswana. The current linguistic setting in a Guidance class was expressed by a teacher as follows: "Botswana is cosmopolitan, it has a multiplicity of ethnicity and language ... sometimes there could be a foreign student in the class; Setswana should not be used (instead of English) as the medium of instruction ...students should be allowed to express themselves in Setswana if they have difficulty and when they want to make clarifications".

It seemed that majority of the teachers were oblivious of the idea that they could tap and apply linguistic resources like proverbs and folklore to enrich learning in the Guidance and Counselling class room. It appeared that it was the interview question which awakened this consciousness in them. This was to the extent that they pined after having more information on the issue. In addition, they eagerly stated that, they would appreciate to be professionally trained to teach Guidance and Counselling. They desired to learn "how to apply Setswana proverbs and folklore to the teaching of Guidance and Counselling". They agreed that Setswana has a wealth of language resource which may enhance sustainable development in students.

Discussion, Conclusions & Recommendations

The finding of this study that both teachers and students switched over from the officially approved language of instruction (English), to Setswana for clarification purposes, when students had difficulty in clearly expressing themselves tends to confirm the argument of Makinde and Olabode (2006) that children prefer to express pertinent issues in their mother tongue. The fact that people switched from the official to the unofficial language of instruction tends to confirm the argument of McCarty (2003) that, humans do not easily relinquish their local language for a foreign 'national' one, rather, they perceive expression of themselves in their mother tongue as their birthright. Expatiating, McCarty stated that this phenomenon may be because it is through our mother tongue that we come to know, represent, name and act upon the world.

There is growing emphasis that Guidance and Counselling should enhance students' development (Hui, 2003). Development requires that the developing person understands the curriculum content. Vernacular items like proverbs and folktales are linguistic features with innuendos which are usually applicable across cultures may enhance knowledge beyond classroom application. They may enhance gaining insight into concepts as well as enhance application to their respective experiences as they interact with people in the society. It is note worthy that both the students and the teachers are already switching from English to Setswana whenever they found it necessary to do so. Due to the fact that they consider this practice pragmatic, and it may be necessary to officially permit the switch.

While the teachers approved of the switch, they did not approve that Setswana should be elevated to being an official language of instruction in a Guidance lesson. They were concerned that the foreign students might lose out. To cater for this, these foreign students could be made to state their linguistic equivalents of the Setswana proverbs and folktales. Generally proverbs have universal application; they are cost effective in helping the speaker to communicate. A teacher or a student could narrate a folktale learnt from Setswana , in English Language An example is the Setswana folktale that denounces late -coming: Why the hare has a short tail is because other animals were punctual to meeting in which tails were distributed , the punctual animals took the long tails and the hare had to take only the left over short tail. The notion of equivalents supports the argument that both the first and the second language may complement each other (McCarty, 2003). Equivalents may improve students' performance in English, especially essay writing, thereby improve students overall academic adjustment and development. It may also improve class discussions. Explaining the process, Malott and Herrmandorfer de Zaid (2007) reported that class discussions are an essential tool for fostering personal growth and awareness. To this extent, class discussion should enhance student's understanding.

Beyond equivalents, role play may also be used to promote equitable learning between local and foreign students in guidance class rooms. Explaining, Malott and Herrmandorfer de Zaid (2007) noted that "role play" enhances classroom experiences and facilitates self-understanding.

Another finding was that Guidance and Counselling was "not being taught by professionals". This may explain the difficulty teachers had in recognising that Setswana was a repository of methods which could be used to enhance learning. When asked to list the methods that they taught. Guidance and counselling with; findings showed that they "just applied the same methods" they had been trained to use in their subjects of specialization. Only one among all the teachers who held a Diploma in Setswana, one who was currently enrolled in a Bachelors degree program in Counselling, asserted that she from time to time, applied Setswana language resources to teach Guidance and Counselling. There seemed therefore a pervasive need for teachers to be professionally trained on methods of teaching Guidance and counselling.

Guidance and Counselling should groom the emotional development of teachers and students. As a subject, primacy should be given to venting one's feelings and thoughts in an anxiety free lesson atmosphere. Especially the lessons which were observed, students showed that they needed to express themselves, clarify concepts and organize their thoughts. Their behaviour affirmed the argument of Makinde and Olabode (2006) that teaching effectiveness requires that the local language be used. This result tends to affirm the earlier argument of McCarty (2003) students are already conversant with their vernacular prior to enrolling in school and after lessons they speak the language at home therefore, the use of vernacular to for teaching should be encouraged while linguistic imperialism should be discouraged.

Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are being made:

As a school subject, as much as possible, Guidance and Counselling should be taught by professional Guidance counsellors.

Teachers of Guidance and Counselling should be trained on the application of indigenous linguistic features like proverbs and folktales to the teaching of Guidance and Counselling.

In cosmopolitan countries that approve that only English language is the sole official language of instruction, teachers should be encouraged to use English language equivalents of the vernacular proverbs and folklore, and their equivalents in the language of the foreign students in order to ensure that learning is inclusive.

In order to promote the status of Guidance and Counselling, it may be necessary to examine the subject.

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