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# EDITORIAL

Psychology is our only business and only trade. In this edition of our journal, Ife PsychologIA Volume 22 Number 1, 2014 we have brought fresh challenges to students with different interests and concerns, current thinking and research to present, we elucidate past standards and try to exceed. We hope you enjoy the great mix and results.

We have twenty-three very brilliant articles from our usual terrain which the world space/global village.

Thank you for your unfailing support

Sincerely Yours,  
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**What he wants is not what she wants:  
Using VIE theory to test manager and worker motivation in Ghanaian SMEs**

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The objective of this study was to explore differences in motivation of employees in Ghanaian SMEs using Vroom's VIE theory. Responses were received from 150 managers and workers in 14 SMEs. To test the hypotheses of differences between managers and workers on the various scales, the independent samples t-test was used. The study found statistically significant differences between the valence scores for the managers and workers. No differences were found between managers and workers in terms of expectancy, instrumentality and motivation in general. The results suggest that managers and workers have differences in value of anticipated outcomes. Identifying these differences and motivating managers and workers accordingly could lead to higher productivity and increasing profitability of SMEs.

Key words: Motivation; VIE Theory

Research has shown that motivated individuals are job involved, derive considerable satisfaction and perform at higher levels than less motivated employees (Sekaram, 2004). The result tends to be reduced absenteeism, less tardiness and reduced turnover. Employee motivation in Africa remains a thorny issue in management and government policy making. Keeping employees motivated may be achieved through strategies such as increasing salaries, benefits or offering educational opportunities – but it is important to recognize that individuals are motivated differently and it is often a complex issue to know what motivates who. Factors that motivate managers might not be the same as workers, factors that motivate women may not be the same for men, and factors that motivate younger women may not be the same for older women. Expectancy theory of motivation (also known as VIE Theory), originally developed by Vroom (1964), is a theory that explains the processes individuals use to make decisions on various behavioural alternatives relating to their work. According to the theory, motivational force

for a behaviour, action, or task is a function of three distinct perceptions: expectancy, instrumentality and valence. Expectancy theory generally is supported by empirical evidence and is one of most commonly used theories of motivation in the workplace (Heneman & Schwab, 1972; Mitchell & Biglan, 1971). A principal attraction of VIE theory is that it offers opportunity to examine factors such as what people truly value (or claim they value) in the context of outcomes from the work or employment situation.

Despite the body of knowledge available, motivation in Africa is not sufficiently researched and there are hardly any studies on VIE in Africa. Further to this there is no known study or work done on motivation in the SME sector in Ghana using a theory such as VIE. This scholarly gap is a major motivation for this study. This research is also motivated by the need to examine differences in motivation between managers and workers. The central research question therefore is: are there differences in motivation between

managers and workers in SMEs based on the VIE theory?

### **Research objective**

This study has the following objective: to examine whether there are differences in motivation between managers and workers using VIE theory. This objective is driven by the desire to contribute to theory testing in Africa by using an established motivation theory; address the issue of sparse literatures on SMEs in Africa by using an SME sample and offer pointers to address a major issue in economic development – the proper and informed management of SMEs. The results and recommendations of this study may assist SMEs to implement employee motivation more effectively and offer researchers much needed empirical basis for further work.

### **Over view of the SME sector in Ghana**

In the last few decades, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) have been a major driving force for worldwide economic growth, employment and prosperity. The SME sector can be classified into micro enterprises, small enterprises and medium enterprises. The dynamic role that SMEs play in developing countries as engines through which the growth objectives of developing countries can be achieved has long been recognized. The link between the SME sector and economic development is perhaps one of the most topical issues in the contemporary development arena. According to Essilfie (2009), SMEs are considered to be of high importance in ensuring a friction-free adaption to economical, technological and social changes. Most leading economies in the world today depend on this class of companies as important contributors to the increase of living standards, productivity and competitiveness. SMEs play a significant role in the socio-economic development in both development and underdeveloped countries. Global experience demonstrates that a dynamic local SMEs sector is the basis for fast-growing economies. SMEs and informal enterprises, account for over 60

percent of GDP and over 70 per cent of total employment in low income countries, while they contribute about 70 per cent of GDP and 95 per cent of total employment in middle income countries.

The sector employs a substantial amount of the labour force in Ghana and has experienced higher employment growth than macro and large scale enterprises. In Ghana, available data from the Registrar General's Department (2007) indicates that 90 per cent of companies registered are micro, small and medium enterprises. This target group has been identified as the catalyst for the economic growth of the country as they are a major source of income and employment. Similarly, the role of SMEs is well documented in other countries such as Japan, Korea and other developed economies in terms of creating employment, reducing poverty and increasing the welfare of the society.

### **Definition of SMEs**

There is no universal definition of small enterprise (Back, 1995). In theory and practice, there are many terms used to refer to SME including "small business", "small enterprise", "small firm", "small company", "small and medium enterprise", and "small and medium-sized enterprise". They are all somewhat different in meaning but distinguishing differences among these terms is not the purpose of this study. In this study all these terms used as if they have the same meaning. Although there are several definitions of small and medium enterprises, these definitions are basically classified into two types: those based on qualitative characteristics and those based on quantitative characteristics of small and medium enterprises (Back, 1995). Adopting a qualitative approach American authorities based on four key factors identified by the 1947 Committee of Economic Development (CED) define a small firm to be one which: has independent management, has capital supplied and ownership held by an individual or small group, has an area of operation which is localised in one community, and is small in relation to other firms in the industry. In the UK, the qualitative definitions adopted by the

Bolton Committee (1971) identified three major characteristics of small business: a small firm is one that has a relatively small share of the market, and is unable to influence the price or quantity of goods or servicing; a small firm is managed by its owner or part owner in a personalized way, and not through the medium of a formal management structure; a small firm is independent in the sense that it does not form part of a larger enterprise and that the owner-managers should be free from outside control in making their principal decisions. Quantitative approaches (McMahon et al, 1993) define small and medium enterprises using measures such as: number of employees, sales revenue or turnover, total assets and net worth.

Despite these quantitative and qualitative measures, variations still exist across economic sectors and from country to country. For example, an enterprise, which is small in one industry such as garment manufacture, may be regarded as large in another industry such as trading or tourism. Similarly, an enterprise, which is considered small by the American standards, may be relatively large in an African country. As contained in its Industrial Statistics, the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 1992) considers firms with less than 10 employees as Small Scale Enterprises and their counterparts with more than 10 employees as Medium and Large-Sized Enterprises. An alternative measure used for defining small and medium enterprises is the value of fixed assets in the organisation. However, the National Board of Small Scale Industries (NBSSI) in Ghana applies both the fixed asset and number of employees criteria. Steel & Webster (1990) and Osei et al (1993) in defining Small Scale Enterprises in Ghana used an employment cut off point of 30 employees to indicate Small Scale Enterprises.

SMEs in Ghana can be categorized into urban and rural enterprises (Kayanula & Quartey, 2000). The former can be subdivided into 'organised' and 'unorganised' enterprises. The organised ones tend to have paid employees with a registered office

whereas the unorganized category is mainly made up of artisans who work in open spaces, temporary wooden structures, or at home and employ little or in some cases no salaried workers. They rely mostly on family members or apprentices. Rural enterprises are largely made up of family groups, individual artisans or women engaged in food production from locally grown crops. The major activities within this sector include soap making, fabrics, clothing and tailoring, textile and leather, village blacksmiths, tin-smiths, ceramics/pottery, timber and small scale artisanal mining, local beverages production, food processing, bakeries, wood furniture, electronic assembly, agro processing, chemical based products and mechanics (Kayanula & Quartey, 2000).

Based on all the above, this study adopted both quantitative and qualitative criteria for choice of SMEs: 2-200 employees; owner-manager or founder entrepreneur still very much in management; localized operations and/or single city base – even if products have a national reach.

### **Work Motivation**

According to Sekaran (2004), motivation is reflected in actual work behaviour and it signifies the level, direction and persistence of effort expended in work. Level signifies the quantum of effort put forth, direction refers to the choice made among available alternatives to expand the effort and persistence denotes the tenacity with which the individual perseveres in the job, even against odds. This is consistent with Passer & Smith (2004) and Robbins & Judge (2009) who explain that the concept *motivation* refers to a process that influences the direction, persistence and vigour of goal-directed behaviour. The key elements in all these views of motivation are intensity, direction and persistence. Applied in the work situation, motivation implies the willingness of individuals and teams to exert high levels of effort to attain organisational goals and to satisfy individual and team needs (Coetsee, 2003). Extrinsic motivations are externally induced impetus to action. Extrinsic motivated behaviours are actions that

result in the attainment of externally administered rewards, including pay, material possessions, prestige and positive evaluations from others. Extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect, but it may not be enduring. Intrinsic motivations are self-generated impetus toward particular course of action. These factors include sense of responsibility, desire for autonomy and scope, work that is perceived to be interesting, challenging and which offers developmental opportunities.

### **Worker Motivation in SMEs**

Keeping workers satisfied on the job is an important human resource activity in the small company. For the small company, the heart of the motivation process lies in ensuring and maintaining smooth and harmonious working and personal relationships among its workers. This may be in part due to the simplicity of structure and processes in small firms. This implies the effective management of the human relations and social processes. Hence, a supportive type of management style would be most appropriate in the small firm. Incentives are used to reward outstanding performance and to sustain efficiency in work processes. However, small firms suffer from a range of motivational challenges including high cost of the payroll, turnover and competition from larger firms which offer job seekers both structure and opportunity (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Edlund & Nielsson, 2007).

### **Expectancy/VIE Theory**

Expectancy theory, as first developed by Vroom (1964), is a process theory of motivation. It has held a place in the study of work motivation (van Eerde & Thierry 1996). The theory is a decision making model of motivation that explains how subjective preferences for valued outcomes, probability of obtaining said outcomes through appropriate behaviour and beliefs that outcomes would be forth coming impact work motivation. Expectancy theory is based on the assumption that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired and valued outcomes (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). Expectancy theory identifies

three factors, which play an interactive role in motivation. The first effort-performance (E-P) concerns the individual's perception that effort is positively correlated with performance. The second factor is performance-outcome (P-O) expectancy, also referred to as instrumentality. It concerns a person's expectation that his or her outcomes are closely tied to performance. The third factor is called valence, relates to the value an individual places a particular reward. These three constructs of VIE theory: Expectancy (belief that within a particular setting, effort and performance will be rewarded); Instrumentality (a near operant link between performance and reward) and Valence (the value the individual personally places on outcomes or rewards – people place different levels of preference on outcomes such as pay, recognition, promotion, task autonomy, responsibility, status symbols and so on) are the psychological factors which undergird motivation. Although much research has been carried out to test the theory (Bergmann & Scarpello, 2001; van Eerde & Thierry, 1996), none of these studies appear to have taken place in Africa, suggesting that research in Africa may assist to show the viability or otherwise of the theory in non-western settings. Based on the literature and the particular objective of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H1: There will be a significant difference in expectancy between manager and worker motivation;

H2: There will be a significant difference in instrumentality between manager and worker motivation;

H3: There will be a significant difference in valence between manager and worker motivation;

H4: There will be a significant difference between manager and worker motivation

### **Method**

This study adopted a survey approach. Babbie (2004) advocates the survey as a useful strategy in descriptive and exploratory purposes. It allows the collection of quantitative data which

facilitate use of descriptive and inferential statistics.1

*Sample*

The samples were drawn from SMEs in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. In order to test the differences as hypothesized, a purposive sampling (Silverman, 2000) of managers and workers in 14 SMEs was undertaken. 20 SMEs were approached to

participate, 14 agreed. Two hundred (200) questionnaires were sent to the fourteen (14) SMEs. The researcher received 150 questionnaires. This represents a response rate of 75%. Babbie (2004) argues that a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting. The SMEs that took part in this research study are shown in Table 1 below:

**Table 1 Participating SMEs**

<b>SME</b>	<b>Sector</b>
Kinapharma	Manufacturing/sales
Kama Industries	Manufacturing
Busy Internet	ICT
Teledata ICT Ltd	ICT
Citi Investment Ltd	Financial
Beige Capital	Financial
Adanko Construction	Construction
Pacesetters Educational Complex	Education
Ideal College	Education
Agrimart Products	Agricultural Sales
Airport West Hotel	Hospitality
Kasapreko Company Ltd	Manufacturing
All Needs Super Mart	Retailing/Distribution/Sales
Tasty Treats Catering Services	Hospitality

*Data Instrument*

A self-administered likert scale questionnaire was used. The questionnaire consisted of 23 questions, and 7 background questions. The questions were based on VIE theory and the hypotheses as follows:

- Valence (H3) - Items 1-8
- Instrumentality (H2) - Items 9-12
- Expectancy (H1) - Items 13-19
- Overall Motivation (H4) - Items 20-23.

**Analysis and Findings**

The aim of the study was to test the differences in motivation between managers and workers in SMEs and to gain better understanding of manager and worker motivation generally. Descriptive as well as inferential statistics (t-test) were used.

*Respondent Demographics: Age & Gender*

The age distribution of the participants is shown in Table 2 below where the

participants are classified into six age groups. Fifteen (15) of the respondents (representing 10%) were aged up to 20 years with 64 of them (42.77%) aged between 21 and 30 years. 31 of the respondents (20.7%) were agreed between 31-40 years and those aged 41-50 years made up 15.3 percent. 4 of the respondents (2.7%) did not indicate their age. The gender distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 2. The majority of the participants are males (n=93) representing 62% of the sample. Females (n=57) represent 38% of the sample.

*Table 2  
Gender Distribution of Respondents by Age*

Age of Respondent	Sex of Respondent		Total
	Male	Female	
10-20	8	7	15
21-30	33	31	64
31-40	22	9	31
41-50	17	6	23
51-60	9	3	12
61-70	1	0	1
Missing	3	1	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>150</b>

**Education**

The data show that 23.8% of respondents have secondary level education while 3.5% have PhD qualification. Those with HND qualification made up 24.7% of the respondents while those with first degree made up the largest group: 42.7% of the sample. 15.4% of the respondents also had a second degree.

**Economic sector**

The respondents were drawn from various economic sectors as can be seen in Table 3. These concluded manufacturing 22, (14.7%), ICT, 22 (14.7%), education (12%), construction (8.7%), financial services (19.3%) of the respondents. The manufacturing, ICT and construction industries have a dominant male representation while wholesale and retail trade had a higher female representation although the overall number of females is about half that of the males.

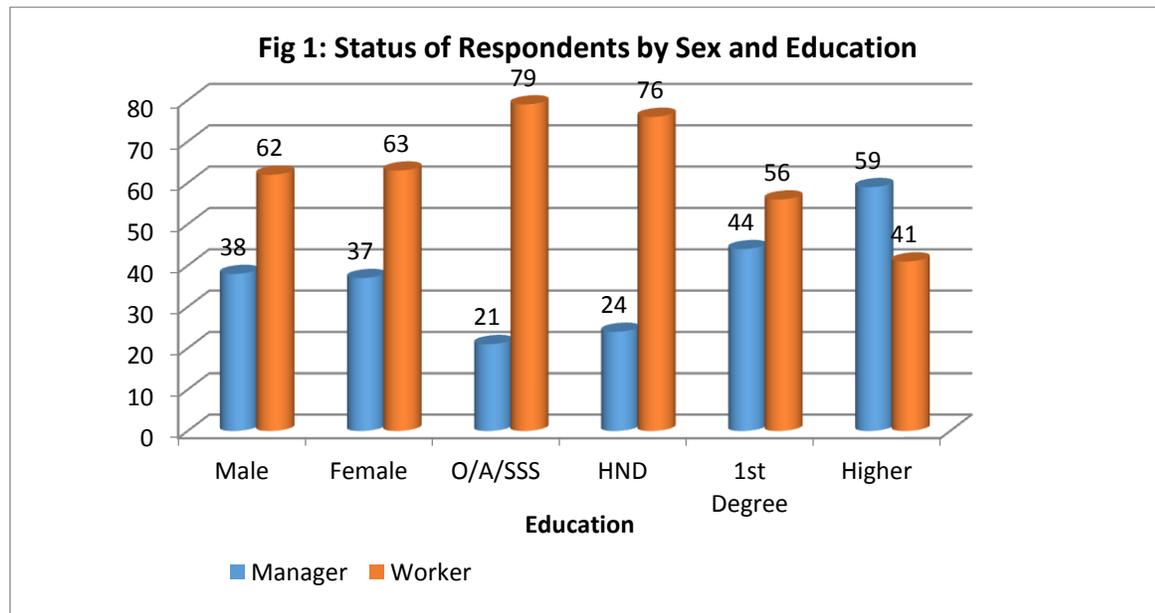
**Organizational status**

The sample comprise 56 (37.3%) managers and 94 (62.7%) of workers. The distribution of the status of respondents by sex is shown in Fig. 1. In terms of education, Fig 1 reveals that the proportion of managers increase with high education.

*Table 3*

*Economic Sector from which SMEs were drawn*

Economic sector	Gender		Total
	Male	Female	
Manufacturing	15	7	22
ICT	17	5	22
Education	10	8	18
Construction	10	3	13
Wholesale and Retail Trade	7	10	17
Financial services	18	11	29
Agriculture	9	7	16
Catering/Restaurant/Hotel	7	6	13
Total	93	57	150



**Tenure of Work**

While 9% of the respondents have worked with their present organisation for less than 1 year, only 1% of them have worked with their current organisation for 20 or more years. 48% have worked with their current organisation for between 1 and 5 years and 25% have worked with their present organisation for between 6 and 10 years. This suggests that people tend to work in

SMEs for fewer years. This phenomenon confirms Edlund & Nielson’s (2007) position that large companies tend to attract and better retain employees in comparison with SMEs perhaps due to the fact that the larger firms have more money, brand recognition, and benefits. Edlund & Nielson’s (2007) position is that the employees in SMEs leave for better salaries and benefits; perhaps also because more

people are committed to their professions rather than their organisation (Corcoran, 2003).

### Results

Table 4 below shows the distribution of the scores on Valence, Instrumentality, Expectancy and Motivation for the managers and workers. In terms of Valence, the mean for the managers was 29.82 with a standard deviation of 5.683 while the mean for the workers was 27.03 with a standard deviation of 6.67. For instrumentality, the managers had a mean score of 15.41 with a standard deviation of

3.53 while the workers had a mean score of 14.62 with a standard deviation of 3.18. For expectancy, the managers had a mean score of 25.80, with standard deviation of 5.63; and of the workers had a mean score of 24.30 (standard deviation = 6.22). Motivation, on the other hand, Managers had a mean score of 16.14 (standard deviation = 3.549) and the workers had a mean score of 15.68 (standard deviation = 4.373). These results show that the managers had generally higher scores on all the subscales as compared to their counterparts classified as workers.

Table 4  
Summary Results of Respondents on the VIE and Motivation Scales

Attribute	Position	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
<b>Valence</b>	Manager	56	29.82	5.683	.759
	Worker	94	27.03	6.666	.688
<b>Instrumentality</b>	Manager	56	15.41	3.531	.472
	Worker	94	14.62	3.176	.328
<b>Expectancy</b>	Manager	56	25.80	5.626	.752
	Worker	94	24.30	6.223	.642
<b>Motivation</b>	Manager	56	16.14	3.549	.474
	Worker	94	15.68	4.373	.451

### Hypotheses testing

The following hypotheses were tested, using a significance level of .0125:

H1: There will be a significant difference in expectancy between manager and worker motivation;

H2: There will be a significant difference in instrumentality between manager and worker motivation;

H3: There will be a significant difference in valence between manager and worker motivation;

H4: There are differences between factors influencing manager and worker motivation

The main objective of the study was to test the difference between managers and workers on the VIE and motivation scales. The results of the multiple t-tests are shown in Table 5 below. For valence, the calculated t-value was 2.615 with an associated p-value of 0.010 (d.f = 148). Hence H3 is supported. There is a statistically significant difference between the valence scores for the managers and workers. From table 4.8, it is clear that

managers had significantly higher scores on the valence scale as compared to the workers. All other three hypotheses were rejected since the p-value in each case is greater than the significance level of 0.125.

Table 5  
Test of Hypotheses – Inferential Statistics;  
\*significant at 0.0125 level

Attribute	T	d.f.	P
<b>Valence</b>	2.615	148	.010*
<b>Instrumentality</b>	1.419	148	.158
<b>Expectancy</b>	1.485	148	.140
<b>Motivation</b>	.670	148	.504

### Discussion

The first hypothesis of the study suggests that there will be significant difference in expectancy between managers and workers. According to Vroom (1964), expectancy is the perceived probability that effort will lead to good performance. Variables affecting the individual's expectancy perception include self-efficacy, goal difficulty and perceived control. Usually the individual only focus

on one expectancy value and generates it upon the effort and performance relationship. The best way to establish expectancy is throughout feedback (Bergmann & Scarpello, 2001; Muchinsky, 1993). The first hypothesis tests whether managers and workers perceive that effort will lead to good performance. The mean and standard deviation obtained indicate a mean score of 25.80 for managers (standard deviation = 5.63) and a mean score of 24.30 for workers (standard deviation = 6.22). The P-value of the t-statistic from the VIE and motivation Scales (Table 4.7) on expectancy indicates a value of 0.140. This indicates that there are no significant difference between managers and workers on perception that effort will lead good performance. The hypothesis is rejected since the p-value in this case is greater than the significance level of 0.125. This suggests that there are no significant differences in expectancy between managers and workers in SMEs. The implication – based on the mean values – is that both managers and workers perceive that putting in much effort on the job will lead to good performance of their employees.

The second hypothesis considers whether there will be a significant difference in instrumentality between managers and workers. Vroom (1964) explains that instrumentality exists in the employee's mind and is defined as the relationship between the perceived degree of performance and the outcome attainment. It also tests whether work performance is directly linked to the rewards they get, whether both managers and workers are aware that the effort and good performance they put in may lead to certain rewards or not. The P-value of the t-statistic from Table 4 on instrumentality indicates a value of 0.158. This is an indication that there are no significant difference between managers and workers on instrumentality beliefs. The hypothesis is thus rejected. An important underlying assumption of VIE theory is that it is important for the employee to perceive that they have impact on the outcome of their work (Bergmann & Scarpello, 2001). The mean lends support to the notion that both managers and workers perceive that it

is important to be able to affect the outcome of their work. According to Bergmann & Scarpello (2001), it is important to see the relationship between effort and outcome.

The only hypothesis that was supported was H3 which posited a difference between manager and worker valence – thus exploring the possibility of differences between the factors influencing manager and worker motivation. This was supported with a t statistic of 2.615 and *p* vale of 0.010, showing significance. Clearly there is something to be said for differences in what motivates people. Atkinson (1964) defines motivation as the contemporary influence on direction, vigor and persistence of acting; while Vroom (1964) defines motivation as a process governing the choice made by an individual among alternative forms of voluntary activity. The importance of this finding is that it confirms the need for organisations and in this case SMEs to explore the varied contemporary influences on people's motivations from the perspective of what holds salience and valence for them.

The fourth hypothesis explores the possibility of differences between manager and worker motivation. The P-value of the t-statistic from the VIE and motivation Scales indicates a value of 0.504. This suggests that there are no significant differences between managers and workers in terms of overall motivation.

### **What are the possible implications of this study?**

There are important implications for human resource management practice, especially in the SME sector, when empirical findings as obtained by this research become available. Only Hypotheses 3 was confirmed, suggesting that perhaps on this limited evidence, the tendency to anecdotally assume that there are or there will always be differences between workers and managers in their motivations may on occasion be quite inappropriate.

#### *Actions to improve SME productivity*

This study indicates that the managers and workers have differences in valued

outcomes. Identifying these outcomes and motivating managers and workers accordingly could lead to higher productivity of SMEs. This also has implications for longevity of tenure. We noted earlier that only 1% of the sample had worked in their current organisations for up to 20 years. We also noted that over 60% tend to stay in the SME sector for less than 5 years. This has been attributed to better conditions offered by larger firms. However as noted by the findings of this research, perhaps what is necessary is a differentiated regime of preferred outcomes.

#### *Implications for training operators of SMEs*

It may be necessary for owners, managers and entrepreneurs to be helped to better appreciate how managers and workers in SMEs differ thus avoiding stereotypical assumptions of difference or similarity.

#### *Expectancy and Instrumentality are psychological*

The SME sector needs to recognize that the psychological power of expectancy and instrumentality, do not appear to differ between managers and workers. This means that organizational practices which compromise these or which are directed to benefit say managers more than workers may inadvertently lead to similar levels of disengagement from both managers and workers. In other words a differentiated regime to deal with expectancy and instrumentality may not be necessary.

#### **Further Research**

This study was designed to examine the differences in motivation between managers and workers in SMEs. Further research would be needed to draw in a larger pool of SMEs; also, the theory could be tested outside the SME sector. For example an expatriate sample could be compared with a Ghanaian sample, and employees of larger and/or state institutions may also be studied. From an African perspective, given the theoretical clarity of the VIE model, it lends itself to comparative studies with samples drawn from several African countries.

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## **Influence of Psychological Factors on Self and Perceived Stigma and The Efficacy of Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in Symptoms Reduction among Mentally Ill Patients**

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Majority of people who might benefit from mental health care either opt not to pursue it or do not fully adhere to treatment regimes once begun. They choose not to pursue mental health services because they do not want to be labeled a "mental patient" or suffer the prejudice and discrimination that the label entails. This study was conducted to investigate the influence of self esteem, locus of control and self efficacy on self and perceived stigma among mentally ill patients. Also, to examined the efficacy of cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) in symptoms reduction. The first stage of the study as a cross sectional study which adopted expost-facto design. The sample size is one hundred and thirty (130 patients) with mean age of forty (16-65) and the standard deviations .456. For the intervention stage, the researcher adopted quasi-experimental design with ten (10) participants. The instrument for data collection was Rosenberg self-esteem scale, Perceived self-efficacy scale, Craig locus of control scale, Self stigma scale and perception of stigmatization scale. The result indicated that self esteem has a significant effect on self-stigma ( $t=5.35$ ,  $df=118$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Also, there was significant effect of self-efficacy on patients self-stigma ( $t=2.80$ ,  $df=118$ ,  $p<.001$ ). In addition, there was a significant interactive effect of self-efficacy and locus of control on perceived stigma ( $F(1,116)=9.54$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The study was able to establish the efficacy of Cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) in improvement of self-esteem ( $t=-8.67$ ,  $df=18$ ,  $p<.001$ ), self efficacy ( $t=-9.16$ ,  $df=18$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and reduction of self stigmatization ( $t=8.24$ ,  $df=18$ ,  $p<.001$ ). It is thereby concluded that self-esteem and self-efficacy significantly influence self-stigma. Also, there similarly, CBT also led to the reduction in self stigmatization among the patients. It is therefore recommended that certain psychological factors have been implicated in the level at which mental patients will perceive or stigmatize themselves. In addition, Cognitive behavioral therapy should be employed among mental health practitioner as a intervention package for reduction of self stigma among mentally ill patients.

\*Keywords: Self-Esteem, Self-Stigma, Perceived Self-Efficacy, Locus Of Control.

Mental illness is a serious health problem in spite of the availability of effective pharmacological and psychosocial treatments (Sirey J., et.al, 2004). In Nigeria, health indicators show that 20-30% of the general population has one form of mental or psychological problems (WHO, 2001). Gureje (2009) in a study he supervised found that five per cent of Nigerians, who are 18 years and above, suffer from "prominent mental disorders". Many of these mentally ill patients suffer silently, many suffer alone, some suffer stigma,

shame, exclusion, inhumane treatment, and more than we care to know death. Mental health problems remain a hidden burden, resulting from the consequences of stigma that lead to humiliation, isolation and unemployment. For the individual sufferer; mental illness completely dominates every aspect of life. Feelings about oneself, capacity for activity and all areas of social relationship are affected, including the family, marriage, sexual activity, work, reaction,

management of finance, relationship with the law and public life (C. Ekwume, 2005). Many of the negative consequences of mental illness at the individual level are often a result of the stigma associated with the illness. The living conditions of people with mental illness do not only depend on the severity of the illness, but also on the level of their acceptance in the community. Despite recent treatment advances, those suffering from mental illness face a considerable stigma that limits access to treatment and hinders their full integration into society (Dikerson F.B et al, 2002).

Stigma was conceptualized as an attribute that is deeply discrediting and makes the person carrying it different from others and of a less desirable kind. Stigma is a social construct that describes people in terms of distinguishing characteristics or marks and devalues them as a consequence (Jones et al, 1984; Crocker et al, 1998, Biernat & Dovidio, 2000; Dovidio et al, 2000). It is the negative evaluation of a person as tainted or discredited on the basis of attributes such as mental disorder, ethnicity, drug misuse or physical disability (Goffman, 1963). There is no doubt that such prejudice has substantial negative social, political, economic and psychological consequences for stigmatized people (Dovidio et al, 2000). They may feel unsure of how 'normal' people will identify or receive them (Goffman, 1963) and become constantly self-conscious and calculating about what impression they are making (Rush, 1998).

Parker and Aggleton (2003) regarded stigma as a social process in which people out of fear of the disease want to maintain social control by contrasting those who are normal with those who are different. Weiss & Ramakrishna J (2004) described stigma as a social process, experienced or anticipated, characterized by exclusion, rejection, blame, or devaluation that results from experience or reasonable anticipation of an adverse social judgment about a person or group. This judgment is based on a widely endorsed stigmatizing ideas may internalize these ideas and believe that they are less valued because of their psychiatric illness (Link, 1987; Link & Phelan, 2001; Ritsher, Otilingam, & Grajales,

2003). It includes "buying into" a set of stereotypes: "That's right; I am weak and unable to care for myself.", 'I will probably never have a life like everybody else, get married, have kids, have a house (Reidy, 1993). Studies examining this relationship among people with various mental illnesses in general (Link et al, 2001; Ritsher and Phelan, 2004) and with schizophrenia in particular (Knight et al. 2003; Berge and Ranney, 2005) have found strong empirical confirmation of the impact of stigmatisation. They are challenged by the stereotypes and prejudice that result from misconceptions about mental illness and as a result are robbed of the opportunities that define a quality life: good jobs, safe housing, satisfactory health care, and affiliation with a diverse group of people (Yen CF, 2009; Watson, 2007; Tsang HW, 2009).

Diagnostic classification frequently used by clinicians and social workers may intensify this stigma by enhancing the public's sense of "groupness" and "differentness" when perceiving people with mental illness (Corrigan, Patrick W, 2007). However, patient's perception of his/her condition may be negative or positive. The valency of such perception will ultimately affect the person's behaviour and attention towards the illness, (Vauth, R, et.,al,2007). Differences in perceived stigma have also been reported and factors which account for differences remain undetermined.

Certain psychological variables such as self-esteem, locus of control, self-efficacy and socio-demographics have been implicated as possible factors for the differential manifestation of self and perceived stigma from the angle of a mentally ill patient. Sequel to this, a better understanding of the psychological and social barriers to prognosis, such as self and perceived stigma, may enable us to identify important targets for clinical intervention to improve outcome.

The term Self-efficacy is used more often in literature; it has its origins in Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1986). It is a global feeling of being able to accomplish most tasks. Individuals with low self-efficacy and demoralization has been shown to be associated with failing to pursue work or independent living opportunities at which people might

otherwise succeed (Link, 1987). Mentally ill patients however may transfer this psychological weakness into their program or fail to pursue it.

Locus of Control refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. People with an external locus of control believe that powerful others, fate, or chance primarily determine events. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that events result primarily from their own behaviour and actions. The internals have better control of their behaviour and tend to exhibit more social centered behaviours than externals and are more likely to attempt to influence other people; they are more likely to assume that their efforts will be successful. They are more active in seeking information and knowledge concerning their situation than do externals.

Self-esteem is operationalized as the evaluation of personal self-worth of an individual which could either be positive or negative. Research has shown that people with mental illness often internalize stigmatizing ideas that are widely endorsed within society and believe that they are less valued because of their psychiatric disorder (Link & Phelan, 2001). As a result, help seeking is often viewed as a threat to their self-esteem because seeking help from another is often internalized by the individuals as being inadequate or inferior and may lead the person to decide not to seek help, even when experiencing psychological distress (Fisher, Nadler, & Whitcher-Alagna, 1983; Nadler & Fisher, 1986).

Although the onset of mental illness often has a dramatic impact on the psychological functioning and personality of the individual, the perception of the illness has been identified as a significant factor in treatment seeking [Gureje et al., 2004]. According to him, "the large Nigerian study shows that the proportion of persons with mental illness receiving no treatment in the previous 12 months for all cases is 90 per cent and for serious cases, 82 per cent." "It takes an average of six years for most persons to receive treatment," he said, adding that

consequences of mental illness included disability, mortality, suffering and unemployment and he further emphasized that the negative attitude of Nigerians to mental health is a major issue that needed to be looked into.

In addition, non-adherence to treatment has frequently been noticed among people with mental illness. Perceived stigma associated with mental illness and individuals' views about the illness play an important role in adherence to treatment. Clinicians' attention to psychological barriers to adherence, such as perceived stigma, may enable us to identify important targets for clinical intervention to improve medication adherence and ultimately reduce under-treatment (Sirey J., et al., 2001).

Furthermore, relapse, which is a recurrence of the illness after treatment, is a real threat even with good drug compliance (Gureje et al., 2003). A better understanding of the psychological and social barriers to prognosis, such as self and perceived stigma, may enable us to identify important targets for clinical intervention to improve therapy and ultimately reduce relapse rate.

### **Hypotheses**

1. Individual patient who score low on self-esteem will significantly report higher self-stigma than individuals who score high on self-esteem.
2. Individual patient who score low on self-efficacy will significantly report higher self-stigma than individuals who score high on self-efficacy.
3. Individuals with low self-efficacy and external locus of control will significantly report higher self-stigma than individuals with high self-efficacy and internal locus of control.
4. Self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, level of social support from family and diagnosed illness will jointly and independently predict self and perceived stigma.
5. Patient's self-esteem will increase significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention.

6. Patient's self-efficacy will increase significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention.
7. Patient's level of self-stigma will reduce significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention.

## **Methods**

### *Design*

The study was a cross sectional survey. The research adopted an ex-post facto design. This was used because the researcher did not actively or directly manipulate any of the variables involved in the study. For the intervention stage, the researcher employed quasi-experimental design, with the use of control, and self-esteem while the dependent variables are self-stigma and perceived stigma.

### *Participants*

One-Thirty (130) patients from in and out-patient clinic participated in the study. There were 35 female and 85 male in the final sample. The mean age was 40 years (range 16-65 years) and the Standard deviation of .456. Most of these participants were single (61.7%), 35.8% were married, and 2.5% divorced. 55% of the patients are Yoruba, 30% are Igbo, 2.5% are Hausa while 16.7% are minority tribes in Nigeria.

### *Instruments*

The Instruments used for data collection of this study are Demographic Measures, Self-esteem scale, Perceived Self-efficacy scale, Locus of Control scale, Self-stigma scale, Perception of Stigmatization scale, Intervention Stage (Cognitive-Behavioural Therapy)

The Demographic Measures has a set of questions for the background information of the respondents. This includes their age, gender, marital status, ethnic group, religion, educational status and employment background, diagnoses, duration of illness, level of family support.

The Self-esteem scale used in this study is the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (1965). The scale consists of 10 items that were to represent a continuum of self-worth statements ranging from statements that are endorsed by individuals with low self-

esteem to statements that are endorsed only by persons with high self-esteem. The response format ranges from Strongly Agree (6), Generally Agree (5), Somewhat Agree (4), Somewhat Disagree (3), Generally Disagree (2), Strongly Disagree (1). Olley (2001) obtained a coefficient alpha of 0.94 and test-retest reliability of 0.74 among high school students. Akinkunmi (2008) obtained coefficient alpha of 0.79 among refugees. In this study the scale has achieved cronbach alpha ranging from .53 to .51. The split-half coefficient is .72.

The Perceived Self-efficacy scale was developed by Matthias Jerusalem & Ralf Schwarzer (1992). It was created to assess a general sense of perceived self-efficacy with the aim in mind to predict coping with daily hassles as well as adaptation after experiencing all kinds of stressful life events. The scale consists of 10 items. It was scored on a response format ranging from (1) not at all true (2) hardly true (3) moderately true (4) exactly true. In this study the scale has achieved Cronbach alpha ranging from, 64 to .60. The split-half coefficient is .71.

The Locus of Control scale was developed by Craig et.al. (1984). It is a 17 items scale with two dimensional scales measuring external and internal locus of control. The scale was scored on the Likert scale response format ranging from Strongly Agree (5), Generally Agree (4), Somewhat Agree (3), Somewhat Disagree (2), Generally Disagree (1), Strongly Disagree (0). The scale has achieved the reliability range of 0.78 and above overtime. In this study the scale has achieved Cronbach alpha ranging from .83 to .89. The split-half coefficient is .69.

Self-stigma was referring to the subjective stigma reported by the participants. It is operationalised as the beliefs and feelings held by a mentally ill patient about issues relating to mental health problem. Self-Stigma was measured by Self-stigma scale developed by the researcher. This scale contains 20 items with a response format ranging from Strongly Agree (5), Agree (4), Undecided (3), Disagree (2), Strongly disagree (1). The researcher carried out a pilot study to standardise the scale using forty patients. Inter-item correlation and factor analysis were analysed on the responses. 14 items were finally retained

after the analysis. The internal consistency for the scale after the pilot study was Cronbach's  $\alpha = .87$ . The retained items were then administered alongside an existing Self-Stigma Questionnaire (SSQ) developed by Adewuya et.al, (2003) and the new scale achieved a concurrent validity of .65. In this study, the Self-Stigma scale achieved a Cronbach alpha ranging from .82 to .89. The split-half coefficient is .69. No item on the scale is to be reverse. Higher score indicates higher self-stigma.

Perceived stigma is operationalised as the extent to which an individual perceives the public to stereotype and discriminate against a stigmatized group. It was assessed using perception of stigmatisation scale developed by Bruce Link (1987). The scale originally contains 12 items but has gone through validation in subsequent studies conducted by Link et al; (2001) which reduced the scale to ten items. The scale is with a response format ranging from Strongly Agree (4), Slightly Agree (3), Slightly Disagree (2), Strongly Disagree (1). It has achieved internal consistency of .85 overtime. In this study the scale achieved a Cronbach alpha ranging from .82 to .86. The split-half coefficient is .84.

For the intervention stage, Ten participants whose scores on the Self-esteem Scale were lower than the norms (male= 5

female=5) were selected for this stage. The pre-test and the post-test were carried out using the same set of participants. The group members were seen in a quiet hall twice in a week (Wednesday and Fridays). The researcher employed Cognitive-Behavioural Therapy developed by Beck (1976) which lasted for 5 weeks; the account of the therapy sessions are presented below:

#### Procedure

A total of 130 copies of the questionnaires were administered to in and out-patient clinic Respondents for the study was selected through the use of purposive sampling technique. The inclusion criterion includes patients who assessment by the researcher, the patients must be settled. Ten eligible patients did not complete their questionnaire, and hence data from 120 respondents were used for further analysis.

#### Data analysis

Hypotheses 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, were analysed using t-test of independent measures to compare differences between two groups. Hypothesis 3 was analysed using Two-Way ANOVA while hypothesis 5 was analysed using Multiple regression analysis.

#### Results

The results of the analyses are presented in Tables 1,2,3,4 and 5.

**Table 1: Summary table of an independent sample (-test comparing patients self-esteem (high and low) on their self-stigma**

Dependent variable	Self esteem	N	Mean	Std	Df	t-value	Sig
Self stigma	Low	63	49.95	11.01	118	5.347	<.001
	High	57	34.18	12.92			

The results of the t-test in Table 1 reveals that there was significant effect of self-esteem on patients self-stigma [ $t(118)=5.347, p<.001$ ]. From the result, patients who are high on self esteem scored 34.18 on self stigma, while those

who are low on self esteem scored 45.95 on self stigma with a mean difference of 11.77. This implies that patients with low self esteem have higher self stigma than those with high self esteem.

**Table 2: Summary table of an independent sample t-test comparing patient's self-efficacy (high and low) on their self-stigma**

Dependent variable	Self-esteem	N	Mean	Std	Df	t-value	Sig
Self-stigma	Low	52	44.17	13.50	118	2.799	<.001
	High	68	37.44	12.45			

The results of the t-test in Table 2 reveals that there was significant effect of self-efficacy on patients self-stigma [ $t(118)=2.799, p<.001$ ]. From the result, patients who are high on self efficacy scored 37.44 on self stigma, while those

who are low on self efficacy scored 44.17 on self stigma with a mean difference of 6.73. This implies that patients with low self efficacy have higher self stigma than those with high self efficacy.

**Table 3: Two-Way ANOVA showing interactive effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma of patients**

Source of variation	df	ss	Ms	F	sig
Self-efficacy (A)	1	1582.231	1582.231	10.078	<.001
Locus of control (B)	1	1455.973	1455.973	9.274	<.001
A x B	1	7.369	7.369	0.047	>.05
Error	116	18211.557	156.996		
Total	119	21009.592			

Table 3 results shows that there is significant main effect of self-efficacy on self-stigma among patients [ $F(1,116)=10.078, p<.001$ ]. Also, there was significant main effect of locus of control on self stigma of patients [ $F(1,116)=9.274, p<.001$ ]. However,

there was no significant interactive effects self efficacy and locus of control on self stigma [ $F(1,116)=9.274, p<.001$ ]. Based on this result, the hypothesis was partially confirmed.

**Table 4: Two-Way ANOVA showing interactive effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on perceived stigma of patients**

Source of variation	df	ss	Ms	f	sig
Self-efficacy (A)	1	7.222	7.222	0.102	>.05
Locus of control (B)	1	29.435	29.435	0.415	>.05
A x B	1	676.422	676.422	9.541	<.001
Error	116	8114.320	70.899		
Total	119	8906.367			

Table 4 results shows that there is no significant main effect of self-efficacy on perceived stigma among patients [ $F(1,116)=0.102, p>.05$ ]. Also, there was no significant main effect of locus of control on perceived stigma of patients [ $F(1,116)=0.415, p>.05$ ]. However, there was significant interactive effects self efficacy

and locus of control on perceived stigma [ $F(1,116)=9.541, p<.001$ ]. Since, there was a significant interactive effect of self efficacy and locus of control on perceived stigma of patients, a post-hoc test was conducted for multiple comparison. This is presented in the table below.

**Table 5: Showing post-hoc test of multiple mean comparison of interactive effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on perceived stigma of patients**

Self efficacy	Locus of control	N	Mean	Std	Mean difference			
					1	2	3	4
Low	External	29	24.97	8.05	-			
Low	Internal	23	30.78	7.47	-5.81*	-		
High	External	32	29.28	8.18	-4.31	1.50	-	
High	Internal	36	25.47	9.43	0.50	5.31*	3.81	-

\* mean is significant at 0.05 level

Table 5 above shows that there was significant difference in perceived stigma of patients with low self efficacy and external locus of control ( $\bar{X}=24.97$ ); and those with low efficacy and internal locus of control

( $\bar{X}=30.78$ ) with a mean difference of 5.81. Also, there was significant difference in perceived stigma of patients with high self efficacy and external locus of control ( $\bar{X}=29.28$ ); and those with high efficacy

and internal locus of control ( $\bar{X}$  =25.47) with a mean difference of 5.81. Based on this result, it therefore implies that individuals with low self efficacy and internal locus of control significantly score

higher on perceived stigma than individuals with low self efficacy and external locus of control. The result negates the state hypothesis and therefore not confirmed.

**Table 6: Showing multiple regression analysis of the influence of self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, level of social support from family and diagnosed illness on self and perceived stigma of patients**

D.V	I.V	Beta vaiuc	t-value	Sig	R	R <sup>2</sup>	P	F
Self stigma	Self-esteem	-0.393	-3.979	<.001				
	Self-efficacy	-0.108	-1.079	>.05				
	Locus of control	0.110	1.277	>.05				
	Family support	0.037	0.446	>.05	0.481	0.231	<.001	6.850
	Diagnosed illness	-0.051	-0.623	>.05				
Perceived Stigma	Self-esteem	-0.200	-1.832	>.05				
	Self-efficacy	0.055	0.496	>.05				
	Locus of control	0.113	1.185	>.05	0.249	0.062	>.05	1.511
	Family support	-0.095	-1.047	>.05				
	Diagnosed illness	-0.033	-0.366	>.05				

Results from table 6 shows that all the independent variables jointly predicted self-stigma of individual patient [F(5,114)=6.85, p<.001]. The multiple R obtained was 0.48 with R<sup>2</sup> of 0.23. This shows that the predictor variables co-jointly account for about 23% on self stigma. However, the result of the independent prediction from the predictor variables showed only self esteem independently predicted self stigma significantly ( $\beta$  =-0.39, t=-3.98, p<.001). Self efficacy, locus of control, level of social support from family and diagnosed illness did not predict self stigma independently ( $\beta$  =-0.11, t=-1.88, p>.05;  $\beta$

=0.11, t=1.28, p>.05;  $\beta$  =0.04, t=0.45, p>.05; &  $\beta$  =-0.05, t=-0.62, p>.05). Based on the result, the hypothesis is partially confirmed.

Table 6 also shows that all the independent variables jointly predicted perceived stigma of individual patient [F(5,114)=1.51, p>.05]. The multiple R obtained was 0.25 with R<sup>2</sup> of 0.06. This shows that the predictor variables co-jointly account for about 6% on perceived stigma. However, the result of the independent prediction from the predictor variables showed that none of the independent variable predicted perceived stigma significantly ( $\beta$  =-0.20, t=-1.83,

$p > .05$ ;  $\beta = 0.06$ ,  $t = 0.50$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $t = 1.19$ ,  $p > .05$ ;  $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $t = -1.05$ ,  $p > .05$ ; &  $\beta = -0.03$ ,  $t = -0.37$ ,  $p > .05$ ) for self esteem, self efficacy, locus of control, level of social support from family and diagnosed illness

respectively. Based on the result, the hypothesis was not confirmed.

**Result of the Intervention**

**Table 7: Summary table of an independent sample t-test comparing patients (pre and post-test) score on their self esteem**

Pretest & posttest	Self-esteem	N	Mean	Std	df	t-value	Sig
Self-esteem	Pretest	10	26.90	3.67	18	-8.67	<.001
	Posttest	10	48.70	7.06			

Results as indicated in Table 7 show that there was significant difference between patient's self-esteem before the intervention and their self-esteem after the intervention [ $t(18) = -8.67$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. The mean score of

patients self esteem before the intervention was 26.90 while after the intervention it increased to 48.70. This implies that the intervention significantly increased the self esteem of the patients.

**Table 8: Summary table of an independent sample t-test comparing patients (pre and post-test) score on their self-efficacy**

Pretest & posttest	Self-esteem	N	Mean	std	df	t-value	Sig
Self-efficacy	Pretest	10	17.20	3.43	18	-9.16	<.001
	Posttest	10	32.80	4.16			

Results as indicated in Table 8 show that the cognitive behaviour therapy has significant effect on the self efficacy of the patient [ $t(18) = -9.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. Before the intervention, the mean score of patients self

efficacy was 17.20 while after the intervention it increased to 32.80. This implies that the intervention significantly increased the self efficacy of the patients.

**Table 9: Summary table of an independent sample t-test comparing patients (pre and post-test) score on their level of self-stigma**

Pretest & posttest	Self-esteem	N	Mean	Std	df	t-value	Sig
Self-stigma	Pretest	10	52.70	6.08	18	8.24	<.001
	Posttest	10	29.80	6.38			

Table 9 above shows that there is a significant difference between patients level of self-stigma before the intervention and after the intervention [ $t(18) = 8.24$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. The mean score of patients self stigma before the intervention was 52.70 while after the intervention the mean reduced to 29.80. The result implies that the intervention significantly reduced the extent to which patients self stigmatized themselves.

was confirmed. The result revealed that there was significant effect of self esteem on patients self stigma .This finding of significant effect of self-esteem on self stigma is consistent with (Link et. al; 2001; Gureje, et al; 2004) in their study on self-esteem of patients who have recovered from psychosis: profile and relationship to quality of life. They reported about 24%-43% of the patients having low self-esteem are prone to self-stigmatization. Older participants reported lower level of self-stigma than younger participants. However this study does not concur with (Sing Fai et al, 2000; Brekke, et al; 2001; Link et al; 2001), who found no association between the level of self-

**Discussion**

Hypothesis one which posited that individual patients who score low on self-esteem will significantly report higher self stigma than individuals who score high on self-esteem

esteem and general clinical information on mental illness.

Hypothesis two which posited that individual patients who score low on self-efficacy will significantly report higher self-stigma than individuals who score high on self-efficacy was confirmed. The result reveals that there was significant effect of self-efficacy on patient's self-stigma. This result is consistent with the works of Vauth R. et. al. (2007) who carried out a study aimed at demonstrating how the evaluative dimension of self-concept (self-efficacy and empowerment) mediates the psychological effects of self-stigmatizing and coping with stigma. They found out that a 51% of the empowerment reduction was explained by reduction in self-efficacy and higher levels of anticipated stigma.

Hypothesis three which posited that individuals with low self-efficacy and external locus of control will significantly report higher self-stigma than individuals with high self-efficacy and internal locus of control was partly confirmed. The result showed that although there are significant main effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma among patients, there was no significant interactive effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma. This result of significant main effects of self-efficacy on self-stigma is consistent with Vauth, (2009), while that of self-efficacy and empowerment as outcomes of self-stigmatizing and coping in schizophrenia. The result agrees with Vauth (2007) in a study on Self-efficacy and empowerment as outcomes of self-stigmatizing and coping in schizophrenia. Results showed that a measure of self-stigma was associated with self-efficacy, which then corresponded with low quality of life. Again, the result of the significant influence of locus of control on self stigma is consistent with Martin-Harrow et al; (2009) in their study on locus of control: Relation to schizophrenia, to recovery, and to depression and psychosis. A more external locus of control is significantly related to fewer periods of recovery, to both depressed mood and psychosis, and to various aspects of personality. Finally, the non-interactive effect of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma agrees with Simon and

Charles (2007) on their work on the roles of locus of control and self-efficacy in hallucination- and delusion-proneness in a non-clinical sample. The result reveals that the interaction between self-efficacy and locus of control was not a significant predictor of either hallucination-like experiences or delusion-like beliefs.

Hypothesis four which posited that self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, family support and diagnosed illness will jointly and independently predict self and perceived stigma. The result shows that all the independent variables on the independent prediction of self-esteem are consistent with Ben-Shiom (2002) in their study on what are the determinants of quality of life in people with cervical dystonia. They found that both physical and mental quality of life scores were predicted by self-esteem and self-deprecation, educational level, employment status, social support, response to botulinum toxin, disease severity, social participation, stigma, acceptance of illness, anxiety, and depression. The result of independent non- prediction of self-efficacy is consistent with Forsyth & Carey, (1998) who found that Self-efficacy is irrelevant to the study of HIV-related risk behavior and stigmatization. However, this study is inconsistent with Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) who opined that Self-efficacy reflects confidence in the ability to exert control over one's own motivation, behavior, and social environment.

Hypothesis five which posited that patient self-esteem will increase significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention was tested using an independent sample t-test. The mean score of patient's self-esteem before the intervention was 26.90 while after the intervention it increased to 48.70. Thus, there was a significant effect of the intervention on the self-esteem of the patients. The result implies that the intervention significantly increased the self-esteem of the patients.

Hypothesis six which posited that patient's self-efficacy will increase significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention was tested using an independent sample t-test. Before the intervention, the mean score of patient's

self-efficacy was 17.20 while the mean score of patients after the intervention was 32.80. Therefore, there was a significant effect of the intervention on the self-efficacy of the patients. This implies that after the intervention there was an increase in the self-efficacy of the patients.

Hypothesis seven which posited that patient's level of self-stigma will reduce significantly after the intervention than they were before the intervention was tested using an independent sample t-test. The mean score of patient's self-stigma before the intervention was 52.70 while after the intervention the mean score reduced to 29.80. Thus, there is a significant effect of the intervention on the level of self-stigma experienced by the patients. The result implies that the intervention significantly reduced the extent to which patient's self stigmatised themselves.

This study provides initial empirical evidence on the influence of self esteem, self efficacy and locus of control on self and perceived stigma and also provides basis for future intervention to assist people to combat with self and perceived stigma associated with mental.

### **Conclusion**

To reduce self-stigma and increase a sense of empowerment among people with mental illness, we need to better understand why individuals react differently to self and perceived stigma. This study provides initial empirical evidence on the influence of self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control on self and perceived stigma and also provides basis for future intervention to assist people to combat with self and perceived stigma associated with mental.

The study revealed there was a significant effect of self-esteem on patient's self-stigma. The study also revealed that there was a significant effect of self-efficacy on patient's self-stigma. Although, there were significant main effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma among patients but there were no significant interactive effects of self-efficacy and locus of control on self-stigma.

Although there was no significant main effect of self-efficacy and locus of control, it could predict the perception of stigmatization. Similarly, patients who reported to perceive

stigmatization had more severe symptoms than the patients who did not perceive stigmatization. Positive symptoms and general psychopathology scores were significantly higher in the group perceiving stigmatization. Patients reporting stigmatization were significantly more disabled with the group negative for perceived stigmatization. Demographic variables were not different between the two groups.

All the independent variables significantly and jointly predicted self-stigma of individual patient. However, only self-esteem significantly and independently predicted self-stigma of patients. Self-efficacy, locus of control, level of social support from family and diagnosed illness did not independently predict self-stigma of patients.

There was a significant effect of the intervention on the self-esteem of the patients. This implies that the cognitive-behaviour therapy significantly increase the self-esteem of the patients.

There was a significant effect of the intervention on the self-efficacy of the patients. This implies that the cognitive-behaviour therapy significantly increase the self-esteem of the patient.

There was a significant effect of the intervention on the level of self-stigma of the patients. This implies that the cognitive-behaviour therapy significantly reduce the self-stigma of the patients.

### **Recommendation**

Longitudinal studies in therapeutic settings may inform us whether self-esteem, self-efficacy and locus of control have any consequences on self and perceived stigma. Also, there is need for our findings to be replicated among individuals with other mental illnesses, such as social phobia and patients with borderline personality disorders to further examine possible differences between individuals with different disorders. Future research should use a comprehensive assessment of self-stigma and its components, including coping orientations and emotional reactions.

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## **Exploring the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity in merged banks**

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Although, theoretical arguments about the attenuating influence of positive organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity have been made in the literature, no research has investigated this possibility in the Nigerian banking sector where triggers of job insecurity such as mergers, acquisitions, layoffs and downsizing are an increasing phenomenon. This study examines the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on reported job insecurity and tested their interaction with relevant demographic variables. Data were obtained from 215 employees in three merged banks located in a major Nigerian city using a questionnaire. Results indicated that employees who perceived higher levels of positive organizational communication and restorative strategy practices reported significantly lower levels of job insecurity compared to employees who perceived lower levels of organisational communication and restorative strategy. Contrary to hypothesis, there was no significant interaction effect of organisational communication, restorative strategy and age. Having or not having a mentor affected the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on job insecurity. Practical implications of findings for intervention in the banking sector are discussed.

**Key words:** Merged banks, job insecurity, communication, restorative strategy, mentor, age.

Job insecurity is widely defined as a subjectively experienced anticipation of a fundamental and involuntary event related to job loss (Sverke, Hellgren & Näswall, 2002). Accordingly, some researchers describe it as a discrepancy between the levels of security a person experiences on a job and the level he or she might prefer (Hartley, Jacobson, Klandermans & Van-Vuuen, 1991). A number of other researchers refer to job insecurity as expectations about continuity in a job situation (Davy, Kinicki, & Scheck, 1997) or the concern about the future permanence of the job (van Vuuren & Klandermans, 1990). These definitions suggest that job insecurity is by and large a subjective phenomenon that is based on an individual's perception of the employment situation. Even when described as an objective phenomenon where organisational changes such as mergers evoke feelings of a potential job loss among employees (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984), job insecurity is still arguably a subjective experience. Indeed,

empirical findings have revealed that employees working at the same organization can experience different levels of job insecurity because of differences in the perception of an objective and common work situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Letourneux, 1998; Sverke et al., 2002; Virtanen, Vahtera, Kivimäki, Pentti, & Ferrie, 2002; De Witte & Näswall, 2003; Mauno, Kinnunen, Mäkikangas, & Nätti, 2005).

The concept of job insecurity has continued to feature prominently in the literature because it is considered an obnoxious phenomenon with far reaching negative consequences for employees and their organisation. Studies have shown that job insecurity inhibits job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, performance, job involvement, and ultimately strengthen turnover intentions (Sverke et al., 2002; Cheng & Chan, 2008; Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008; Sverke, De Witte, Näswall & Hellgren, 2010). Job insecurity is also associated with increased negative physical health outcomes and elevated levels of

psychological distress among employees (Dooley, Rook, & Catalano, 1987; Kuhnert, Sims & Lahey, 1989; Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990; Dekker & Schaufeli, 1995; Probst, 2000; De Witte, De Cuyper, Handaja, Sverke, Näswall & Hellgren, 2010; Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles & König, 2010). Recent trends in modern organisations which increasingly predispose employees to the experience of job insecurity have made empirical investigation in this area even more pertinent. The strong competitive environment in which modern organisations operate and the global economic melt-down has created a greater need for management to constantly restructure for continued organisational relevance.

In the Nigerian work setting, the most obvious expression of this trend is found in the banking sector. The sector is persistently under pressure to provide high quality services that satisfy customers; to survive the stiff challenge from competitors; and to meet stringent regulations for operation despite the tough economic climate (cited in Okurame, 2012). To foster effectiveness and ensure corporate survival in this circumstance, many of these organisations have merged, downsized or lay-off workers. The literature suggests that this trend increases uncertainty that lead to a heightened sense of job insecurity among employees who survive mergers, acquisitions and downsizing (Roskies & Louis-Guerin, 1990; Hartley et al., 1991; Pfeffer, 1997; Büssing, 1999; Näswall, Baraldi, Richter, Hellgren & Sverke, 2006). Since empirical findings suggests that job insecurity inhibits employee and organisational performance, it becomes necessary to assist banking organisations with empirical guidance on how to ensure performance in the face of potentials for perceived job insecurity among the rank-and-file of the workforce.

While the extant literature reports many research that focused on the negative outcomes of job insecurity (Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007; Reisel, Chia, Maloles, & Slocum, 2007; Sora, Caballer, Peiró, & de Witte, 2009; Staufenbiel & König, 2010), little attention has been paid to factors with potentials for reducing employees' perception of job insecurity. There are theoretical assumptions but scanty empirical

evidence that the potential threat of job insecurity to organisational performance and survival may be averted in part or in its entirety by organisational communication and restorative strategy. These possibilities provide an exciting empirical expedition in the banking sector where triggers of job insecurity such as mergers, acquisitions and downsizing are an increasing phenomenon and high performance of 'survivors' is of extreme concern to management.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides the conceptual basis for understanding how subjective job insecurity evolve and the process through which organisational communication and restorative strategy may affect it. Major resources in the examination of this theory are Gorgievski and Hobfoll (2008) and Richter (2011). The theory (Hobfoll, 1989; 1998; 2001) suggests that people have an innate as well as a learned drive to create, foster, conserve, and protect the quality and quantity of their resources which are generally categorised into four groups, namely, objects (e.g. house, car, clothing, food, expensive computer equipment, etc.), personal characteristics (e.g. self-esteem, sense of commitment, hope, or optimism), condition (e.g. job tenure, friendship, marriage, and seniority) and energies (e.g. income, savings, knowledge and time that can aid gaining new resources). These resources often exist in a combination such that an individual might accumulate personal resources, such as self esteem, material resources, such as money, and condition resources, such as status, and social support. Resources can also be instrumental (e.g. money or shelter), social (e.g. social support or status) or psychological (e.g. self-esteem, sense of autonomy), and one resource type may be used to secure other forms of resources as is the case when the reputation (resource) of individuals make it more likely for their request to be heeded and for their suggestions to be viewed as credible (Hochwarter, Ferris, Zinko, Arnell, & James, 2007).

According to the COR theory, when any of our resources are threatened, we experience a state called anticipatory stress (Hobfoll, 1989). The theory suggests that previous downsizing, mergers, acquisitions and layoffs which have resulted in the withdrawal of

resources from other employees raises survivor's sensitivity to subsequent potential job loss. This experience, the theory argues, triggers the process of fostering and protecting one's resources through three key principles and corollaries. First, is the principle of primacy of resource loss which suggests that resource loss is more important than resource gain and typically goes along with negative emotions (Pettit, Yong & Spataro, 2010). Individuals experiencing job insecurity would typically expect that a number of important conditions (e.g., employment, the social network) and energies (e.g., salary, saving) would be lost as a consequence of job loss. For example, when income and financial security are at risk, objects such as housing, car, or other luxury items may become at risk as well (Jahoda, 1984; De Witte, 1999). Thus, real, imagined or anticipated resource loss has stronger motivational power than expected resource gain. Therefore, in a typical resource loss situation individuals are more inclined to focus on their losses and weaknesses rather than search for new opportunities for resource gain. The implication of the first COR principle is that subjective job insecurity is reduced if significant losses can be prevented. Consequently, organisational communication would be expected to reduce or eliminate job insecurity to the extent that it addresses employee concerns about actual or anticipated loss of significant resources (Schweiger & De Nisi, 1991; Elst, Baillien, Cuyper & Witte, 2010; Jiang & Probst, 2013). Logically, positive organisational communication should reduce confusion, ambiguity and eliminate feelings of cluelessness about the state of the organisation, making it possible for employees to increase their control over the situation in a predictable manner (Armstrong-Stassen, 2004). Because explicit and open communication also strengthens the perception that employees are valued by the employer and would be treated fairly (Greenberg & Lind, 2000), it should make for a more-positive perception of job security.

The second principle of the COR theory is that people invest resources in order to protect against resource loss, recover from losses, and gain resources. One important aspect of the COR framework is that not all individuals have access to the same

amount of resources. Therefore, individuals have different capacities for handling the stressful situation of a potential job loss (Hobfoll, 1998). Arguably, this implies that employees with fewer resources are more vulnerable to resource loss and less capable of resource gain, and thus, more likely to perceive job insecurity. Hence, augmenting these resources would lower perceived threat of potential job loss (Brotheridge, 2003) because it boosts the belief in one's ability to succeed (Wilk & Moynihan, 2005). This means that any intervention that offset resource loss and encourages striving for resource gain would limit subjective job insecurity. This is the basis for the theoretical linkage between restorative strategy and reduced job insecurity. Restorative strategy tends to calm down survivor's concerns about their future because it encourages management actions that are sustainable and keeps the organisation buoyant (Happonen, 1998; Elst, Baillien, Cuyper & Witte, 2010). It usually involves setting out criteria to be used in any future terminations, correcting inaccurate rumours or gossips and working in partnership with employee representatives such as trade unions. This form of participative decision making on how to sustain the organisation counters perception of job insecurity (Probst, 2005). Further, restorative strategy tends to augment the resources of employees by enhancing the resource gain process thereby reducing the tendency for people to inflate the threat or danger of potential difficulties as a threat to their existing resources (Naidoo, Decriscio, Bily, Manipella, Ryan & Youdim, 2012).

Again, restorative strategy is designed to enhance social support and the degree to which individuals feel they can influence and shape job loss situations. Importantly too, restorative strategy affords an employee an opportunity to engage in reinterpretation and substitution. The COR theory suggests that individuals are able to deal with stressful situations by investing their current resources to offset further valued resource loss through reinterpretation and substitution which make it possible for them to reinterpret a threat by converting a potential loss into a possible gain (Hobfoll, 1989). This position is strengthened by the last principle of the

COR theory which posit that individuals have fewer resources as they lose resources, making them decreasingly capable of withstanding further threats to resource loss. Restorative strategy, therefore, reinforces the logical expectation that as resource reservoir is strengthened people become more likely to take increasing resource investment risks that are critical in resource loss recovery, and in reducing perception of job insecurity. Consequently, it is logical to expect that if restorative strategy elevates the level of resources available to accommodate organisational changes, negative reactions such as job insecurity should be less (Chen, Westman & Eden, 2009).

Although, the literature did not reflect the fact that decreasing levels of subjective job insecurity can be achieved by the combined effects of organisational communication and restorative strategy, this possibility seems logical and strong. It is expected that organisational communication would create a fertile context for restorative strategy to come to fruition, and a fruitful restorative strategy would be expected to foster favourable perceptions of the usefulness of organisational communication for reducing job insecurity. Consequently, explicit and open communication should reinforce restorative strategy, and vice versa. This untested assumption was therefore examined in this study.

To further understand the influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy, it is fruitful to take into consideration the demographic variables of employees in the banking sector. Although, empirical findings have been inconsistent across population and context, the literature (e.g. Näswall & De Witte, 2003; Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004; Sverke, Hellgren, Näswall, Chirumbolo, De Witte, & Goslinga, 2004; Munoz de Bustillo & Pedraza, 2007; Bockerman, 2004; Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2006; Erlinhagen, 2007) supports the relationship between demographic variables and subjective job insecurity. This suggests that an employees' demographic data predisposes him or her to positively or negatively evaluate the organisational environment as a threat to job security. Hence, it is logical to expect that demographic variables would influence an employee's

perception of organisational communication and restorative strategy, and thus, determine the nature of their attenuating influence, more so when the interpretation of job insecurity arise from the interaction of situational and individual factors. Consequently, the present study proposes that demographic variables with significant effects on job insecurity in the study population will significantly interact with organisational communication and restorative strategy to influence subjective job insecurity.

Taking into account logical expectations, theoretical arguments and relevant empirical findings, the study formulated and tested the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Bank employees who report higher levels of positive organisational communication will experience significantly lower levels of subjective job insecurity compared to their counterparts who report lower levels of organisational communication.

Hypothesis 2: Bank employees who report higher levels of restorative strategy practices will experience significantly lower levels of subjective job insecurity compared to their counterparts who report lower levels of restorative strategy.

Hypothesis 3: Organisational communication and restorative strategy will significantly interact to influence subjective job insecurity.

Hypothesis 4: Demographic variables with significant effects on subjective job insecurity will significantly interact with organisational communication and restorative strategy to influence subjective job insecurity.

## **Method**

### *Participants*

Data for the study were collected from employees of three merged banks located in a major Nigerian city. The respondents comprised 131 (60.9%) males and 84 (39.1%) females whose ages ranged from 20 to 57, with a mean age of 33.5 years (SD = 8.19). They were 22 (10.2%) contract staff, 61 (28.4%) junior staff, 92 (42.3%) senior staff and 40 (18.6%) management staff. The average

participant had worked for 7.64 years (SD = 4.85) in their current organisation. Their educational status varied thus: 20 (9.3 %) held Secondary School Certificates, 67 (31.2%) had National Diplomas/National Certificate of Education, 23 (10.7%) held bachelor's degrees, 58 (27.0%) had master's degrees, 47 (16.8%) had varying combinations of the last three qualifications. One hundred and twenty-two (56.7%) of the participants had no mentors while 93 (43.3%) reported having a mentor.

#### *Procedure*

Data were collected through a questionnaire during regular working hours in branches of three merged banks located in a major Nigerian city. Permission to carry out the study was obtained from the management of selected banks. Employees were informed and encouraged to take in the research on "work-related issues". Potential participants were handed study questionnaires with the assistance of contact persons in the organizations sampled. Respondents were told that participation in the study was not compulsory and that they could withdraw at any point in the study. They were assured that information supplied would be held in confidence and was purely for academic research. A total of 300 questionnaires with an attached consent page on which participants were to append their signature were handed to interested employees. Respondents were requested to fill the questionnaire at their leisure and submit the completed questionnaire to contact persons for subsequent collection by the researcher. Although, a total of 220 questionnaires were returned, questionnaires that had missing data on any of the measures were eliminated, resulting in 215 questionnaires with complete data for analysis and a final response rate of 71.7 percent.

#### *Measures*

*Demographic variables:* All demographic data were collected with single items. They include; age and work experience measured as continuous variables, sex (coded 1, male; 2, female), job status (coded 1, contract staff, 2, junior; 3, senior; 4, management staff), marital status (coded 1, single; 2, widowed; 3,

married), highest educational attainment (coded 1, Secondary School Certificate; 2, National Diploma/National Certificate of Education; 3, first degree; 4, postgraduate degree; 5, combinations of the last three qualifications), and mentoring status (coded 1, with mentor; 2, no mentor) and existence of an alternative source of income (coded 1, yes; 2, no).

*Organisational communication:* This variable was assessed using a 3-item scale developed by Johnson, Bernhagen, Miller and Allen (1996). The authors reported significant construct validity and a coefficient alpha of .70 using the measure. Sample items include "my supervisor clearly explains policy changes" and "my supervisor lets me know about changes which are coming up." A Cronbach's alpha of .80 was obtained for the scale in the present study. Validation evidence was derived in this study from item and factor analyses results that revealed a significant least item-total correlation of .61 and a single factor onto which all items strongly loaded. Respondents expressed the extent to which they agree with each item on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. High scores signify high levels of perceived positive organisational communication, while low scores signify low levels.

*Restorative strategy:* This was assessed by four items developed by Greenhalgh (1991) to indicate the extent to which management had succeeded in maintaining a positive atmosphere among the survivors of mergers in an organisation. Sample items include "The management by its measures has been able to reassure me that the rest of us will preserve our jobs" and "I will continue to believe in the goodwill of this organisation for retaining my job and guarantee continuity through the ongoing management strategy." Evidence for scale validity in this study was derived from item and factor analyses results that revealed a significant least item-total correlation of .57 and a least item factor loading of .51. Using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), a Cronbach's alpha of .61 was established for the measure in this study. High scores signify high levels of

restorative strategy, while low scores signify low levels of restorative strategy.

**Subjective Job insecurity:** To assess participants' perceptions of job insecurity, they were asked to express the likelihood of occurrence of events they perceive as threats to either their total job or job features using a scale developed by Ugboro and Obeng (2001). Items reflecting threats to total job focused on issues such as rank reduction, loss of job, pressure to accept early retirement and permanent lay off. Threats to job features covered issues like the likelihood that unfavourable changes would occur and negatively affect jobs. Sample items include "you may lose your job and be moved to a lower level within the organisation", "You may be fired" and "you may be pressured to accept early retirement." A Cronbach's alpha of .78 was obtained for the scale in the present study. Item analysis results revealed a significant least item-total correlation of 0.63. Respondents expressed the extent to which they agree with each item on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree. High scores signify high levels of subjective job

insecurity, while low scores signify low levels.

### Results

Preliminary analysis that involved Pearson correlation statistics was carried out to ascertain the nature of the relationship between demographic data and the main study variables. Demographic data include age, sex, highest educational qualification, job status, work experience, marital status, mentoring status and alternative income status. The results of this analysis (not presented in Table) revealed that age was significantly and negatively related to organisational communication ( $r = -.18, p < .01$ ) and subjective job insecurity ( $r = -.16, p < .05$ ), while mentoring status was significantly and positively related to job insecurity ( $r = .17, p < .05$ ) – all other demographic data were not significant. Further analysis utilised the simple multiple regression statistics to establish the predictive value of demographic variables in subjective job insecurity. Table 1 presents results of this analysis.

**Table 1:**  
**Results of simple multiple regression analysis predicting job insecurity from demographic data**

Variable	$\beta$	t	R <sup>2</sup>	F
Age	-.26*	-2.369*	.07	1.614
Sex	-.09	-1.201		
Education	-.01	-0.012		
Job status	-.01	-0.146		
Work experience	.17	1.614		
Marital status	-.02	-0.305		
Alternative income	-.02	-0.024		
Mentoring status	.15*	1.998*		

\* P < .05

Although, the joint influence of all of the demographic variables on job insecurity was not significant ( $R^2 = .07, p$  n.s.), results in Table 1 revealed a significant positive relationship between mentoring status and job insecurity ( $\beta = .15, p < .05$ ), and a significant negative relationship between age and job insecurity ( $\beta = -.26, p < .05$ ). Demographic variables that have significant relationships with the dependent variable in a study are selected as control variables to reduce error variance and

maintain power in analysis (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Consequently, age and mentoring status were used as covariates in analysis that investigated the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity (i.e. hypotheses 1 to 3).

The main and interaction effects of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity were tested using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to enable the

control of covariates (i.e. age and mentoring status) that may confound findings. This analysis tested hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. Results presented in Table 2 show that the control variables, age ( $F(1, 209) = 2.231, p < .05$ ) and mentoring status ( $F(1, 209) = 5.970, p < .01$ ), had significant effects on subjective job insecurity. Table 3 presents the mean subjective job insecurity scores of old and young employees as well as employees

with mentors and those without mentors. As shown in Table 3, the mean subjective job insecurity score of employees who had mentors ( $M = 24.17$ ) was lower than that of their counterparts who had no mentors ( $M = 26.16$ ). Similarly, the mean subjective job insecurity score of older employees ( $M = 24.20$ ) was lower than that of their younger counterparts ( $M = 25.96$ )

**Table 2:**  
**Summary of ANCOVA showing the main and interaction effects of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity**

Source of variation	SS	DF	MS	f
Age	76.726	1	76.726	2.231*
Mentoring status	169.849	1	169.849	5.970**
Org. communication (OC)	224.865	1	224.865	7.904**
Restorative strategy (RS)	550.106	1	550.106	19.336***
OC vs. RS	4.123	1	4.123	0.145
Error	5945.948	209	28.450	
Total	145042.000	215		

\*  $P < .05$ , \*\*  $P < .01$ , \*\*\*  $P < .001$

Hypothesis 1 stated that bank employees who report higher levels of positive organisational communication practices will experience significantly lower levels of job insecurity compared to their counterparts who report lower levels of organisational communication. ANCOVA results presented in Table 2 show that the main effect of organisational communication was significant,  $F(1, 209) = 7.904, p < .01$ . Mean scores, which

further explain the main effect of organisational communication, are presented in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, the mean job insecurity score of employees with high levels of perceived organisational communication ( $M = 24.70$ ) was lower than that of their low organisational communication counterparts ( $M = 26.97$ ). Hence, hypothesis 1 was supported.

**Table 3:**  
**Summary mean scores on job insecurity as determined by age, mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy**

Variables	Levels	N	Mean	SD
Age	Old	81	24.20	5.18
	Young	134	25.96	6.18
Mentoring status	Had mentor	93	24.17	5.32
	No mentor	122	26.16	6.15
Organisational communication	High	80	24.70	5.24
	Low	135	26.97	5.84
Restorative strategy	High	89	24.04	5.20
	Low	126	27.59	5.71

Hypothesis 2 stated that bank employees who report higher levels of restorative strategy practices will experience significantly lower levels of job insecurity compared to their counterparts who report lower levels of restorative strategy. ANCOVA results presented in Table 2

show that the main effect of restorative strategy was significant,  $F(1, 209) = 19.336, p < .001$ . Table 3 revealed that the mean job insecurity score of employees with high levels of perceived restorative strategy ( $M = 24.04$ ) was lower than that of their low restorative strategy

counterparts (M = 27.59). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there will be a significant interaction effect of organisational communication and restorative strategy on job insecurity. ANCOVA results presented in Table 2 show that the interaction effect of organisational communication and restorative strategy was not significant,  $F(1, 209) = 0.145$ ,  $p$  n.s. Hence, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4, which stated that demographic data with significant effects on subjective job insecurity (i.e. age (H4a)

and mentoring status (H4b)) will significantly interact with organisational communication and restorative strategy to influence subjective job insecurity, was analysed using separate 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results of H4a are presented in Table 4. Results in Table 4 revealed that there was no significant interaction effect of age and organisational communication ( $F(1, 207) = 1.759$ , n.s.), age and restorative strategy ( $F(1, 207) = 0.287$ , n.s.) and age, organisational communication and restorative strategy ( $F(1, 27) = 0.120$ , n.s.). Hence, H4a was not supported.

**Table 4:**  
**Summary of ANOVA showing the main and interaction effects of age, organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity**

Source of variation	SS	DF	MS	f
Age	144.896	1	144.896	4.990*
Org. communication (OC)	152.864	1	152.864	5.265**
Restorative strategy (RS)	465.125	1	465.125	16.019***
Age vs. OC	51.077	1	51.077	1.759
Age vs. RS	8.346	1	8.346	0.287
OC vs. RS	5.742	1	5.742	0.198
Age vs. OC vs. RS	3.478	1	3.478	0.120
Error	6010.278	207	29.035	
Total	145042.000	215		

\*  $P < .05$ , \*\*  $P < .01$ , \*\*\*  $P < .001$

The results of H4b are presented in Table 5. Results in Table 5 revealed that there was no significant interaction effects of mentoring status and organisational communication ( $F(1, 222) = 0.091$ , n.s.) as well as mentoring status and

restorative strategy on job insecurity ( $F(1, 207) = 0.654$ , n.s.). However, the interaction effects of mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy was significant,  $F(1, 207) = 4.765$ ,  $p < .05$ .

**Table 5:**  
**Summary of ANOVA showing the interaction effects of mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity**

Source of variation	SS	DF	MS	f
Mentoring status (MS)	339.370	1	339.370	12.140***
Org. communication (OC)	235.288	1	235.288	8.417**
Restorative strategy (RS)	539.803	1	539.803	19.309***
MS vs. OC	2.554	1	2.554	0.091
MS vs. RS	18.288	1	18.288	0.654
OC vs. RS	12.736	1	12.736	0.456
MS vs. OC vs. RS	133.202	1	133.202	4.765*
Error	5786.787	207	27.955	
Total	14504.000	215		

\*  $P < .05$ , \*\*  $P < .01$ , \*\*\*  $P < .001$

Further statistical analysis using the protracted t-test post hoc method was

carried out to determine the direction of differences in the means of the variables

with significant interaction influence on job insecurity. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6.

**Table 6:**  
**Summary table of protracted multiple comparison showing the interaction effects of mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy on job insecurity**

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	N	X	SD
1	-	2.00*	1.52	0.79	1.65*	2.36**	0.13	0.85	41	26.8	5.9
2		-	3.15***	2.79**	0.64	0.36	2.01*	1.52	18	24.0	4.8
3			-	0.36	2.21*	3.50***	0.94	2.19*	55	28.4	5.8
4				-	1.91*	2.63**	0.51	1.40	21	27.9	4.9
5					-	0.68	2.43**	2.05*	13	22.2	3.6
6						-	1.99*	1.54	21	23.5	3.9
7							-	0.76	17	27.0	5.7
8								-	29	25.8	5.2

\* P < .05, \*\* P < .01, \*\*\* P < .001

Where:

- 1 = low organisational communication/low restorative strategy/had mentor
- 2 = low organisational communication/high restorative strategy/had mentor
- 3 = low organisational communication/low restorative strategy/no mentor
- 4 = low organisational communication/high restorative strategy/no mentor
- 5 = high organisational communication/low restorative strategy/had mentor
- 6 = high organisational communication/high restorative strategy/had mentor
- 7 = high organisational communication/low restorative strategy/no mentor
- 8 = high organisational communication/high restorative strategy/no mentor

Results in Table 6 revealed that employees who are low in both organisational communication and had mentors (M = 26.8) were significantly different from (a) those who are low on organisational communication with high restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 24.0, p < .05), (b) those who are high on organisational communication with low restorative strategy and had mentor (M = 22.2, P < .05), and (c) those who are high on organisational communication and restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 23.5, p < .01). Employees who were low on organisational communication with high restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 24.0) were significantly different from (a) those who are low on organisational communication and restorative strategy but had no mentor (M = 28.4, p < .001), (b) those who perceived low organisational communication with high restorative strategy and had no mentors (M = 27.9, p < .01) and (c) those with high organisational communication, low restorative strategy and who had no mentors (M = 27.0, p < .05).

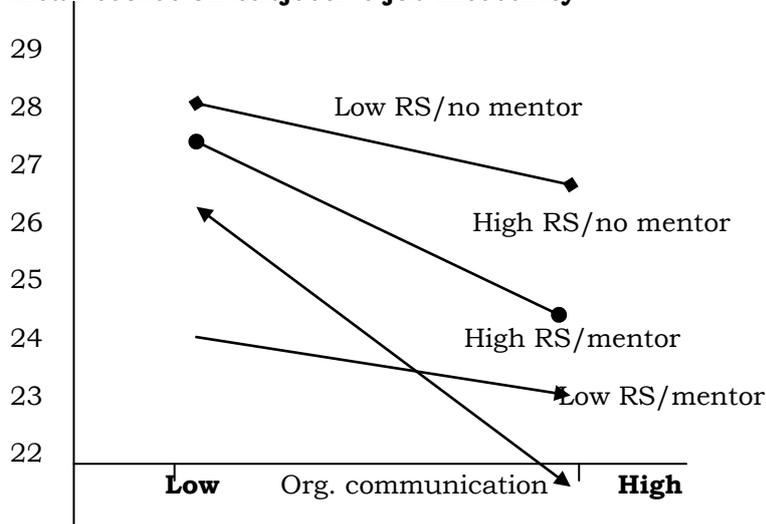
Bank employees who were low on both organisational communication and restorative strategy and had no mentors (M = 28.4) significantly differed from those (a) who were high on organisational

communication with low restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 22.2, p < .05), (b) those who were high on organisational communication and restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 23.5, p < .001) and those (c) who were high on organisational communication and restorative strategy but had no mentors (M = 25.8, p < .05). Similarly, employees who were low on organisational communication with high restorative strategy and had no mentor were significantly different from (a) those who reported high organisational communication/low restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 22.2, p < .05) and (b) those who reported high organisational communication and restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 23.5, p < .01).

Employees who expressed high organisational communication with low restorative strategy and had mentors (M = 22.2) significantly differed from (a) those who were high on organisational communication with low restorative strategy and had no mentors (M = 27.0, p < .01) and (b) those who were high on organisational communication and restorative strategy and had no mentors (25.8, p < .05). Similarly, employees who were high on both organisational communication and restorative strategy

and had mentors ( $M = 23.5$ ) were significantly different from their counterparts who were high on organisational communication/low restorative strategy and had no mentors ( $M = 27.0, p < .05$ ). Results in Table 6 revealed that the mean comparison

**Mean scores on subjective job insecurity**



**Figure 1:** Interaction effects of mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity

As shown in Figure 1, the worst level of subjective job insecurity is obtained when organisational communication and restorative strategy are low and there is no mentor while the best level of job insecurity is reported when organisational communication is high, restorative strategy is low and an employee has a mentor. When organisational communication is high or low, employees without mentors reported the least level of job insecurity when restorative strategy is high. For employees who have mentors, the least level of job insecurity is reported in a situation of high organisational communication and low restorative strategy.

**Discussion**

Little empirical attention has been paid to the theoretical assumption that the potential for job insecurity may be averted in part or in its entirety by organisational communication and restorative strategy. The present study investigated the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity among employees of merged banks. The study

between all other groups showed no significant difference. The pattern of interaction between mentoring status, organisational communication and restorative strategy is depicted in Figure 1.

also examined the interaction influence of demographic variables and the main variables of study on job insecurity. The research was guided by four hypotheses which suggested that organisational communication and restorative strategy will have significant main and interaction effects, and will interact with age and mentoring status to influence subjective job insecurity (hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 4a/b). Generally, study findings are consistent with theoretical postulations in the extant literature about the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on job insecurity, providing empirical evidence for the usefulness of these variables.

The findings showed that comparable levels of job insecurity are expressed irrespective of an employee's work experience (although this variable approached significance), sex, job status, marital status, educational attainment, and existence of an alternative source of income. However, results revealed that age and mentoring status of employees have significant effects on subjective job insecurity. While age negatively influenced the level of job insecurity experienced by an employee, mentoring

status affected job insecurity positively. The significant negative influence of age suggests that older employees tend to express lower levels of job insecurity compared to their younger counterparts. This is an unexpected finding as some authors (e.g. Mohr, 2000; Näswall & De Witte, 2003) suggest that older employees experience higher levels of job insecurity because it is more difficult for them to find new employment. Given that age was strongly and positively related to work experience in this study, it makes sense to suggest that the unexpected finding may reflect a favourable perception of older employees' indispensable role within their organisation.

Another probable explanation for the finding that young employees reported higher levels of job insecurity may be that they are at the early stage of their career where much importance is plausibly given to a stable job. It is reasonable to argue that employees at lower levels of a career will depend heavily on a present job because employment in the Nigeria work setting is highly based on career experience. This may have made the threat of job loss more severe for younger employees with little experience. Thus, older employees may have perceived less job insecurity because they felt more comfortable seeking employment elsewhere in the event of a job loss given their level of experience which tends to count more in the banking sector. Again, salaries of employees at the early stage of career are lower compared to what their counterparts at higher stages of career earn. This means that older employees have more resources to face changes in their employment than younger employees. According, an alternative probable explanation for the finding would be that younger employees expressed higher levels of subjective job insecurity because they perceive more difficulty in effectively deal with organisational changes compared to their older counterparts.

The positive relationship between mentoring status (coded 1 if an employee had a mentor and 2 if no mentor) and job insecurity suggests that employees who had mentors tend to report lower levels of job insecurity while those without mentors are inclined to expressing higher levels of job insecurity. A probable explanation for this finding may be found

in the extant mentoring literature that suggests that mentors develop protégés' career within organisations such that they acquire skills that enable them cope with stressful and emotional career issues such as job insecurity (Payne, 2006; Ramaswani & Dreher, 2007; Okurame, 2012).

Results indicate that organisational communication is a significant factor in perceived job insecurity of employees in merged banks. Higher levels of perceived positive organisational communication resulted in lower levels of job insecurity, and vice versa. This implies that when organisational communication clarifies threats to job security, perception of job insecurity become less. This outcome is in congruence with theoretical predictions that availability of positive and open communication about the current state of the organisation inhibits perception of job insecurity. Accordingly, a probable explanation for the finding may be that open communication tends to reassure employees about an organisation's situation. Alternatively, it may be that employees who favourably perceive organisational communication routinely go on to report low levels of job insecurity. Either way, these suggest that reported job insecurity can be reduced by positively manipulating an organisation's communication practices.

Consistent with literature, study findings revealed that employees who reported higher levels of restorative strategy were significantly lower on job insecurity compared to their counterparts who reported low levels of restorative strategy. The literature suggests that restorative strategy calms down survivor's concerns about their future when the organisation takes actions that are sustainable to keep the organisation buoyant (Happonen, 1998; Elst et al., 2010). A probable explanation for the pattern of finding is that high levels of restorative strategy which seem supportive reduce the tendency for employees to inflate the threat of job loss. This probable makes employees feel that they can influence or shape job loss situations and affords them an opportunity to enhance the level of resources available to accommodate organisational changes.

The finding that perceived job insecurity is not significantly influenced

by the interaction of organisational communication and restorative strategy is indicative that these variables act independently; at least in the population of study. This implies that the potency of organisational communication for reducing perceived job insecurity is not dependent on a specific level of restorative strategy. Alternatively, the result may reflect the fact that the interactive nature of these variables depend on other variables.

The results that age did not significantly interact with organisational communication and restorative strategy implies that age does not enhance or inhibit how organisational communication and restorative strategy impact subjective job insecurity. A probable reason for the finding would be that young and old employees attach similar levels of importance to the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity.

Although, mentoring status did not have significant separate interaction effects with organisational communication and restorative strategy, it had significant combined interaction effects with the variables. This means that the usefulness of having or not having a mentor depends on specific combinations of both organisational communication and restorative strategy. The post-hoc analysis showed that for organisations to assist employees in reducing subjective insecurity, they would have to bear in mind that combining these variables in specific proportions yield better results.

### **Implications of findings for intervention**

The findings of this study are of particular practical relevance to organisations in the banking sector. A serious concern of banking organisations where triggers of job insecurity such as mergers, downsizing and layoffs are an increasing phenomenon is for survivors to do well in assigned roles. However, if perceived job insecurity which necessarily occur in the competitive banking environment is not addressed, the expectation that survivors of mergers and layoffs will perform well in assigned roles may be a mirage. For this reason, findings of this study will be handy in facilitating the attainment of high performance targets of banking

organisations. The present results show that management can influence the level of job insecurity experienced by their employees through intervention. Results show that the more favourable the perception of organisational communication and restoration strategy practices, the lower the level of subjective job insecurity. These findings suggest that lack of communication and support through restorative strategy keeps employees in the dark and strengthens subjective job insecurity. Therefore, management can reduce job insecurity by striving to improve communication processes as well as providing professional support. It is logical to expect that this will remove ambiguity and foster long term career plans by employees in their current organisation.

Results also revealed that having a mentor compared to not having mentor significantly reduced job insecurity and affect the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy. Therefore, for organisational communication and restorative strategy to effectively reduce subjective job insecurity, management will have to combine these variables as noted in the results section. In addition to management's intervention through organisational communication and restorative strategy, it is recommended that management should foster good mentoring relationships within their organisation. Aside building skills in traditional mentor roles, mentors should be trained to engage in actions that communicate to protégés that they are valued and to assist their protégés on issues relating to the organisation's restorative strategy. This increases the likelihood that the positive effects on job insecurity of the interaction of mentoring status with organisational communication and restorative strategy in this study accrue to banking organisations.

Management would also need to recognise the fact that age is an important demographic variable in subjective job insecurity. The older an employee, the lower their level of expressed job insecurity. This indicates that employees who are young and probable in the early stage of their career in the banking sector display a tendency for expressing high levels of subjective insecurity. Therefore, management would need to focus

organisational interventions to the needs of this category of employees.

### **Limitations and future research direction**

Though this study extends our understanding of the attenuating influence of organisational communication and restorative strategy on subjective job insecurity, caution should be exercised in the interpretation of results because of a number of limitations. The present study which involved employees in three merged banks in Nigeria is exploratory and the sampled banks may not typify organisations in general. This calls for caution in generalising study findings. Again, data for the study are subject to the usual limitations of a survey research, as they were obtained from self-report instruments. Although, there is a remote chance of under or over reporting by respondents given that reliable measures were utilised in the study, this may not be entirely ruled out. It is recommended that future research should explore the possibility of utilising concrete measures of the variables of study.

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## **Public Perception of Street Children in Ibadan, Nigeria**

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Across the urban areas of Nigeria, there are many children working and or living on the street. While their predicament is visible and obvious, the societal perception can help reverse or perpetuate their situations. Drawing on recorded interview with residents, parents and professionals, this study examines the public perception of street children in Ibadan, Nigeria. The content analysis of data shows that urban residents' perception of street children is shrouded in negativity. It was also revealed that the problem of street children persists largely as a result of parents' perception of children as useful "helping hands" or as "mini adults" who are capable of supplementing family income. The professional perceptions of street children have been useful in understanding the persistency of child streetism in our society. As a measure to help reverse the negativities attached to the phenomenon of street children, the study enlighten the general public to change their negative perception of these children and see them as victims of institutional, parental and societal failures. The parents are also advised to behave to their responsibilities and protect their children's right to education, association and health.

The continuous existence of any society depends on the ability of the society to socialize its children in the art of survival and cultural perpetration. The future of any society is determined by the quality of its children and the level of commitment towards the protection of its most vulnerable members, the young and the old (Boakye- Boatman, 2010). It is however, paradoxical that the twenty first century presents a hostile face to millions of children across the globe. Although, the complex and varied circumstances of children living and working on the street make it very difficult to estimate the number of street children that exist worldwide, in 1989, UNICEF estimated that 100 million children were growing up on urban streets around the world, and in its 2005 report it stated that the figure runs into tens of millions across the world,

In spite of her remarkable natural and human resources, an increasing number of Nigerian children are being forced to the street as a result of a number of factors such as poverty, hunger, insecurity, child abuse, domestic violence, inadequate care, death of a parent (or both parents), need

for income in the family, inability to continue school, wilful deviance in a few children, literacy, housing challenges, drug use by children and peer influences (Okpukpara, 2006; Faloore, 2009, Fakoya, 2009; Obioha, 2009)

Street children are marginalized, discriminated against and excluded in mainstream society. Their rights to protection and access to basic rights such as education, health care and development are limited (UNICEF, 2003). Therefore, they predominantly live with a constant feeling of insecurity. They experience harsh and hazardous condition (Faloore, 2009). They are also exposed to unforeseen circumstances such as motor accidents (NCWD, 2001). Children working or living on the street are unprotected from extreme weather conditions and are prone to various abuses such as sexual abuse, vagrancy and kidnapping (Fakoya, 2009). They suffer from malnutrition and ill health. Their health problems are often severe, ranging from cholera to tuberculosis, anaemia and skin disease. Some suffer from psychological problems as society tends to view them as

troublemakers, nuisance and menace that need to be taken off the street (NCWD, 2001). Therefore, many of them feel neglected by everyone and have a grievance against their immediate society and the world in general. They are often, and with good reason, suspicious of people and expect the worst all the time. Some of them resort to drugs and eventually become criminals and threat to the society (NCWD, 2001).

In spite of the visible and obvious predicament of street children, the public and official attitudes to them are often shrouded in negativity due to their perceived or actual involvement in petty crime, addictive habits, promiscuous behaviour and prostitution of girls and begging (UNICEF, 2003). The treatment of these children is noticeably poor, they are often stigmatised, ignored and sometimes feared by society, and they are frequently beaten, bullied and harassed by the police, security guards and fellow street children (Palmqvist 2006). The increasing number of street children in Nigeria, provides motivation for this study to examine the societal perception of street children as this can help reverse or perpetuate the particularly difficult situation of street children. This study therefore examines the public perception of street children in Ibadan, a precolonial urban centre South West Nigeria, and one of the most rapidly expanding cities in the country.

## **Conceptual and Theoretical Issues**

### *Concept of Childhood*

The concept of childhood is one of the most bickering grounds for erudites. (Hood-Williams, 1990; Qvortrup, 1996; Mayall, 2002; Sarangapani, 2003). Generally speaking, Childhood is defined as the time for children to be in school and at play, to grow strong and confident with the love and encouragement of their family and an extended community of caring adults (UNICEF, 2005). However, the concept is not as simple as portrayed by this definition. Thereby, suggesting the concept to be a socially constructed term which understanding is relative and sustained by social processes. Treating childhood also as

a social construct, social constructionists have argued that there are many possible answers to the questions: 'who is a child?' or 'what is childhood?' To them, each notion of childhood is generated by successive generations out of a mix of tradition, social intercourse and technological development (Qvortrup, 1996).

Correspondingly, the concept of childhood means different things to different people in different social, cultural and historical settings (Cree, 2000) and the experience differs among children in different parts of the world (Boyden, 1990). Perhaps, the concept of childhood is better defined using such benchmarks as chronological age, legal status, biological development, cultural practice, and societal perception.

Irrespective of the dimensions by which childhood is defined, Punch, (2002) points out that the way in which society perceives children affects society's treatment of them. Some perceive children as vulnerable, incompetent, "at risk and as the risk" (Stephens, 1995) and others portray them as capable, active agents (Hill and Tisdall, 1997; James, et al, 1998, Woodhead, 1999). The latter claim that children are social actors who can interpret and re-interpret their world, construct their own childhood and take an active part in what they see around them (Bourdillon, 2000; Punch, 2001). Adults create their own meanings and so do children (Qvortrup, 1994; James and Prout, 1990). Different societal perceptions of children have significantly affected the way they defined childhood as a concept.

In this study, childhood is conceptualized as the period of early childhood (between three and seven years) through middle childhood (around seven and eight) to adolescent stage (usually pegged around 18). By this conceptualization, children are considered to be person under age of 18. This conceptualization would not only capture the developmental stages of children but also reflect the legal conception of children in Nigeria.

### *Concept of street Children*

The term “street children” is vague and has generated arguments on how it should be defined. It has been defined differently by different authors, prompting the sociologists and anthropologists to conclude that the term is a socially constructed term that in reality does not form a clearly defined homogeneous population or phenomenon. Therefore, particular circumstance in a particular society dictates who should be included in the definition (Owoaje et al, 2009). However, Inter NGO (1983) provides a widely acceptable definition of street children as any girl or boy who has not reached adulthood, for whom the street (in the broadest sense of the word, including unoccupied dwellings, wasteland etc.) has become his or her habitual abode and/or sources of livelihood, and who is inadequately protected, supervised or directed by responsible adults. For a clarification of this definition, UNICEF (2004) distinguishes between “children of the street” and “children on the street”. Children of the street are homeless children who live and sleep on the street in urban area. For those children, family ties may exist, but they are tenuous and maintained occasionally (Halloy and Huser, 2005). On the other hand, children on the street earn their living or beg for money on the street and return to their homes at night. They are likely to hand over all or parts of their earnings to the family. They may be attending school and retain a sense of belonging to the family. For the purpose of the study, street children are conceptualized as children working and/ or on the street. This definition was deliberately adopted to include all groups of children who, whether on a full-time or part-time basis regard the streets, at a minimum, as the place where they get their subsistence. Some of these children may be school-goers and have homes and families that they go back to on a daily basis. Others have no homes to go back to and therefore would be residing full time on the streets

#### *Interactionist Perspective*

People interact according to how they perceive a situation, how they understand

the social encounter, and the meanings they bring to it. This is the basic tenet of interactionist perspective, also known as “symbolic interactionist perspective”. The symbolic interaction theory is a sociological perspective for viewing human beings as living in a world of meaningful objects. These objects may include materials, actions, other people, relationships, and even symbols (Schaefer, 2004). Although, “interactionism” was first developed by George Herbert Mead (1863 – 1931), it was Herbert Blumer (1900–1987), who originated the term “symbolic interaction”, to social interaction at the micro- level. Symbolic interactionists explain social interaction as a dynamic process in which people continually modify their behaviour as a result of the interaction itself. According to Blumer (1969), people do not respond directly to the world around them, but to the meaning they bring to it. Society, its institutions, and its social structure exist—that is, social reality is bestowed—only through human interaction.

Although, symbolic interaction is a micro level perspective, it does take into account that social interaction is a process governed by norms that are largely determined by culture. Cultural norm guides our interaction and perception of people and material things but symbolic interactionists believe that these norms are modified whenever social interaction occurs because people bring their own definitions about appropriate behaviour to the interaction. These definitions shape the way people see and experience the world. To describe this process, social interactionists used the term “social construction of reality”—the shaping of perception of reality by the subjective meanings brought to any experience or social interaction.

The perception of street children largely depends on the meaning people bring out of their interaction with them. In line with Blumer (1969)’s view, every time societal interaction occurs with street children, people creatively construct their own understanding of the phenomenon whether “real” or not—and behave accordingly towards them. The perception and understanding of people about childhood also affect the treatment of them. Some

perceive children as vulnerable, incompetent, "at risk and as the risk" (Stephens, 1995) and others portray them as capable, active agents (Hill and Tisdall, 1997; James, et al, 1998, Woodhead, 1999). Some believe adults create their own meanings and so do children (Qvortrup, 1994; James and Prout, 1990). Different perceptions of children have its origin in their social interaction with the society which ultimately affects the way society treats them.

### **Method**

This paper draws on research that provided a detailed qualitative analysis of the public perception of street children in Ibadan. It is a cross-sectional study with the residents, parents and professionals as the target populations. As a qualitative research, the study was not designed to generate a statistically representative profile of the targeted population; rather, the concern was to explore their perception of street children.

The field work is made up of three main elements. First, key informant interviews were conducted with 30 residents, drawn across the three residential densities in Ibadan. This group consisted of 19 male and 11 female who have firsthand knowledge about the street children. Secondly, interviews were also conducted with 30 selected parents or guardians to explore their perspectives on street children. Thirdly, special interviews were conducted with three professionals, one each from the field of Urban and Regional Planning, Sociology and Economics to obtain their view on the phenomenon of street children.

The interviews and discussions were tape recorded and transcribed for content analysis, an analytical technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying special character of messages (Holstic, 1968).

### **Results**

#### **Residents' Perception of Street children**

The views as expressed by the respondents on the phenomenon of street children are diverse with majority reinforcing negative perception of street children. Almost all the

interviewed residents expressed their disapproval of the street children phenomenon.

A section of interviewees posit that the presence of street children constitutes environmental eyesore and they present ugly scene in the urban environment. They maintain that hawking on the roads and trading along the streets have become a big menace in Nigerian major cities involving able-bodied youths and kids who should be in school. This unregulated trade constitutes an eyesore in the urban environment. It has the potentiality of undermining the beautification and landscaping of the city. In the process, the city image is distorted and given a bad aesthetic value.

*"Those children always appear in tattered clothes, some may not even bath for weeks, they create urban ugly scene, portray and send wrong signals to outsiders or strangers about the city"*(Mr **Banmore, 46, Bodija**)

*....."The seemingly obstinate increase in number has negative implication on national identity. We are gradually becoming a country like Kenya where street children has become a major social problem. It portrays bad image of our cities"*(Ms **Aderibigbe, 37, Bodija**)

Another obvious observation of some Interviewees is the impediment of free flow of traffic by the activities of the street children. They bitterly condemned the menace of the child hawkers and traders who degrade the environment by littering the road with dirt, impeding movement on pedestrian bridges which they have taken over, and, hindering free flow vehicular movements. A resident has this to say.

*"Look at the streets and see them (street children) taking over the street, all in the name of selling their wares, they obstruct the free flow of vehicular traffic. At times, I just feel very sorry and sad for them because they are pressed between two vehicles and if they are not lucky,*

*they could be knocked down*". **(Mr Olaniyi, 49, Iwo Road)**

Another resident opined that:

*"It is a fact that those children break up roads to create enabling environment to sell their wares, to beg and to carry out their activities. This impedes the free flow of traffic. Some of the child traders have taken up a considerable proportion of right of way, making it difficult for easy flow of traffic"***(Mrs. Ajewole, 46, Gbagi)**

Some residents interviewed also linked the development of slum to the street children phenomenon. It was argued by the interviewees that since many of the street children live the life of destitution; they sleep in abandoned buildings, abandoned vehicles, and turn the city into shanty environment.

*.....these children have exerted a lot of pressure on the urban environment; they "hijack" every available space turning them into dwelling units. They, therefore, deface urban landscape and sometimes they can be responsible for the creation of squatter settlement.* **(Umeh, male, 51, Gbagi)**

*"Although the magnitude of the street children phenomenon in Nigeria may not be in the proportions of some other countries in Latin America and other African countries, it is becoming a major urban issue in our cities. Street children are seen inhabiting such places as dilapidated buildings, open stalls and shops and parked vehicles..... The implication of this is that they constitute informal occupants of urban space and therefore become problem to urban livability and imageability"* **(Aloko, male, 45, Orita Mefa)**

Yet, many key informants argue that street Children constitute a pool of recruits as armed robbers, urban terror gangs and

violent cultists and ultimately graduating into political thugs. This, of course, involves the reliance on the large pool of Street Children as potential thugs. This assertion was shared as they express the security concerns as constituted by street children in different dimensions.

*"The high incidence of street children is an indication of lack of economic and social development in the country. A handful of those boys involved in criminal activities such as pick pocketing and stealing.....when they grow into adulthood are likely to constitute a major source of crime and insecurity"* **(Mrs. Adebayo, female, 45, Gbagi)**

*"..... honestly, I don't trust those boys and I think government should do something urgently about them. Generally, some of them are out to help their parents but there are handful of them that are criminals in disguise, some of them steal and are involved in some criminal activities"***(Mr Okunade, 47)**

*"Nigeria, which has so far escaped macro level conflicts, may not completely survive the menacing realities of Street Children, who constitute a pool of recruits for armed robbers, urban terror gangs, violent cultists and political thugs"* **(Dr Asani, male, 45,)**

In spite of the wide spread negativities attached to the menace of street children, a handful of the interviewees tend to be sympathetic and show subtle acceptance of street children. According to a male resident,

*....while the consequences of the growing number of street children are enormous, these children are not responsible for their predicament. They are taking to the street because of the failures of the education system, parental negligence and child abuse, as well*

as growing poverty (Mr Opaniyi, 45, Iwo Road)

To another resident,

"I honestly don't see any issue about those children. It is a normal urban phenomenon that is experienced in most, if not all urban centres of the world, even in the most economically advanced countries" Mr Makinde, 57, Apete

".....many of them are economically active. They work for money, some as street vendors, some as shoe shiners, and some as load carriers. They are not as bad as people portray them" Mrs Alao, 45, Oke Padi

### Parental Perception of Street Children

When asked about their views on street children many interviewed parents consider it as a skill acquisition process. They require their children to learn the skill of trading and streetism is a very good way to begin.

"As far as I know, there is nothing wrong in sending my children to hawk for me. By so doing I am empowering them to be useful and economically active when they grow up. So what implications are we talking about? Sebi emi ni mo ni awon omo mi? (Aren't they my children?) (Mrs Faleke, 57, Gbagi)

Some of the parents, who shared this view, are skeptical about any positive prospect for their children through formal education. Therefore, they see streetism as a viable outlet to help their children to get a start-up capital to engage in an economic venture of their own if they fail to excel through schooling. They maintain that formal education cannot provide practical skills needed to survive in the present day Nigeria.

...Haba! (She exclaimed). We have seen a lot of graduates that are roaming the street without job. Are they better off than those children? Ajito titi l'awon naa ke! (They – Graduates, are also street people)....

by exposing them to street trading or hawking at early age, we are preparing them for the challenges ahead... not everybody will make it in life through education.. ( Mrs Akanni, 62, Oja Oba)

A section of the parents were of the mixed reaction to the issue of streetism. They actually acknowledged the inherent dangers associated with the phenomenon but revealed they were incapacitated by the endemic poverty in the country to send their children to the street to supplement family income

"....I know it is not the best to send my children to hawk for me, considering the inherent dangers associated with the street life....but what would I do?. It becomes extremely difficult for me to cater for them. I have no option but to send them to hawk for me. (Mrs Oyewale, 52, Ayeye) .

The need to supplement family income was emphasized by a widow with many children to cater for.

...We were confronted with enormous financial difficulties since the demise of their father. They understand our situation and willingly offer to alleviate the problem in the house by going to the street to hawk...though I prefer them to go to school (Mrs Abdusalan, 58, Ojoo).

Another set of parents believed that a child must work before being fed or given basic needs. Their reasons were to prevent the child from becoming a 'lazy adult' and to teach him how to live an independent life in case of any eventuality.

....It is normal for a child to carry out some economic activity to raise money for his/her personal needs and to supplement family income....by so doing they are being trained to be economically independent and prepare for future if any or both parents die. (Mr Sanusi, 65, Odo ona)

.....It is particularly necessary for children to work especially during the holiday...they must be trained to be active economically and not to be lazy....importantly they must work to meet some of their basic needs **(Mr Adegoke, 59, Challenge)**

### **Professional Perception of Street Children**

The professionals provided yet another dimension to the perceptual analysis of street children. The responses from the professionals are however diverse and wide ranged. Each professional analyzed the phenomenon from the view point of his discipline thereby generating different perspectives to the issue being investigated.

From the standpoint of an Economist, street children were described as Active Urban Economic Agents, having access to the urban informal labour market which they take advantage of by rendering services, which cannot be dispensed with, in the typical Nigerian urban market setting.

*“These children have carved out a niche for themselves at the low end of informal economy..... they contribute significantly to urban economy. The total employment provided by street children activities, such as hawking, becomes larger if we consider the fact that they sustain certain industries by providing markets for their products”*

**Mr Akeju Adeleke, 42, Ilorin (An Economist)**

A sociologist analyzed the phenomenon of street children from functionalist perspectives and view street children phenomenon from its structural functionality and its contribution to the stability of a social system. According to him, streetism arise as a natural phenomenon and as a way of life because of the resources which accrue from street children to these poor families

*.....from the functionalist perspective, everyone and everything in society, no matter how strange it may seem, serves a purpose. Suffice to say that street children may not be*

*totally eradicated in the country even in the face of economic prosperity because it serves some useful function (which may be hidden) or promote value consensus among members of society (notably the poor)...(Dr Fawole, 38, Ilorin)*

From the perspective of an Urban Planner, streetism is an urban malaise which has implication for urban physical environment. An urban planner examines streetism from its physical planning implications. He highlighted the physical impact of the phenomenon on the urban residents and draws his conclusion based on the perceived consequences of street children

*.... They create traffic conflict in an attempt to sell items to road users which can lead to confusion for commuters and road users.....they bastardized the streets with wastes which can affect the environmental condition of the street.....street children are affecting all street furniture provided along the roads, for example most bus stops are used by street children for storing their goods and thereby affecting the aesthetic view of our streets.....they turn every available open space to sleeping place .....they create urban ugly face.....they distort urban landscape..... And make proper urban land use planning and management a difficult exercise. It is therefore, a serious urban problem that must be properly addressed.(Dr Muili, 44, Ibadan)*

### **Discussion of Findings**

As indicated in the findings of this study, streetism as an urban phenomenon justifiably reinforces negative comments from a large section of the public. This negative public perceptions stem from the negativities attached to the phenomenon such as identified by interviewees as; defacing of urban environment; impediment to traffic flow, threat to national security among several others. The negative perception of street children as a phenomenon has undoubtedly reinforced

the negative image of street children as individuals in terms of deviants and delinquents. They are frequently viewed as a threat to society, as truants, or criminals and in some cases a challenge to city imageries.

This perceptual pattern is not a peculiar feature in Nigeria, it has a global trait. For instance, in Latin America, the judiciary system, the police, the media, the business community and the society in general believe that street children are a group of hopeless criminals who represent a material and moral threat to a civilized country (Gigenback, 1994). It has also been reported that in Cape Town, society regards street children as deviants (Scharf et al, 1986). The situation is, however, different in Ghana where street children are perceived as “victims” and are shown compassion by the general public (Boakye-Boaten, 2006, Quarshie, 2011). An alarming manifestation of the negative perception of street children is the emergence of “death squads”: self-proclaimed vigilantes, many of whom are involved with security firms and the police seeking to solve the problem by elimination (Human Rights Watch, 1994). Although, in Nigeria, the notion of “death squad” and police brutality of street children is conspicuously absent, the negative perception of street children stimulates a negative image of hostile street children, making it almost impossible for them to retain a healthy self-esteem. It is important however, to note that the general perception of street children depends on the activities they engage in on the street. Those who provide valuable and essential services to the public are most times perceived differently from those whose activities are questionable such as pick pocketers and beggars. This stance has also been taken in a similar study conducted by Boakye-Boaten, (2006) in selected communities in Accra, Ghana.

The parental perception of street children is an indication that many parents do not see these children as individuals with specific rights but perceived them as useful “helping hand”. This is the more reason why parents send their children to the street to supplement family income thereby contributing to the pool of street

children on the streets of Nigerian cities. Some parents believe that the responsibility of providing for the household in the circumstance of inadequate finance should be shared between them and their children. They have seen children as capable and active agents and therefore perceived them as “economic goods”. While this could be seen as parental irresponsibility or misunderstanding of their responsibility towards their children, it has significantly affected the treatment of children by parents and perhaps one of the main reasons why they send them to the street.

Another obvious finding is that parents are ignorant of the impact of education as an important human right to break the cycle of poverty. They prefer vocation skill to formal education and thus could not avail themselves of the opportunity of basic education programme in the country. As a result, the children are trapped in the situation with little chance of escape such that in a vicious process, poverty is maintained among the poor across the generation

In almost all the studies on street children, poverty has been documented as a major underlying factor ( PCIZ, 2002; FREPD, 2003;ILO, 2004; Ogunkan, 2013). In this study, it is also observed that poverty factor featured prominently on the parental argument for streetism. While it is agreeable that economic condition should be put under consideration, it must be stated that it should not be an overriding reason why parents should send their children to the street especially when it interferes with their schooling.

The Economist point of view on street children as active economic agents is an plausible urban reality considering the fact that urban informality is a commercial part of our tradition. In Nigeria, the informal economy accounts for about a third of the 50 million labour force (Adeyinka et al, 2006). Children between the ages of 5 and 14 constitute 10 percent of this estimate (Trade Union World, 2001). The sociologist perception of street children provided us with useful information why the phenomenon of street children is on the increase. How can one explain why a phenomenon that is so widely attacked and

condemned (Luggala and Mbwanbo, 1999; Ennew, 2003; Ebigbo, 2003; Ikechebelu et al, 2009) continues to display such persistence and vitality? This suggests that street children serve some useful functions to a section of the society. With the sociologist perspective on street children, one may be caught in the thought that efforts to tackle the problem of street children may be in futility. Therefore we should just see the street children as a normal phenomenon and allow them to continue with their “normal’ business. This was refuted by an urban planner’s argument that the phenomenon, though a sociological issue, need to be properly addressed.

### **Conclusion**

The evidences presented in this study reveal the public negative perception and treatment of street children. While it could be argued that this perception and attitude towards street children stem from the negativities attached to street children phenomenon, it might have emanated from misunderstanding of the general public of their genuine and unfortunate circumstances. This negative perception makes it almost impossible for them to retain a healthy self-esteem. As revealed by Le Roux and Smith (1998), the negative perception of street children by members of the public has pushed the street children more deeply into antisocial behaviour and isolated them to the margins of society thereby aggravating their victimization. Against this backdrop, community members should be enlightened about their damaging pronouncements on these children and be made to understand that these children are on the street because of the circumstances beyond their control. They are on the street because of institutional, parental and social failures.

It has also been demonstrated that many parents do not see children as individual with fundamental rights but they perceived them as useful “helping hand”. This is the more reason why parents send their children to the street to supplement family income. Thus, to address this problem, parents should be alive to their responsibilities and protect their children’s

right to education and health. Parents should not see the children as “mini adults” and should desist from engaging the children in any work that is likely to interfere with their education, or harmful to their physical and mental health as well as their social development.

The study has also enlightened us that street children constituted a significant proportion of informal operators in the country. An indication that they can hardly be relegated in the provision or rendering of essential services to urban populace thereby contributing significantly to the economy of the country. While this fact is highly acknowledged, it must not in any way be made to interfere with their education. In ensuring this, children of school age should be barred from hawking or rendering any services during lesson hours when they are supposed to be learning in school.

Finally, the study shows that a significant number of parents have cited poverty as the overriding reason for sending the children to the street. As matter of fact, one cannot shy away from the fact that poverty is endemic in Nigeria. Governments are, therefore enjoined to tackle the problem of poverty in the country with passion, vigour and vitality

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## Training Evaluation: Process, Benefits, and Issues

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*Training is an organized approach to positively impacting individuals' knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness. Training gives organizations access to resources that will allow them to compete successfully in a changing environment, and to plan for and accomplish set goals. Effective training helps corrects employee and organizational deficiencies. However, poor, inappropriate, or inadequate training can be a source of frustration for everyone involved. Training typically poses a number of challenges and every training process brings with it a number of questions that managers must answer. Therefore there is need for organizations and managers to understand, plan for, and critically evaluate training. Based on the aforementioned needs, this paper examines processes, benefits, and issues in training evaluation. Among the issues discussed in the paper are the meaning of training evaluation and why training evaluation is necessary; measuring training's effectiveness and impact; Kirkpatrick's four levels of evaluation; and issues with training evaluation. The paper concludes that effective training evaluation is necessary for successful management of training programs and organizational growth and development. Therefore properly evaluating training requires managers to think through the purposes of the training, the purposes of the evaluation, the audiences for the results of the evaluation, the points or spans of points at which measurements will be taken, the time perspective to be employed, and the overall framework to be utilized.*

**Key Words:** Training, evaluation, investment, effectiveness, benefits, organization

Training is one of the activities that give organizations access to resources, including human resources, material, money and methods, that will allow them to compete successfully in a changing environment, and to plan and design activities to accomplish the perceived goals of the organization (Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa, 2008). Aguinis & Kraiger (2009) define training as "the the systematic approach to affecting individuals' knowledge, skills, and attitudes in order to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness." (Goldstein & Ford, 2002) define training as 'the systematic acquisition of skills, rules, concepts, or attitudes that result in improved performance in another environment.' Training is often used in conjunction with development (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004), though the terms are not synonymous (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004). Aguinis & Kraiger (2009) view development as organized efforts impacting individuals'

knowledge or skills geared towards personal growth.

In the view of Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004), the focus of training is typically on providing employees with specific skills or helping them correct deficiencies in their performance. In contrast, development is an effort to provide employees with the abilities that the organization will need in the future. Whereas in training, the focus is solely on the current job; in development, the focus is on both the current job and jobs that employees will hold in the future (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004, p.224). Furthermore, training is job-specific and its scope is on individual employees while the scope of development is on the entire work group or organization (i.e. concerned with the workforce's skills and versatility). Training focuses on immediate organizational needs, while development tends to focus on long-term requirements (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004).

Training and development also differ in the goals they seek to attain. While the goal of training is a fairly quick improvement in workers' performance, that of development is the overall enrichment of the organization's human resources. This is achieved by preparing employees for future work demands (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004). Training robustly shapes present performance levels, while development pays off in terms of more capable and flexible human resources in the long run (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004).

Training serves many masters and many purposes (Nickols, 2000). Some of the purposes that training serves may include focusing energy on issues, making work and issues visible, supporting other interventions, legitimizing issues, promoting change, reducing risk, creating a community based on some shared experience, building teams, indoctrinating new staff, communicating and disseminating knowledge and information. Others are certifying and licensing, rewarding past performance, flagging "fast trackers," and developing skills (Nickols, 2000). He notes that thinking about how evaluation of training might vary with the purpose or use of the training itself is as important as knowing the details of the training purposes.

Changes relating to training result in or are expected to result in improved job performance and a number of other positive changes (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Hill & Lent 2006; Satterfield & Hughes 2007) that serve as precursors of job performance (Kraiger, 2002). However, in-training strategies or conditions (such as manner of instruction) play significant role in improving transfer or performance (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Brown, T.C., 2005). The positive effects of training are not limited to employees, but also extend to managers and leaders (Collins & Holton, 2004), as well as organizations (Paradise, 2007) and society by way of human capital formation (Leeuwen & van Praag, 2002). Effective training can also raise performance, improve morale, and increase an organization's potential. Poor, inappropriate, or inadequate training can,

however, be a source of frustration for everyone involved (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004). Nickols (2000) recognizes the importance of training and notes that training is a management tool, not the private domain of those who specialize in its development or delivery, nor of those who make its development and delivery contingent upon some other methodology. Training designs may include before training, after training, and control Group (Pine and Tingley, 1993).

Training typically poses a number of challenges and every training process brings with it a number of questions that managers must answer. Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004) note these questions to include: Is training the solution to the problem? Are the goals of training clear and realistic? Is training a good investment? Will the training work? All these questions are predicated on sound theoretical frameworks about training. For instance, on whether training is the solution to the problem, it is understood that not all performance problems call for training. Performance deficits, according to Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004), can have several causes (unclear or conflicting requests, morale problems, and poor-quality materials), many of which are beyond the workers' control and would therefore not be affected by training.

The need to ensure that goals of training are clear and realistic underscores the fact that goals should be able to both guide the training program's content and determine the criteria by which training effectiveness will be judged. On whether training is a good investment, Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004) opine that training can be quite expensive. However, there are indications that when money is wisely used, training is definitely worth the investment. Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004) further write that what distinguished the most successful from the least successful manufacturing industries (plants) were three mutually supporting characteristics including extensive use of work teams, extensive delegation of responsibility to

production workers, and giving training more emphasis.

The question regarding the workability of training presupposes that adequate preparing for training is important. On this issue, Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer (2004) state that training will not work unless it is related to organizational goals. A well-designed training program flows from the strategic goals of the company. It is the manager's responsibility to ensure that training is linked with organizational goals (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004).

#### *What is training evaluation and why evaluate training*

There is much evidence suggesting that a considerable part of organizations' investment in training does not result in optimal transfer (Scaduto, Lindsay & Chiaburu, 2008). Managers and organizations are always interested in evaluating the costs of training in relation to the expected benefits of training. In not a few cases, however, managers and organizations may face dilemmas about certain kinds of training; to conduct or not conduct training. To maximize the benefits of training, managers must closely monitor the training process. The training process consists of three phases: (1) needs assessment, (2) development and conduct of training, and (3) evaluation. In the evaluation phase, the effectiveness of the training program is assessed (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, 2004).

Evaluation of training poses a problem for many trainers, managers, executives, and other professionals with an interest in training (Kirkpatrick, 1959; 1998). This problem is partly due to the *conspiracy of failure* that poorly conceived and haphazardly implemented training create in many organizations. Conspiracy of failure has to do with the minimization of the importance of integrating training with organizational strategy, assessing learning needs, ensuring the transfer of training from instructional to work settings, evaluating training results, and (most important) achieving performance gains and productivity (Rothwell, 2005).

Rothwell's *Theory of Visible Activity* states that customers of training think that high profile activity automatically means results and, therefore, that offering much training automatically improves employee performance. Of course, such a view is mistaken. The time has come, notes Rothwell (2005), to move beyond training as a quick fix (or fix-all) and to focus instead on applying a wide range of human performance enhancement (HPE) strategies. It is also time to emphasize the strategic and long-term role of HPE efforts and to transform training and development professionals into HPE Specialists (Rothwell, 2005).

Any effort to evaluate training is complex. For this reason Kirkpatrick (1959; 1998) emphasizes the importance of being clear about the purposes of and the audiences for any such evaluation. Training specialists and evaluators should be clear on what is to be evaluated and why it should be evaluated. Due considerations must be given to what the learning is supposed to do (e.g. change behavior, shape attitudes, improve job performance, reduce defects, increase sales, and enhance quality). Due attention also needs to be paid to important efficiency questions such as how much time does the training consume? Can it be shortened? Can we make do with on-the-job training or can we completely eliminate training by substituting job aids instead? There is also need to address cost-related questions such as: What does the training cost? Whatever it costs, is it worth it? Who says? On what basis? What are we trying to find out? For whom? The preceding questions illustrate the complexity of any effort to evaluate training and emphasize the importance of being clear about the purposes of and the audiences for any such evaluation (Kirkpatrick 1959; 1998).

Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, Cardy, Dimick, & Templer, (2004) have advised on the need to remember the differential gains of training and development when generating and evaluating training programs. They note that training strongly influences present performance levels, while development pays off in terms of more capable and flexible human resources in the long run. It is due

to these differences that taking a development approach to improve current job performance problems, for instance, will probably prove ineffective. For these same reasons, using a training approach to affect a long-range issue is likely to be futile. Training is one of the most frequently utilized human resource development interventions (Scaduto, Lindsay, & Chiaburu, 2005).

Training efforts are often expected to result in transfer of training as well as training maintenance. Transfer of training is defined as 'the degree to which trainees effectively apply the knowledge, skills, and attitudes gained in a training context to the job' (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). Training maintenance is defined as the reproduction of trained skills in a new setting, and training generalization refers to the adaptation of trained skills to a more complex situation.

Burke and Baldwin (1999) note that there is much evidence suggesting that a considerable part of organizations' investment in training does not result in optimal transfer. It is in order to improve job performance that the skills and behaviors learned and practiced during training have to be transferred to the workplace, maintained over time, and generalized across contexts (Holton & Baldwin, 2003). Due to the fact that transfer of training remains an important issue for researchers and practitioners (Holton & Baldwin, 2003), it becomes important to test models that include training effectiveness predictors.

Training programs are among the first areas to take a hit when the economy falters. Cutting training willy-nilly can create more problems than it solves. Effectiveness can be measured in monetary or non-monetary terms. However it's measured, it is important that the criteria by which the training is judged reflect the needs that the training was designed to address Kirkpatrick (1959; 1998). For instance, a training program designed to increase workers' efficiency might justifiably be assessed in terms of its effects on productivity or costs, but not in terms of employee satisfaction. According to Kirkpatrick (1959; 1998), the evaluation

phase is often neglected (due to difficulty in collecting data as well as time and other resources). This is akin to investing and not caring to know if one is receiving an adequate (or any) return on investment. If direct measures of training cannot be done, it is advised that estimates and costs of the training should at least be made (Kirkpatrick, 1959; 1998). This is the one dependable way through which the value of training can be demonstrated and upper management may feel that there is compelling need for continuing the training effort.

Pine and Tingley (1993) identified four levels of training measurement or evaluation. These include the following:

1. Participants' reaction to the training at the time of the training.
2. Participants' learning of the content of the training.
3. Participants' use of their new skills and knowledge back on the job.
4. Company's return on the training investment.

According to Rothwell (2007), doing training evaluation consumes valuable time and resources. All of these things are in short supply in organizations today. Managers and organizations should bother about the effectiveness of training because many training programs fail to deliver the expected organizational benefits. Therefore, having a well-structured evaluating system in place can help you determine where the problem lies. Even more positively, being able to demonstrate a real and significant benefit to your organization from the training you provide can help you gain more resources from important decision-makers (Rothwell, 2007).

It is also important to realize that the business environment is not standing still. Rothwell (2007) notes that competitors in business, technology, legislation and regulations are constantly changing. What was a successful training program yesterday may not be a cost-effective program tomorrow. Thus, being able to measure results will help one adapt to such changing circumstances (Rothwell, 2007).

Kirkpatrick (2007) has discussed six reasons to evaluate. These include the following:

- Determine whether a programme should be continued: Kirkpatrick (2007) notes that using evaluation in this regard is at best sporadic. The belief that "more is best," he adds, tends to rule the day. Therefore retiring courses seems to happen by default rather than by not design.
- Improve a programme: This process is carried out by looking at available background data and determining if there are any snags that break the chain from the learning process to the desired results.
- Ensure learning compliance: This measure is important because it ensures efficiency.
- Maximize the value of training: This helps to provide clues about how learning contributes to bottom-line results. On this, Kirkpatrick (2007) advises that before demonstrating value, one should make sure that training is adding value.
- Align training with strategy: The basic premise here is to ensure that training is aligned with the expectations for particular programs and curricula (Kirkpatrick, 2007).
- Demonstrate the value of training: Kirkpatrick (1959; 1998) and Kirkpatrick (2007) talk about this in terms of justifying our existence as training professionals. By knowing the audience to which you are trying to demonstrate value, you can gather data and information accordingly and present strong evidence that effective training led to targeted learning, which contributed to critical on-the-job behaviors that influenced the bottom line (Kirkpatrick, 2007).

#### *Measuring Training's Effectiveness and Impact*

Sullivan (1998) discussed a variety of ways that training can be measured. These include (1) Prior to training (2) At the end of training (3) Delayed Impact (non job) (4) )

On the job behavior change (5) On the job performance change and (6) Other measures. Measuring training prior to training entails obtaining information about issues such as the number of people that say they need the training during the needs assessment process and the number of people that sign up for the training. Evaluating training at the end of training could be done by ascertaining: the number of people that attend the session; the number of people that paid to attend the session; customer satisfaction (attendees) at end of training; customer satisfaction at end of training when customers know the actual costs of the training; a measurable change in knowledge or skill at end of training; ability to solve a "mock" problem at end of training; and willingness to try or intent to use the skill/ knowledge at end of training (Sullivan, 1998).

The delayed impact (non-job) training measurement has to do with knowing: customer satisfaction at X weeks after the end of training; customer satisfaction at X weeks after the training when customers know the actual costs of the training; retention of knowledge at X weeks after the end of training; ability to solve a "mock" problem at X weeks after end of training; and willingness to try (or intent to use) the skill/ knowledge at X weeks after the end of the training (Sullivan, 1998).

In regards to measuring training on the basis of on the job behavior change, Sullivan (1998) states that an evaluator would be interested in: trained individuals that self-report that they changed their behavior / used the skill or knowledge on the job after the training (within X months); trained individuals who's managers report that they changed their behavior / used the skill or knowledge on the job after the training (within X months); and trained individuals that actually are observed to change their behavior / use the skill or knowledge on the job after the training (within X months).

A training evaluator who is interested in measuring training on the basis of on the job performance change would take note of: trained individuals that self-report that their actual job performance changed as a result of their changed behavior / skill

(within X months); trained individuals who's manager's report that their actual job performance changed as a result of their changed behavior / skill (within X months); and trained individuals who's manager's report that their job performance changed (as a result of their changed behavior / skill) either through improved performance appraisal scores or specific notations about the training on the performance appraisal form (within X months) (Sullivan, 1998). Other information to look out for under this type of training measurement would be: trained individuals that have observable / measurable (improved sales, quality, speed etc.) improvement in their actual job performance as a result of their changed behavior / skill (within X months); the performance of employees that are managed by (or are part of the same team with) individuals that went through the training; departmental performance in departments with X % of employees that went through training; and ROI (Cost/Benefit ratio) of return on training dollar spent (compared to a firm's competition, last year's performance, other offered training, preset goals etc.) (Sullivan, 1998).

Other measures of training that Sullivan (1998) has highlighted include:

- CEO / Top management knowledge of / approval of / or satisfaction with the training program.
- Rank of training seminar in forced ranking by managers of what factors (among miscellaneous staff functions) contributed most to productivity/ profitability improvement.
- Number (or %) of referrals to the training by those who have previously attended the training.
- Additional number of people who were trained (cross-trained) by those who have previously attended the training. And their change in skill/ behavior/ performance.
- Popularity (attendance or ranking) of the program compared to others (for voluntary training programs).

### **Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Evaluation**

The Kirkpatrick's model of measuring training effectiveness consists of four levels:

Reactions, Learning, Transfer, and Results (Kirkpatrick 1959, 1994, 1998; Winfrey, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2007).

### **Level 1 Evaluation - Reactions**

Evaluation at level one (reactions) measures how participants in a training program react to it (Winfrey, 1999). He adds that the reactions evaluation level attempts to answer questions regarding the participants' perceptions. For instance, did they like the training? Was the training material relevant to their work? Kirkpatrick (1994) advises that every program should at least be evaluated at this level to provide for the improvement of a training program. Furthermore, the participants' reactions have important consequences for learning (level two). Although a positive reaction does not guarantee learning, a negative reaction almost certainly reduces its possibility (Winfrey, 1999).

### **Level 2 Evaluation - Learning**

Assessing at level two (learning) takes the evaluation beyond learner satisfaction and attempts to assess the extent learners have advanced in skills, knowledge, or attitude. Measurement at this level is more difficult and laborious than level one (Winfrey, 1999). Methods range from formal to informal testing to team assessment and self-assessment. To assess the amount of learning that has occurred due to a training program, level two evaluations often use tests conducted before training (pretest) and after training (post test) (Winfrey, 1999).

### **Level 3 Evaluation - Transfer**

The objective of level 3 evaluation is to measure the transfer that has occurred in learners' behavior due to the training program. According to Winfrey (1999), evaluating at this level tries to answer the question - Are the newly acquired skills, knowledge, or attitude being used in the everyday environment of the learner? Winfrey (1999) further notes that, for many trainers, this level represents the truest assessment of a program's effectiveness. Nevertheless, measuring at this level is difficult as it is often impossible to predict when the change in behavior will occur,

and thus requires important decisions in terms of when to evaluate, how often to evaluate, and how to evaluate (Winfrey, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 1994).

#### **Level 4 Evaluation- Results**

For many training experts (Kirkpatrick 1959, 1994, 1998; Winfrey, 1999; Kraiger, 2002) and Krishnaveni & Sripirabaa (2008), level four evaluation is frequently thought of as the bottom line. This level of evaluation attempts to assess training in terms of business results. That is to say that the level measures the success of the training program in terms that managers and executives can appreciate - increased in production, quality improvement, decrease in costs, reduction in frequency of accidents, sales increases, and even higher profits or return on investment (ROI) (Winfrey, 1999). From a business and organizational perspective, Winfrey (1999) notes that level four evaluation is the overall reason for a training program, yet level four results are not typically addressed. Obviously, determining results in financial terms is difficult to measure, and is hard to link directly with training (Winfrey, 1999).

In Kirkpatrick's four-level model, each successive evaluation level, according to Winfrey (1999), is built on information provided by the lower level. Evaluation, according to Kirkpatrick (1959; 1994, 1998) and Winfrey (1999), should always begin with level one, and then, as time and budget allows, should move sequentially through levels two, three, and four. Information from each previous level serves as a base for the next level's evaluation (Winfrey, 1999). Thus, each succeeding level represents a more precise measure of the effectiveness of the training program, but at the same time requires a more rigorous and time-consuming analysis (Winfrey, 1999).

There also exist evaluation methods that are specifically meant for long-term assessment of training results. Winfrey (1999) identify these long-term evaluation methods to include the following:

- Sending post-training surveys;
- Offering ongoing, sequenced training and coaching over a period of time;

- Conducting follow-up needs assessment;
- Checking metrics (e.g., scrap, re-work, errors, etc.) to measure if participants achieved training objectives; and
- Interview trainees and their managers, or their customer groups (e.g., patients, other departmental staff).

#### **Issues with training evaluation**

As desirable as training evaluation is, it is not without some issues. Nickols (2000) argues that training in actual fact only eliminates deficiencies and in turn reduces mistakes, errors, defects, and waste. However, training is not in itself a solution to a performance problem. He further argues that the only way to prove that training is successful is to shut down the training. As it is applicable to some other things, it is sometimes the case with training that the true measure of its value lies in its absence, not its presence, but shutting down training is hardly a practical way of testing that proposition (Nickols, 2000).

Evaluating training essentially depends on the perception of the person doing the evaluation. Nickols (2000) asserts here again that what is of great value to one person is of little or no value to another. In evaluating training, therefore, it is important to know one's audience (the person or persons for whom the determination of value is to be made).

Training does compete for resources and these resources ideally should be allocated before any effort can be undertaken. This means that, from the resource allocation perspective, the case to be made concerning the results of training must be made before the training is conducted, not after as it is a common practice (Nickols, 2000).

Gibbons (2004) summarizes key issues on the evaluation of training and development activities. He notes that most organizations do not thoroughly evaluate training and development events and that most line managers are not actively involved in the process of evaluating training and development activities, but we must not assume they don't want to

be. Gibbons (2004) further observes that many individuals and organizations oppose spending time on evaluation on the basis that it would cost too much even as few if any line managers have the development of their staff really spelled out within a job description, or focused upon at appraisal. Consequently, training is often not optimized.

Kirkpatrick (1959, 1998) and Kirkpatrick (2007) are of the view that training evaluation methods may not always be applicable across board. For instance, a method that was used to evaluate a sales training workshop may not be used in an exact way to evaluate an engineering skills building workshop.

Also of note is the fact that learners themselves receive little or no attention during most evaluation efforts. According to Gibbons (2004), this is a very serious omission, as trainees' acceptance of the need to learn; their level of engagement and contribution; their motivation, and their willingness to confront transfer barriers are absolutely crucial to the successes of any event or activity.

### **Conclusion**

In line with Nickols (2000) assertion, the concluding point to be made here is that to properly evaluate training requires managers to think through the purposes of the training, the purposes of the evaluation, the audiences for the results of the evaluation, the points or spans of points at which measurements will be taken, the time perspective to be employed, and the overall framework to be utilized. Only then can training and its evaluation produce gains that advance organizations overall set goals.

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## **Assessment of Developmental Capacities of Nigerian Infants and Children using Denver Prescreening Developmental Questionnaire (DPDQ)**

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The Denver Pre-screening Developmental Questionnaire (DPDQ) was adapted and used to establish trends in developmental capacities of Nigerian infants and children. 1153 Infants and Children, consisting of 613 males and 540 females, randomly selected, and presumed to be normal served as participants. Their ages ranged between 2 and 72 months. The participants were sampled from Lagos Island, Lagos Mainland, Lagos West and Lagos East, all within Lagos city. The questionnaire administered covered four developmental function areas namely: gross motor, fine motor adaptive, personal social and language. Results obtained revealed sequential developmental capacities of the children studied and thereby make the DPDQ adaptable as a developmental screening device for Nigerian children.

Screening tools are usually designed to help identify children who might have developmental delays. Such tools can be specific to a disorder (e.g. autism), or an area of development (e.g. cognitive development, language, or gross motor skills), or they may be general embracing multiple areas of concern, (Committee on Children and Disabilities, American Academy of Paediatrics, (CCDAAP) 2001).

Screening tools do not provide conclusive evidence of developmental delays and do not result in diagnosis. Rather early and periodic developmental screening is beneficial for variety of reasons among which are the following: (a) it allows for early detection of developmental delays; (b) it allows for early diagnosis of retardation; (c) Paves way for early implementation of effective therapy; and consequently, (d) increases chances for recovery and prevention.

The detection of mental retardation tends to be common and more pronounced at the school age period. This may be because it is when a child starts school that his ability is formally assessed and objectively. In the same vein there are vanned reasons why the detection of abnormal development tends to be late or delayed. Firstly a large percentage of the Nigerian

population including children does not receive routine medical examinations and check ups. In particular children are hardly taken to see a physician except during the vaccination periods in infancy (0-2yrs) and when they are seriously sick. Even when the children are taken to see physicians, the physicians only assess the status of their health for the purpose of vaccination and treat their ailments in case of sickness. The developmental status of these children is not usually evaluated. The few physicians that evaluate the development of children tend to rely more on parental reports of developmental milestones, and where doctors seek additional information about developmental status of children they often focus mainly on developmental charts that relate weight gains to height, to gross-motor development, and occasionally they assess the children's drawing ability. Oftentimes parents especially and some physicians unconsciously deny retarded development to shut out the devastating grieve on the part of parents that will accompany such acceptance.

Except for these occasional non standardized assessment efforts of physicians there seems to be no known standardized procedure for screening

children with the aim of detecting developmental delays. There are many pre and post natal risk factors that can affect the proper development of children and cause all or a combination of cognitive, social, affective and physical retardation. The pre-natal factors may include genetic (Kopp, 1983; Grigorenko, 2000; Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1997), and environmental (Olson, 1994; Griffith, Azuma, & Chasnoff, 1994). Post natal factors may include malnutrition (Read, 1982, Townsend, Klein, Irwin, Owens, Yarbrough & Engle, 1982), and maternal or stimulus deprivation (Rutter 1995, 2002).

Nigerian children are susceptible to developmental delays and retardation as a result of pre- and post- natal risk factors some of which are enumerated above and which can endanger their proper development, and cause all or a combination of cognitive, social, affective and physical problems. Given the prevalence of these risk factors in a developing country like Nigeria, and the available evidences that indicated high mortality rate of Nigerian infants and children less than five years of age (National Demographic and Health Survey, 2003), developmental screening of infants and children becomes imperative. Therefore the need to establish a developmental screening procedure for Nigerian infants and children motivated this study. It is expected that such a procedure will pave way for early detection of delays, proper identification of children with developmental challenges, adequate intervention planning for those with developmental retardation, and future prevention of such retardation. The establishment of such a procedure by standardizing and establishing psychometric properties for the Denver Pre-Screening Developmental Questionnaire (DPDQ) among Lagos children is the aim of this research.

The Denver Developmental Screening Test (DDST) from which the Denver pre-screening Developmental Questionnaire was adapted was

developed, standardized validated and revalidated in Denver, (Frankenburg & Dodds 1967; Frankenburg, Goldstein & Camp, 1971 Frankenburg, Ker, Engelke, Schaefer & Thornton 1988). It was standardized in Japan (Ueda, Furuya, Hirayama, & Kojima, 1977), and validated in Cuba (Berdasco & Jordan 1984).

The Denver pre-screening Developmental Questionnaire (DPDQ) evaluates a child's development through ability to move, use vision and hand skills, use social and self - help skills, and use speaking and understanding skills. It helps Paediatricians Developmental Psychologists and others to determine if a child is developing well and can help in making decisions and providing help for parents.

The Denver pre-screening developmental questionnaire was validated and revised in Denver (Frankenburg, Doorninck, Liddell, & Dick, 1976; Frankenburg, Fandal, & Thornton, 1987), validated in Sudan (Badri & Grotberg 1984), validated in Nigeria (Akinsola, 1995), and in India (Awasthi & Pande, 1997). Results of these studies have shown developmental trends and confirmed the reliability and validity of the tests. By assuming that the performance of the Nigerian children on the DPDQ will also follow a developmental trend with older children passing more items than younger children the following hypothesis guided the study.

### *Hypothesis*

It was hypothesized that:

The performance of Nigerian children (represented by Lagos sample) in the pre -screening questionnaire (DPDQ) will follow a developmental pattern with older children passing more items than younger children.

## **Method**

### *Participants*

1153 infants and children (613 males and 540 females) from different locations within Lagos city were used as

subjects. The ages of the children ranged between 2 and 72 months. The children were presumed to be normal and developing well. They were sampled from children hospitals, local government health centres and day care facilities located on Lagos Island, Yaba, Aguda and Ajegunle to ensure a

representative sample of Lagos city children. The sample comprises of children from middle and low socio-economic levels and from at least two ethnic groups living in Lagos. The children were divided into groups according to age with 14 days interval. (Table 1 below).

*Table 1: Distribution of Participants by Age*

S/N	Age Group (Months)	Age Range (Days)	Boys Number	Girls Number	Total Number
1	2	46-75	10	6	16
2	3	76-105	26	28	54
3	4	106-135	31	32	63
4	5	136-165	23	12	35
5	6	166-195	21	15	36
6	7	196-225	20	18	38
7	8	226-255	17	13	30
8	9	256-285	34	24	58
9	10	286-315	15	23	38
10	11	316-345	15	14	29
11	12	346-375	15	10	25
12	13	376-405	7	10	17
13	14	406-435	6	9	15
14	15	436-495	12	9	21
15	18	496-585	20	17	37
16	21	586-675	12	17	29
17	24	676-765	18	11	29
18	27	766-855	11	2	13
19	30	856-945	11	15	26
20	33	946-1035	12	9	21
21	36	1036-1125	13	7	20
22	39	1126-1245	10	5	15
23	42	1246-1335	15	19	34
24	45	1336-1425	28	25	53
25	48	1426-1515	20	15	35
26	51	1516-1605	31	25	56
27	54	1606-1695	38	29	67
28	57	1696-1785	17	22	39
29	60	1786-1875	32	17	49
30	63	1876-1965	16	18	34
31	66	1966-2055	20	21	41
32	69	2056-2145	18	21	39
33	72	2146-2235	19	22	41
			613	540	1153

*Instrument*

The Denver Pre-screening Developmental Questionnaire was used as the screening tool. It is made up of 97 items in question form. The Items test for gross motor, fine motor adaptive, personal social and language areas of child development. The questions are related to age and as such they are arranged in increasing order of difficulty which signifies increasing age. (Appendix: Tables I – V)

*Procedure*

Four research assistants trained on how to administer the DPDQ together with the author administered the questionnaires to parents and caretakers recruited from public health clinics, children hospitals, day care centres, nursery schools and the University of Lagos community. As a result of the stratified socio- economic and ethnic population of Lagos city, some parents who could read and write responded to the questionnaire

personally, while those who could not read and write were interviewed. The interviews were conducted in Yoruba language for uneducated Yoruba parents and in pidgin English for uneducated Igbo, Delta, Edo, and Hausa parents, since they understand this in addition to their native language. Some of the questions were re-phrased to reflect cultural appropriateness and familiarity. Interviewers ensured adequate parental understanding of what is required of them by demonstrating the required acts when necessary.

For a child a parent was expected to respond to a minimum of ten questions

or stop responding when the child could no longer perform the task required for three times consecutively. In some cases the children were actually put to test by asking them to perform the actual task.

### Results

The ages at which 25%, 50%, 75% 90% and 100% of the participants passed each of the items are presented in table 6. For the four developmental areas the ages at which 25%, 50%, 75%, 90%, and 100% of the participants passed each of the items in each developmental category are presented in tables 2-6.

Table 2: Age in Months at which the Items were passed for the total sample

Questions	25%	50%	75%	90%	100%
1					1.0
2					1.0
3			1.0	1.8	3.4
4			1.0	3.098	4.0
5		1.0	2.081	3.096	4.098
6		1.0		3.098	4.0
7	1.0			3.093	4.0
8			3.081	4.092	
9	2.031	3.043	4.052		
10		3.059		4.0	
11		3.044		4.092	
12		3.039		4.092	5.0
13	3.020	4.044			5.0
14		4.041		5.094	6.0
15	4.022			6.092	7.0
16	4.030		5.086		7.095
17	4.019			6.097	7.0
18	4.024			6.094	7.0
19	4.021			6.0	7.0
20	4.016			6.0	8.0
21		5.043		6.092	8.0
22	5.023			7.089	9.097
23	6.033		7.066		9.097
24	6.031		7.076	8.087	9.093
25	6.022		7.066	9.0	
26	6.031		7.066	8.093	9.0
27	6.031		7.061	9.098	10.0
28	6.0	7.058			10.0
29		7.039	8.067	9.091	11.097
30	6.0		8.063		11.0
31	7.026	8.053		10.095	12.096
32	7.035		9.067		13.0
33		8.053	9.062	12.096	14.0
34		9.053	10.061		
35		9.0		14.093	
36		9.052		11.086	14.0
37		10.045		12.088	13.0
38	8.021	9.045		12.096	
39	10.024	11.055			14.0
40		11.045		15.0	18.095
41	10.024	12.056		15.0	18.0

42		12.036	13.082	15.095	21.0
43	12.028	13.041		15.095	18.0
44		14.040	15.076		18.0
45	12.024	13.053		15.086	21.0
46	13.035		15.067	18.097	21.0
47	13.024			18.089	21.0
48	15.029		18.076	21.083	24.097
49	15.024			18.084	24.097
50	18.035				24.097
51	18.032		21.083	24.093	
52	18.027		21.072		27.0
53	18.022		21.062	24.0	30.0
54	18.022	21.035		24.0	27.0
55		21.38	27.085	30.92	33.0
56		24.059	27.085	33.095	
57			27.069	30.083	33.0
58	21.031			24.083	27.0
59	21.021	24.038			27.095
60	24.028		27.077	36.0	
61	24.021		27.062	30.096	33.0
62		27.054		30.092	33.0
63	30.027	33.043	36.065		
64		33.035	39.080		
65		33.052	36.0	39.093	
66	33.014		36.080		
67	33.014		39.073		
68			36.080	45.094	
69		36.0	45.0	48.094	
70			39.08		
71	45.030	48.054			
72			39.067	48.08	51.098
73			39.067	42.091	51.098
74				42.091	48.0
75				45.092	48.0
76			42.085	45.092	
77			42.079	45.091	57.0
78			42.065	51.093	57.0
79	42.021		51.077	60.082	
80		45.034		51.093	60.098
81	42.026			60.098	63.0
82	45.0		54.085	63.091	
83	45.028			54.091	57.0
84	45.030		54.088	57.092	66.0
85	45.028				57.0
86			60.078	63.085	69.0
87				66.0	72.093
88			60.086	63.097	66.0
89				63.094	69.0
90				63.088	72.098
91			63.088	66.0	72.098
92			66.073	69.087	72.095
93				69.092	72.093
94				69.095	72.098
95				69.095	72.098
96					72.098
97		72.046			

**Table 3: Gross motor items and the ages at which participants pass them**

Quest	Descriptions	25	50	75	90	100
7	Prone lifts head	1.0	1.7	2.4	2.9	3.2
8	Prone head up 45°	1.0	1.7	2.5	3.8	4.7
9	Prone head up 90°	1.6	3.8	6.6	8.3	4.4
13	Set head steady	3.2	4.1	4.5	4.8	5.0
15	Prone chest up arm support	3.8	4.8	5.4	5.9	6.1
17	Roll over	4.1	4.4	4.8	5.4	6.2
21	Pull to sit no head lap	4.6	5.2	5.6	5.9	6.2
25	Bears some with on legs	6.1	6.6	7.8	9.0	9.8
27	Sit without support	5.8	6.6	7.8	8.5	9.1
33	Stand holding on	7.7	8.6	10.1	11.4	12.4
35	Pull self to stand	8.3	9.0	9.7	10.4	11.0
38	Gets to sitting	7.8	9.2	10.7	11.6	12.2
41	Walks holding on furniture	10.1	11.6	12.6	13.0	13.4
44	Stands momentarily	13.6	14.3	15.0	15.4	15.6
45	Stands alone well	12.0	12.9	14.3	15.2	15.8
46	Stoops and recovers	12.4	13.9	15.4	16.4	17.0
48	Walks well	14.8	16.4	18.0	22.5	24.6
55	Walks backward	19.4	22.5	25.7	29.0	33.0
57	Walks up steps	18.0	23.0	28.3	31.2	33.0
61	Kicks ball forward	24.3	26.2	28.2	29.6	33.0
66	Throws ball over hand	33.6	34.6	35.8	36.5	37.0
69	Jumps in place	31.0	36.0	41.0	44.8	47.3
71	Pedal strikes	44.5	47.6	50.6	52.5	53.7
74	Balance on one foot 1 sec			35.0	42.0	48.0
75	Broad jump			35.6	44.0	50.4
83	Balance n one foot 5 secs	44.6	48.2	51.7	53.8	55.4
89	Hops on one foot				59.4	69.0
94	Catches bounced ball				65.0	74.0

*Table 4: Fine motor adaptive items & ages at which participants passed them*

Quest	Description	25	50	75	90	100
1	Symmetrical movement					1.0
4	Follows to midline			1.0	2.0	3.0
5	Follows midline		1.0	1.8	2.6	4.0
11	Hands together	2.6	3.1	3.6	4.0	5.0
12	Follows 180°	2.8	3.2	3.7	4.0	5.0
14	Grasp	3.7	4.2	4.7	5.0	7.0
19	Regards Bean seed	3.7	4.2	4.7	5.0	7.0
22	Transfer cube hand to hand	5.2	6.3	6.8	7.4	9.6
23	Sits looks for hidden object	5.7	6.5	7.4	7.9	9.6
24	Sits takes 20 object and hold	5.8	6.4	7.0	8.5	9.6
26	Rakes bean seed attain	5.8	6.6	7.4	8.0	8.4
37	Neat pincer grass pot bean seed	7.2	10.1	10.7	11.3	13.1
40	Bangs 2 tube held in hands	10.0	11.6	12.6	13.4	14.4
49	Thumbs and finger grasp	15.1	16.3	17.6	19.4	21.6
53	Tower of 2 cubes	18.2	20.1	22.4	24.0	25.0
62	Scribbles spontaneously	24.8	26.8	28.7	29.9	30.6
63	Tower of 4 cubes	29.6	34.0	37.4	39.4	40.8
68	Imitates vertical line with 30°			34.0	41.2	48.6
76	Copies circle			38.0	44.0	48.4
77	Tower of 8cubes		35.0	41.0	44.8	47.2
84	Picks longer line 3of 3	44.3	48.2	52.0	55.6	62.0
85	Copies + cross	44.6	48.7	53.0	55.4	57.0
91	Draw man 3 parts			55.2	66.0	73.8
92	Draw man 6 parts	55.8	61.2	66.5	70.2	74.0
96	Copies Square					72.98

*Table 5: Personal social items & ages at which participants passed them*

Question	Description	25%	50%	75%	90%	100%
2	Regards face					1.0
6	Smiles responsively	0.6	1.0	1.5	2.098	3.0
18	Smiles Spontaneously	4.0	4.4	4.8	5.094	7.0
28	Feeds self cracker	5.8	6.6	7.4	7.8	8.0
30	Works for toy out of reach	6.0	7.6	8.4	8.8	9.097
31	Hide and seek game	6.9	7.9	9.4	9.8	11.0
32	Resist toy pulls	6.6	7.6	9.8	10.8	11.097
36	Initially shy with strangers	6.6	8.8	9.7	11.096	13.0
42	Wave bye-bye	11.4	12.3	12.8	15.095	21.0
47	Indicates wants not crying	13.0	14.2	14.8	18.6	21.0
50	Plays ball with stranger	17.6	18.8	20.0	20.6	21.097
51	Drinks from cup	17.6	19.0	20.6	23.0	
52	Imitates house work	18.0	19.6	21.0	24.8	27.0
56	Removes garment	21.6	23.4	25.6	27.0	3.0
59	Uses spoon spilling little	21.6	24.6	25.9	26.6	27.095
60	Help in house simple task	23.8	25.4	26.9	27.8	30.0
70	Dons shoes not tied	34.7	36.6	38.6	39.8	42.0
72	Washes and dries hand	35.6	37.2	39.8	41.3	42.097
78	Plays interactive game	43.8	39.2	43.8	46.6	48.5
79	Dresses with supervision	45.0	47.7	50.8	52.6	
82	Buttons up	46.8	48.2	52.8	54.6	57.0
87	Separate from mother easily		51.0	56.8	59.2	63.0
90	Dresses without supervision				65.0	7.4

*Table 6: Language items & ages at which participants passed them*

Questions	Description	25%	50%	75%	90%	100%
3	Vocalizes			1.0	1.8	3.4
10	Laughs	2.0	2.8	3.6	4.0	4.3
16	Squeals	3.8	5.0	6.1	6.8	7.2
29	Responds to bell /turn to voice	6.4	7.4	8.4	9.0	9.4
34	Dada-Mama unspecific	6.0	8.7	11.4	13.0	14.0
39	Imitates speech sound	10.0	10.8	12.4	13.4	14.0
43	Dada-Mama specific	11.8	13.4	14.3	14.9	15.2
54	3 words other than Mama	18.8	21.8	23.2	24.0	24.6
58	Points to one named body part	20.7	22.1	23.6	24.4	25.0
64	Combines 2 different words	28.1	33.1	38.0	41.0	43.0
65	Names 1 Picture	29.4	32.8	36.0	38.5	40.1
67	Follows 2 or 3 directions	34.1	36.7	39.2	40.8	41.8
73	Uses plurals	34.2	37.0	40.0	41.9	43.2
80	Gives first and last name	44.1	46.6	49.2	50.8	51.8
81	Comprehends cold, tired, hungry	41.8	48.0	54.4	58.0	60.6
86	Comprehends 3 prepositions	-	-	59.0	65.0	69.0
88	Recognizes 3 colours			57.2	61.2	63.8
93	Opposite analogies				65.0	72.0
97	Composition of		72.0			

### **Discussion and Conclusion**

The objective of this study was to establish a standardized procedure for screening Nigerian infants and children that will make it possible to detect developmental delays and retarded development. To achieve this objective the Denver prescreening developmental questionnaire (DPDQ) was administered to a Lagos sample of infants and

children. The obtained results indicate that the performance of the children followed a developmental pattern. The ages at which the items were passed increased as the difficulty level of the items increased. Furthermore older children passed more developmental items than younger children. These results have therefore provided psychometric properties for the

adaptation of DPDQ as a screening instrument that can be used to screen and detect developmental delays and retardation in Nigerian infants and children.

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## Appendix:

**Table I: All questionnaire items**

### Categories

### Activities

Fm	1	Symmetrical Movement
Ps	2	Regards face
Lang	3	Language Vocalizes
Fm	4	Follows to mudding
Fm	5	Follow past mudding
Ps	6	Smiles Responsively
Gm	7	Prone lifts heads
Gm	8	Prone head up to 45°
Gm	9	Prone head up 90°
Lang	10	Laughs
Fm	11	Hands together
Fm	12	Follows 180°
Gm	13	Sits head steady
Fm	14	Grasps
Gm	15	Prone Chest up arm Support
Lang	16	Squeals
Gm	17	Roll over
Ps	18	Smiles spontaneously
Fm	19	Regards Beans seed
Fm	20	Reaches for object
Fm	21	Pull to sit no head lay
Fm	22	Transfer cube hand to hand
Fm	23	Sit, looks for hidden object
Fm	24	Sit, takes 2 objects and holds one in each hand
Gm	25	Bears some of on legs
Fm	26	Rakes beans seed, attains
Gm	27	Sits without support
Ps	28	Feeds self cracker
Lang	29	Responds to bell/Turns to voice
Ps	30	Works for toy out of reach
Ps	31	Plays peek-a-boo
Ps	32	Resist toy pull
Gm	33	Stands holding on
Lang	34	Dada-Mama
Gm	35	Pulls self to stand
Ps	36	Initially shy with strangers
Fm	37	Neat pincer grasp of raisin
Gm	38	Get to sitting
Lang	39	Imitates speech sounds
Fm	40	Bangs 2 cube held in hands
Gm	41	Walks holding on furniture
Ps	42	Plays Pat-a-cake
Lang	43	Dada/Mama Specific
Gm	44	Stands momentarily
Gm	45	Stands alone well
Gm	46	Stoops and Recovers
Ps	47	Indicates wants not crying
Gm	48	Walks well

Fm	49	Thumb and finger grasps
Ps	50	Plays ball with Examiner
Ps	51	Drinks from cup
Ps	52	Imitates house work
Fm	53	Towers of 2 cubes
Lang	54	Three words other than Mama/Dada
Gm	55	Walks Backwards
Ps	56	Removes Garment
Gm	57	Walk up steps
Lang	58	Point to one named body part
Ps	59	Uses spoon, spilling little
Ps	60	Helps in house simple task
Gm	61	Kicks ball forward
Fm	62	Scribbles spontaneously
Fm	63	Tower of 4 cubes
Lang	64	Combines 2 different words
Lang	65	Names 1 Pictures
Gm	66	Throws ball overhand
Lang	67	Follows 2 or 3 directions
Fm	68	Intakes vertical lines within 30°
Gm	69	Jumps in Place
Ps	70	Dons shoes, not tied
Gm	71	Pedals Tricycle
Ps	72	Washes and dries hand
Lang	73	Uses plurals
Gm	74	Balance on one foot 1 sec
Gm	75	Broad jump
Fm	76	Copies Circle
Fm	77	Tower of 8 Cubes
Ps	78	Plays interactive game
Ps	79	Dresses with supervision
Lang	80	Gives first and last name
Lang	81	Comprehends cold ,tired/hungry
Ps	82	Buttons up
Gm	83	Balances on 1 foot (5sec)
Fm	84	Picks longer line 3 Of 3
Fm	85	Copies + plus
Lang	86	Comprehends 3 Prepositions
Ps	87	Separates from mother easily
Lang	88	Recognizes 3 colours
Gm	89	Hoops on 1 foot
Ps	90	Dresses without supervision
Fm	91	Draw man,3 parts
Fm	92	Draw man 6 parts
Lang	93	Opposite analogies 2 of 3
Gm	94	Catches bounced ball
Gm	95	Balances on on 1 foot 10 (secs)
Fm	96	Copies square
Lang	97	Composition of

**Table II: Gross Motor Items**

Questions	Description of Activities
7	Prone lifts head
8	Prone head up 45°
9	Prone head up 90°
13	Sit head steady
15	Prone chest up arm support

17	Roll over
21	Pull to sit no head by
25	Bears some lot on legs
27	Sit without support
33	Stands holding on
35	Pulls self to stand
38	Gets to sitting
41	Walks holding furniture
44	Stands Momentarily
45	Stands alone well
46	Stoops and recovers
48	Walks well
55	Walks Backward
57	Walk up steps
61	Kicks ball forward
66	Throws ball overhead
69	Jumps in place
71	Pedal strike
74	Balance on one foot 1 sec
75	Broad jump
83	Balance 1 foot 5 sec
89	Hops on 1 foot
94	Catches bounced ball
95	Balances on 1foot 10 sec

**Table III: Fine Motor Adaptive Items**

Questions	Description of Activity
1	Symmetrical movement
4	Follows to the midline
5	Follows past midline
11	Hands together
12	Follows 180°
14	Grasps
19	Regards bean seed attains
22	Transfer cube hand to hand
23	Sits, looks for hidden object
24	Sits, takes 2 objects and hold one in each hand
26	Rakes bean seed attains
37	Neat pincer grasp of bean seed
40	Bangs 2 cube held in hands
49	Thumb and finger grasp
53	Tower of 2 cubes
62	Scribble spontaneously
63	Tower of 4 cubes
68	Imitates vertical line written
76	Copies Circle
77	Tower of 8 cubes
84	Picks longer line 3 of 3
85	Copies + Cross
91	Draw man 3 parts
92	Draw man 6 parts
96	Copies square

**Table IV: Personal Social Items**

Questions	Description of Activity
2	Regards face
6	Smiles responsively
18	Smiles spontaneously
28	Feeds self cracker

30	Works for toy out of reach
31	Plays Peek-a-boo
32	Resist toy pull
36	Initially shy with strangers
42	Plays pat-a-cake
47	Indicates wants not crying
50	Plays ball with Examiner <sup>60</sup>
51	Drinks from cup
52	Imitates house Work
56	Removes garment
59	Uses spoon spilling little
60	Helps in house /simple task
70	Dons shoes not tied
22	Washes and dries hand
78	Plays interactive game
79	Dresses with supervision
82	Buttons up
87	separates from mother easily
90	Dresses without supervision

**Table V: Language Items**

Questions	Description of Activity
3	Vocalizes
10	Laughs
16	Squeals
29	Responds to bell / turn to voice
34	Dada-Mama unspecific
39	Initiates speech sounds
43	Dada-Mama specific
54	3 Words other than Mama-Dada
58	Point to one named body
64	Combines 2 different words
65	Names 1 picture
67	Follows 2 or 3 directions
73	Uses Plurals
80	Gives first and last name
81	Comprehends cold, tired hungry
86	Comprehends prepositions
88	Recognizes 3 colours
93	Opposite analogies 2 of 3
97	Composition of

## **Psychological Factors as Predictors of Adult Learning in Selected Study Centres in Ibadan Metropolis, Oyo State**

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This study discussed some psychological factors that affect adult learning in selected study centers in Ibadan Metropolis Oyo state. Survey research design was adopted for the study. Convenience sampling technique was used to select sixty four (64) adult participants (22 males and 42 females), from the three study centers organized by the Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan. A questionnaire titled Adult Psychological Scale (APS), ( $r=0.89$ ) was used for the study. Two hypotheses were tested. The result of the first hypothesis showed that the joint effect of Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall, and Judgment) on Adult Learning was significant ( $F(4, 59) = 16.352$ ;  $R = .725$ ,  $R^2 = .526$ , Adj.  $R^2 = .494$ ;  $P < .05$ ). The second hypothesis showed that the individual effect of each of these variables on adult learning was also significant Memory ( $\beta = .277$ ,  $P < .05$ ), Concentration ( $\beta = .252$ ,  $P < .05$ ), ability to Absorb/Recall ( $\beta = .315$ ,  $P < .05$ ) and Judgment ( $\beta = .198$ ,  $P < .05$ ). In conclusion, the study showed that understanding the psychological factors that affect adult learning is important for success in teaching the adult learners. The adult educator should therefore try to understand the psychological characteristics of adult learners so as to help them benefit from adult learning experience.

**Key words:** Adult learning, Memory, Concentration, Absorb/Recall, Judgment.

Education plays a very important role in the life and wellbeing of an individual (Omolewa, 2001; Akintayo, 2004; Ezeokoli, 2010). The idea of acquiring education only at a particular stage valid for a lifetime is out of date, rather education should be all through life (Adenioye, 2000).

In view of this fact, adults are involved in adult learning for several reasons. Adults come to adult learning class because many of them are illiterates and are often embarrassed because of their inability to communicate fluently in English. Some are involved in adult learning because they are deprived of promotion in their offices as a result of pegged education. Some come to adult learning to improve on their vocation e.g. farmers, traders and so on. While some for self- fulfillment to boast their self-esteem (Sarumi, 2009).

In other words, adult learning enables adults to realize their full potentials and to improve their chances of bettering their own situation (Ezeokoli, 2010). As a result of the necessity of adult learning, there has been the view that one who ceases to learn ceases to exist although one may be living (O'Connor, 1957). Today, we see many adult learners in nearly all educational programs, but teaching adult learner is usually different from teaching younger students (Ugwegbu, 2003). This situation may be problematic for adult instructors who are unprepared to deal with such differences in the classroom (Baker, 2004). The adult educator is often viewed as a "facilitator" of learning rather than one who imparts knowledge and facts to a passive adult learner what Malcolm Knowles, (1984) called andragogy.

It is therefore important that adult educators can help adult learners become

motivated, especially if they understand their characteristics and psychological problems (memory, concentration, ability to absorb/recall and judgment) they encounter in learning. Results from several research point to a clear age related decrease in storage process (Cavanaugh, 1993). There is substantial evidence that the short term memory of the adult is more easily disturbed than younger ones. In that as people grow older, their short-term memory is less effectual, apparently because it is more subjected to interference by other happenings in between receiving the information and making use of it (Craik & Rabinouits, 1984; Kausler, 1992; Craik 1997).

In the aspect of concentration, Oyedeji (1992) found out that adult involvement in many responsibilities- domestic, professional, social, financial, religious and so on distract the older adults and affects his ability to learn. In the case of recall, Schater (2001) in his research indicated that older adults have more difficulty retrieving information than young people. This is based on the fact that a slight interruption of or distraction to attention will cause the older learner to forget immediately. Judgment also, has been associated with older adults (Harold, 2002). This is based on the fact that older adults have come in contact with many problematic issues and can easily use deductive reasoning to draw inferences or important points in a lesson; this supports the assertion of Oyedeji (1992) and Cabeza (2002) who reported that in some cases judgment aid performance in older adults.

Based on the fact that aging result in psychological problems and always constitute an impediment to adult learning, there is the need for adult educators to understand psychological characteristics that are involved in adult learning such as declining memory, lack of concentration, inability to absorb/recall and judgment. The study therefore wants to see the effect of these psychological factors on adult learning.

#### *Purpose of the Study*

The prime purpose of this study was to examine the effect of psychological factors on adult learners in Ibadan Metropolis of Oyo state. In addition the study want to finds out the joint effect of the impact of psychological factors (i.e. Memory, Concentration, Absorb/Recall and Judgment) on adult learning and also the individual effect of Memory, Concentration, Absorb/Recall and Judgment also on adult learning.

#### *Significance of the study*

The study would enable adult facilitators to realize that the adult learners have a peculiar characteristic, which make them different from other learners. This will enable them to understand the adult learners better and use the appropriate method to instruct them. The study would also help the adult facilitators to counsel adult learners that have psychological problems (anxiety and emotional), on how to cope with their problems so that they can learn better. Finally the study would enable adult facilitators to motivate adult learners so as to develop interest in the programme and to sustain such interests until the learner completes the programme.

#### *Literature Review*

*Understanding the Adult and His Psychology*  
For the adult instructors to understand the adult learners, he or she has to understand who an adult is, and his psychology. Psychology, according to Oladele (2004), is the scientific study of behavior of man and higher animals from the time before birth through maturity to the declining years. Educational psychology is the application of psychological principles, techniques and other resources in psychology to understanding the total job of teaching in all its intricacies (Austubel, 1977; Akinboye, 1987; Oladele, 2004). Therefore, the psychology of adult learning has to do with accumulated knowledge and understanding, which guide the learning process and the curriculum, to make intelligent decisions regarding the behaviour of the adult learner (Skinner, 1973; Oladele, 2004). In understanding an adult, different authors (Knowles, 1978;

Braimoh and Biad 1988; Bromley, 1966; Havighurst 1972; Walker 1974) have made attempts to define an adult using certain indices. One of the main features of identifying an adult is the position of the individual in the chronological age ladder (Jegade, 2011). From the chronological age, Bromley (1966) submits that adulthood starts at the age of 21 while Havighurst (1972) posits that early adulthood begins at the age of 18 years. Yet, Erikson (1973) suggests that early adulthood begins at 20. Walker (1974), on the other hand, states that early adulthood begins at age 16.

The importance of the chronological parameter in the determination of adulthood lies mainly in its use to determine certain privileges, rights and obligations in a given society. For instance, according to the constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, people who have attained 18 years are regarded as adults and can exercise certain fundamental rights. Also 21 years is the legal age for one to sue and to be sued. Equally, 18 years is regarded as the political age for a Nigerian to vote. A Nigerian cannot become the head of state before he is 35 years. The problem with this criterion is that it differs from different cultures of the world. For example, in the United Kingdom, a person can become a prime minister at 21 years, while one is considered capable of heading U.S.S.R from 55 years (Anyanwu and Egunyomi, 1988). Even within the same culture, for example, in Nigeria one is not regarded as an adult in his village at the age of 18 because the parents believe he cannot take decisions and cannot demonstrate maturity.

Another index deemed important for recognizing an adult is the social parameter (Jegade, 2011). Here, an individual is regarded as an adult based on the different social roles he has to play, to guarantee the safety, development and continuity of such society. Such roles include being a father, mother, husband, wife, worker, member of a social club, a member of religious organization, a member of his/her community, a friend (to many people at the same time), an uncle, aunt, all at the same time (ibid). Also, the individual must

possess sizable socio-political information in his memory.

Based on the social roles, the individuals with more years are usually assumed to be more informed, experienced and to be better placed in discharging the expected duties to themselves and their environment (Braimoh and Biad, 1988). But this criterion is not enough, since in some cases, experiences may not be seen as related to age alone, but a matter of chance. For instance, a young person with a good exposure and wide knowledge acquired through reading may be better informed than an adult who is not exposed.

Another perspective is biological. Biologically, ageing usually results in physiological decline (Oyedeki, 1991). This decline manifests in a number of indices like the skin texture, hair color, locomotive behavior and other sensory organs of the body (ibid). This is based on the fact that in adult years, the radiance of the skin is no longer there, the hair turns grey and in some cases baldness occurs (ibid). Also, the elderly walks slowly, the sensory organs grow less in functioning (Braimoh and Baid 1988). But the standard of living of an individual affects one's look (ibid). An individual who feeds well and takes care of himself may not age quickly compared to the one with low standard of living. For example, a farmer in the rural area at 25 years looks like an adult of 50 years in a white collar job in the city (ibid).

All the above parameters indicate that to define an adult is rather a difficult exercise. Every society has its own indices of determining who an adult is. But that notwithstanding, adults may be said to be individuals who have passed through the first two decades of life and exude the socially required behaviour (Anyanwu et al, 1992)

#### *Statement of Hypotheses*

Two hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

1. The joint effect of Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall

and Judgment, will not significantly affect Adult Learning.

2. The individual effect of Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall and Judgment will not significantly affect Adult Learning.

## Method

### Research Design

The descriptive survey design was adopted for the study.

### Population

The study population is all the adult learners in the three extra mural centers organized by the Department of Adult Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, in Ibadan Metropolis. These centers were at Bishop Phillips Academy, Iwo Road, Baptist Secondary School, Oke-Ado and Immanuel Anglican Grammar School, Samonda. The target population is one hundred and eighty nine (189) adult students.

### Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample consisted of 64 adult learners, selected through convenience sampling technique from the three study centers in Ibadan Metropolis. 22 males and 42 females within the age range of 25-65 years were used. 21(32.8%) participants were in primary school (Beginners, Intermediate & Advance classes), 21(32.8%) were in Junior Secondary School and 22(34.4%) were in Senior Secondary School.

### Instrumentation

Adult Psychological Scale (APS) with 40 items which was validated by experts in

Psychology and Measurement and Evaluation was developed and used for the purpose of this study. The instrument is a 4- point Likert rating scale ranging from Strongly Agree (SA) to Strongly Disagree (SD). Test re- test reliability co-efficient correlation of  $r=0.89$  was obtained after administering it on 20 adults in another literacy center organized by St Gabriel Catholic Church, Mokola Ibadan within one week interval.

### Procedures

The study was conducted for duration of six weeks. Prior to the six weeks, written permission was obtained from the Adult instructors. The researcher, with the help of their instructors, distributed copies of the questionnaire to the respondents. Those that have problems in filling the questionnaire, especially those in the primary school level were assisted by the researcher and their instructors to explain the questions before they made their choices.

### Data Analysis

Regression Analysis was used for data analysis.

## Results

*Hypothesis one:* There will be no significant joint effect of Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall and Judgment, on Adult Learning.

This hypothesis was tested by multiple regressions at the significant level of 0.05. The result is shown in table 1

Table 1: A summary Table of Multiple Regressions Showing Joint Contributions of Psychological factors on Memory, Concentration, Ability to Absorb/Recall and Judgment on Adult Learning

Model	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	1468.809	4	367.202	16.352	.000
Residual	1324.941	59	22.457		
Total	2793.750	63			

$R = .725$

$R^2 = .526$

Adj  $R^2 = .494$

Table 1 indicated that the joint effect of independent variables (Memory, Concentration, Ability to Absorb/Recall and Judgment) on Adult Learning was significant ( $F(4,59) = 16.352$ ;  $R = .725$ ,  $R^2 = .526$ ,  $Adj. R^2 = .494$ ;  $P < .05$ ). About 52% of the variation in adult learning was accounted for by the independent variables (i.e. memory, concentration, ability to absorb/recall and judgment).

*Hypothesis 2:* The individual effect of Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall and Judgment will not significantly affect Adult Learning.

This hypothesis was tested by multiple regressions at the significant level of 0.05. The result is shown in table 2

*Table 2: A summary Table of Multiple Regression Showing Independent Contribution of Psychological Factors of Memory, Lack Concentration, Ability of Adult Learners to Absorb/Recall and Judgment on Adult Learning*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficient		Standardized Coefficient	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	13.015	3.553		3.663	.001
Impact of Memory	.239	.093	.277	2.572	.013
Effect of Lack of Concentration	.132	.063	.252	2.091	.041
Ability of Adult Learners Absorb/Recall	.303	.119	.315	2.553	.013
Impact of Judgment	.430	.203	.198	2.123	.038

The result above shows the individual contribution of each of the independent variables on the dependent: Impact of Memory ( $\beta = .277$ ,  $P < .05$ ), Lack of Concentration ( $\beta = .252$ ,  $P < .05$ ), Ability of Adult Learners Absorb/Recall ( $\beta = .315$ ,  $P < .05$ ) and Impact of Judgment ( $\beta = .198$ ,  $P < .05$ ).

It is noted from the results above that all the independent variables (Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall, and Judgment) were found to influence adult learning significantly.

*Limitations of the Study*

This study was limited in its relatively small sample size and to the local of the study. It would have been more valuable, judging from the relevance of the study to national development, if larger sample was used and if it was in more than Ibadan metropolis. This, notwithstanding, the sample size and the adoption of Ibadan metropolis as a study venue did not in any way invalidate the findings reported. What is only being canvassed is the need for caution in generalizing the findings.

*Discussions*

The study examined psychological factors that affect adult learning in the three studies Centers Organized by the Department of Adult Education, University

of Ibadan, Ibadan. Two null hypotheses were tested. The first hypothesis which predicted joint effect of Memory, Concentration, Absorb/Recall and Judgment was rejected. This shows that all the independent variables have cumulative effect on Adult learning.

Hypothesis Two which predicted individual effect of the independent variables on adult learning was also rejected. It is noted from the results above that all the independent variables (Memory, Concentration, ability to Absorb/Recall, and Judgment) were found to influence adult learning significantly. In terms of memory, this result tallies with the findings of Chukwunke (1990) and Jegede (2011) that there is a strong relationship between adult learning and memory. Jegede further opined that there appears to be a decline with age in the rate of which information can be stored in the short-term memory because of interference by other happenings in between receiving the information and making use of it.

Many researchers have distinguished between short term- memory and long-term memory. According to Craik (1997), Lombourne (2006), Springer, McIntosh, Winocur and Grady (2005), the aged have defects in remembering recently learned materials. They remember old events better.

They then concluded that the older the adult, the poorer his short-term memory.

To help the adult learners overcome the impact of memory on learning, the adult facilitator should avoid much memorization and support their learning with memory aid like instructional diagram, charts and posters. He also has to realize that because of biological aging, the adult is a slow learner and needs repetition before information can be processed and stored. He should also encourage them to jot things down to help them remember and also teach them how to remember things through association that is they should hook the new events/ information to old ones in their long term memory to help them remember.

In the case of concentration, results from several researches point to the fact that absentmindedness tends to occur most frequently with adults even when they are engaged in mental activity. This is based on the fact that the adult is involved in many responsibilities, which includes domestic, professional, social, financial, and religious and so on and this distracts the older adults and affects his ability to learn. (Delbridge 2000, Wylie & Allport 2000, Benjamin, Craik, Perrela, Tonev 2000, Benschakhar & Sheffer 2001, Hembroke & Gay 2003, Konig, Buhner, Murling 2005, Cora 2010). Surwulo (1964) found that age did not affect concentration or vigilance in the first 45 minutes. After this duration, there is a decline in the power of concentration of older people.

To help the adult learner overcome this impediment of lack of concentration, the adult educator should adopt a variety of approaches to his presentation to make it lively and enjoyable to the adult learners e.g. storytelling, dramatizing, etc. The class also should be participatory in nature, so that their attention will be in the lesson.

As regards ability of the adult learners to absorb/ recall, the result showed that adult learners have difficulty in absorbing and recalling learnt information. The result of this study agrees with the findings of Dr.

Daniel L. Schacter, a Harvard professor of psychology and an expert on memory, who observed that older adults have more difficulty retrieving information than young people. Schacter further stated that younger people find it easier than older adults to store incoming information and efficiently organize it in order to retrieve it later.

The result, further tallies with the finding of some memory researchers, such as (Rick 2010, Schacter 2001, Pinker 1999, Ashcraft 1994) who observed that adults have certain values imprinted in their persons and characters. That when the new thing to be learnt is contrary to the already held value, it becomes difficult for the adult to accept the new information and difficult to be absorbed but there should be valid evidence to prove the new one is very important. If the presentation does not prove that the new information is superior to the old, it may hinder acceptance and therefore absorption will not be aided.

In the aspect judgment, the finding corroborates the findings of Harold (2011), whose study in experimental theological education in the U.S, present significant findings related to impact of judgment in middle adult learners. Judgment is a matter of previous experiences and to aid adult learners in their judgment ability, the teacher should use their previous experiences. In other words, their knowledge should be tapped, by allowing them to participate in the class. Oral presentation is very good for them.

#### *Implications of the Study*

The study has identified that psychological foundations is essential in adult education because it looks at the behavior of the adult. That is, the psychological problems in the learning of the adults. The adult educator should therefore make himself conversant with the psychology of adult learning and establish from it the conditions which will enable the adult learner to benefit from an educative experience.

Another finding of the study which has implication is the fact that effective

teaching must start from consideration of the needs and interest of the learners. To achieve this, an adult educator's role includes that of a counselor and friend. In other words, the way the class is conducted, the type of language spoken and the treatment given to the individual adult, all affect learning.

Also, the study has implications for proprietors of Extension classes, Evening classes, Correspondence Colleges and all Adult Education Agencies. In that, it will help them to employ adult instructors who understand the psychological characteristics of the adult learners and can help them in the management and administration of adults in their establishments.

#### *Conclusions and Recommendations*

The study showed that adults may have difficulties in learning as a result of psychological factors, but that adult facilitators having understood who an adult is, and his/her peculiar characteristics, coupled with the understanding of these psychological factors, can assist the adult learners to be emotionally stable, and be able to go through learning successfully. Therefore, no adult should use age as an excuse for not wanting to learn. And that he is capable of learning anything that he has made up his mind to learn.

In conclusion, it would be pertinent to say that, understanding the psychological factors that affect adult learners is important for success in the choice of methods of teaching the adult learners. Further research studies to corroborate or contradict the present study are therefore recommended.

#### *Contributions to Knowledge*

This study makes a modest contribution to the understanding of the psychological factors that affect adult learners, knowledge of which will enable adult educators to know how the adults can be "helped" to learn. It provided empirical evidence to recommend that given suitable conditions, older persons can go on learning, so long as they are not senile, and that they may actually be better than younger person at

grasping the implications of certain types of information. The research has therefore filled an identified research gap in the field of adult education in the country.

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## **Insight into illness in a sample of Nigerian Patients with Schizophrenia: Sociodemographic and clinical correlates.**

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Majority of studies evaluating insight in schizophrenia conducted in western countries have shown diverse associations between insight and various sociodemographic and clinical factors. The objectives of this study were to assess insight in a sample of Nigerian patients with schizophrenia. Seventy patients diagnosed with schizophrenia were recruited into the study from the mental health units of the Obafemi Awolowo University Teaching Hospital Complex. Participants completed a semi-sociodemographic and illness-related questionnaire, the Insight Scale for Psychosis (ISP). The psychopathological symptoms were assessed with the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale. Analysis was done with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 16 (SPSS for Windows, 2007). The number of relapses and hospitalizations correlated with the “ability to re-label experiences” and “insight in need for treatment items” of the ISP. All the three items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis negatively correlated with the PANSS positive, PANSS negative and PANSS general. Some of the illness-related factors and PANSS subscales were observed to have predicted the three items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis. More studies are needed in our environment to identify other factors that influence insight in patients with severe mental disorders.

*Keywords:* Insight, Nigeria, Schizophrenia

Insight is an important concept in clinical psychiatry and it has been described as self cognizant and the acknowledgement of mental disorder and the acceptance of the need for treatment (Saravanan, Jacob, Prince, Bhugra, & David, 2004). Despite the varying level of awareness into the morbid state that have been observed in many neuropsychiatric disorders, a lack of insight is particularly common in schizophrenia (Amador *et al.*, 1994; Michalakeas *et al.*, 1994; Sanz, Constable, Lopez-Ibor, Kemp, & David, 1998). The lack of awareness of illness and associated symptoms is a common feature in patients with schizophrenia, with almost 80% of affected patients failing to acknowledge that they have a mental illness (Amador, 1998). In the International Pilot Study of Schizophrenia, a survey conducted by the World Health Organization, absence of insight was found to be almost invariably associated with a diagnosis of acute

schizophrenia across all countries and cultures (Amador, *et al.*, 1994).

### *Clinical facets of insights in schizophrenia*

Studies have reported on the various clinical facets of insight in schizophrenia. The lack of awareness in the context of schizophrenia has been associated with illness severity (De Hert *et al.*, 2009; Sevy, Nathanson, Visweswaraiyah, & Amador, 2004) and in terms of consequences; the presence of poor insight has been associated with poor compliance with treatment (Kemp & David, 1996; Sanz, *et al.*, 1998) and poorer outcome (David *et al.*, 1995; Lincoln, Lüllmann, & Rief, 2007). It has also shown that level of insight varies depending on the phase of the illness (Smith, Hull, & Santos, 1998). The absence of insight has been statistically demonstrated to have a strong positive correlation with involuntary commitment into a mental health facility (Weiler, Fleisher, & McArthur-Campbell, 2000).

Studies investigating whether alterations in level of insight are related to alteration in symptoms have produced varied results. Some found that change in the present level of insight appears to be unrelated to symptom change (Carroll *et al.*, 1999; Kemp & Lambert, 1995; McEvoy *et al.*, 1989) while others reported mixed results (Jorgensen, 1995; McEvoy, Freter, Merritt, & Apperson, 1993) and significant associations (Gharabawi, Lasser, Bossie, Zhu, & Amador, 2006; Lysaker, Bryson, & Bell, 2002).

Studies have shown what appears to be a negative consequential aspect to the development of insight in patients with schizophrenia. A meta-analysis that investigated the association between insight and depression involving 15 studies with a total population of 1218 patients reported increased depressive symptoms with increased insight into illness (Mintz, Dobson, & Romney, 2003). Also, some authors have reported that insight was associated with statistically significant increased suicidal ideation and attempt (Evren & Evren, 2004; Kim, Jayathilake, & Meltzer, 2003; Schwartz & Smith, 2004). Positive associations have also been shown between insight and medication adherence (Mutsatsa *et al.*, 2003; Watson *et al.*, 2006; Yen *et al.*, 2005). A relatively recent study found that greater insight into illness in a group of patients with schizophrenia was significantly predictive of a favourable attitude towards medication adherence following discharge from in-patient care (Schennach-Wolff *et al.*, 2009).

Authors that investigated the relationship between insight and violence in the context of schizophrenia have produced contradictory findings. Some have shown strong positive correlations between lack of insight and violence (Buckley *et al.*, 2004; Foley *et al.*, 2005; Grevatt, Thomas-Peter, & Hughes, 2004), while some did not (Arango, Bombin, Gonzalez-Salvador, Garcia-Cabeza, & Bobes, 2006; Carroll, Pantelis, & Harvey, 2004). The relationship between insight and competence to consent has also revealed different results. Using the Birchwood Insight Scale (Birchwood *et al.*, 1994), it has been reported that the level of insight was not associated with the capacity

to consent to treatment (Palmer & Jeste, 2006), while other authors have demonstrated a significant correlation between level of insight and capacity to consent (Dunn *et al.*, 2007).

Absence of insight was in the past a major demarcating feature between psychosis and neurosis, though it has been shown that some patients with schizophrenia do possess intact insight (McEvoy, *et al.*, 1993). Sociodemographic variables such as gender and educational level have not been consistently found to be associated with insight in schizophrenia (Wiffen, Rabinowitz, Fleischhacker, & David, 2010), also, psychotic symptoms have been shown to have a weak negative correlation with insight (Mintz, *et al.*, 2003) while low mood predicts a better awareness (Markova & Berrios, 1992; Smith, Hull, Israel, & Willson, 2000). Most of the studies on insight in patients with schizophrenia have been conducted in developed countries, despite the cultural generality of mental disorders (Saravanan, *et al.*, 2004).

A literature search revealed a paucity of research into the sociodemographic and clinical factors associated with insight among Nigerian patients with schizophrenia. The only study in Nigeria examined insight in relation to medication adherence (Adewuya, Ola, Mosaku, Fatoye, & Egunranti, 2006). The objectives of this current study were to assess insight in a cross-sectional sample of Nigerian patients with schizophrenia, to examine the associations between insight and various socio-demographic and illness-related factors as well as investigate the factors that influence insight.

### **Methods**

A total of 70 patients receiving treatment for schizophrenia were recruited consecutively from the psychiatry unit of the Obafemi Awolowo University Hospitals Complex (OAUTHC), a tertiary health care facility located in south-western Nigeria. Approval for the study was obtained from the Ethical and Research Committee of the Hospital. Written informed consent was also obtained from the patients after the aims and objectives of the study had been explained to them. Subjects were

consecutively recruited from the psychiatric unit over a period of four months (June 2013-August 2013). Inclusion criteria include patients diagnosed with schizophrenia according to the International Classification of Diseases and Disorders, 10<sup>th</sup> edition (ICD-10) (International Classification of Diseases, 1992). Subjects who do not give consent, those with comorbid medical problems and substance use disorder were excluded.

### *Materials*

*A. A semi-structured sociodemographic and illness related questionnaire:* This questionnaire inquired about the following socio-demographic data: age, sex, ethnicity, religion, present marital status, family type, employment status, level of education, income per month for those who are currently employed. Illness-related details for the patients included: duration of illness in months, age at onset of illness in years, the number of relapses, the number of admissions due to illness and time since last admission in months.

*B. Insight Scale for Psychosis:* Insight was assessed with the Insight scale for psychosis (ISP) which is a self-report instrument (Birchwood, *et al.*, 1994). It consists of eight questions which are scored on a scale of 0 to 2 and it measures the three dimensions of insight i.e. awareness of illness, attribution of symptoms to illness and the need for treatment. It is selected because of its short and easy to comprehend nature. There is no evidence that this instrument has been used in this environment therefore a validity test would be carried out.

*C. Psychopathological symptoms:* These were assessed with the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale (Kay, Abraham, &

Opler, 1987). This is a structured interview to assess patients on 30 items covering positive, negative and general symptoms. For each item, ratings were made on a 1 – 7 scale of symptom severity. The scale has been used in Nigeria (McCreadie & Ohaeri, 1994; Reicher *et al.*, 2003).

### *Data Analysis*

Analysis was done with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 16 (SPSS). Results were calculated as frequencies, means and standard deviations. Bivariate analyses were used to examine the relationships between the three items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis and the socio-demographic and illness related variables. Multiple linear regressions (forward method) was performed with the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis as dependent variables and the sociodemographic and illness related factors as independent variables, in order to ascertain the factors that predicted the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis. All tests were two-tailed, and the level of significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

### **Results**

A total of 80 patients diagnosed with schizophrenia were recruited from the mental health units of the two units of the Obafemi Awolowo University Teaching Hospital Complex. Out of these, 6 had incomplete Sociodemographic and illness related data while 4 did not give consent, thus leaving a total of 70 patients whose results were analysed. Table 1 shows the Sociodemographic characteristics of the subjects recruited for the study. The mean age of the subjects was 40.01(SD  $\pm$ 15.41) with a range of 18 to 85 years. There were more males (54.3%) than females. A larger percentage was single (52.9%) while 2.9% were divorced.

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the study subjects

Variables	Mean	SD
<b>Age</b>	40.01	15.41
	<b>N (%)</b>	
<b>Gender:</b>		
Male	38 (54.3%)	
Female	32 (45.7%)	
<b>Marital Status:</b>		
Single	37 (52.9%)	
Married	25 (35.7%)	
Divorced	2 (2.9%)	
Separated	6 (8.6%)	
<b>Family type:</b>		
Monogamous	59 (84.3%)	
Polygamous	11 (15.7%)	
<b>Religion:</b>		
Christianity	60 (85.7%)	
Islam/others	10 (14.3%)	
<b>Ethnicity:</b>		
Yoruba	70 (100%)	
<b>Level of education:</b>		
Primary	20 (28.6%)	
Secondary	15 (21.4%)	
Tertiary	35 (50%)	
<b>Employment Status:</b>		
Currently Employed	35 (50.0%)	
Not Currently Employed	23 (32.9%)	
Never Employed	12 (17.1%)	
<b>Income per month (naira) *:</b>		
<10000	14 (40.0%)	
10000-19999	4 (11.4%)	
20000-29999	2 (5.7%)	
30000-39999	4 (11.4%)	
40000-49999	3 (8.6%)	
>50000	8 (22.9%)	

➤ \* Percentage shown is the valid percentage of those currently employed.

Table 2 shows the illness related characteristics of the subjects. The age of onset for the males and females were respectively 26.53 (SD±7.99) and 32.28(SD±8.92).

Table 2: Illness related characteristics of the subjects

Variables	Mean (SD)
<b>Age of onset :</b>	29.16(8.85)
Male	26.53 (7.99)
Female	32.28( 8.92)
<b>No of relapses:</b>	1.61 (1.88)
<b>No of hospitalizations:</b>	1.26 (1.02)
<b>Months since last relapse:</b>	17.83 (27.87)
<b>Monthly cost of treatment:</b>	1550.23(231.12)

Table 3 shows the mean scores on the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis (ISP) and the Positive and Negative Symptom of Schizophrenia scale (PANSS).

*Table 3: Mean scores on the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis (ISP) and the Positive and Negative Symptom of Schizophrenia scale (PANSS)*

Variables	Mean	SD
<b>Insight Scale for Psychosis</b>		
Ability to re-label experiences	2.23	1.41
Awareness of illness	1.71	1.44
Insight into need for treatment	3.01	1.11
<b>Total Score</b>	6.96	3.20
<b>PANSS scale</b>		
PANSS positive	11.00	7.10
PANSS negative	9.24	4.35
<b>PANSS general</b>	21.00	8.22

Table 4 shows the Spearman’s correlations between the sociodemographic variables, illness-related factors, PANSS and items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis. It can be seen that none of the continuous sociodemographic variables were significantly associated with the three items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis. It can be also be observed that the number of relapses of illness positively correlated ( $r=0.241$ ,  $p=0.044$ ) with the “Awareness of

illness” item of the Insight Scale for Psychosis, while the number of hospitalizations on account of the illness was observed to positively correlated ( $r=0.240$ ,  $P=0.046$ ) with the “Ability to re-label experiences”, and also positively correlated ( $r=0.248$ ,  $p=0.039$ ) with “Insight into need for treatment”. Also, all the subscales of the PANSS were observed to negatively correlate with the three items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis.

*Table 4: Correlations between Sociodemographic variables, illness-related factors, PANSS and items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis*

	Ability to re-label experience	Awareness of illness	Insight into need for treatment	Total score
<b>Sociodemographic variables</b>				
Age of subject:	0.001	0.128	0.172	0.099
Duration of unemployment:	0.177	0.006	0.066	0.112
Income per month:	0.127	0.063	-0.021	0.047
<b>Illness related variables</b>				
Age of onset of illness:	0.023	0.198	0.162	0.169
No of relapses:	0.035	<b>0.241*</b>	0.164	0.190
No of hospitalizations:	0.240*	0.126	<b>0.248*</b>	<b>0.261*</b>
Months since last relapse	0.169	0.189	0.146	0.225

Monthly cost of treatment	-0.060	-0.041	0.005	-0.056
<b>PANSS</b>				
PANSS positive:	<b>-0.393*</b>	<b>-0.411**</b>	<b>-0.283*</b>	<b>-0.440**</b>
PANSS negative:	<b>-0.366*</b>	<b>-0.329*</b>	<b>-0.280*</b>	<b>-0.409**</b>
PANSS general:	<b>-0.471**</b>	<b>-0.435**</b>	<b>-0.296*</b>	<b>-0.516**</b>

\* <0.05      \*\* <0.001

Table 5 shows the factors predicting the scores on the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis.

Table 5: Factors predicting the scores on the items of the Insight Scale for Psychosis

Variable	R	R <sup>2</sup>	S.E	p-value	95% CI
<b>Ability to re-label experience</b>					
<b>PANSS general</b>	0.439	0.193	1.272	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	-0.108 to -0.036
<b>No of hospitalizations</b>					
	0.505	0.255	1.231	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.043 to 0.498
<b>Awareness of illness</b>					
<b>PANSS general</b>	0.345	0.119	1.358	<b>0.003</b>	-0.100 to -0.021
<b>Need for treatment</b>					
<b>PANSS positive</b>	0.387	0.150	1.027	<b>0.001</b>	-0.092 to -0.024
<b>No of hospitalizations</b>					
	0.453	0.206	1.000	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.016 to 0.386
<b>Total score</b>					
<b>PANSS positive</b>	0.470	0.221	0.047	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	-0.299 to -0.116
<b>No of hospitalizations</b>					
	0.518	0.268	0.257	<b>0.041</b>	0.023 to 1.048

### Discussion

We, the authors believe this is the first study in Nigeria that has attempted to specifically examined the relationships between insight and socio-demographic and illness related factors in patients with schizophrenia. Concerning the socio-demographic and illness related characteristics of our patients; their mean age was 40.01 years which is similar to the mean age of the schizophrenia patients

from a comparable centre in south-western Nigeria (Suleiman, Ohaeri, Lawal, Haruna, & Orija, 1997). A larger percentage of our patients were single, a finding that is supporting what has been reported concerning marital status among patients with schizophrenia who are more likely to remain single and unmarried than patients in other diagnostic groups (Eaton, 1975; Kebede *et al.*, 2004 ). The employment rate of the patients in this study was 50.0%

which is higher than the European estimates of employment rate in this patient group which ranges from 8 to 35% (Gaite *et al.*, 2002). Mental disorders have been associated with an elevated risk of unemployment, with only 20% of patients receiving care in specialist centers gainfully employed (Healthcare Commission & for Mental Health in England, 2008). Severe mental disorders such as schizophrenia is associated with a three-fold increased risk of unemployment (Melzer, Fryers, & Jenkins, 2004) as well as a reduced level of well-being and functioning (Huppert & Whittington, 2003).

The majority of the patients in this study were earning less than 10,000 naira per month; this finding is consistent with what has been reported in other studies that individuals with severe mental disorders generally earn low incomes compared to the general population (Gao, Schmidt, Gill, & Pratt, 2011). The difference in age of onset observed in the subjects between the sexes is characteristics of patients with schizophrenia, with later age of onset usually reported in females (Usall *et al.*, 2001). One observation regarding the mean age of onset of our subjects was that it was slightly higher than what has been generally reported in populations of schizophrenia patients (Malla *et al.*, 2002).

The possible reason for this may be because all the patients that we recruited had paranoid schizophrenia, which is characterized by a considerably higher age of onset (reported to have a mean age of 28.5yrs vs. 19.9 years in patients with nonparanoid schizophrenia) (Bellino *et al.*, 2004). The mean monthly cost of treatment in our subjects was 1550.23 Naira per month; this provides only an estimate of the aspect of the direct costs of the illness. The cost of illness typically assesses the direct and indirect costs of a particular disorder. The direct cost include, direct medical expenditures, emergency department services, consultation fees for outpatient visits and costs of medications. The indirect cost of the illness attempts to estimate the level of impairment as a result of the illness, and the effect of the disorder on the work productivity of patients and their caregivers, as well as other issues, such as

social welfare costs and criminal justice costs (Kleinman *et al.*, 2003).

The psychometric properties of the Insight Scale for Psychosis revealed an internal consistency (Cronbach  $\alpha$ ) of 0.748, indicating adequate reliability. The Cronbach  $\alpha$  value we obtained is as exactly as what was described by Birchwood *et al.* (1994) when the scale was initially developed (Birchwood, *et al.*, 1994). The face validity of the scale seems appropriate in that the patients were able to understand what the scale was assessing.

The mean score of the study subjects as depicted in table 3 shows that the highest mean score was in the "Insight into need for treatment" item of the Insight Scale for psychosis (ISP) and while the lowest mean score was in the "Awareness of illness" item. No study was found during literature search to have utilized this scale in the assessment of insight in schizophrenia patients in the West African environment. The reason we considered for the higher mean score on the "Insight into need for treatment" item of the Insight Scale for Psychosis (ISP) in the subjects could be due to the distressing effects of the symptomatology of the illness affecting them, hence their recognition of the need for an intervention to ameliorate these symptoms. We also considered that one reason for the low score in the "Awareness of illness" item could be as result of the denial of the existence of their mental illness, or they were considering their experiences not as an illness but a "phenomena" that is distressing enough as to require treatment. The "Ability to re-label experiences" item of the ISP involves the recognition of a psychotic symptom and the understanding that is a pathological event. The low mean scores on the "Awareness of illness" item and the "Ability to re-label experiences" items of the ISP may be a reflection of the patients' attribution of illness to causes that are non-biological i.e. spiritual problem/attack, an attitude regarding the causation of mental illness which is rampant in Nigeria (Adebowale & Ogunlesi, 1999; Adewuya & Makanjuola, 2008; Kabir, Iliyasu, Abubakar, & Aliyu, 2004).

Concerning the correlations between the sociodemographic variables and the items of the ISP, it was observed that none of the variables correlated with the 3 items. This observation further lends credence to what has been previously postulated that sociodemographic factors have no relationship with insight in schizophrenia (Stefanopoulos, Lafuenta, Saez Fonseca, & Huxley, 2009; Zhang, Tan, & Liu, 2009), but contrasted to what was reported in other studies. (J.P. McEvoy *et al.*, 2006). These differences may be due to methodological reasons.

The number of relapses was observed to positively correlate with the "Awareness of illness" item of the ISP, though the correlation was modest, this implies that the more the number of relapses, the higher the scores on "Awareness of illness". Although our study design cannot show causation; one plausible interpretation of this relationship is that the more the number of relapses suffered by the patients the higher the likelihood of recognizing their symptoms as arising from a mental illness thus leading to a greater awareness.

The number of hospitalizations also had positive modest correlations with the "Ability to re-label experiences", "insight into need for treatment" and the total score on the ISP. One reason for the positive association observed between the number of hospitalizations and "Ability of re-label experience" could be that with more admissions into a mental health unit, the repetitive psychosocial treatment modalities has enabled the patients to understand their psychotic symptoms as pathological. Thus, their ability to recognize their psychotic symptoms as pathological increases their insight into the need for intervention.

Previous efforts to classify the etiologic basis of insight by investigating its association with psychotic symptoms have yielded conflicting results (Carroll, *et al.*, 1999). Among the subjects in our study, the 3 items of the ISP had negative correlations with the 3 domains of the PANSS (positive, negative and general symptoms). Some authors (Amador, *et al.*, 1994; Collins, Remington, Coulter, & Birkett, 1997) reported similar associations between

insight and positive symptoms while others reported similar associations with negative symptoms (Cuesta & Peralta, 1994). Although our result is in contrast to what some other studies have shown - that insight has no relationship with symptomatology (Schwartz & Petersen, 1999).

Multivariate analysis revealed that the PANSS general score negatively predicted the "Ability to re-label experience" and "Awareness of illness" items of the ISP while the number of hospitalizations positively predicted the "Ability to re-label experiences", "Awareness of illness" and the total score of the ISP. The PANSS positive negatively predicted the "insight into need for treatment" item and the total score of the ISP. In contrast, one study among Chinese patients with schizophrenia showed that only negative symptoms negatively predicted insight in their patients (Xiang *et al.*, 2012). These contradictory findings across different studies may in part be explained by differences in sampling methods, the composition and the size of study subjects and the instruments used to measure insight and the stage of schizophrenia (Schwartz, 2000).

The limitations of this study include the following: the relatively small sample size and patients recruitment in only one location. Hence, there is need for caution in generalizing the findings to patients in other centers in the country. Also, the patients who were severely ill were excluded. Our study is also cross-sectional in nature; as a result the causal relationships between insight and the sociodemographic and clinical variables could not be explored. Another limitation is that the instrument used to assess insight, the Insight Scale for psychosis, has not been extensively used in this environment. The major strength of that study lies in the fact that this is the first study from this environment to examine the sociodemographic and clinical correlates of insight in patients with schizophrenia.

### **Conclusion**

There is need for more studies in our environment to further explore the relationships between insight and other

sociodemographic and illness-related factors in patients with schizophrenia and to see ways of incorporating these factors into treatment modalities in such a way as to improve their insight. This will positively contribute to the other areas of affected patients' functioning.

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## **Migrant-remittances and Socioeconomic Development in Rural South-eastern Nigeria: The Case of Isiekenesi Community, Imo State**

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In spite of the increasing volume of remittances from international migrants, there has been little effort to analyze its development impact in rural Nigeria. This study therefore examined the socio-economic implications of migrant-remittances in Isiekenesi ranked among communities in South-eastern Nigeria with very high number of emigrants. Data collection involved administration of 402 copies of questionnaires, 17 In-depth Interviews and 6 Focus Group Discussions. Factors that led to increase in remittances included reduction in transfer charges, pressing economic problems at home, quest for investment in social amenities and government propelled enabling environment, among others. Insecurity, lack of trust in relatives to effectively manage remittances, and immigration status of the migrant at place of destination were major factors that hindered inflow of remittances. Findings also revealed that remittances had accounted for notable social and physical development of the community; and that apart from financial remittances, the people had benefitted from cultural diffusion and adaptation. The study recommends the removal of remaining bottlenecks such as high remittance-charges, limited number of remitting agencies, and unnecessary delays in the process to serve as incentives for increase in both volume and frequency.

**Key words:** Remittance-bottlenecks, Social Amenities, Enabling Environment, Cultural Diffusion.

Migration is linked to stability and development at national, sub-regional and regional levels (Economic Commission for Africa, 2006). Between 1965 and 2000, people living outside their countries of birth increased from 2.2% to 2.9% of the world's population (US Bureau of the Census, 2002). The UN (2009) estimated that by mid-2010 there would have been 200 million international migrant workers and their families who had chosen voluntarily to reside outside their countries of birth. This figure excludes 15 million refugees. In general, key drivers of migration include higher wages at destination, employment or job security, career advancement and training, access to better facilities and technologies, and challenging political and economic circumstances at home. Nearly all of these are relevant to understanding the brain drain syndrome in Nigeria (Mberu, 2010).

While figures ascribed to migrants and remittances are uncertain, there is overwhelming evidence of increasing levels of remittances from Nigeria's Diaspora in recent years, rising from 1.3 percent of global remittances in 1998 to 2.4 percent in 2008 (World bank, 2009). Nigeria is the only country in sub-Saharan Africa listed among the top 25 recipients of remittances (Nnaemeka *et al*, 2007). It received approximately US\$9.98 billion in officially recorded remittances in 2008, amounting to 4.7 percent of GDP, as against US\$1.54 billion in 1998 (Mberu and Pongou, 2010).

Increased remittance flows have been perceived as positive for migrant sending countries. The problem however is that there has been little effort towards tracking these flows to migrants' communities of origins thus making it difficult to assess their association with development at individual, household and community levels. Anecdotal evidence suggests that the

value of remittances to particular regions and sectors is not determinable as a result of immigration, ideational and fraud related factors (World Bank, 2005). However, remittances are mainly used for family expenses including social security for the elderly, the disabled, and orphans (World Bank, 2005). Others include education of relatives, defraying debts, developing new businesses and re-empowering existing ones, as well as funding special events such as funerals, wedding ceremonies, and birthday parties among others.

Osili (2004) found that Nigerian expatriates undertake substantial housing projects in their communities of origin and observed that these investments may be the first stage of a broader financial relationship between Nigerians and their homeland. Indeed, despite the ever increasing size of remittances from Nigerians in Diaspora, there has been little effort to document and analyze the development impact in relevant Nigerian communities. This study therefore examined the implications of migrant-remittances for the socioeconomic development of Isiekenesi Southeastern Nigeria, classified among rural communities with very high number of migrants in the Diaspora.

#### *Theoretical Perspectives and Conceptual Framework*

Enlightened Altruism Model and the Structural Functionalist theory are adopted in explaining the linkage between individual characteristics and societal structures as they relate to migrant-remittances in the study community. These perspectives explain the interaction of migrants' age, education, marital Status, personal values, and community norms and their influence on the frequency and volume of remittances an individual makes. For instance, making remittances as an altruistic behaviour is undertaken in consideration of the situation of other household members by a migrant; in this case meant to improve the welfare of the latter (Banerjee 1984; Johnson and Whitelaw 1974). Hence, remittances are perceived by these migrants as an obligation to the household and made

with affection and sense of responsibility towards the family (Chimhowu *et al*, 2003).

Altruistic and self-interested motives to remit have been observed in literature. As Orozco *et al* (2006) noted, both motives may operate simultaneously. Lukas and Stark (1985) extended the altruism model by introducing the idea of "enlightened altruism" where the migrant is motivated not only by altruism but also the maintenance function, implicit loans, and/or co-insurance (Maggard, 2004). Thus, it was pointed out that remittances are guided by 'tempered altruism' or 'enlightened self-interest, to suggest that the two are not necessarily exclusive (Lukas and Stark, 1985), but could complement each other (Orozco *et al* 2006).

The idea of maintenance is that migrants can be motivated to send remittances because of the need to maintain social ties or physical investments while abroad. Ahlburg and Brown (1998) observed that remittance-receiving households could help maintain the migrant's social networks and people's perception of the migrant and rating in the home community. Sometimes the migrant is indebted to the household to which s/he sends remittances; implicit loans could result from the payment of fees related to education or the cost of migration (Ahlburg and Brown, 1998) and for risk management for the migrant.

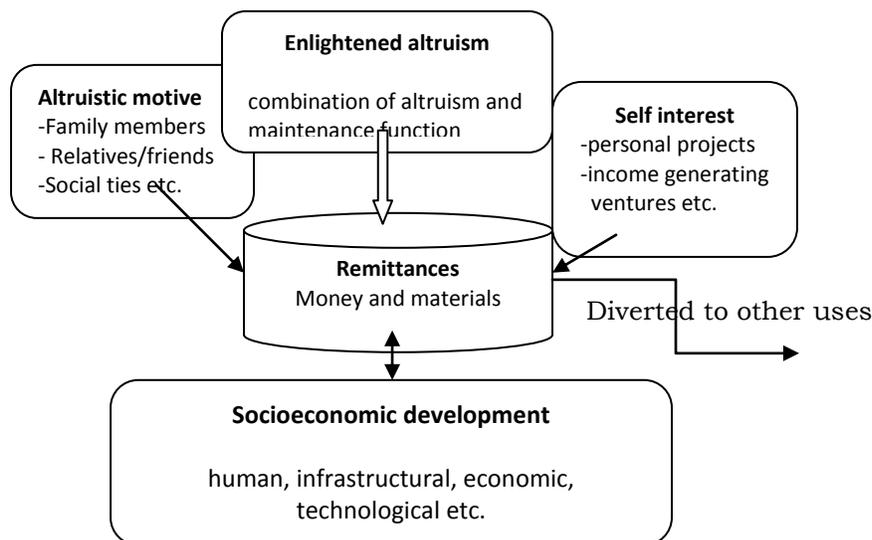
A large majority of Isiekenesi-migrants embarked on their journey due to Nigeria's harsh socioeconomic conditions and the quest to overcome poverty and powerlessness both as individuals, family and community members. Apart from the fact that the altruistic migrant is satisfied to learn that household members are mentally and physically healthy, (Maggard, 2004), close ties are strengthened to the extent that information on current events in the community is received promptly at destination. Self-interest motives of migrants could range from involvement in personal building projects to setting up of small and medium scale enterprises with managers to oversee their daily activities among others. Migrants that remit for personal benefits are more regular at home than their counterparts whose remittances

are largely meant for altruistic purposes (Nwokocha 2012a).

Structural Functionalism views the society as a system made up of interrelated parts that interact on the basis of a common value system. Each agency or subsystem is seen as functional and contributes to the survival of the entire system. As a corollary, the malfunctioning of any of the parts affects others and the entire system. Functionalism conceive society as a self-regulating system that relies on some prerequisites for actualisation of order and latent maintenance (Macionis & Plummer 2005; Haralambos & Holborn 2004). Thus, a functioning society is one in which a greater number of its citizens is able to overcome the limitations that may undermine access to Maslow's basic necessities of life. Nigeria for instance, is characterised by dysfunction occasioned by lack of basic needs among a very large majority of the people, breakdown of law and order and high incidence of avoidable maternal and childhood mortality (Nwokocha 2012b; Nwokocha & Awomoyi 2009).

To be sure, Nigeria negates the Structural Functionalist's view of society as a summation of unified, ordered and

contributory sub-systems (Ritzer 2008). The reality of the Nigerian situation is manifest in government insensitivity, dissensus at different levels of individual and group relations, lack of motivation to make meaningful contributions to the maintenance of the system as a whole. Indeed, Ekeh's (1983) conclusions on primordial and civic publics are recurring behavioural decimal, in the country, wherein peoples are guided by traditional sentiments and cleavages rather than the zeal to contribute to the common good. Apparent governmental failure at economic, infrastructural and human development including welfare packages for the aged and unemployed, for the most part, explains high rate of Igbo-migration and among Isieknesi people in particular, away from homeland (Nwokocha 2012a). In what follows, we present a conceptual framework that synthesizes the theoretical perspectives adopted for this analysis. Figure 1 identifies three main motives behind making remittances among migrants. The framework shows that these motives are not necessarily exclusive and could therefore have a combined effect in motivating a migrant to make remittances.



**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**  
Source: Nwokocha & Ajaegbu, 2013

The implication is that even when a set of remittances is conceived as altruistically motivated to enable family members, other relatives and friends deal with certain issues ranging from health, academic, shelter among others, there is still an inherent self-interest. We are not conceiving self motive only in its narrow sense of manifest function but have included the latent aspect wherein the overall goal of making remittances, ascribed to altruism, could be to achieve peace of mind and emotional stability. In the latter sense, such psychological motive relates to self-interest which the migrant may not make public. Again, analysing self-interest as indicated in Figure 1 will also involve the same kind of interconnection that has already been demonstrated. For instance, a migrant that remits for personal projects may eventually discover that s/he had also been unwittingly involved in both pure altruism and enlightened altruism that would entail the use of the migrant's, seemingly, personal property such as a building, car, electric generators by family members and relatives. Indeed, most African migrants are aware that the extended family ethos does not support the exclusion of Significant Others from access to material wealth.

The framework also shows that although remittances are sent for specific development purposes such as human, in terms of education of young family members, economic empowerment of indigent relatives, infrastructures such as a house, borehole, electricity among others, sometimes these funds get diverted to other uses. Two likely patterns of diversion are common. A young family member with some level of education necessary to access remittances from agencies such as banks and allied institutions whose procedures require rigor may decide to waste resources on activities and materials that will raise his/her ego before peers but hardly make meaning to family members including the migrant. Second, adults especially parents may decide to use the money for a purpose other than what the migrant had intended, but usually for the benefit of the family. We note that the latter scenario may in the long run be more beneficial to the migrant who may appreciate the choices of insightful

parents that have better understanding of the situation at home. Such insight may even catalyze the migrant towards making more remittances, convinced that they would be put into good use.

## **Methods**

The study was conducted in *Isiekenesi*, a rural community, of six villages, in Imo State, South-eastern Nigeria. The lack of basic livelihood amenities such as roads, pipe borne water, electricity, schools, and hospitals among others constitutes push factors for young community members. Consequently, the population of the area is made up of disproportionately high number of the aged and children. The community was purposively selected as the study location due to the characteristically large number of international migrants who come from there.

A cross-sectional survey design was adopted for data collection, which was undertaken through a triangulation of questionnaire survey, In-depth Interviews (IDIs) and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs). A multi-stage sampling technique was used for the quantitative aspect of data collection beginning with the demarcation of the community into six clusters according to the number of existing villages that make up the community. In each of the clusters, the purposive technique was employed in selecting households with at least one migrant who had spent a minimum of one year outside the country and who had remitted money or materials at least once. In each of the units selected, the head of household was also purposively chosen as respondents for the study. However, in most of the selected units, household heads delegated the responsibility of responding to questions to younger household members. Ethical principles of informed and voluntary consent, confidentiality, non-injury and beneficence were fully observed throughout the data collection process. A total of four hundred and two copies of structured questionnaires were administered on the respondents. The Statistical Package for

Social Science (SPSS) was used for analysis of quantitative data.

Seventeen IDIs were conducted with different categories of male and female respondents including community elders, clan heads, women leaders, youths and visiting international migrants. A total of 6 FGDs were conducted by sex among youth groups, the aged and members of the Development unions. Qualitative data were subjected to content starting with the translation and transcription of responses. Findings from quantitative and qualitative sources are presented jointly.

Single	164	41.5
Married	213	53.9
Divorced	4	1.0
Widowed	14	3.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Religion</b>		
Christianity	384	97.2
Islam	7	1.8
Traditional	4	1.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Occupation</b>		
Unemployed	56	14.2
Student	63	15.9
Business	182	46.1
Banker	15	3.8
Civil servant	46	11.6
Others	33	8.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>

## Results

### *Socio-demographic characteristics of Respondents*

Table 1 shows that most of the respondents (35.4%) were in the age category 25-34 years, while the least (9.6%) were those 45-54 years. Interestingly, respondents 55 years and above constituted only 12.2% of the total; this is low considering that heads of households were purposively selected for the study. To be sure, younger household members' involvement in the study resulted from delegation of the response-task by heads of households for reasons ranging from engagement in other activities, inability to recall events, to lack of interest in the research. As expected of patriarchal societies, more male respondents (67.8%) participated in the study.

*Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the Respondents*

Variables	Frequency	Percent
<b>Age</b>		
15- 24	74	18.7
25 - 34	140	35.4
35 - 44	95	24.1
45 - 54	38	9.6
55+	48	12.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	268	67.8
Female	127	32.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Education</b>		
Non formal	13	41.8
Primary	40	10.1
Secondary	177	44.8
Tertiary	165	3.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>Marital Status</b>		

More than 51% of the respondents either did not attain formal education or had primary school education. The majority had secondary school training, while only about 3% had tertiary school education to indicate that respondents' literacy level is low, far below the national average of 11.3% (NPC 2009). Respondents' marital status shows that about 42% were single, another indication that high number of young people participated in the study. Slightly more than 97% of respondents were Christians, while only 1% were traditional religion members. Interestingly, up to 2% were Muslims, unlike the religious composition of most Igbo communities where Islam does not have any adherents.

### *Factors that affect Remittances*

Table 2 indicates that the majority of respondents (56.2%) perceived the quest for improving the standard of living of family members at home, among migrants, as the main reason for sending remittances. Indeed, poverty levels are high in Nigeria especially in rural communities where infrastructural facilities are disproportionately lacking or in a state of disrepair (Nwokocha 2012b). Others stated that remittances were meant for preparations for the future (25%) given that it is normal for migrants to eventually retire home. Few of the respondents (8.6%) adduced being recognized at home as the basic reason for remittances. Such recognition is only attainable in the context of charity and philanthropy. Since there are limited formal welfare systems in Nigeria,

migrants often feel obligated to provide for immediate and extended family members,

as well as friends and neighbours.

Table 2: Respondents' Perception on what Motivates Migrants to send Remittances

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Need to improve the living standard of those at home	222	56.2
To provide social amenities at home	41	10.4
Because they will come back one day	98	24.8
To be recognized at home	34	8.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Qualitative data, however, revealed some other dimensions of motivation for remittances. As some FGD participants noted, family needs alone cannot fully explain the underlying motives behind remittances or lack of it:

*...if there is constant supply of electricity, network of good roads and adequate supply of water, migrants would be motivated to remit money and materials for investment purposes. Where these are lacking, the rate at which remittances are sent will be low and may only be tied to addressing household needs.*

Perhaps, the egoistic aspect of motivation may explain the volume of remittances given that investment will normally require substantial amount of resources than remittances meant for the upkeep of families. Indeed, the existence of such amenities will not only serve as incentive for investment among migrants but could also become pull factors of return-migration (Nwokocha 2012a). A Youth Leader, who was an IDI respondent, rather identified the profit on investment motive as critical in understanding remittances among Isiekenesi migrants by stating:

*Our people at home and abroad are known for engaging in business activities; there are very few Civil Servants among us. For many, profit is the main motivator for remittances. If they are convinced that sending goods home will yield profits they will. But in situations where goods attract heavy custom duties and are at times lost to thieves at the Nigerian Ports, some of them prefer not remitting. I do not blame them considering the stress they undergo in the process of acquiring wealth.*

As shown in Table 3, a large number of respondents (34.4%) adduced reduction in transfer charges as one of the factors that could influence remittances positively. About 37% linked remittances to solving other people's problems; such altruistic reason, when conceived as the only factor, is not common among African migrants. More than 10% of the respondents stated that creation of enabling environment is the most single important factor that influenced remittances. As Ratha (2007) noted, reducing remittance-fees inversely increases the disposable income of migrants and encourages patronage of the formal remittance channels.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by factors that mostly influenced Remittances

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Reduction in transfer charges	136	34.4
Need to solve people's problems at home	147	37.2
Encouragement by government through enabling environment	42	10.6
Improved security of lives and property at	70	17.7

home  
Total

395

100.0

Table 3 also reveals that about 18% of the respondents cited improvement in security situation at home as a major influence in deciding to remit money and/or materials. Study has shown that insecurity exemplified in acts such as kidnapping, assassination and restiveness not only discourages investments by individuals and groups but also act as push factors for out-migration (Nwokocha 2012c).

In addition, an IDI respondent, who was an international migrant at the time of this study, noted the importance of the migration status of a prospective remittance sender:

*No matter how rich a migrant is abroad, the person's residential status affects remittances in a number of ways. For instance, migrants spend a lot of money trying to regularise their residence permit, during which period they hardly remit finances home. Illegal migrants or those whose Visas had expired risk being deported when they attempt remitting money through regular bank transfers. Such a transaction involves a process that will reveal the person's migration status. So, when migrants do not send remittances, as would have been expected, it does not necessarily mean that they had forgotten home... that category of migrants hardly visit home because the process of obtaining another Visa is long and there would be no assurance on issuance of these Visas.*

It therefore implies that the migrants that remit regularly and through the official channels are those that had regularised their stay at place of destination. Indeed, family members would prefer waiting for a long period before receiving remittances to having the migrant deported trying to remit money or materials. Another factor identified by a migrant, an IDI respondent, relates to usage of the remittances by trustees:

*...sometimes money and materials are not used for the purpose they are meant to serve. I see this as a central factor in not remitting as most migrants are demoralised by financial recklessness exhibited by some household members. To be sure, migrants work harder when they are sure that the money they make is put into good use. A migrant who does not have somebody to effectively manage resources back home would likely not bother about making remittances.*

Indeed, this remittance utility dimension is perhaps more important to most migrants than other aspects of the challenges encountered on the remittance-utilization corridor. As one of the IDI respondents recounted:

*It is painful to realise that someone out there mismanaged remitted funds considering the risks and tension that characterise activities over there... you know, we encounter racism, severe weather conditions, foods that are not African, long hours at work, among others. The stress, to say the least, is simply too much; but you don't feel the pains at the sight of your achievements back home.*

On the contrary, the displeasure is excruciating on realisation that deception had sustained a delusive morale for remittance. For some migrants, recovery from such disappointingly paralysing situation is difficult and could culminate in a change of *modus operandi* which may be in form of changing trustees, severance in remitting among other strategies. For others, recovery from such frustration is difficult and could be expressed by severing links, almost permanently, with relatives at home including those who may not have contributed to the misdeeds. Emerging from an FGD session was the identification of a group of beneficiaries described as 'Reapers':

*Among remittance beneficiaries are 'Reapers' and 'Super-Reapers'. Those we call Reapers are people that perpetually depend on remittances to augment expenditures that could have affected their businesses. You don't see improvement or reduction in their enterprise; a kind of sustained equilibrium in their activities. They thrive in camouflaging as doing something without actually making progress. But the Super-Reapers are people that are not engaged in any form of business other than collecting remittances. The latter category of recipients usually has multiple sources of remittances, lives well, but not willing to partake in any form of economic activities.*

The above description suggests mismanagement of funds and antithesis for the achievement of socioeconomic development. The long-run implication of such a spendthrift approach is a feeling of disappointment and disunity between and among individuals and groups except in situations where remittances are sent to pacify some persons that are identified as *never-do-wells*. As one of the migrant IDI respondents noted, "sometimes you send remittances to troublesome family members to have your peace and that of people at home. In that case, you are sure the money will be spent on irrelevancies".

*Types and Patterns of Remittances*

Respondents identified three types of remittances which included money, materials and a combination of both. Table 4 shows that the majority of respondents (55%) stated that money was the type of remittance mostly received from migrants. Only about 7% received materials as remittances while 39% received both money and materials.

Table 4: Types of Remittances mostly received

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Money	215	54.6
Materials	26	6.6
Both	153	38.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>394</b>	<b>100.0</b>

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One of the migrant interviewees summarised the types when he noted:

*There are so many ways to send remittances home; some of us bought important items such as cars, motor parts and household items including fridges, compressors for air-conditioners and fridges, electric irons, rugs, used-tyres among others. The expectation is that the items be marketed and the proceeds used for whatever identified purposes. For those that must send money maybe due to the urgency involved, there are several media through which that could be done. So making remittances depends on the attitude of the migrant, not necessarily due to bottlenecks related to residential statuses.*

Some of the remittance-recipients noted that channels other than the official ones are more convenient for two main reasons. First, the less amount of time that the process entails and second, also the less identification requirements before funds or materials are released. Avoidance of patronage of official modes of remittances perhaps explains the expanding scope of the market for imported used-materials, what Omobowale (2012) aptly describes as the *Tokunbo* phenomenon.

Two patterns of remittances were identified by respondents. The first involved remittances sent directly to intended beneficiaries without involving intermediaries. This could be interpreted as an indication of trust in the recipients' ability to utilise the resources effectively. The second involved a process whereby trusted friends and relatives received remittances and subsequently disbursed same to migrants' family members. One of the migrants noted about the latter pattern:

*...we do that especially when we notice wastefulness among family members or they are too young to make good use of the resources. Thus, using trusted intermediaries is a mechanism for moderating excesses among relatives; it is also a*

*strategy of receiving feedback on events at home. However, the problem with having these middlemen/women is that household members most times antagonise them due to their perceived watch-dog role, and also a feeling that you do not have confidence in them.*

The above scenario suggests that instead of being a source of relief, remittances could also breed disharmony between and among household members on the one hand, and between intermediaries and migrants' direct relatives on the other.

*Relationship between Remittances and Socio-Economic Development*

Table 5 shows that 97.2% of the respondents indicated that remittances influenced the development of Isiekenesi, while 2.8% stated that it does not. Research indicates that remittances could indeed contribute to local development through the promotion of small-scale enterprises in the

non-farm sector (McCormick and Wahba, 2003), which invariably impact economic growth generally.

**Table 5: Remittances and Development**

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Yes	382	97.2
No	11	2.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>393</b>	<b>100</b>

Following from the above insight, Table 6 presents respondents' views on the specific projects that remittances are mostly used for in Isiekenesi community. About 50% stated that money and materials sent by migrants were used mainly to improve the living standard of the people. Indeed, this response-set does not specify the particular items on which remittances were expended on; living standard touches on a wild variety of issues.

**Table 6: Distribution of Respondents by what Remittances were mostly used for Variables**

	Frequency	Percent
By improving the living standard of the people	197	50.1
Creating employment	42	10.7
Building of social amenities	43	10.9
Human intellectual development	76	19.3
Award of scholarships	23	5.9
Cultural Diffusion and adaptation	12	3.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>393</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Both human intellectual development and award of scholarships were identified by 25% of the respondents as items that remittances were mostly used for. This is important for Isiekenesi which is among Igbo communities where young people, especially males, exhibit dwindling interest in education, preferring trading instead. Data from qualitative sources in confirming quantitative information however revealed more specific views about the relationship between remittances and development. An IDI respondent noted:

*I think it is more of family development that we see... they use the money to build their own houses on their fathers' land. I have not heard that Isiekenesi people abroad*

*had done any tangible thing for the development of the community.*

Another IDI respondent who had a slightly different view of community development stated:

*Yes, I can tell you that there is a direct impact of remittances on the development of Isiekenesi because whenever they bring things back, even if it is one kobo or one dollar, it affects the Nigerian economy and that of our community since the money is spent here on developmental projects like building houses, roads and so on.*

Unlike the earlier respondent that conceived of community development in terms of

community-owned property rather than what belongs to individuals, the latter however approximates individual investments such as houses, water facilities and other private ventures as community development insofar as they were located in the area. Such view would be more persuasive, though, in situations where these facilities are made available for community use.

An FGD participant argued that:

*A very large majority of migrants make remittances either to help members of their families and friends or for investment in their businesses. In a way, this is beneficial to us because if for instance one establishes a business like petrol station in a community, though the main purpose may be to make profit, community members would not have to go far looking for the commodity, which from time to time is scarce in our state and other places in Nigeria. Also, it can create employment for young people.*

In further supporting the view that migrants had contributed substantially to the development of Isiekenesi, another FGD participant chronicled the achievements recorded by the people in diaspora:

*...the migrants abroad come back home to develop their families and our community generally. When the community hall was built, their contributions went a long way in enabling us complete the project. They also donated handsomely to our church building project and other community development initiatives such as hospitals, roads and electricity among others. Our sons and daughters abroad have Town Unions and Associations in their respective countries of destination and usually make their presence felt every month of August (period of New Yam Festival) when they*

*distribute drugs as well as defray the cost of Medicare for most community people. They have also been involved in award of scholarships to young people.*

The above view indicates a strong connection between migration and socioeconomic development especially in communities where basic amenities are disproportionately poor or non-existent. The importance of Town Associations among Igbos outside homeland as a veritable mechanism for development is well established in literature. For instance, Honey and Okafor (1998:138) pointed out that Hometown Associations:

*...serve as instruments for coping with a changing environment... they also provide means of surviving amidst the vicissitudes of life at a time of great flux and uncertainty... they allow people to maintain their traditions. In addition, they can become centres of innovation, especially for modernization of the hometown. They do this by assuring that the town has the instruments of modernity – among them schools and medical facilities, as well as the kinds of infrastructure that are available to people elsewhere.*

As Achebe (2012:75) restated, “the Igbo towns competed among themselves for certain kinds of social achievement, like the building of schools, churches, markets, post offices and other projects”. Town Unions are the main instruments through which these goals are realised. The quest for self efforts at community development is an in-built cultural trait that finds expression in individualism and competitiveness, which were amplified by a perception of common hatred for the Igbo within the Nigerian nation (Achebe 2012).

#### *Discussion and Conclusion*

This study has clearly shown the influence of remittances on socioeconomic development particularly in rural Nigeria.

The *Isiakenesi* community typifies the situation of other Igbo communities with a large number of migrants. Data indicated that over 50 percent of the respondents had primary school education and therefore characterised by low literacy level compared to the national average (NPC 2009). As such, this type of migration is not classified as related to the 'Brain-drain' phenomenon wherein highly skilled professionals migrate to other countries in search of jobs that pay better (Nwokocha 2010). Indeed, non-formal education limits an individual's formal employment prospects and explains recourse to non-formal sector engagement which also includes self-employment. Perhaps, the inability to raise capital to establish business outfits, most of which require huge amount of money, may explain the motivation for emigration among the people.

These migrants hardly continue their education at destination, partly, due the demanding nature of the activities they engage in and also low motivation for education. To be sure, most young family members at origin, perceiving migrants as models, would rather prefer international migration to pursuing an educational career usually conceived as low income generating. These scenarios suggest that reversing the trend towards positive disposition to education in the community is a challenge and will require sustained advocacy and vigorous sensitization towards attitudinal and behavioural change.

Poverty and lack of basic amenities such as roads, electricity, hospitals among others were identified by respondents as push factors for international migration. Living on less than 2 Dollars a day, a large majority of Nigerians experience extreme poverty; rural dwellers are also confronted with lack of basic infrastructures, thus limiting their potentials to contribute to development (Nwokocha 2012b). Therefore, the decision to migrate to other countries is easy to arrive at, with the hope of overcoming perceived economic-powerlessness inherent in Nigeria's socioeconomic landscape. The immediate outcome of such migratory venture is making remittances for either altruistic or

egoistic purposes or both. These remittances have had positive impact on development through various individual and community projects. The long term implication of investment at home is the fact that Igbo-migrants, in the spirit of *nwa afor Igbo anaghi ato na mba* meaning that a real Igbo son/daughter does not get lost in a foreign land, begin to plan return-migration from the beginning (Nwokocha 2012a).

Findings reveal that factors such as insecurity occasioned by kidnapping, immigration status of a prospective remittance-sender, mismanagement of remittances among other bottlenecks, notwithstanding, *Isiakenesi*-migrants have remained resolute at making remittances in a variety of ways including money, materials and both to ensure family/household functionality on one hand and the community on the other. Recourse to the *Tokunbo* phenomenon as a rational choice (Omobowale 2012) in making remittances is a tale of both ingenuity and criminality. An insightful *Tokunbo* sender is one that understands the market situation at home vis-a-vis the elasticity of demand among prospective buyers. S/he is also known by the ability to identify materials which ordinarily could have been ignored as non-reusable by un-insightful persons. Packaging items in a way that minimizes or forestalls theft on arrival in Nigeria is critical for safeguarding goods and making profits. However, the quest to make huge remittances as quickly as possible could have resulted in sharp practices such as stealing, hacking into credit cards among others.

This study has shown that remittances contribute substantially to socioeconomic development in rural South-eastern Nigeria in the face of governmental neglect. The lesson derivable from such self-help effort is that instead of waiting endlessly or lamenting about the insensitivity of our leaders over poverty and non-existent infrastructure, communities should imbibe the virtue of creating and recreating their environment independent of government support, which has remained a mirage despite obvious developmental gaps.

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## **Human Capital Selection Practices and Performance of Unionised Organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industries in Lagos State, Nigeria**

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The objective of the study is to investigate the effect of selection practices on performance of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State. The adopted research design is the survey method. The organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State constitute the population of the study. The target respondents for the survey were the executive management and senior employees in charge of human resource management functions. The proportional stratified sampling method was used to select equal sample of thirty (30) from each of the organisations surveyed. A total of four hundred and twenty (420) research subjects were drawn from fourteen respondent companies. However, 284 copies of questionnaire were properly completed and used for data analysis. This represents 68 per cent response rate. Validity estimate is 0.90 while the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.81 being the reliability coefficient of the instrument. The hypothesis for the study was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Regression Model and Chi-square test of goodness-of-fit at 5 per cent level of significance. The result of hypothesis test shows that selection practices exhibited positive and significant relationship with all measures of performance. Rate of sales ( $r = 0.272$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); innovativeness ( $r = 0.261$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); growth in employees ( $r = 0.232$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); performance stability ( $r = 0.235$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); operational efficiency ( $r = 0.227$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); public image ( $r = 0.146$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ); staff morale ( $r = 0.201$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); adaptability ( $r = 0.183$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); market share ( $r = 0.143$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ); and profitability ( $r = 0.174$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). The Chi-square test of goodness-of-fit also confirmed that selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations ( $\chi^2 = 130.19$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The regression model also confirmed the same result. From the foregoing, it is recommended that organisations should put in place policies to guide the conduct of selection practices in order to achieve optimal performance. Government policies on preferential quota system and Federal Character Principle with respect to selection in some public sector organisations need to be re-examined with a view to improving performance of such organisations. Thus, for organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco industry to achieve quantum leap in their performance indices, the selection function must be properly and professionally practised to yield the required results.

*Keywords and phrases:* Human Capital, Selection Practices, Performance, Unionised Organisations, Nigeria

Human capital of an organisation consists of the people who work there and on whom the success of the business depends" (Armstrong, 2006, p.8). Armstrong further argues that the human capital can be regarded as the prime asset of an organisation and businesses need to invest in that asset to ensure their survival and

growth. Armstrong (2009, p.10) asserts that the notion that "people should be regarded as assets rather than variable costs, in other words treated as human capital was originally advanced by Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn Mills and Walton in 1984". Bontis, Dragonetti, Jacobsen and Roos (1999) view human capital as

representing the human factor in the organisation; the combined intelligence, skills and expertise that gives the organisation its distinctive character. Selection is the process of evaluating those who have been searched for and obtained through recruitment with a view to deciding whether they can be employed or not. It is also the process of choosing the individual or individuals who best meet the job-related criteria. "Selection is a decision-making activity: the psychological calculation of suitability" (Price, 2004, p.408).

Many scholars have viewed the concept of organisational performance from different perspectives, and this has been problematic since there are no universal or unified criteria for measuring the concept of organisational performance as all organisations have multiple goals (Thompson, 1967). Researchers have used financial and non-financial metrics to determine organisational performance. The financial metrics include profit, sales, and market share. Non-financial metrics include output or productivity, quality, efficiency, attitudinal and behavioural measures such as commitment, intention to quit, and satisfaction (Khan, 2010). The dimensions of organisational performance used in this study were adapted from Oghojafor, Lawal and Adebakin (2010) and Lawal (2011). Oghojafor et al. (2010) used profitability, growth rate, financial strength, performance stability, public image, staff morale, adaptability, innovativeness, social impact, level of debt, customers' patronage and ability to raise capital as performance measures with reliability coefficient of 0.96. Lawal (2011) used growth, sale, financial strength, operating efficiency, performance stability, public image, staff morale, adaptability, innovativeness, social impact, level of debt, customers' patronage and ability to raise capital as performance measures with reliability coefficient of 0.76.

Fajana (1995) noted that in the selection process of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and some large enterprises (LEs), selection was often based on subjective criteria as interviews, psychological tests and medical examinations were ignored or

not formally or seriously executed. References were sometimes asked for but not given proper consideration or scrutiny. From empirical research, firm size is very important for the formalisation of HR policies and practices. According to Mathis and Jackson (2008, p.210), "an organisation with a strong union may have less flexibility than a non-union company in deciding who will be hired and where that person will be placed."

Performance of organisations could be adversely affected if human capital selection practices are poorly executed. The absence of good human capital selection practices could lead to dysfunctional or negative organisational outcomes. Based on practical insights, selecting people who are wrong for the organisation can produce long-term negative effects like high training costs, recruitment costs, loss of goodwill or reputation, increased labour turnover and loss of profitability. According to Fashoyin (2005), recruitment and selection are heavily influenced by relations rather than by objective assessment of the suitability of the job applicant. This does not imply that meritocracy is never taken into consideration, but family affiliation and friendship have substantial influence. Otobo (2005, p.147) argues that "organisational efficiency can be negatively affected when recruitment and placement are unduly influenced by personal and other subjective criteria". These actions on the part of recruiters have led to negligent hiring with adverse implications for employees' satisfaction, retention as well as performance of organisations. Thus, if an organisation hires an applicant without checking his/her references as well as background, the organisation may be found guilty of negligent hiring if the applicant later commits a crime while in the employ of the organisation (Aamodt, 1999). From experience, reference checks is one of the selection tools usually taken for granted by many organisations. The danger of this attitude towards reference checks could be negligent hiring. Dessler (2008) defines negligent hiring as hiring workers with questionable backgrounds without proper safeguards. Negligent hiring is injurious to

the organisation, customers and co-workers. Aamodt (1999) suggested that employers via the human resource management (HRM) department should obtain information about the quality of previous performance by relying on an applicant's references from previous employers.

The objective of the study is to investigate the effect of selection practices on performance of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State.

#### *Literature Review*

This section examines the theoretical underpinnings, conceptual issues, and some empirical researches germane to the study.

#### *Theoretical Framework of the Study*

Theoretical framework provides the explanations on which a study is based (Oyenyi, 2006). This study leans on the following theories:

- *Decision-making Theory*

This theory is credited to Herbert Simon. Decision-making theory “attempts to analyse how people actually make decisions, what prevents them from making decisions and how decisions might be made more effectively” (Sapru, 2009, p.186). The basis of the decision-making theory is the fact that decision-making is at the very heart of business success of any organisation (Gberevbie, 2006). For this study, the decision-making theory is adopted because human capital selection which promotes the achievement of organisational goals and objectives entails management decision. Thus, the more quality a decision taken by an organisation is, particularly as regards who to hire and from what source, the higher their profitability and productivity (Gberevbie, 2006). Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2004) observed that through personnel selection, organisations make decisions about who will or will not be allowed to join the organisation. This theory assumes that decision-making is the essence of all human resource management actions and

processes. It also assumes that decisions are rational and that managers examine the pros and cons of taking a particular decision.

- *Resource-based view or Theory*

Human resource or human capital has been regarded as an important asset for an organisation to gain competitive advantage and to realise organisational goals or targets as advanced by the resource-based theory (Barney, 2001). The theory holds the view that the strategic capability of an organisation is dependent on its resource capability in the shape of people (Armstrong, 2009). The resource-based view, advocates that an organisation can gain competitive advantage by attracting, developing and retaining best human resources. The resource-based view is “associated with the human capital theory” (Armstrong, 2009, p.68). Human capital theory suggests that education or training raises the productivity of workers by imparting useful knowledge and skills, hence, raising workers future income by increasing their lifetime earnings (Becker, 1964).

- *Universalistic Theory*

The universalistic theory is associated with the terms best practices and high performance work practices. It assumes that there is a linear relationship between HR practices or systems and organisational performance and that best practices are universally applicable and successful. It posits that organisational success is best measured in terms of financial performance indicators like profits, or by market share and sales levels. Universalistic theorists are Osterman (1994), Pfeffer (1994) and Huselid (1995).

#### *Conceptual Issues*

Taylor (2008, p.214) posits that “selection techniques are used to decide which of the applicants is best suited to fill the vacancy in question.” Etomi (2002) opines that selection is concerned with identifying the candidates from the recruitment pool who best meet organisational requirements for employment, it is also the process through which those who are recruited are winnowed down to the few who are hired.

According to Yoder and Staudohar (1982, p.169) “selection is the process in which candidates for employment are divided into two classes—those who will be offered employment and those who will not.” While recruitment is a positive activity, by contrast “selection is viewed as a negative process or activity in so far as it involves picking out the best of the bunch and turning down the rest” (Taylor, 2008, p. 214). Gomez-Mejia, Balkin and Cardy (2001) define selection as the process of making a hire or no hire decision regarding each applicant for a job.

Gatewood and Feild (2001) opine that selection is the process of collecting and evaluating information about an individual in order to extend an offer of employment. Mathis and Jackson (2004) are of the view that good training will not make up for bad selection and HR managers should hire hard, and manage easy. These HR truisms are imperative for effective selection of prospective employees. Selection is viewed as a negative process as poor performers are dropped at each stage of the process. There are various steps or stages in the selection process and all these steps aim at identifying the ‘best’ candidate for the job from the list of recruits or applicants. The selection process as shown in Table 1 depicts the steps to be followed in making hiring decisions. According to Armstrong (2012):

The aim of selection is to assess the suitability of candidates by predicting the extent to which they will be able to carry out a role successfully. The so-called classic trio of selection methods consists of application forms, interviews and references. To these should be added selection tests and assessment centres (p. 229).

#### *Steps in the Selection Process*

*Preliminary screening/ Interview:* The purpose of the preliminary interview is to form a general impression about the general characteristics of the applicants. A few minutes are spent with the applicant to assess the characteristics possessed by the applicant. Such characteristics as his/her

fluency of speech, personality and other personnel attributes are assessed. Usually, this interview may be inadequate because a few minutes are spent with the applicants. It becomes insufficient to judge the applicants’ full potentials and whether to be passed to the next stage or not.

*Application Blank/Form:* Almost all organisations require candidates to complete or fill application forms. The forms are usually used to elicit information about the candidate. In some cases, they are used to determine or predict the applicant’s tenure. The form could also be used for counselling purposes regarding applicants’ careers, and for predicting and evaluating their performance on the job. Good biographical forms usually ask for information such as (a) the job being applied for (b) age (c) address, name, sex, educational qualification or attainment, marital status, employment history, medical history, prior conviction record, next-of-kin and any other information that the individual feels will enhance his/her being selected for the job.

*Psychological Test:* Psychological tests have become common place. Psycho means ‘mind’ and metric means ‘measurement’. Thus, psychometric means ‘measurement of the mind’. Psychometric tests purport to measure psychological characteristics including personality, motivation, career interests, competencies and intellectual abilities. Selection tests are used to provide more valid and reliable evidence of levels of intelligence, personality, ability, aptitudes and attainments than can be obtained from an interview (Armstrong, 2001). Psychological tests are measuring instruments, which is why they are often referred to as psychometric tests. Traditionally, they take the form of pen and paper multiple-choice questions/questionnaires but modern forms can be presented on computer screens (Price, 2004). Other tests use pictures and geometrical shapes. Tests of numerical ability might offer a series of numbers and ask for the next two e.g. 1, 1, 2, 3, 5 (Fibonacci series) or 2, 4,8,16. Interviews may rank a number of

candidates fairly closely, whereas tests may give a wide range of scores (Price, 2004). Tests are also important in the following ways (a) they help to ensure objectivity (b) they help to ensure uniformity in the selection process (c) they prevent interference of personal biases (d) since they prevent preferential treatments, they give everybody an equal chance of being selected.

#### *Types of Psychological Tests*

The following tests are often used in evaluating applicants for job positions.

- **Intelligence Test:** This measures the intelligent quotient (IQ) of applicants. It tests mental capacity of applicants and their learning ability to grasp or understand instructions, ability to reason and make judgments. It borders on the capacity for abstract thinking and reasoning.
- **Personality Test:** This test determines the characteristics of the candidates such as co-operativeness as against dominance or to judge the emotional stability and temperamental qualities of the candidate(s). Personality tests aim at determining the applicants' personality traits such as extroversion/introversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, inquisitiveness and emotional stability.
- **Achievement/Attainment Test:** This measures the actual ability of the applicant. It measures the previous training and experiences of the applicants.
- **Aptitude Test:** This measures the potential ability of the applicants and it is designed to predict success on the job. It measures the ability of the applicant to think fast and to cope with strange situation.
- **Performance/Apparatus Test:** This is used to measure how successfully an applicant can operate equipment.
- **Speed Test:** This tends to measure the speed at which an applicant covers a particular project. There could be anxiety or nervousness in the process. It measures the speed and time spent on a particular activity. For instance, the speed of a typist or computer operator.

- **Power Test:** This measures the abilities and capabilities of an individual, for instance the knowledge or skill possessed.
- **Individual Test:** This involves a candidate taking a test at a time and is used in an interview situation. It protects the privacy of the individual and reduces stress or tension which is inherent in group test.
- **Group Test:** This is administered to a group of recruits or examinees. It is commonly used because it is more economical and less time consuming. The disadvantages are (i) lack of privacy (ii) cheating is common place. All the tests have their shortcomings. Their success or failure depends on (a) the people administering the tests (b) the validity and reliability of the tests (c) the philosophy of the organisation (d) the environmental conditions under which the tests are carried out.

#### **Employment Interview and Typologies**

Employment interview is one of the common predictors of job success. It is an in-depth formal meeting or intercourse between the employing organisation and the job applicant in order to evaluate the suitability or otherwise of the applicant. It also assesses the personality, preferences and motives of the recruit. The interview assesses the applicant's potential and not actual performance. The following typologies of employment interviews are often used in the course of evaluating applicants for employment.

- **Structured interview:**

This is also called guided interview, patterned interview, directive interview or planned interview. In structured interview, applicants are made to answer or respond to questions from a predetermined list of questions whose sequence is also pre-arranged or ordered.

- **Unstructured interview:**

This type of interview is also called unguided interview, unpatterned interview, non-directive interview or unplanned

interview. In the unstructured interview, there is no predetermined list of questions to be asked and the way the questions are asked is usually not planned or ordered. Most of the questions are raised during the interview situation. This allows the interviewer to probe deeply into various topic areas as they arise. However, if the interviewer is not an expert, there may be problems as important and relevant information may be lost or would not be elicited from the applicant.

- **Quasi or Semi- Structured interview:**

Within the semi-structured interview situation, both structured and spontaneous questions are asked. It combines the merits of the first two types of interviews.

- **Stress interview:**

The purpose is to put pressure or tension purposely on the applicant. It assesses the emotional capabilities of an applicant when he/she is considered for such jobs where resistance to stress is important. It is often characterised by the rapid firing of questions by several seemingly unfriendly interviewers and in some cases invading the privacy of the applicants. Thus, applicants are pressurised, sometimes aggressively.

- **Singleton or One-on-One interview:**

In this type of interview, the applicant's fate is determined by one session with a single interviewer on a one-on-one basis.

- **Sequential interview:**

Here the applicant is made to undergo two or more interview sessions, but is expected to face one interviewer at a time.

- **Panel / board interview:**

Here the interviewee(s) is/are made to appear before the interviewers who are made up of three to five or more members on the panel.

- **Group interview:**

This is useful within assessment centre programmes. It involves group decisions, discussions and presentations. Within the group interview session, applicants are interviewed as a group. The essence is to identify how applicants can interact in a group situation.

- **Situational interview:**

It is a form of structured interview in which the interviewer describes a situation likely to arise on the job, and then asks the applicant what he/she would do in such a situation or circumstance. This type of interview is based on the 'critical incident' technique.

- **Behaviour description interview:**

This is a form of structured interview in which the interviewer asks the applicant to describe how he/she handled a type of situation in the past. This is also called criterion-referenced interview.

### ***Making Employment Interview Effective***

For employment interview to be fruitful and effective, the following must be observed:

Adequate preparation is required on both sides. The interviewer should ensure that relevant information, such as application forms and curricula vitae are read beforehand. It is surprising how many interviewers are found to be reading such materials for the first time during the interview. More so, the interview should take place in an appropriate and conducive environment such as a quiet venue without interruptions. The interviewer should watch out for the applicant's appearance and mannerisms such as dressing style, speech, voice, facial expression, neatness and cleanliness, nervousness and comportment to mention a few. The interviewer should give the prospective employee a realistic job preview. That is, information about the positive and negative aspects of the job and organisation. The interviewer should meticulously cross check information whether what is written on the application form is the same thing as what he/she (interviewee) has to say.

The interviewee should be put at ease throughout the interview except in a stress interview situation. Rapport should be established and maintained throughout the interview. Both the interviewee and interviewer should learn to listen a lot otherwise they may lose some vital information from both parties during the interview. Interviewers should identify the

questions to be asked early enough and the issues to be raised during the interview session. They should avoid dichotomous questions that will give rise to yes/no response. Instead, the use of open-ended questions is useful to enable the applicants to give sufficient information on the issues raised.

### **Errors to avoid in Employment Interview**

The following errors should be avoided to make interview effective:

- **Halo effect:** This involves the interviewer giving the interviewees superlative or impressive rating on one factor or question to influence positively rating on all other questions. That is first impression is the last impression.
- **Horns effect:** This is the opposite of the halo effect. This is a rating error that occurs when the rater responds to one negative aspect by rating the applicant low in other aspects.
- **Leniency error:** This is a rating error committed when the interviewer consistently rate applicants very highly.
- **Strictness error:** This is a rating error committed when the interviewer consistently gives applicants very low rating.
- **Central tendency:** It is a situation in which the interviewer rate the applicants averagely either deliberately or because of limited knowledge of the applicant.
- Others are recency error, error of variable standards, ethnic bias, discrimination and stereotypes.

**Physical/Medical Examination:** This is usually done at the end of the selection process when there are indications that the candidate or applicant may be employed due to success on other predictors. In some jobs, this predictor is not needed or found important. Some organisations give out provisional offer of employment subject to providing satisfactory medical report, while some must obtain the medical report prior to making final offer. The essence of the examination is to ascertain the fitness of the applicant and to ensure that he/she does not have any communicable diseases as well as serious health problems.

**Cross Checking References:** This is oftentimes done towards the end of selection process. In view of the fact that some people usually give out referees report or form to relations and friends to complete, it is not considered a valid predictor of job success. There are occasions when organisations might send referee form to the interviewees' past organisations and such organisations do not return the form to the organisation that needed it for decision making. There are at times when the contents of such report do not bear true facts or information about the applicant.

**Offer and Acceptance or Rejection:** There should be an offer of employment and acceptance. The individual to be employed should be formally offered the job and this should be indicated in a letter of employment otherwise called the contract of employment. A labour contract or contract of employment, or agreement, is a legal document and the very basis of an employer–employee relationship. It specifies or defines the terms of an employment relationship (Matanmi, 2007). Cheatle (2001) opines that the contract of employment is arguably the most important document in the whole sphere of human resource management as it underpins the legal relationship between the employer and employees.

**TABLE 1: STEPS IN THE SELECTION PROCESS**

Acceptance or rejection of offer	Step 9
Making hiring Decision	Step 8
Reference Checks	Step 7
Physical/Medical Examination	Step 6
Employment Interview	Step 5
Psychological test	Step 4
Application Blank/form	Step 3
Preliminary screening/ interview	Step 2
Reception	Step 1

**Source:** Adapted from Rao, V.S.P (2005). *Human Resource Management: Text and Cases*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New Delhi: Excel Books.

**Emerging Selection Methods**

In recent times, there is the emergence of new selection methods in use for evaluating applicants. These are graphology, assessment centre, work samples and polygraph.

- **Graphology:** This refers to handwriting analysis. The essence of graphology is that analysts or graphologists claim to be able to describe an individual’s personality from a sample of their handwriting. According to Gatewood and Feild (2001), graphology is the analysis of the handwriting of an individual in order to infer personality traits and behavioural tendencies. Aamodt (2007) posits that graphology is an interesting method used by more than 6,000 U.S. organisations to select employees. Aamodt also observed that 8 per cent and 75 per cent of organisations in the U.K and France respectively used graphology in employee selection. The idea behind handwriting analysis is that the way people write reveals their personality, which in turn should indicate work performance. To analyse a person’s handwriting, a graphologist looks at the size, slant, width, regularity and pressure of a writing sample. From these writing characteristics, information about temperament, mental, social, work and moral traits is obtained (Aamodt, 2007). Byars and Rue (2006, p.140) define graphology as “handwriting analysis which entails the use of a trained analyst to examine a person’s handwriting to assess the person’s personality, emotional problems and honesty”. According to Curren-Briggs, Kennett and Paterson

(1971), evidence is accumulating that industry and commerce can find in graphology a useful means of confirming or modifying the findings of more conventional methods of selection. In Nigeria, there is evidence of the use of graphology judging from job advertisements where prospective applicants are asked to send handwritten applications. However, one may not say emphatically whether some weights are assigned to good handwriting or not.

- **Assessment Centre:** According to Aamodt (2007), an assessment centre is a selection technique characterised by the use of multiple assessment methods that allow multiple assessors to actually observe applicants perform simulated job tasks. Assessment centres are procedures used in selection and training and not necessarily places or locations. They function on the principle that no individual method of selection is particularly good and no individual assessor is infallible. As such, it uses multiple methods and several assessors. A typical assessment centre involves six participants and lasts from one to three days (Price, 2004). As participants go through the simulations, they are observed by assessors who are specially trained in observing and evaluating behaviour. They observe different participants in each simulation and take notes on special observation forms. Then after the simulations are completed, assessors spend one or more days sharing their observations and reaching agreement on evaluation of participants. These typify an assessment centre, case

analysis, in-basket and leaderless group discussion to mention a few.

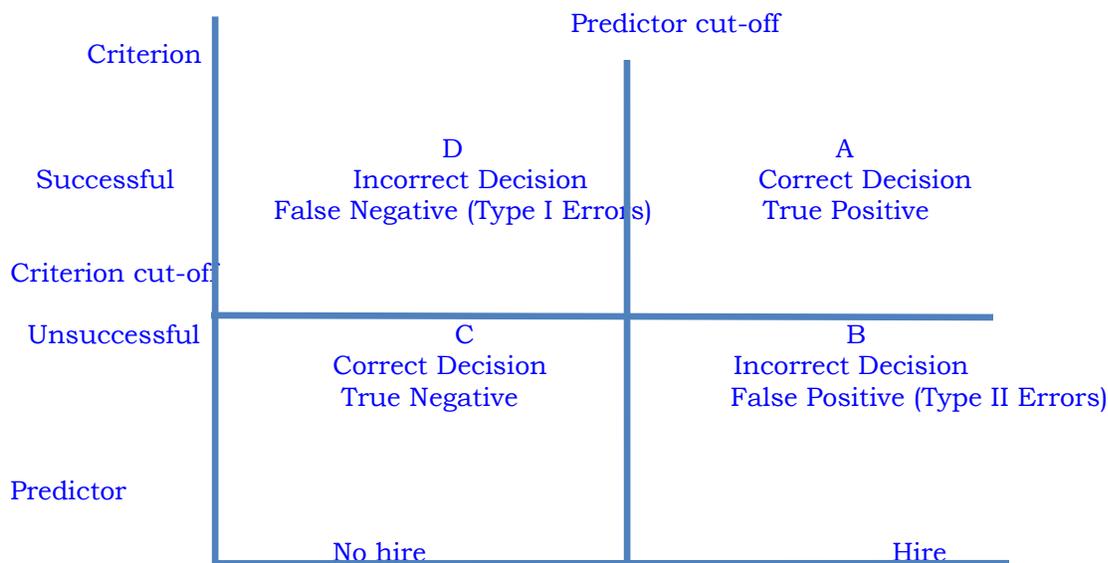
- **Work Sample:** With work sample, the applicant performs actual job-related tasks (Aamodt, 2007). Work sample entails asking candidates or applicants to take on “mini jobs” in a selection situation. For instance, using the in-basket or the in-tray exercise is an example of work sample. The in-basket is normally used for managerial jobs, where candidates are given a typical in-tray containing letters to be answered or treated, reports to be analysed and items to be prioritised. Applicants are given instruction on what to do and a time limit. Work samples are often used as part of an assessment centre programme.
- **Polygraph:** Polygraph also called honesty test tells an employer the probability that an applicant would steal money or merchandise (Aamodt, 2007). No matter what employees’ personalities may be like, organisations want employees to be honest and to behave safely (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2004). Some organisations are satisfied to assess these qualities based on judgments from reference checks and interview. Others investigate these characteristics more directly through the use of honesty test. The most famous kind of honesty test is the polygraph, the so-called lie detector test. Honesty or integrity tests could also be carried out through paper and pencil tests. These tests ask applicants directly about their attitude or feelings towards theft and their own experiences with theft. Sample items from a typical honesty tests can take the following form: (a) it is okay to take something from a company that is making too much profit (b) stealing

is just a way of getting your fair share (c) if you could get into a movie without paying and not get caught, would you do it? (Noe et al., 2004).

### **Selection Outcomes**

According to Gatewood and Feild (2001), sometimes HR selection decisions turn out to be wrong. Perhaps individuals who were predicted to be outstanding performers actually contribute very little to an organisation. Others who were forecast to stay with an organisation for a long period of time leave after only a few months. More so, persons who were thought to be very poor employees and not employed would have been valuable contributors had they been employed. The outcomes of selection exercise could be functional or dysfunctional. The following are the outcomes of selection exercise:

- **True Positives:** This group is composed of those whom the predictor says will do well on the job and who in fact did well according to the criterion. They represent correct decisions based on the predictor.
- **True Negatives:** This group comprises those whom the predictor says will do badly on the job and who actually perform badly according to the criterion in real life situation.
- **False Positives:** These are people whom the predictor says will do well on the job but who actually performed badly according to the criterion in real life situation.
- **False Negatives:** These are candidates whom the predictor says will not do well on the job but who performed excellently in real life situation. These candidates are the victims of selection error, hence the term false negatives.



**Fig. 1: Four Selection Outcomes**

**Source:** Adapted from Heneman, H.G., & Judge, T.A (2006). *Staffing Organisations*. (5<sup>th</sup> ed.) New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Quadrants A and C represent correct decisions which have positive consequences for the organisation; Quadrant A applicants are called true positives because they were assessed as having a high chance of success using the predictor and would have succeeded if hired. Quadrant C applicants are called true negatives because they were assessed as having little chance for success and indeed, would not have been successful on the job if hired. Quadrants D and B represent incorrect decisions, which have negative consequences for the organisation and affected applicants. Quadrant D applicants are called false negatives because they were assessed as not being likely to succeed on the job, but had they been hired, they would have been successful. Not only was an incorrect decision reached, but a person who would have done well was not hired. That is, rejecting applicants who would have performed successfully if hired. This is also called Type I errors in selection decisions. Quadrant B applicants are called false positives. They were assessed as being

likely to succeed on the job, but would have ended up being unsuccessful performers. That is, accepting applicants who would have performed poorly if hired. This is also called Type II errors in selection decisions. Eventually, these people would need to receive remedial training, be transferred to a new job or even be terminated for poor performance. It should be noted that there is a relationship between selection ratio and selection error. According to Fajana (2002):

The greater the success of the recruitment exercise, the greater the probability of not committing selection error. When the recruitment is successful, in terms of large number of applicants generated, compared to the vacancy to be filled, the selection ratio is low (p.200).

The goal of effective selection exercise is to reduce or minimise selection error. Selection ratio is the ratio of the number of job vacancies to the number of qualified applicants from which a choice is made. This is usually expressed as  $SR = n/N$  where

SR is selection ratio,  $n$  is the number of job vacancies and  $N$  is the number of qualified applicants available for selection. Where  $N$  is greater than  $n$ , this may induce rigorous selection process. If  $N$  is greater than  $n$ , then the standard may be increased. However, where  $N$  is less than  $n$ , then the standard may be reduced. In a situation where  $N = n$ , there is no need in using a selection device. Under such a situation, the organisation needs not be selective. This condition may give rise to selection error. The lower the selection ratio, the lower the selection error. The higher the selection ratio the higher the selection error (Fajana, 2002).

#### • **Placement of Successful Candidates**

Placement is the process of assigning the right candidate to the right job or right position. Mathis and Jackson (2004) opine that the ultimate purpose of selection is placement, or fitting a person to the right job. Thus, placement of human resources should be viewed as a matching process. Selection and placement aim at person-job fit; that is matching the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) of people with the characteristics of jobs. Studies have shown that without a good fit between the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) of the person and the demands of the job, lower employee performance, higher turnover, absenteeism as well as other human resource (HR) problems will be on the increase. The process varies from one organisation to the other. In some organisations, individuals undergo a lot of induction or orientation and socialisation before they are placed.

Gomez-Mejia et al. (2001) view socialisation as the process of orienting new employees to the organisation or the unit in which they will work. In some others not much of orientation is done before it is carried out. The importance of placing the right individual or the right person on the right job cannot be over-emphasised. On the part of individuals, it makes for less feelings of frustration, anxiety whilst on the part of the organisation; it helps to make for

effectiveness, efficiency and organisation well-being.

Orientation/induction/socialisation attempts to introduce the new employee to (i) the job (ii) his/her colleagues and superiors (iii) organisation (iv) it also helps the individual to adjust and be fully effective on the job. Many organisations do not consider these programmes important. Even though the human resource department is mainly responsible for carrying out these activities, the cooperation of members of the department where the individual will be placed should be sought. Enough time should also be spent with the employee(s) on the first day and too much information should not be given to him/her on the first day in office. The purposes of orientation/induction are as follows: to reduce employees' anxiety, to develop clear job expectation and to reduce employee turnover.

#### **Critical Factors Affecting Selection**

In the course of selection, the following factors should be taken into consideration:

#### • **Legal Provisions on Equality of Opportunities**

The emphasis on equality of opportunities in the workplace is a fundamental human right. Pieces of legislation are usually put in place to protect the rights of persons or individuals in selection decisions. Equal employment opportunity discourages discrimination in employment selection. Discrimination includes any distinction, exclusion or preferences made on the basis of race, sex, age, religion, national origin, pregnancy/child birth, familial/marital status disability, sexual orientation, HIV/AIDS, prior arrest/conviction record to mention a few which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality at work (Aturu, 2005). In the U.S, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is charged with the responsibility of ensuring compliance with all anti-discriminatory laws. For instance Title VII of the Civil Rights Act 1964 and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act 1967 and 1987 are all

anti-discriminatory laws in the United States.

In Nigeria, the Nigerian Constitution explicitly discourages all forms of discrimination as a way of equalising employment opportunities. This is to be found in Section 42(1) of the 1999 Nigerian Constitution. However, the Federal Character Principle and the preferential quota system which on the surface could be viewed as affirmative action plans could be viewed by some people as discriminatory. The Nigerian with Disability Act, 1993 was promulgated to protect persons who are disabled but are qualified to work. The Act is seen as a means of providing positive discrimination in favour of disabled persons. Section 6(2) of the Act requires all employers of labour to reserve for the disabled not less than 10 per cent of the workforce (Aturu, 2005); for even in disability, there could be immense ability.

- **Union Contract**

Most unions now have criteria for deciding who comes into the organisation or who is employed; dismissed or laid off. This is prevalent in unionised organisations where closed shop is practised. Thus, by having the opportunity to contribute in selecting workers, unions would ultimately influence the selection process.

- **Ethnic Issues**

Applicants should not be employed on the basis of their relationship with those selecting or based on their relationship with other members of the organisation. Selecting employees based on familial ties is known as nepotism. Thus, employees should not be selected based on bribery, god-fatherism, friendship and favouritism but based on objective criteria.

- **Organisational Policies**

The policies of an organisation could make or mar an organisation. This statement holds true for selection. For instance, the policies on pay and reward systems, training and development, health and safety have implications for the calibre of employees or applicants an organisation could attract, select and retain.

## **Evaluation of Selection Methods**

How do we judge the value or effectiveness of interview or any other method of selection? According to Price (2004) citing Smith (1991); there are four basic requirements for determining the effectiveness of selection methods. These are: practicality, sensitivity, validity and reliability.

i) **Practicality:** Selection methods must be practical and useful in a given situation. For example cost, convenience and time available. Attitudes of employers and candidates to the methods are also relevant.

ii) **Sensitivity:** This refers to the ability of a selection method to distinguish one candidate from another. Interviews may rank a number of candidates fairly closely, whereas tests may give a wide range of scores (Price, 2004).

iii) **Validity:** One of the most important requirements for any predictor is that it be valid. For instance, if a predictor is reliable but not valid, it is not a good predictor. But if the predictor is valid but not reliable, it is an acceptable predictor. Asika (1991) posits that validity is superior to reliability, and that both are useful in ascertaining the usefulness of measuring instruments. Validity is the tendency of the predictor to measure what it is supposed to measure. According to Blunt and Popoola (1985), the validity of a predictor may be defined as the degree to which the predictor satisfies the objectives of the user by measuring accurately what it is supposed to measure. Different strategies of validation may be employed. The six main ones as given by Blunt and Popoola (1985) are discussed. It should be noted that predictive validity and concurrent validity are the two methods for establishing criterion-related validity.

a) **Predictive Validity:** Of the six major validation strategies, predictive validity is widely held to be the most useful. As the name suggests, predictive validity refers to the extent to which scores on the predictor enable the human resource

manager to predict future performance on the job. Predictive validity is usually calculated by correlating predictor scores obtained from a group of say, new employed at one point in time (commencement) with scores obtained on a suitable criterion by the same group at a later date (say, after six months). The relationship thus arrived at provides a good indication of the predictive power of the predictor or selection instrument.

**b) Concurrent Validity:** This strategy involves calculating the relationship between the predictor and the criterion by obtaining scores on both at the same time, usually from a sample of current employees. It is important to bear in mind that predictors which have high concurrent validity will not necessarily have high predictive validity (Blunt & Popoola, 1985).

**c) Content Validity:** With this strategy or approach, the human resource manager will be able to tell the degree to which the knowledge, skills, aptitudes or performance he/she wishes to measure are represented in the content of his/her chosen predictor(s). It entails knowing how well the content of predictors (application forms, written examinations, psychological tests and interviews) actually tapped the skills and abilities necessary for good performance on the job. The basis for proper content validations is to be found in thorough job analysis (Blunt & Popoola, 1985).

**d) Construct Validity:** In the selection context, a construct refers to some personality trait or other personal characteristics of the individual being assessed. Construct validity is concerned with establishing the degree to which certain constructs explain predictor performance. That is to say, whether the people being assessed possess some trait or characteristic which is measured by test performance.

**e) Face Validity:** A predictor has face validity when on inspection its contents are thought to be clearly related to the skills necessary to perform the job for which the

individual is being considered. That is, when the contents of the instrument are clearly seen to have relationship with the job in question.

**f) Synthetic Validity:** This validation strategy is often used by small organisations which may not have sufficient numbers of employees in particular job categories (say supervisors) to carry out a concurrent validation, or the expertise necessary to conduct a validation study. Under such circumstances, it might be assumed that because the predictors in question have demonstrated high predictive or concurrent validity in larger organisations, they are valid also for smaller organisations.

**iv) Reliability:** According to Blunt and Popoola (1985, p.58), “a predictor’s reliability refers to its ability to measure consistently what it is intended to measure, in different situations and over time”. Thus, reliability in psychometrics refers to the test’s consistency. That is, the tendency of the predictor to give the same scores each time it is applied. The three methods of assessing a predictor’s reliability are discussed below:

**a) Test-Retest Method:** As the name indicates, this method consists of taking measurements of the same individual’s performance twice using the same predictor. Also called intra-rater reliability.

**b) Parallel Test Method:** This method involves two similar instruments or predictors which are administered to two groups of individuals at the same time. At the end, the results from the two groups are compared to know if there is consistency. It should be noted that this involves two similar tests at the same time. Parallel test method is also called the alternative forms.

**c) Sub-divided Test Method:** This is also called the split-half method. It is probably the most common method of assessing reliability. “Its popularity stems from the fact that only one form of predictor or measuring instrument needs to be constructed or designed and repeated

measurements are not necessary” (Blunt & Popoola, 1985, p.60). The method simply involves splitting the measuring instrument into two equivalent halves for scoring purposes only. This is done by putting all the odd numbered items into one half and all the even numbered items into the other. An estimate of the reliability of the whole test can be obtained using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula. Split-half method

reflects the correlations between two halves of an instrument. The instrument is split into two halves; that is comparing the first 50 per cent with the second 50 per cent of the items or by comparing the odd numbers questions with the even number questions and then correlate the scores. This can be obtained using the Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula. This is illustrated in Table 2.

**TABLE 2 SPLIT-HALF METHOD FOR COMPUTING RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT**

Even	Sum	Rank	Odd	Sum	Rank	d	d <sup>2</sup>
2	96	1	1	66	2	-1	1
4	52	5.5	3	63	3	2.5	6.25
6	53	3.5	5	51	5	-1.5	2.25
8	53	3.5	7	77	1	2.5	6.25
10	86	2	9	62	4	-2	4
12	52	5.5	11	44	6	-0.5	0.25
<b>Total sum of squared differences of ranked even and odd scores/numbers</b>							<b>Σd<sup>2</sup>=20</b>

**Source:** Developed by the Author.

Using Spearman Rank Correlation Formula:

$$r = 1 - \frac{6\sum d^2}{n(n^2 - 1)} \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - \frac{6\sum d^2}{n^3 - n}$$

Inserting the relevant figures in the table above, we have.

$$1 - \frac{6 \times 20}{6(36 - 1)} = 1 - \frac{120}{210} = 0.43$$

Using Spearman-Brown Prophecy formula given as

$$\frac{2roe}{1 + roe} = \frac{2 \times 0.43}{1 + 0.43} = 0.60$$

This shows that the measuring instrument is 60 per cent reliable. However, with the

advent of computer; the reliability coefficient using split-half method can be

generated with ease using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (Ho, 2006); formerly Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The Cronbach's Alpha is also a test of reliability which could be computed using the SPSS software. A note of caution should be given at this juncture. Foreign selection instruments should be continuously adapted to suit local conditions. Employment tests that are culture-bound should be examined to see if they are culture fair. That is, if they contain items that can be equally answered by everybody irrespective of nationality. More so, such tests should be related to the position being considered.

### **Concepts and Tools Applicable to Selection**

The following concepts and tools apply to selection. It is important for the HR professionals to be conversant with their meanings and usage.

- **Predictor Variables:** Predictor variables refer to selection methods such as the interview, psychological test, application blanks, references, medical examination, graphology, polygraph, assessment centre, work sample to mention a few. These devices are used by the human resource professionals to predict those who are likely to be successful on the job and those who are not likely to be successful on the job. The emphasis here is success on the job.
- **Criterion Measures:** This is a measure of success on the job. It measures actual performance on the job. For instance, rating on performance appraisal, amount of wastage and breakages by individual. Thus, whilst criterion measures deal with a measure of actual performance, the predictor variables deal with a measure of potential or future performance or success on the job. Criterion measures are standards for measuring success on the job. Criterion measure also includes quality of work, accident level to mention a few.
- **Predictor Cut-off:** In administering a particular instrument to a group of applicants, the basic assumption is that it shows us those who are likely to be

successful on the job and those who are not likely to be successful on the job. The scores on the predictors can be used in dividing the individual into two groups. One group will contain those that are likely to be successful on the job and the other shows those who are not likely to be successful on the job. The division of the scores into two to determine those who are likely or not likely to be successful on the job is called predictor cut-off.

- **Multiple Predictors:** Multiple predictions entail the use of many predictors in evaluating applicants. Four models of multiple predictors are discussed as follows:
  - i. **Multiple Cut-off:** Here a minimum cut-off is set separately for each predictor and those selected from among the pool of applicants must have obtained a score above the cut-off on all predictors. A deficiency on one predictor cannot be compensated for by high scores on another.
  - ii. **Compensatory Model:** This involves the process of arriving at a selection decision in which a very high score on one predictor can make up for a low score on another. Here, applicants or job candidates are taken through all the stages and then review all the scores to find the most desirable candidate.
  - iii. **Multiple Hurdles:** This involves the process of arriving at a selection decision by eliminating some applicants at each stage of the selection process. Thus, sequential uses of chosen predictors are used to weed out poor performers at every stage of the selection process. Applicants for jobs are employed on the basis of satisfactory performances.
  - iv. **Profile Matching:** To obtain a profile for a particular job we take all predictors which are considered important to job success and measure successful existing employees on each predictor. Profile matching entails selecting those who score higher than existing successful employees on all predictors. This means selecting those

applicants who obtain the highest average profile scores based on all predictors. This method allows low scores on one predictor to be compensated for by high scores on another. The typical profile of a successful worker consists of the average of the scores obtained on chosen predictors by a group of successful existing employees. With this method, the typical profile is used to establish minimum acceptable standards on each predictor. Applying such a stringent procedure will only be appropriate where the number of applicants far exceeds the number of vacancies (Blunt & Popoola, 1985). Thus, in the profile matching model, current employees who are considered successful on the job are assessed on several predictors. Their average scores on each predictor are used to form an ideal profile of scores required for successful job performance (Catano, Cronshaw, Wiesner, Hackett & Methot, 2001).

- **Moderator Variable:** Any variable which intervenes between the relationship of predictor scores and criterion scores is called moderator variable. There is an assumption that there should be a direct relationship between predictor and criterion measures. So, any intervention in that relationship is a moderator variable.

### **Empirical researches germane to the Study**

Selection has been found to be positively related to firm performance (Terpstra & Rozell, 1993). Researchers found a positive relationship between effective recruitment and selection practices and top-class performance (Delany & Huselid, 1996; Harel & Tzafir, 1996). Selective selection is negatively related to employee turnover and is positively related with perceived profit, market share and investments in the near future (Verburg, 1998). Hornsby and Kurato (1990) analysed personnel policies and activities on five important aspects namely; job analysis and job description, recruitment and selection, remuneration,

training and performance assessment. They found that sophistication of personnel activities were directly linked with firm size. The bigger the company the more sophisticated and extensive were the policies and activities in use. Thus, with increasing size, HR policies and activities become more complex, more formalised and sophisticated. Unionised organisations are bigger in size than non-unionised organisations and as such their selection practices are more formalised and sophisticated.

Ahmed and Schroeder (2003) investigated the effect of selective hiring on organisational performance (quality, cost, flexibility, delivery and commitment). The study confirmed a positive and significant relationship with firms' operational performance. Delaney and Huselid (1996) reported that selectivity in staffing is positively related to firm performance. Employees could be hired via sophisticated selection procedures designed to screen out all but the very best potential employees that would impact on the bottom-line.

### **Research Hypothesis:**

Ho: Selection practices do not affect performance of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State.

### **Methods**

This section concentrates on the adopted methods or procedures for carrying out the study. It highlights the research setting, research design, population of study including sample and sampling techniques, research instrument/measurement of variables, validation of research instrument, administration of instrument and the statistical techniques for the test of hypothesis.

The setting for the study is Lagos State, situated in the South-Western part of Nigeria. Lagos State is Nigeria's financial, commercial and economic capital, with the largest concentration of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and

Tobacco Industry. Besides, Lagos is the most urbanised State in Nigeria. Lagos has a population of 9,013,534 people according to the Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin 2007, based on the 2006 census. The research setting is important to this study as majority of the organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry have their head offices in Lagos as well as their human resource management/administrative departments that could assist with both primary and secondary data for the study. The adopted research design is the survey method. The justification for choosing the survey method is based on the fact that the study is interested in gaining an understanding of the problem being investigated (Ezirim, Briggs & Maclayton, 2004) without any attempt to manipulate or control the sample subjects (Asika, 1991). More so, the study is interested in the attitude or opinion of the respondents as opposed to their behaviour. The survey method is ideal since large sample of respondents are required and the researcher is interested in subjecting the collected data to rigorous statistical (hypothesis) testing. More so, it is economical.

For this study, the organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State constitute the population of the study. There are 80 companies in the fold of the Association of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employers (AFBTE) in Nigeria as obtained from the directory of member-companies as of 2011 (AFBTE Annual Report, 2011). Of this number, 54 companies are located in Lagos. The target respondents for the survey were the executive management and senior employees in charge of human resource management functions. A total of fourteen (14) respondent companies that are unionised were drawn from the population using the simple random sampling technique. The stratified random sampling was further adopted to determine individual respondents at different job levels. Researchers use stratified random sampling to ensure that different groups of a population are adequately represented in the sample so as to increase the level of

accuracy when estimating parameters (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2009). In this study, the proportional stratified sampling was used to select equal sample of thirty (30) from each of the organisations surveyed. A total of four hundred and twenty (420) research subjects were drawn from the respondent companies. The sampling technique and sample size were employed in order to have representation of the various cadres of staff because the population does not constitute a homogenous group (Briggs, 2007; Kothari, 2004). The sampled companies are Cadbury Nig. PLC, Guinness Nig PLC, Nigerian Bottling Company PLC, West African Seasoning Co.Ltd, Niger Biscuit Co. Ltd., Seven-Up Bottling Co. PLC, Nigerian Breweries PLC, Ragolis Waters Ltd., Promasidor Nig. Ltd., OK Foods Ltd., Nestlé Nig. PLC, Flour Mills Nig. PLC, Friesland Foods (WAMCO) Nig, PLC and GlaxoSmithKline Consumer Nig. PLC. However, 284 copies of questionnaire were properly completed and used for data analysis. This represents 68 per cent response rate.

The instrument was designed using opinion and factual questions or categorical questions. The Likert 4-point scale ranging from strongly agree (4) to strongly disagree (1) was adopted for opinion questions to elicit information from respondents. Also, the 3-point scale ranging from always (3) to never (1) was adopted. The instrument is comprised of two sections with alphabetical numbering. Section A sought the views of respondents regarding the adopted selection and placement practices of their organisations. Section B x-rayed the demographic profile of respondents. The research instrument was subjected to validity and reliability testing. Asika (1991) posits that validity is superior to reliability, and that both are useful in ascertaining the usefulness of measuring instruments. Validity is the ability of the research instrument or scale to measure what it is designed to measure (Asika, 2004). The domain of validity also called intrinsic validity was used for the validity estimate. The domain of validity is obtained by calculating the square root of reliability

(Guilford, 1954; Uwaoma, Udeagha & Madukwe, 2011). Validity estimate is 0.90 while the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.81 being the reliability coefficient of the instrument. An alpha level of 0.70 and above is generally considered satisfactory internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978; Cronbach, 1951). Data analyses were done using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (Ho, 2006); formerly Statistical Package for

the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 16. Frequency distribution showing absolute and relative frequencies or percentages was adopted as well as pictorial representation or visual displays of data such as bar charts. The hypothesis for the study was tested using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, Regression Model and Chi-square test of goodness-of-fit at 5 per cent level of significance.

### Results

*Table: 3 Perceptions of Respondents on Selection and Placement Practices*

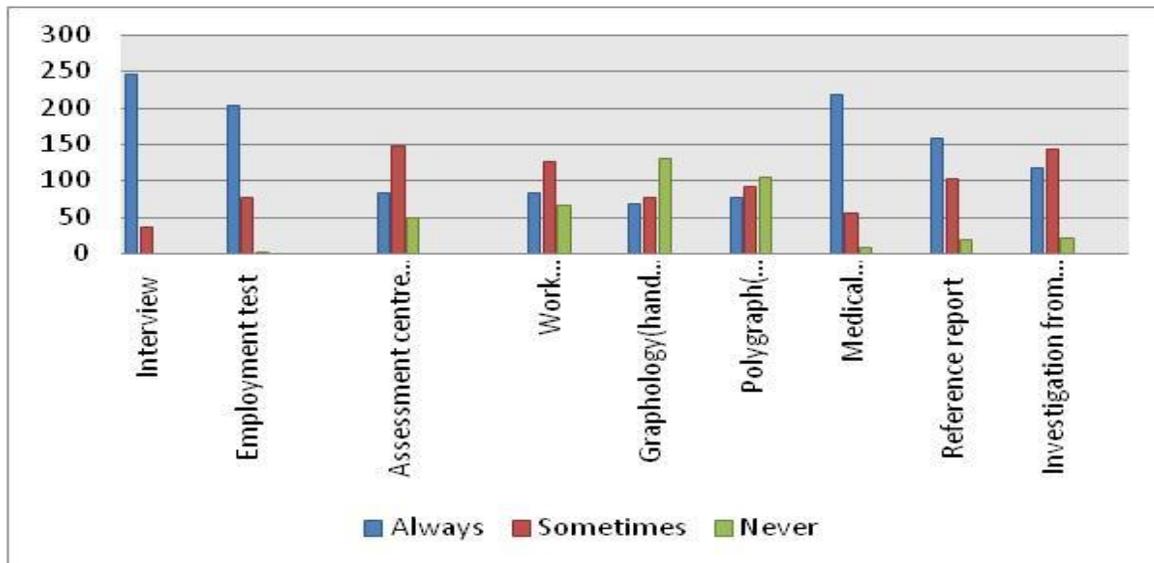
S/N	STATEMENTS	N	SA	A	D	SD	MIS	STD
			4	3	2	1		
1	Selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations.	284	(115) 40.5%	(161) 56.7%	(8) 2.8%	----	3.38	0.54
2	Selection practices are related to organisational size	284	(54) 19%	(187) 65.8%	(41) 14.4%	(2) 0.7%	3.03	0.60
3	Negligent hiring (hiring employees without prior investigation of their employment history) is higher in non-unionised than in unionised organisations	281	(52) 18.3%	(105) 37%	(108) 38%	(16) 5.6%	2.69	0.84
4	Employees' tenure (length of service or years of service in the organisation) is related to adopted selection practices	280	(38) 13.4%	(135) 47.5%	(93) 32.7%	(14) 4.9%	2.70	0.76
5	Selection practices are significantly different in unionised and non-unionised organisations	279	(30) 10.6%	(144) 50.7%	(86) 30.3%	(19) 6.7%	2.66	0.76
6	Orientation/induction of new staff is done by my organisation	283	(126) 44.4%	(142) 50%	(14) 4.9%	(1) 0.4%	3.39	0.60
7	Staff are properly placed after selection in jobs for which they are economically most useful	283	(71) 25%	(166) 58.5%	(45) 15.8%	(1) 0.4%	3.08	0.65
8	How often does your organisation use the following selection method (s) in making hiring decisions?	N		Always	Sometimes	Never	MIS	STD
I	Interview	284		(247) 87%	(37) 13%	----	2.87	0.34
ii	Employment test	283		(204) 71.8%	(77) 27.1%	(2) 0.7%	2.71	0.47
iii	Assessment centre (case analysis, in-basket, leaderless group discussions)	281		(84) 29.6%	(148) 52.1%	(49) 17.3%	2.12	0.68
iv	Work sample(practical test)	277		(84) 29.6%	(127) 44.7%	(66) 23.2%	2.06	0.73
v	Graphology(hand writing analysis)	275		(68) 23.9%	(77) 27.1%	(130) 45.8%	1.77	0.82
vi	Polygraph( honesty or integrity test)	275		(78) 27.5%	(93) 32.7%	(104) 36.6%	1.91	0.81

<b>Vii</b>	Medical examination	284		(219) 77.1%	(56) 19.7%	(9) 3.2%	2.74	0.51
<b>Viii</b>	Reference report	280		(159) 56%	(102) 35.9%	(19) 6.7%	2.50	0.62
<b>Ix</b>	Investigation from previous employers	281		(117) 41.2%	(143) 50.4%	(21) 7.4%	2.35	

**Source:** Field Survey, 2012.

From Table 3 it can be seen that selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations with a mean item score of 3.38 and a standard deviation of 0.54. Of the 284 respondents, 84.8 per cent agreed and strongly agreed that selection practices are related to organisational size. With respect to negligent hiring (hiring employees without prior investigation of their employment history), 55.3 per cent of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed that the practice is higher in non-unionised comparable to unionised organisations. The mean item score is 2.69 with a standard deviation of 0.84. The findings reveal that employees' tenure (length of service or years of service in the organisation) is related to adopted selection practices. Respondents to this statement represent 60.9 per cent, with a mean item score of 2.70 and a standard deviation of 0.76. Of the 279 respondents, 61.3 per cent agreed and strongly agreed that selection practices are significantly different in unionised and non-unionised organisations. Of the 283 respondents, 94.4 per cent agreed and strongly agreed that orientation/induction of new staff is done by their organisations. Of the 283 respondents, 83.5 per cent agreed and strongly agreed that members of staff in

their organisations are properly placed after selection in jobs for which they are economically most useful. Of the nine selection methods in making hiring decisions, interview has the highest mean item score of 2.87 with a standard deviation of 0.34. This is followed by medical examination with a mean item score of 2.74 with a standard deviation of 0.51. The third is employment test with a mean item score of 2.71 and a standard deviation of 0.47. The study found that selection practices are related to organisational size. The findings reveal that selection practices are significantly different in unionised and non-unionised organisations. It was found that interview, medical examination, employment test, reference report and investigation from previous employers are the most frequently used selection methods by the respondents' organisations. Graphology and polygraph are the two methods which have not been widely used in the industry. However, assessment centre and work sample are common selection methods adopted in the industry. From the test of hypothesis, it was found that selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations.



Source: Generated by the Author from Table 3

Fig.2: Bar Chart of Selection Methods

It was hypothesised that selection practices do not affect performance of unionised organisations. The result of hypothesis test shows that selection practices exhibited positive and significant relationship with all measures of performance. Rate of sales ( $r = 0.272$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); innovativeness ( $r = 0.261$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); growth in employees ( $r = 0.232$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); performance stability ( $r = 0.235$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); operational efficiency ( $r = 0.227$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); public image ( $r = 0.146$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ); staff morale ( $r = 0.201$ ;  $p < 0.01$ );

adaptability ( $r = 0.183$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ); market share ( $r = 0.143$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ); and profitability ( $r = 0.174$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ). The Chi-square test of goodness-of-fit also confirms that selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations ( $\chi^2 = 130.19$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Similarly, from appendix 1, it could be observed that selection practices affect performance of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State.

Table: 4 Demographic Profiles of Respondents

S/N	VARIABLES	ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY	RELATIVE FREQUENCY (%)
1.	Sex of Respondents:		
	Male	207	72.9
	Female	77	27.1
2.	Age of Respondents:		
	Less than 20years	-----	-----
	20-29	38	13.4
	30-39	156	54.9
	40-49	85	29.9
	50 and above	5	1.8
3.	Marital Status:		
	Married	195	68.7
	Single	83	29.2

	Separated	2	0.7
	Divorced	4	1.4
4.	Qualifications:		
	OND	12	4.2
	HND	82	28.9
	First degree	115	40.5
	Master's degree	73	25.7
	Ph.D.	1	0.4
	Professional diploma	----	----
	Others(Pls. specify)	1	0.4
5.	Job Category:		
	Junior	----	----
	Senior	227	79.9
	Management Staff	57	20.1
6.	Organisational Size:		
	Less than 50 staff	----	----
	50-100 staff	----	----
	101-250 staff	37	13
	251-500 staff	58	20.4
	501 & above	189	66.5
8.	What is the union status of your organisation?		
	Unionised	284	100
	Non-unionised	----	----
9.	How long have you been working for your organisation? (Please specify in years)		
	Less than 5years	79	27.8
	5-10years	109	38.4
	11-15years	51	18
	16years and above	29	10.2
	No Response	16	5.9

**Source:** Field Survey, 2012

Table 4 reveals that 72.9 per cent of the respondents are males; while 27.1 per cent are females. This indicates that there are more male than female respondents. About 55 per cent of respondents are in the age bracket of 30-39 and they constitute the largest number of respondents. This sector has many younger workers below 40 years old and this constitutes 68.3 per cent. The marital status shows the preponderance of married respondents with 68.7 per cent.

With respect to educational qualifications, 40.5 per cent of respondents possess first degree, 28.9 per cent of respondents hold the HND and 25.7 per cent are holders of Master's degree. In a nutshell, 66.6 per cent of the respondents possess university degrees. With respect to job category, 79.9 per cent are senior staff while 20.1 per cent are management staff. As regards organisational size, 66.5 per cent of respondents belong to organisations with

membership size of 501 and above. This is followed by 20.4 per cent for 251-500 membership size and 13 per cent for 101-250 membership size. With respect to union status, 100 per cent of respondents are from unionised organisations.

#### *Discussion of Findings*

The findings of this study are consistent with the literature. Selection has been found to be positively related to firm performance (Terpstra & Rozell, 1993). Researchers have found a positive relationship between effective recruitment and selection practices and top-class performance (Delany & Huselid, 1996; Harel & Tzafrir, 1996). Selective selection is negatively related to employee turnover and is positively related with perceived profit, market share and investments in the near future (Verburg, 1998). This study found that selection practices are related to organisational size. This finding corroborates the finding of Hausdorf and Duncan (2004) who found that firm size is an important variable in organisational research. Thus, the size of firm is the most important factor influencing HR activities. There is empirical evidence for the impact of firm size on human resource management activities. The bigger the size, the more formalised the selection practices. This finding confirms the view of Fajana (1995) who observed that in the selection process of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and some large enterprises (LEs), selection was often based on subjective criteria as interviews, psychological tests and medical examinations were ignored or not formally or seriously executed. References were sometimes asked for but not given proper consideration or scrutiny. From empirical research, firm size is very important for the formalisation of selection practices as well as all HR policies and practices.

#### *Conclusion and Implications for Policy*

This study investigated human capital selection practices and performance of unionised organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco Industry in Lagos State. The findings of the study have given insights into the immense contributions of

human capital selection practices to the performance of organisations. From the foregoing, it is recommended that organisations should put in place policies to guide the conduct of human capital selection practices in order to achieve optimal performance. Government policies on preferential quota system and Federal Character Principle with respect to recruitment and selection in some public sector organisations need to be re-examined with a view to improving performance of such organisations. Thus, for organisations in the Food, Beverage and Tobacco industry to achieve quantum leap in their performance indices, the human capital selection function must be properly and professionally practised to yield the desired results

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**Appendix: 1 Output of Regression Results**

S/N	Measures of Performance	Overall Model Summary	Selection Practices
1.	Rate of Sales	R= 0.390 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.152 (F= 9.573 ; p< .01)	β=0.333 t-value =5.104 p-value =0.000 Remark: s
2.	Operational Efficiency	R=0.322 R <sup>2</sup> =0.104 (F= 6.197 ; p< .01)	β= 0.228 t-value =3.413 p-value =0.001 Remark: s
3.	Performance Stability	R=0.355 R <sup>2</sup> =0.126 (F=7.738 ; p< .01)	β= 0.193 t-value =2.922 p-value =0.004 Remark: s
4.	Public Image	R=0.428 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.183 (F= 12.003 ; p< .01 )	β= 0.025 t-value =0.392 p-value =0.696 Remark: ns
5.	Staff Morale	R= 0.408 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.167 (F= 10.681 ; p< .01 )	β= 0.120 t-value =1.858 p-value =0.064 Remark: ns
6.	Innovativeness	R= 0.382 R <sup>2</sup> =0.146 (F= 9.110 ; p< .01)	β= 0.235 t-value =3.589 p-value =0.000 Remark: s
7.	Growth rate of number of employees	R= 0.426 R <sup>2</sup> =0.181 (F= 11.821 ; p< .01 )	β= 0.142 t-value =2.223 p-value =0.027 Remark: s
8.	Adaptability	R=0.328 R <sup>2</sup> =107 (F= 6.451 ; p< .01)	β= 0.167 t-value =2.501 p-value =0.013 Remark:s
9.	Market Shares	R= 0.216 R <sup>2</sup> = 0.047 (F= 2.624 ; p<.0.05 )	β= 0.159 t-value =2.265 p-value = 0.024 Remark: s
10	Profitability	R=0.317 R <sup>2</sup> =0.101 (F= 5.986 ; p< 0.01)	β=0.158 t-value =2.355 p-value = 0.019 Remark: s

**Legend:** ns = non significant

s = significant

## **Traditional Practices and Belief Systems as Factors Influencing Access and Enrolment of Children with Intellectual Disability in Special Schools in Ghana**

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There is heightened concern about the need to provide equal access to education for children with disabilities globally due to the well known marginalization and exclusion over the years. There is also evidence showing that Ghana is making frantic efforts to provide effective special education services for children with disabilities. However, despite this positive development, there are innumerable challenges facing the education of children with intellectual disability in Ghana. This study therefore, explored both teachers and parental opinions on the influence of traditional practices and belief systems in the education of children with intellectual disability. One hundred and eighteen (118) participants comprising 59 male and 46 female trained special educators, 10 parents, 1 male and 2 female staff in assessment were involved. Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews guides were used to collect data. The chi-square test and descriptive statistical methods were used to analyze data. The results revealed that negative traditional practices and belief systems exist and influenced the acceptance and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in education in Ghana. The concluding pinpoints the needs for government and the chieftaincy ministry to give greater attention to the education of the public on the effects of the embedded traditional practices that affect the educational rights for children with intellectual disability.

*Key words:* Access and enrollment, children with intellectual disability, traditional practices.

Culturally imbedded conceptual frameworks on disability have been identified because of the way they affect those with disabilities. Cultural and belief systems have strong influences on the conceptualization of intellectual disability and these go a long way to affect the birth, acceptance, and education of these children in many societies. Often, people result to the use of negative labels which cast demeaning statuses on these children. Studies on access to education for children with intellectual disability indicated that they were regarded as feeble-minded, incapable, and just burdens on society (Pfeiffer, 1993); Russel & Malhotra, (2002) cited by Gibilisco (2010). Current research on the participation of children with intellectual disability in education identifies several factors that led to their limited access to education. These include societal pervasive stand on their perceived incapability, lack of acceptance, cultural practices that stereotype these persons,

parental perceived end-results in education, and lack of social programmes, among others (Ingstad & Whyte, 1995; Gibilisco, 2010; Webb-Mitchell, 2010).

The early religious and philosophical perceptions about mental retardation have deepened the negative influences on the conceptualization of this condition historically. Kalyanpur and Gowramma (2007) citing Ingstad and Whyte (1995) noted that some studies on families who had children with disabilities indicated that cultural factors strongly influenced their attitudes towards the child with disability, coping, and help-seeking behaviours.

Shearing his own personal experience as a result of having physical disability, Gibilisco (2010) noted that many people in society argued that most people with disabilities cannot play a meaningful role in society and will be dependent on others for many of the most mundane human

functions. Such discriminating and misjudgments can be damaging especially in educational provisions, employment, and rehabilitation services among others for individuals with intellectual disability. In most traditional societies, there were certain belief systems that explained how people generally conceptualized mental retardation.

In Ghana, education is one area of much concern to every successive government towards the development of children for national growth. For those with disabilities, policy declarations such as the disability policy of 2006 (ACT 715), has some legal provisions on their education. For instance, section 16 of the act, mandates parents or guardians who have children with disabilities to send them to school; and if a parent does not send a child to school, he or she is guilty of a criminal offense. The disability policy document equally identifies that there are certain negative traditional practices that affect those with disabilities in Ghana. In other studies, Smith and Luckasson (1995) noted that culturally imbedded conceptual frameworks on disability affect individuals with disability.

Access and enrollment in education for children with mental retardation has a chequered history because of the presence of certain cultural practices and the values people accorded to these individuals in education. In most cases, access and enrollment issues reflected a broad social issue involving negative attitudes, a pervasive stand on inability, and lack of acceptance of individuals with mental retardation (Lennon & Bennett, 1987). The consequence was that those who were perceived to have less capacity for education were initially not giving the priority (Barnes, Mercer, & Shakespeare, 2005). According to Hammell (2006), when cultural values appear so natural and when crisis occur such as disability, it compels or put a deeper reflection on parents. The deeper reflection perhaps is what may make a parent to take a decision that may not be in favour of the child with disability such as child concealment, value for education, and enrollment in school. This has serious

implication for children with intellectual disability in society where perceptions portray them as non-productive.

A UNICEF's commissioned research by the Center for Education for Children with Disabilities in Bangladesh in 2004 and in India in 2003 on access to education for children with disabilities also revealed certain societal practices such as negative attitudes, negative belief systems, and stigmas that affected the education of children with disabilities. In some Ghanaian traditional cultures, Nukunya (2003) also identified that taboos and belief systems have made people to think that seeing a mentally retarded person or any child with disability early in the morning spells doom for the day for the person. Pregnant women are not to come into contact with these children because of the perception that she would give birth to same person. This has serious connotations for acceptance of persons with disabilities. Such misconceptions about mental retardation, created the ground for these children to be regarded as contagious, evil, curse, dangerous, and in effect must be forbidden which is deeply embedded in Ghanaian taboo systems. In many cases, these often lead to the concealment of these children by parents in order to avoid the stigma and the deep-rooted stereotype behaviours by community members.

The religious and spiritual belief systems according to Nukunya (2003); Salm and Falola (2002), have strong influences on how people generally conceptualized mental retardation traditionally. Across cultures, individuals with disability in general and mental retardation in particular, seem to have been categorized and their places in society determined by a number of variables concurrently, rather than by one variable such as the presence of an impairment. In almost all societies, certain types of disabilities are far more acceptable than others. Hunt and Marshall (2002) noted that in order to understand how people's perceptions influence those with disabilities, it is important to reflect on their cultural backgrounds. Thus, the understanding of disability in a socio-

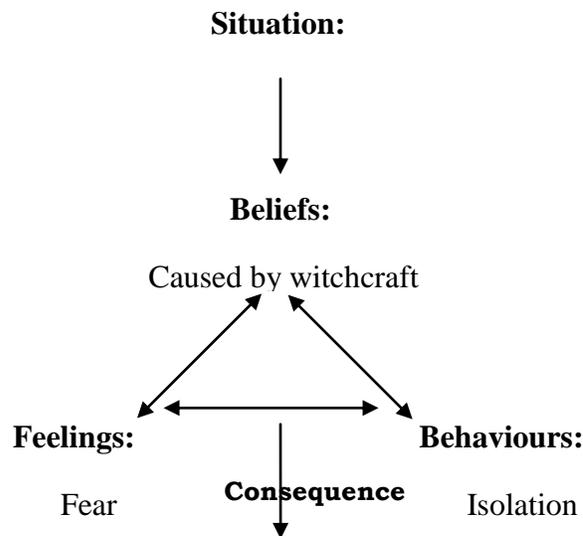
cultural context is a critical issue as in this study.

### The Theoretical Framework

In disability studies, there are some identified theories and cultural models that explained how society generally perceived disability conditions. In a cultural context, three major factors such as beliefs, values, and attitudes were noted by the way the

affect those with disabilities (Hammel, 2006., Chalton, 1998). For those with mental retardation, historically, exclusionary practices were adopted because of the perceived incapability (Hanson & Bates, 1987; Barners, et al., 2005). With this background, this study therefore, adopted the cultural model by Hop (1996). The diagrammatic representation of the cultural model is shown in the figure below

### The cultural model and conceptualization of disability



**Short term:** Children with a disability are literally hidden in the most remote cattle posts

**Long terms:** Children with disabilities may not be sent to school. (Source: Hop, 1996).

This cultural model was adopted because according to Coleridge (2000), a study on access and enrolment in education for children with disabilities must be seen through the filter of cultural practices. Most cultures down play on disability (Woolfolk, 2004) because of their perceived views. As Hammell (2006) noted, people with disabilities were caught in a cultural script that cast them in the role of helplessness, dependent victims in need of constant care

in residential institutions. For families, this affects their evaluation process, educational value, planning, and life goals of the child with mental retardation (Woolfolk, 2004). Culturally, the way in which mental retardation is perceived in families and societies, reinforces their exclusion from participating in most social life activities (Hanson & Bates, 1987; Barners, et al., 2005).

### *Statement of the Problem*

In Ghana, there is a strong influence of religious and spiritual beliefs in conceptualization of disability (Nukunya, 2003) which appears to act as barriers to the education of children with disabilities. The existence of taboos that project children with mental retardation as forbidden appears to lead to their concealment and this seems to affect their early exposure, early identification, assessment, and enrollment in schools. Education is free for all children but the pervasive stands on perceived incapability status accorded to these children affect their acceptance and enrollment by regular schools in Ghana. Special education may be considered the most appropriate form of education for children with intellectual disability, but the negative perceptions generally appears to bring about their inferiority which affect their acceptance and enrollment in schools. Parental willingness to enroll children with intellectual disability in schools also seems to be influenced by their perceive end-results even though, education is free at the basic level in Ghana.

### *Research Questions*

1. In what ways do traditional practices, belief systems, and people's perceptions influence access and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana?

### *Hypothesis*

The null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): Negative traditional practices and belief systems have no significant influence on access and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana.

The alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): Negative traditional practices and belief systems have significant influence on access and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana.

### *Significance of the Study*

The results of this study would help to identify how traditional practices, belief systems, and perceptions people hold about intellectual disability, influence access and enrollment of these children in special

schools in Ghana. In particular, the results would help to provide a deeper understanding of educational challenges generally facing children with intellectual disability as a result of cultural practices. This perhaps would enable the chieftaincy division and the traditional leaders who are the custodians of the cultural practices and belief systems, to reflect positively on how to address any inherent negative cultural practices that may be creating barriers to the educational provision for these children in Ghana.

## **Method**

### *Research Design*

A cross-sectional survey design was adopted because the study sampled opinions from teachers, parents, and staff in assessment on issues relating to traditional and belief systems on how they influence access and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana.

### *Population*

One hundred and eighteen (118) participants were involved in the study. These comprised 59 male and 46 female trained special educators and 13 parents.

### *Sample size*

One hundred and nine (109) participants formed the sample size for the study. This comprised 52 male and 46 female trained special educators and 8 parents who had children with intellectual disability.

### *Sampling technique*

The purposive sampling technique was used to select the residential special schools while the multi-stage sampling technique was used to select the special unit schools whose teachers were involved in the study. Parents whose children were in the selected special schools were selected using the convenient sampling technique. The teachers provided information and helped in contacting parents who were involved in the study. Out of the 13 parents (3) males & 10 females) that were contacted; only 10 agreed initially to participate but later 2 declined leaving 8.

*Instrumentation*

*Questionnaire*

Teachers completed an 8-question opinion survey in a form of a likert scale type built on the key variables in the research question raised. The response levels were anchored on a five-point consecutive integers ranging from strongly agree (SA) = 5, agree (A) = 4, neutral (N) = 3, strongly disagree (SD) = 2, and to disagree (D) = 1.

*Interview*

A semi-structured interview guide built on the key variables in the research question was used for parents who had children with intellectual disability in the special schools.

*Analysis of Data*

In the analysis of questionnaire data, the percentage of the total sample that responded to each statement and the point of scale chosen were tallied and combined accordingly which helped to determine the overall percentage of the respondents who

answered items from each school. The data were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Programme (SPSS). The chi-square test was used to determine the level of agreement and to test the hypothesis posed and the descriptive statistical method was used in the interview data analysis. In the analysis of the interview data, each participant's responses recorded were played back which allowed for the identification of the various key viewpoints expressed and how each reflected on the major theme raised in the research question. Codes were assigned to the responses by using the key words in each theme.

**Results**

To answer the research question raised, responses expressed by respondents to questionnaire items 1-8 were used. Table 1 shows the distributions of respondents' responses.

**Table 1: Frequency distributions of responses by teachers to questionnaire items 1-8:**

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)
1. There are certain negative traditional practices and belief systems in the area.	44 (44.9%)	48 (49.0%)	2 (2.0%)	4 (4.0%)	-
2. People generally have negative perceptions and attitudes about these children.	52 (53.1%)	45 (45.9%)	1 (1.0%)	-	-
3. Some negative belief systems include taboos	51 (52.0%)	45 (45.9%)	1 (1.05)	1 (1.0%)	-
4. Most people do not believe that these children can be educated.	38 (38.8%)	55 (56.1%)	-	5 (5.1%)	-
5. Parents experience negative labels and stigmas	67 (68.4%)	30 (30.6%)	1 (1.0%)	-	-
6. Negative labels are used on these children.	69 (70.4%)	28 (28.6%)	1 (1.0%)	-	-
7. There are negative attitudes towards these children.	33 (33.7%)	53 (52.15%)	3 (3.1%)	9 (8.8%)	-
8. Regular schools often do not accept these children.	54 (55.2%)	42 (42.9%)	-	2 (2.0%)	-

**Key:** F = Frequency, (%) = Percentage

**SA** =Strongly Agree, **A** =Agree, **N** =Neutral, **D** =Disagree, **SD** =Strongly Disagree

**Findings**

With regard to item 1 that focused on finding out whether there were certain traditional and negative belief systems in the catchment areas that affected easy acceptance and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in schools, out of the 98 teachers, a total of 92 (94%) agreed with the statement. In relation to item 2 that was to explore whether generally people had negative perceptions and attitudes about children with intellectual disability, a total of 97 (99%) of the teachers agreed indicating that such negative developments existed in communities. This has serious implications and consequences for children with intellectual disability in educational matters and particularly for societal acceptance. This can create social problems for peer interactions for children with intellectual disability in an inclusive environment.

As regards item 3 that sought to find out whether taboos existed that created acceptance problems for children with intellectual disability, a total of 96 (97.9%) of teachers agreed. With regard to item 4 that was developed to find out whether most people did not believe that children with intellectual disability could be educated, quite a number of the teachers, 93 (94.9%) agreed with the statement. This development has a significant educational connotation so far as placement decisions are concerned for these children in regular schools.

With regard to items 5 and 6 that focused on finding out whether parents and children experienced negative labels and stigmas, a total of 97 (99.0%) of the teachers agreed with the statement. The use of negative labels that exists in Ghana has serious effects on children with intellectual disability. In educational and social development, negative labels such as “asovi” in Ewe; “buulu” in Ga; and “djimidjimi” in Akan, (all referring to mental retardation) create and give demeaning statuses to these children. In the real contexts of these labels, they project “inferiority” statuses in education and it is the basis for why regular schools reject these children.

For item 7, that focused on exploring whether generally, there were negative attitudes towards children with intellectual disability by regular school teachers, a total of 86 (87.8%) of the teachers agreed. As regards item 8 that focused on finding out whether regular schools often did not accept children with intellectual disability, a total of 96 (98.0%) of the teachers agreed. As already indicated, these have serious educational implications and consequences for children with intellectual disability.

**Testing of hypothesis posed**

To test the hypothesis posed, the calculated mean score and the calculated chi-square score distributions for responses to items 1-8 were used. Tables 2 and 3 show these scores.

**Table 2: The calculated mean scores for responses to items 1-8**

		Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8
N	Valid	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Mean	1.6531	1.4796	1.5102	1.7143	1.3265	1.3061	1.8776	1.4898
	Std. Deviation	.71942	.52228	.57875	.71796	.49274	.48499	.85271	.61334

Table 2 shows the calculated mean score distributions for teachers’ responses to items 1-8. The overall average means score

was calculated at 1.54 and the p - value was 0.05.

**Table 3: The calculated chi-square score distributions for responses to items 1-8**

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4	Item 5	Item 6	Item 7	Item 8
Chi-Square	75.878	46.796	90.898	39.571	67.000	71.776	64.776	45.388
df	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Table 3 shows the calculated chi-square scores for teachers' responses to items 1-8. The average chi-square score was calculated at 62.76 and the critical value score was 9.49.

### Findings

As presented in Table 2, above,  $\chi^2$  (N =98), = 16.4, the alpha value was 0.05, and the critical value was 9.49. This indicated that a significant opinions among the respondents were expressed relating to the influence of traditional practices and belief systems on enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana. The average calculated mean score of 1.54 in table 2 was higher than the calculated alpha value of 0.05. This also indicated that traditional practices and belief systems had a strong significant influence on people's perceptions and conceptualization of the condition of intellectual disability.

The chi-square score distributions for responses to items 1-8 in table 3 was 62.76 which was also higher than the calculated critical value score of 9.49. This score is a reflection on the skeweness of the frequency distributions of teachers' responses to items 1-8 in Table 1 above involving strongly agree (SA) and agree (A) combined. This therefore, suggests that there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This further indicated that traditional and belief systems had a significant influence on acceptance, access, and enrollment in special schools for children with intellectual disability. This confirms with the literature that negative traditional practices and belief systems influenced the acceptance, the exposure, and enrollment in schools for children with intellectual disability (Ingstad & Whyte, 1995). This further corroborates that of

Hunt and Marshall (2002) who noted that in order to understand how people's perceptions influence exceptionality and acceptance, it is important to reflect on their cultural backgrounds.

### Findings on parental interview data analysis

Parental interview data analysis also revealed some critical issues. So far as negative traditional and belief systems were concerned, the findings revealed that people react weirdly to the presence of children with intellectual disability and presented certain negative social behaviours towards these children. Comments made by some participants are presented as follows:

One parent commented this way:

*People label my child whenever they see him. They get up to look at him. People tease and call him all sort of names, they say he is sick. But I have no problem because that is what I go through every day with my people; it is only for the child that it worries me.*

(Source: Interview information indicating verbatim expression by a parent)

Another parent also commented this way:

*Whenever I am going out with my child and everyday to school, people keep on looking and looking at my child. Please if you quarrel with someone the person would use your child's condition to insult you. Even my own*

*sister casts insinuations and verbally uses it as insult on me. Even though, this worries me, there is nothing I can do.*

A parent had this to say:

*The people in my area always laugh at my daughter even though, they try to hide their faces from me but I know. Some ask my child when she is going to complete primary one. Sometimes they ask whether she is now attending ("gyimigyimi" school) (literally meaning school for the mentally retarded).*

(Source: Interview information indicating verbatim expression by a parent)

One other parent stated these:

*To take my child to school is not a problem because he is my child. The only problem is how children and even adults tend to behave. Some secretly laugh at him and some throw things (their fingers) meaning that they do not want him closer into their contact. See when I first heard about the new special unit and was sending my child the first time, even adults followed us for whatever reason I don't know. You know, this is an embarrassing thing but all that they do is to talk and gossip.*

(Source: Interview information indicating verbatim expression by a parent)

These comments from parents can have serious psychological disturbances for having a child with intellectual disability and living among people who hold stereotype perceptions about disability.

### Discussions

The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' and parental opinions on how

traditional cultural practices, belief systems, and taboos influence the education of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana. The above analysis substantiates the position that many cultural practices, belief systems, and people's perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours seem to act as factors of marginalization, lack of societal acceptance, and challenges in the placements of children with intellectual disability in both regular and special schools in Ghana. These cultural and belief systems seem to be quite complex in the way they affect children with intellectual disability and their mothers. Parental comments above, can be psychologically worrisome and it confirms what Gibilisco (2010) personally experienced as discriminatory, misjudgments, and damaging. In education, employment, and rehabilitation, these can have serious setbacks for children with intellectual disability. These are the issues that reinforced their social exclusion and child concealment traditionally by some parents in most cases.

The finding also corroborated by the results from parental interview data analysis that revealed what such parents face as a result of having a child with intellectual disability. Hardman, Drew, and Egan (2005) have noted that labels communicate whether a person meets the expectations of a specific culture. At the extremes, human classification can be a demeaning process causing stigma and leading to isolation or exclusion of people affected. According to Gibilisco (2010), there is lack of awareness about how these negative practices create challenges for people with disabilities and parents. It confirms what Webb-Mitchell (2010) noted as affecting people with disabilities especially when they were shunted to the side of society. These issues have serious consequences for child acceptance and the development of a proper child-parental bond. Gibilisco (2010) noted that many people with disabilities carry the burdensome and discriminatory tags that are created by society. This leads to the social, economic, political, cultural

marginalization and particularly lack of education for many people with disabilities.

#### Conclusion

Although, this study was not country wide, based on the fact that different cultural groups exist in Ghana and they have their unique cultural and belief systems, the findings have found issues pertaining to traditional and cultural belief systems and how these influence the education of children with intellectual disability in Ghana. Traditional practices and their embedded belief systems have been identified in other countries emerging as factors which continue to threaten the effective education and development of persons with intellectual disability. The challenges in rehabilitation, employment, and in other social milieus are attributed to these negative factors. Thus, socio-cultural factors have stymied the acceptance and enrollment of children with intellectual disability in special schools in Ghana.

#### Recommendations

Government and the chieftaincy ministry may do a number of things to mitigate the impact of these factors by giving greater attention to the education of people on the specific rights as enshrined in both the 1992 constitution and the disability policy document. The chieftaincy sector needs to organize educational programmes that will involve all traditional rulers and opinion leaders who are the custodians of these practices. They need to accentuate the understanding of the scientific causes of disability. Negative traditional and outmoded belief systems that portray disability differently need to be done away with through public education. Finally, the Center for Civic Education also needs to include on its educative programmes, the means of sensitizing people's mind towards limiting such practices that dehumanize those with disabilities generally. This would support article 26 (1) of the 1992 constitution of Ghana which states that all customary practices which dehumanize or are injurious to the physical and mental well-being of a person are prohibited.

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## **Organizational Justice, Perceived Inequality and Job Redesign as Predictors of Intent to Quit among Bankers in Nigeria**

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This study explored organizational justice, perceived inequality and job redesign as predictors of intent to quit among some bankers in Nigeria. Ex-post facto research design and purposive sampling technique were adopted. 258 male and female staff of Access Bank PLC participated in the study. Four hypotheses were tested in the study. It was found that management staff ( $\bar{x}=17.73$ ) significantly scored higher on turnover intention than non-management staff ( $\bar{x}= 15.36$ ),  $t(256) = -3.239$ ;  $p < .05$ . There was also a significant joint influence of work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention ( $R^2 = .008$ ;  $F(4,253) = 7.17$ ;  $P < .01$ ). However, only procedural justice independently influenced turnover intention while others did not. Similarly, there was a significant joint influence of marital status, job category and educational background on turnover intention ( $R^2 = .155$ ;  $F(3,254) = 16.67$ ;  $P < .01$ ). However, only marital status independently influenced turnover intention while others did not. Lastly, results showed that female staff ( $\bar{x}=15.74$ ) did not significantly score higher on turnover intention than the male staff ( $\bar{x}= 15.57$ ),  $t(252) = -.338$ ;  $p > .05$ . Hence, conclusions and recommendations were made as follows; that organizational, psychological and demographic factors are jointly responsible for turnover intention among employees; that human resource managers and employers of labour should actively control for all factors that could cause employees to be dissatisfied. Thus, future studies on turnover intention should investigate the influence of other personality, demographic and organizational factors on employee turnover intention.

*Keywords:* Bankers, Intent to Quit, Job Redesign, Organizational Justice, Perceived Inequality

Organizations invest a lot on their employees in terms of induction, training and development. Hence, managers at all costs exert efforts in minimizing employee turnover. Although, there is no standard framework for understanding employee turnover process as a whole however, a wide range of factors have been found useful in interpreting employee turnover as a behaviour or an intention Kevin, Joan and Adrian (2004). The term “turnover” is defined by Price (1977) as the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organization during the period. Frequently, managers refer to turnover as

the entire process associated with filling a vacancy. Each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained.

It refers to the actual leaving or quitting action mostly exhibited by employees when they perceived themselves unable to cope with organizational policies and practices. Employee turnover intention on the other hand, is defined in several ways but shares a common term in the scholarly literature and refers to an individual’s perceived probability of staying or leaving an employing organization (Cotton and Tuttle 1986). Hellman (1997) defined turnover intentions as the behavioral intentions illuminating an individual’s intention to

leave and considered to be the primary antecedent to actual turnover behavior. Hom and Griffeth (1995) referred to turnover intentions as a conscious and deliberate willfulness of an individual towards voluntary permanent withdrawal from the organization. There are several reasons why people quit from one organisation to another or why people leave organizations among which are organizational, psychological and social in nature. Hence, this study considers organizational related factors such as organizational justice, job redesign and perceived inequality at work as possible factors contributing to turnover intention. Other factors considered are gender, age, marital status, job category and educational qualification.

Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of fairness and evaluations of treatment received in the organization (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). From another perspective, Moorman (1991) viewed organizational justice as the ways in which employees determine whether they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinants influence other work-related outcomes. Consistent with Niehoff and Moorman (1993), there are three-dimensional views of the organizational justice concept have that evolved over time namely: (1) distributive justice (fairness of the outcome that an employee receives); (2) procedural justice (fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcome allocation decisions) and (3) interactional justice (fairness of communications or interpersonal treatment that accompanies organization formal procedures). Distributive justice has to do with fairness of allocation of resources as contrast with procedural justice, which focuses on the fairness of the process of decision-making. Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment that employees receive from the decision makers. Some scholars consider interactional justice as part of procedural justice (e.g., Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997; Tyler and Bies, 1990).

On the other hand, work inequality refers to unequal treatments of individuals at work. An employee's perception of inequality could be disastrous to a company. It is therefore imperative that employees receive equal treatment on their job. Though, discrimination today is subtle, it continues to be problematic if employers continue to act preferentially, employee motivation will be adversely affected, and eventually performance will cease. By participating in such practices, organizations are steadily building the foundation for disaster. However, job redesign can be described as any organizational intervention measures, which could facilitate "intent to quit" and may be induced by the uncertainties that restructuring and downsizing create. This, of course, is based on the premise that unconstructive responses exhibited by survivors are manifestations of their desire to quit the organisation. The term job redesign further refers to activities that involve the alteration of specific jobs (or systems of jobs) with the intent of improving both productivity and the quality of employee work experiences.

Sometimes a job is redesigned to create motivating and satisfying jobs for individual employees who work more or less on their own. Such activities are usually known as "job enrichment" (Herzberg, 1974). Alternatively, a job may be designed as a group task, in which case a team of workers is given autonomous responsibility for a large and meaningful module of work. Such teams typically have the authority to manage their own social and performance processes as they see fit; they receive feedback (and often rewards) as a group; and they may even be charged with the selection, training, and termination of their own members.

#### *Statement of Problem*

Regardless of the type of organization, voluntary turnover is disruptive and harmful to the organization. It is also costly, both directly and indirectly (Cascio, 1991). Turnover is particularly costly for banking organizations as they rely so heavily on the human factor. Recruitment, testing, selection, and training of new staff

are expensive (Kiekbusch, Price, & Theis, 2003). Hence, it is usually the most competent workers who quit, since it is relatively easy for them to obtain work elsewhere (Locke, 1976; Wright, 1993). Staff turnover also disrupts the social networks and contacts that staff members develop over time with clients or customers and other employees (Mitchell, MacKenzie, Styve, & Gover, 2000).

Moreover, previous turnover intentions studies have focused exclusively on job-related variables (e.g. role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, work conditions, job tasks, and autonomy) and demographic variables (e.g. gender, age, tenure, and education) as determinants affecting employee attitudes and/or turnover intentions (Kim, 1999; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid, & Sirola, 1998; Parnell & Crandall, 2003). Individual's beliefs about organizational-related variables, particularly human resource management practices, however, has been overlooked and omitted as determinants in turnover intention studies (Price & Mueller, 1981, 1986).

Furthermore, review of literature showed pointed out disagreement on the degree of empirical support and the soundness of the methodology of the research associated with the job redesign (Kelly, 1992). Kelly (1992) suggests that studies focused on questions related to job redesign and improved job performance should be regarded with caution. Along with the difficulty of measuring productivity and performance, many studies have had methodological concerns and varied outcomes. An important point to consider about the job redesign is that improved job performance is impacted on by a variety of variables and not just by job redesign. Further to job redesign research on job satisfaction, there have been ethnographic studies on people at work as well as studies focused on the design and introduction of new technology.

Organizational justice research has shed considerable light on how employees respond to perceived fairness or lack of fairness in the workplace. For example, when employees feel unfairly treated their commitment to the organization falls, their

job performance drops, job satisfaction declines, they become much less likely to assist their coworkers (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), and they may engage in deviant behaviour in the workplace, including sabotage. This contributed to interest of researchers in knowing if different forms of organizational justice have a similar impact on intent to quit. Thus, the present study clarifies the question of whether or not all three forms of organizational justice are equally important in employees' decisions to leave. This study therefore, focuses on organizational justice, perceived inequality and job redesign as predictors of turnover intention in a post-acquisition restructured environment of Access Bank PLC and attempts to answer the following research questions:

- Can organizational justice, work inequality and job redesign jointly and independently predict turnover intention among bankers?
- Can age, gender, educational qualification, marital status and job category jointly and independently predict turnover intention?

#### *Purpose of Study*

The general purpose of this study was to investigate the prediction of turnover intention by organizational justice, perceived inequality in work and job redesign while the specific purpose on the other hand was to examine the following:

- The joint and independent predictions of turnover intention by organizational justice, work inequality and job redesign.
- The joint and independent predictions of turnover intention by age, gender, educational qualification, marital status and job category on turnover intention.

#### *Relevance of Study*

With globalization which is heightening competition, organizations must continue to develop tangible products and provide services which are based on strategies created by employees. These employees are extremely crucial to the organisation since their value to the organization is essentially tangible and not easily replicated. Voluntary quits which represents an exodus of human capital investment from

organisations and the subsequent replacement process entails manifold costs to the organisations. These replacement costs include for example, search of the external labour market for a possible substitute, selection between competing substitutes, induction of the chosen substitute, and formal and informal training of the substitute until he or she attains performance levels equivalent to the individual who quit.

In view of the above, findings in this study will contribute immensely to the following areas:

- understanding and practice of human resource management.
- knowledge and understanding of the importance of manpower planning.
- knowledge and understanding of the important factor of employee motivation, training and development, maintenance and retention in organizations.
- It enables managers to recognize employees as major contributors to the efficient achievement of the organization's success.
- It helps management of establishments in designing effective and efficient human capital management scheme.

#### *Empirical Review of Literature*

Fields, Pang, and Chiu (2000) studied distributive and procedural justice as predictors of employee outcomes in Hong Kong and suggested that distributive justice had a significant effect on Hong Kong employees' intent to leave. It is logical to predict that when employees perceive that they are treated unfairly in terms of outcomes or procedures, they tend to leave their current organization to seek a fairer alternative.

In Malaysia, Hassan (2002) conducted a study to investigate how perception of equity and justice played an important role in employees' commitment to the organization and intention to leave. The study sample consisted of 181 middle and lower level managers from the banking and finance, production and manufacturing and service sectors. The results hypothesized that both internal and external equity perceptions are positively related to commitment and negatively related to

intent to leave. Among all the facets, equity promotion appeared to be the most significant predictor. Both distributive and procedural justice factors made significant contributions to employees' intention to leave.

Some studies suggested that employees choose to quit their job in order to end the inequity if they perceived low distributive justice (Hom, Griffeth and Sellaro, 1984). Others reported that procedural justice was negatively related to turnover beyond any specific out-comes since procedural justice reflected organizational norms of decision making (Dailey and Kirk, 1992).

In general, distributive justice is more important in predicting personal-level outcomes such as pay satisfaction and job satisfaction (Samad, 2006; Yusof & Shamsuri, 2006). Distributive justice was also found to have a significant negative influence on turnover intentions (Aryee, Wyatt, and Min, 1990; Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Lee, 2000; Loi, Ngo, & Foley, 2006).

Procedural justice reflects the extent to which the employee has perceived that the outcome allocation decisions have been fairly made in relation to the organization's formal procedures and treatment given in enacting those procedures (Moorman, 1991). These procedures not only offer the employee's control over the outcomes they received but also to ensure those outcomes obtained are fair. Past research indicated that procedural justice may have strong effects on organizational outcomes such as affective commitment and turnover behaviour (Khatri, Fern, & Budhwar, 2001; Samad, 2006; Yusof & Shamsuri, 2006). Additionally, studies found that procedural justice is significantly related to turnover intentions (Khatri, Fern, & Budhwar, 2001; Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Interactional justice, on the other hand, refers to the fairness the employees' perceive when they have been communicated with in a sensitive and respectful manner and are treated with courtesy and dignity in their organizational practices (Colquitt, 2001).

Interactional justice has been commonly associated with personal-level outcomes such as supervisory relationships (Colquitt, 2001), organizational citizenship behavior (Niehoof & Moorman, 1993), job satisfaction

(Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000), and job performance (Colquitt, 2001). Empirical evidence further revealed that organizational justice has a significant influence on employees' work attitudes and behaviors. In particular, studies constantly showed that organizational justice negatively influence turnover intentions (Khatri et al., 2001; Loi et al., 2006). Alexander and Ruderman (1987) examined the relationship between various procedural and distributive justice factors and six organizational variables, including job satisfaction, evaluation of supervisor, conflict harmony, turnover intention, trust in management, and tension-stress using a multiple regression analysis. They confirmed that procedural fairness is associated with lower levels of conflict and disharmony in organizations. "The finding that concerns about turnover intention lead to an emphasis on procedural justice is consistent with a long-term self-interest perspective on procedural justice" (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

According to Lind and Tyler (1988), the reinforcement of procedural justice by process control is independent of favourable outcomes. That is, "the provision of voice enhances procedural justice, even in situations in which there is little objective reason to suspect that the exercise of voice will affect decisions" (Lind & Tyler, 1988).

It is important to note that personal characteristics, while related to turnover intent and turnover, are less powerful predictors than are work environment factors and work attitudes (Mitchell, Sire, & Balkin, 2000). Joshi (1990) found that users' perceptions of inequitable distributions of information resources contributed to dissatisfaction with their organization's information systems department. Underpayment inequity in comparison to a series of referents (others in your job category at your company, your pay in previous jobs) was associated with lower pay satisfaction in a sample of restaurant managers (Summers & Hendrix, 1991).

Demographic factors that have been found to have stable relationship with turnover intention in past research include

age, tenure, level of education, level of income, and job category (managerial or non-managerial). Several studies have reported negative relationship between turnover intention and three demographic factors, age, tenure, and income level (e.g., Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Gerhart, 1990; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1986; Wai & Robinson, 1998; Weil & Kimball, 1995). Amount of education, on the other hand, is found to be positively associated with turnover suggesting that the more educated employees quit more often (Berg, 1991; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Wai and Robinson (1998) and Price and Mueller (1986) found that non-managerial employees are more likely to quit than managerial employees. Findings of the studies on the relationship between gender and turnover are mixed, however. While Cotton and Tuttle (1986) and Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) found females more likely to leave than males, Berg (1991), Miller and Wheeler (1992), and Wai and Robinson (1998) reported no relationship between gender and turnover. Recently, Elaine (1997) and Summers and Hendrix (1991) found males more likely to quit than females. Summers and Hendrix reported that pay equity perceptions had an indirect impact on voluntary turnover via pay turnover intent. In Singapore, we expect males to quit more likely than females. This is because, despite the increasing participation rates of females in workforce, females work basically to supplement the family income. Males are the breadwinner for the family and have greater achievement-orientation than females (Elaine, 1997).

Personal characteristics, such as age, race, gender, tenure, and educational level, have been found to be linked with turnover intent and turnover among correctional workers. Some studies have found an inverse relationship for age (Mitchell, Sire, & Balkin, 2000; Robinson, Porporino, & Simourd, 1997), while others have not (e.g., Ford, 1995; Jurik & Winn, 1987). Nonwhite correctional staff have generally been found to have higher levels of turnover intent and turnover as compared to their white counterparts (e.g., Ford, 1995; Jacobs &

Grear, 1977; Jurik & Winn, 1987; Mitchell, et al., 2000), but not always (e.g., Byrd et al., 2000; Camp, 1994).

#### *Statement of Hypotheses*

1. There will be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access Bank staff by work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign.

2. Female participants will significantly report higher turnover intention than male participants.

3. Management staff will significantly report higher turnover intention than non-management staff.

4. There will be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access Bank staff by educational qualification, job category and marital status.

#### *Operational Definition of Terms*

•**Organisational Justice:** Organizational justice in this study is clearly defined as bankers' perceptions of fairness of treatment received from their organizations. In this study, the construct of organizational justice is divided into procedural justice and interactional justice. High score on the whole scale indicates a high level of organizational justice while low score indicates a low level of organizational justice.

•**Procedural Justice:** Procedural justice in this study is clearly defined as bankers' perception of fairness of the policies and procedures used by management of the bank to make decisions affecting staff. It would be measured with a seven- item scale of procedural justice designed with a five-point response option from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree by Akiomi Inoue et al (2009). High score on the scale indicates a high level of procedural justice while a low score indicates a low level of procedural justice.

•**Interactional Justice:** Interactional justice in this study is clearly defined as bankers' perception of fairness of communications or interpersonal treatment that accompanies organization formal procedures. It would be measured with a six - item scale of interactional

justice designed with a five-point response option from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree by Akiomi Inoue et al (2009). High score on the scale indicates a high level of interactional justice while a low score indicates a low level of interactional justice.

•**Turnover Intention:** Turnover intention in this study is clearly defined as bankers' cognitive process of thinking, planning, and desiring to leave their jobs. It would be measured with a 4-item turnover intention scale with 5-likert response format, developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham's (1999). High score on the scale indicates a high level of turnover intention while a low score indicates a low level of turnover intention.

•**Job Redesign:** Job redesign in this study is clearly defined as organizational activities that involve the alteration of specific jobs (or systems of jobs) with the intent of improving both productivity and the quality of employee work experiences. It would be measured with a 7-item scale of job redesigned with 5-point likert format, developed by Ugboro (2006). High score on the scale indicates a high level of job redesign while a low score indicates a low level of job redesign.

•**Work Inequality:** Work Inequality in this study is clearly defined as bankers' perception of discrimination in employee management. It would be measured with a 6-item scale of perceived work inequality. The scale was developed by Keyes, Ryff and Hughes (2003) with a 5-point likert response format. High score on the scale indicates a high level of work inequality while a low score indicates a low level of work inequality.

### **Method**

#### *Research Design*

This study adopts an ex-post facto research design because no active manipulation was performed on any of the variables. The independent variables in the study are organizational justice, job redesign and perceived work inequality while the dependent variable is turnover intention.

#### *Study Setting*

The study was conducted in eleven (11) branches of Access Bank Plc situated in Ibadan Metropolis.

#### *Research Participants*

The main objective of this study was to obtain bankers' perception of work inequality, job redesign, organizational justice and turnover intention. Participants in the study are the managerial and non-managerial staff of Access Bank Plc in Ibadan. The number of participants involved was 258 (Males=122, Females=136). The respondents age ranged from 20 to 48 years with a total mean age of 28.67 years (SD=5.53). Statistics showed that 125(48.4%) of the participants were single while 133(51.6%) were married. Respondents varied in their educational qualifications, 5 (1.9%) had SSCE, 73 (28.3%) had OND, 146 (56.6%) HND/B.Sc, 31 (12.0%) Master Degree while 3 (1.2%) had Ph.D. The study adopted purposive sampling technique to sample the participants from the general population because it targeted only the staff of Access Bank PLC hence, was restricted to the staff of the bank. 225(87.2%) of the participants were Non-management staff while 33(12.8%) were management staff.

#### *Instrument for Data Collection*

The instrument for this study is a self-report questionnaire, which consists of four standard scales measuring organizational justice, job redesign, perceived work inequality and turnover intention. The questionnaire is divided into five different sections, labeled section A, B, C, D, and E. **Section A:** This section contains demographic characteristics of the participants with items such as age, sex, marital status, job category and educational qualification. **Section B:** This section contains 4 items scale that was standardized and validated to measure turnover intention. The scale was developed by Kelloway, Gottlieb, and Barham's (1999). The scale was designed each with a 5-point likert response format. According to the authors, it was found to have a strong reliability value i.e Cronbach Alpha that yields 0.93. However, this study reports a

Cronbach Alpha reliability value of 0.85 for the scale. **Section C:** This section contains a seven- item scale for procedural justice (range, 1.0 - 5.0) and a six - item scale for interactional justice (range, 1.0 - 5.0), with a five-point response option from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The scale was developed by Akiomi, Norito, Akizumi, Akihito, Masao, Masao, Masaji, Miki, Akiko, Mitsuyo, and Mika, (2009). According to the authors, it was found to have a strong reliability value i.e Cronbach Alpha that yields 0.85 and 0.94 respectively. However, this study reports a Cronbach Alpha reliability values of 0.88 for the entire scale. **Section D:** This section contains 7 items scale that was standardized and validated to measure job redesign. The scale was developed and validated by Ugboro (2006). The scale was designed each with a 5-point likert response format. According to the authors, it was found to have a strong reliability value i.e Cronbach Alpha that yields 0.65. However, this study reports a Cronbach Alpha reliability value of 0.71 for the scale. **Section E:** This section contains 6 items scale that was standardized and validated to measure perceived inequality in work. The scale was developed and validated by Keyes, Ryff and Hughes (2003). The scale was designed each with a 5-point likert response format. According to the authors, it was found to have a strong reliability value i.e Cronbach Alpha that yields 0.78. However, this study reports a Cronbach Alpha reliability value of 0.64 for the scale.

#### *Procedure for Data Collection*

Questionnaires were made ready two days prior to the commencement of the study. The eleven (11) branches of Access Bank Plc were visited individually to seek the participation of the staff in this study. Having explained the purpose of the study to the individual participants, they were made to know that participation was voluntary and assurance was also given to each of the participants to freely express him or herself with outmost sense of sincerity that all information supplied will be treated confidentially. Questionnaires were administered and retrieved respectively within three weeks. However,

not all administered questionnaire forms was retrieved because some participants showed nonchalant attitude towards the filling of questionnaires and did not return the forms. So, with the necessary support of the branch managers and head of operations, researchers were able to retrieve 258 out of the 280 administered questionnaires.

*Statistical Analysis*

Questionnaires collected were subjected to statistical analysis using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics were employed in analyzing the demographic variables, while the formulated hypotheses were tested using inferential statistics. Specifically, multiple

regression analysis and t-test were employed in testing the stated hypotheses. Hypotheses one and four were tested using multiple regression analysis while hypotheses two and three were tested using t-test.

**Results**

The results presented below are based on the statistical analysis of stated hypotheses. Hypothesis one stated that there would be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access Bank Staff by work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign. This hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis. The summary of the result is presented in table 4.1 below.

*Table 4.1: A Summary of Multiple Regression Result Showing the Prediction of Turnover Intention by Work Inequality, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice and Job Redesign.*

Dependent variable	Independent Variable	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	P	β	t	P
Turnover Intention	Procedural Justice	.319	.088	7.1	<.01	-.325	-4.52	<.01
	Interactional Justice					-.003	-.04	>.05
	Job Redesign					-.049	.66	>.05
	Work Inequality					-.089	1.44	>.05

The above result indicates that there is a significant joint influence of work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention ( $R^2 = .088$ ;  $F(4,253)=7.17$ ;  $P<.01$ ). This result implies that the joint predictions accounted for about 9% variance in turnover intention while the remaining 91% could be attributed to other variables. Similarly, the result of the independent influence shows that procedural justice significantly influenced turnover intention at  $t= -4.52$ ;  $\beta=-.325$ ;  $P <.01$ . However, the result further shows that the independent influence of work inequality, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention is not significant at  $t=1.44$ ;  $\beta=-.089$ ;  $P >.05$  (work inequality),  $t=-.04$ ;  $\beta=-$

.003;  $P >.05$  (interactional justice),  $t=.66$ ;  $\beta=-.049$ ;  $P >.05$  (job redesign) . This implies that work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign are significant joint predictors of turnover intention. Also, procedural justice is a significant independent predictor of turnover intention. However, interactional justice, job redesign and work inequality are not significant independent predictors of turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis one is partially confirmed.

Hypothesis two stated that female participants will significantly report higher turnover intention than male participants. This hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples and the result is presented below in table 4.2.

*Table 4.2: A Summary Table of t-test Comparing Male and Female Staff on Turnover Intention*

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	N	( $\bar{x}$ )	SD	df	t	P
Turnover Intention	Male	122	15.57	4.012	252.66	-.338	>.05
	Female	136	15.74	3.989			

The above result shows that there is no significant difference between the mean of male staff (= 15.57) and female staff (15.74) regarding turnover intention. Furthermore, the result at t (252) =-.338; p >.05 shows that female staff did not significantly score higher on turnover intention than male staff. This depicts that being a male or female staff is not an important factor in

the experience of turnover intention. Hence, the tested hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis three stated that management staff will significantly report higher turnover intention than non-management staff. This hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent samples and the result is presented below in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: A Summary Table of t-test Comparing Management and Non -management Staff on Turnover Intention

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	N	( $\bar{x}$ )	SD	df	T	P
Turnover Intention	Non-Management	225	15.36	4.016	256	-3.239	<.05
	Management	33	17.73	3.185			

The above result shows that there is a significant difference between the mean of non-management staff (= 15.36) and management staff (=17.73) in terms regarding turnover intention. Furthermore, the result at t (256) =-3.239; p <.05 shows that management staff significantly scored higher on turnover intention than non-management staff. This depicts that job category or position is an important factor

in the experience of turnover intention. Hence, the tested hypothesis is confirmed.

Hypothesis four stated that there would be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access bank staff by educational qualification, job category and marital status. The hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analysis. The summary of the result is presented in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: A Summary of Multiple Regression Result Showing the Prediction of Turnover Intention by Educational Qualification, Job Category and Marital Status

Dependent variable	Independent Variable	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F	P	$\beta$	T	P
Turnover Intention	Marital Status	.406	.155	16.67	<.01	.317	5.033	<.01
	Job Category					.069	1.030	>.05
	Educational Background					.110	1.545	>.05

The above result indicates that there is a significant joint influence of marital status, job category and educational background on turnover intention ( $R^2 = .155$ ;  $F(3, 254) = 16.67$ ;  $P < .01$ ). This result implies that the projected joint prediction of turnover intention by marital status, job category and educational background is significant. Similarly, the result of the independent influence shows that only marital status significantly influenced turnover intention at  $t = 5.033$ ;  $\beta = .317$ ;  $P < .01$ . However, the result further shows that the independent influence of job category and educational background on turnover intention is not significant at  $t = 1.030$ ;  $\beta = .069$ ;  $P > .05$  (job category),  $t = 1.545$ ;  $\beta = .110$ ;  $P > .05$  (educational background). This implies that educational qualification, job category and marital status are significant joint predictors of turnover intention. Also, marital status is a significant independent predictor of turnover intention. However, job category and educational background are not significant independent predictors of turnover intention. Therefore, hypothesis four is partially confirmed.

#### *Discussion*

The study examined the role of organizational justice, perceived inequality and job redesign in intention to quit. A total of four hypotheses tested are discussed in this chapter. It was found in the course of this study that hypothesis one which stated that, there would be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access Bank Staff by work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign was confirmed. This implies that there is a significant joint influence of work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention. It further explains that the joint prediction accounted for about 9% variance in turnover intention while the remaining 91% could be attributed to other variables not considered in this study. Similarly, the result of the independent influence showed that procedural justice significantly influenced turnover intention. Result further showed that work inequality, interactional justice

and job redesign did not independently influence turnover intention. The result simply implies that the procedure of human resource management in organization matters a lot as it could reduce employee turnover intention. In Hong Kong, Fields, Pang, and Chiu (2000) studied distributive and procedural justice as predictors of employee outcomes and suggested that distributive justice had a significant effect on Hong Kong employees' intent to leave. It is logical to predict that when employees perceive that they are treated unfairly in terms of outcomes or procedures, they tend to leave their current organization to seek a fairer alternative. Similarly, in Malaysia, Arif (2002) conducted a study to investigate how perception of equity and justice played an important role in employees' commitment to the organization and intention to leave. The study sample consisted of 181 middle and lower level managers from the banking and finance, production and manufacturing and service sectors. The results hypothesized that both internal and external equity perceptions are positively related to commitment and negatively related to intent to leave. Among all the facets, equity promotion appeared to be the most significant predictor. Both distributive and procedural justice factors made significant contributions to employees' intention to leave. Additionally, Khatri et al., (2001); Dailey & Kirk, (1992) studies found that procedural justice is significantly related to turnover intentions.

Hypothesis two which stated that, female participants would significantly report higher turnover intention than male participants was not confirmed, as the result shows that there is no significant difference between the mean of male and female staff. This implies that gender or gender difference is not a significant predictor of turnover intention of employees. Perhaps, there are other demographic factors that are responsible for turnover intention of employees. Demographic factors that have been found to have stable relationship with turnover intention in past research include age, tenure, level of education, level of income, and job category (managerial or non-managerial). Several studies have reported

negative relationship between turnover intention and three demographic factors, age, tenure, and income level (e.g., Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Gerhart, 1990; Mobley et. al, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1986; Wai & Robinson, 1998; Weil & Kimball, 1995, and others). Amount of education, on the other hand, is found to be positively associated with turnover suggesting that the more educated employees quit more often (Berg, 1991; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). However, while Cotton and Tuttle (1986) and Weisberg and Kirschenbaum (1993) found females more likely to leave than males, Berg (1991), Miller and Wheeler (1992), and Wai and Robinson (1998) reported no relationship between gender and turnover. Recently, Elaine (1997) and Summers and Hendrix (1991) found males more likely to quit than females.

Hypothesis three which stated that, management staff would significantly report higher turnover intention than non-management staff was confirmed, as the result shows that there is a significant difference between the mean of non-management staff and non-management staff. Specifically, result shows that management staff significantly expressed turnover intention higher than the non-management staff. This implies that employees at the management levels or hierarchy of organizational structure expressed their intention to leave their present employers for another or self-employments. This however, is not to conclude absolutely that non-managerial staffs of organizations are completely free from or not affected by turnover intention but the rate at which it affects non-managerial staff is low compare to the managerial staff in terms of turnover intention.

However, opposite of this finding is the findings of Wai and Robinson (1998) and Price and Mueller (1986) who found that non-managerial employees are more likely to quit than managerial employees. It was found in the course of this study that hypothesis four which stated that, there will be significant joint and independent predictions of turnover intention of Access Bank Staff by educational qualification, job

category and marital status is partially confirmed, as the result shows that there is a significant joint influence of marital status, job category and educational background on turnover intention. This implies that the occurrence of turnover intention depends on the contributions of more than one demographic factor therefore, confirmed the projected joint influence of educational background, job category and marital status on turnover intention. Similarly, the result of the independent influence shows that only marital status significantly influenced turnover intention, which means that among the three considered demographic factors, only marital status is strong enough to independently influence turnover intention without the supports others. Thus, makes marital status a very important factor in turnover intention. Result shows that the independent influence of job category and educational background on turnover intention is not significant.

Demographic factors that have been found to have stable relationship with turnover intention in past research include age, tenure, level of education, level of income, and job category (managerial or non-managerial). Several studies have reported negative relationship between turnover intention and three demographic factors, age, tenure, and income level (e.g., Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Gerhart, 1990; Mobley et. al, 1979; Price & Mueller, 1986; Wai & Robinson, 1998; Weil & Kimball, 1995, and others). Amount of education, on the other hand, is found to be positively associated with turnover suggesting that the more educated employees quit more often (Berg, 1991; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Borda and Norman, (1997) on the other hand, report that the marital status is a variable that is mainly responsible for and being considered a major contributor not only to employees' turnover intentions. The further stressed that marital status increases turnover intentions because of the increased role demands on employees who are married.

#### *Conclusion*

The outcome of this study has shown that:

- There is a significant joint influence of work inequality, procedural justice, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention.
- There is a significant independent influence of procedural justice on turnover intention.
- There is no significant independent influence of work inequality, interactional justice and job redesign on turnover intention.
- There is no significant difference between the mean of male staff and female staff regarding turnover intention.
- There is a significant difference between the mean of non-management staff and management staff regarding turnover intention.
- There is a significant joint influence of marital status, job category and educational background on turnover intention.
- There is a significant independent influence of marital status significantly on turnover intention.
- There is no significant independent influence of job category and educational background on turnover intention

#### *Recommendation*

Based on the above findings and conclusions, it was therefore recommended that:

Managers should take into consideration the effects of organizational justice, job redesign and work inequality on turnover intention. It is expected of the management of organizations such as bank to be fair and objective enough in their human resource management practices so that employees can feel secured, satisfied and belong to the organization therefore enhance employees' commitment and in turn reduce their turnover intention.

Management of organizations such as bank should endeavor to spend money in retraining the human resource personnel so that they can acquire contemporary skills and knowledge of employee relations and management. This will go a long way in keeping highly motivated employees who are full of enthusiasm and zeal to

contribute meaningfully to the bottom line of organizational performance.

Management should ensure that there are effective policies in place such that encourage the managerial positioned employees to stay with organizational with an absolute intention of helping to improve the standard and performance of individuals and groups of employees in organizations so that they can become very useful in achieving the set objectives of the organization.

Marital status is shown to be a significant predictor of turnover intention, managers should consider married employees in their policies rather than making it difficult for them to cope with work-family responsibilities. It is also advisable for the management of organizations to encourage and help the unmarried employees to facilitate the process of establishing their families because an individual who is not married tends not to be socially responsible therefore affects his or her personality and in turn hinders his or her official performance. In the areas of age and gender, both young and old likewise male and female employees are important because they all have good things to offer the organization therefore, managers are advised not to discriminate in their management practices.

#### *Limitation of Study*

There are number of factors that have limited the generalization of the result of this current investigation: there was no active control over extraneous variables and this implies that the changes observed in the dependent variables could have been caused by factors not control for in the study: only self-report was used to collect data and self report is fallible due to the fact that often times respondents may distort information and they were not given adequate time to respond to statements in the questionnaire.

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## **The Psychological Implications of Bereavement on Some Selected Widows and Widowers in Oyo Town, Nigeria**

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This study examined the psychological implications of Bereavement on some selected Widows and Widowers in Oyo Town, Nigeria. The descriptive survey design was used while 100 sample was selected using simple random sampling technique out of the target population. The self designed Questionnaire (2WPIQ) was used to collect the data from the sample. The questionnaire has two sections. Section A contained the biographical data while Section B has 20 items rated in four Likert tail. The Reliability Co-efficient was 0.62 while the data collected was analyzed using the student's t-test statistical analysis. Three Hypotheses were drawn and tested at 0.05 level of significance using 98 degree of freedom. The three hypotheses were significant while a mean difference were noticed among the variables.  $H_{01}$  revealed that there is a significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved widows and widowers.  $H_{02}$  showed that there is a significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved Christians and Muslims and  $H_{03}$  also indicated that there is a significant difference in the psychological implications of the young and aged couples on Bereavement in Oyo Town. In conclusion, it was found that bereavement is associated with various experiences which needed to be monitored by psychological experts.

Loosing someone who is closer during the middle life may be too challenging and frustrating. During the Middle life, many people experience a severe bereavement, sometimes through the loss of one or both parents. In some cases, loosing partners, children or relatives through illness or diseases can be traumatic most time. Perhaps because of this, death is often regarded as an unthinkable event which people dislike talking about. At times, to talk about death, it is often regarded to as psychologically unhealthy. In some cases, when people fail to acknowledge death, it increases and sometimes magnifies the distress those bereaved experienced.

Parkes (1964) found that widows consulted their doctors more often in the first six months after bereavement than they had done before. This is so because emotional turmoil takes its physical toll on them than it is better imagined. Parkes (1964) showed that Widows and widowers were ten times as likely to die themselves in

the year immediately following bereavement. Parkes, Benjamin and Fitzgerald (1969) in a related study found that the death usually occur through self-neglect, suicide of one form or the another, or as a result of cardiac illness accompanied with some stress.

Similarly, in a study, Parkes and Weiss (1983) discovered that grief is normally associated with bereavement. In this study, it was found that grief could either be normal or abnormal. Normal grief follows three phases which include denial, pining and depression. In addition, bereaved persons express disbelief that the death has really happened, refusing to see it as real. It is a common reaction in people who have been bereaved through accidents to remark that it took them some time before they could believe that it had actually happen because it seems to be a little unreal to people when they are first told about it. The bereaved person also longs for the other intensely and can become very restless and

fidgety. It involves a certain amount of unconscious searching for the dead person and often at this time, they will think they have caught a fleeting glimpse of the lost person in a crowd or at a distance. When this happens, they can become very worried, thinking that they may be hallucinating or losing their grip on reality.

Sanders (1980) stated that the reaction to bereavement is influenced by the relationship the bereaved person had to the person who died, and the way that person died. The bereaved person might feel numb or unreal and this change in reality can feel scary and isolating. It may be helpful to seek the advice and support of a guidance Counsellor during this time. Sadness, Fear and Anger are common feelings during bereavement; the energy of Sadness often rises up the front of the body into the chest, throat, face and eyes. Tears can release this sadness, fear can make a person feel stiffness around the body or have frozen feeling in the middle of the body. Feison, M.C. (1982) states that reactions to loss especially when the death is sudden, unexpected or violent may come with re-experiencing and flashbacks of the circumstances of the death. Bereavement in women may come with frank psychiatric disorders while in men, it may develop more with medical complications as a consequence of bereavement if they do not remarry.

Similarly, Bereavement brings anger which makes a person feels hot, like pressure and can be quite intense. This feeling may re-emerge if the bereaved person suffers another loss of any kind. United Nations (UN) 2000 states that death of the spouse and loved ones appears to affect women in different ways and the psychological effect of these events is immense.

The Hallmark of emotions during grief is unpredictable, in that the bereaved will be up, down and all the places. They feel crazy at times. United Nations for Women Advancement further states the following effect of bereavement on spouses such as:

- i. Numbness
- ii. Sadness and yearning
- iii. Relief and Guilt
- iv. Anxiety, worry and fear

v. Mental tasks

vi. Anger

Zisook et al (1994) noted the existence of subsyndromal symptomatic depression contributing significantly to morbidity in widows and widowers during the first two years of bereavement. Adesina (2012) in a study on early widowhood and its effects on rural women in Nigeria found that a lot of psychological reactions are propelled by bereavement. This include; Distress, Anger, fear, loneliness, self accusation, rejection, loss of hope, low self esteem, weeping, sobbing, wailing, fidgety, tension etc. The findings also found that the attitude and cultural practices have a lot of effect on the spouse.

Ntozi (1997) opined that widowhood is a process that is characterized by rituals, forced marriages, rejection, loneliness poverty, loss of status, fear of the future and depression. Ntozi is of the view that each culture worldwide has its way, pattern or practices through which the widow is expected to react to the death of the husband, also known as the mourning rites peculiar to every culture. For instance, the Ibo's in Nigeria have similar widowhood cultural rites. These rites are necessary for the widow who has just lost her husband to observe aside her personal grief and sense of loss.

Odunze (2006) viewed widowhood as an unwanted and unpleasant stage that women pass through in life. It is a period of sadness, unhappiness, loneliness and helplessness. The pains and agony of this period cannot be expressed in words. Zahedi (2006) similarly opined that widowhood entails emotional loss and change in lifestyle, identity, social status and role. It is a period of intense emotional stress where the woman who is bereaved is expected to express and handle her feelings of loss at the period, before she starts to get over it and re-organize her life.

Lopata (1979) in a study with 1000 widows and widowers found that economic hardship is the major problem especially when the husband is the Principal breadwinner, his widow may be deprived of his income and the nucleus of the family is destroyed. The freedom and independence of the nucleus of the family is suddenly lost

as a result of the death of the husband. Grief over the loss of a loved one especially one who had played such a central role in one's life for so many years may affect the widow's or widower's health making them to have more physical illness and are frequently admitted to the hospitals, thus leading to rise in the death rate.

Consequently, upon these views, this paper examined the psychological implications of bereavement on some selected widows and widowers in Oyo Town, Nigeria.

### Hypotheses

- i. There will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved widows and widowers in Oyo Town
- ii. There will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved Christians and Muslims in Oyo Town.
- iii. There will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved young and aged couples in Oyo Town.

### Purpose of the Study

The study aimed at examining the psychological implications of Bereavement on widows and widowers in Oyo Town. The study also examines the differences in the psychological implications as regards to Religion, young versus aged couples.

## Methods

### Research Design

The descriptive survey design was employed to carry out the study.

### Population, Sample and Sampling Technique

The study covered all the widows and widowers in Oyo Town and it was from this population that a total number of (100) One Hundred participants were selected as sample using the simple random sampling techniques. This covered all the Local Government in Oyo Town and its environs.

### Instrumentations

Questionnaire on widows and widowers psychological implication on bereavement was developed and used to collect data from the participants. (2WPIQ). The instrument was divided into two sections. Section A dealt with the Personal Information of the participants while Section B contained 20 items which was rated on a four point Likert tail. SA, A, D, SD.

### Reliability and Validation of the Instruments

The instrument (2WPIQ) was given a face validity considering the content and construct of the items by colleagues in Testing and Measurement. The Reliability was achieved using the test-retest method and reliability coefficient of 0.62 was achieved.

### Data Collection

The researcher visited the widows and widowers at the camp programme organised by a religion organisation in Oyo town. Questionnaires were distributed to literates ones while the illiterates were allowed access to an interpreter.

### Data Analysis

The data collected was subjected to t-test statistical analysis at 0.05 level of significant.

## Results

Table 1

Hypothesis one states that there will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved widows and widowers in Oyo Town.

Variable	N	$\bar{X}$	Sd	df	T-cal	T.Cri	P
Widows	50	3.36	5.61	98	2.78	1.98	0.05
Widowers	50	3.47	5.63				

The table above shows that there is a significant difference in the mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) 3.46 and 3.27 as well as the Standard Deviation (SD) 5.62 and 5.63. T-calculated was 2.78

which is greater than the t-critical 1.98 at 0.05 level of significance. Based on the statistical analysis above, there is significant difference in the psychological

implications of Bereaved widows and widowers.

*Table 2*

*There will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved Christians and Muslims in Oyo Town*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>T-cal</b>	<b>T.Cri</b>	<b>P</b>
Widows	50	23.50	2.851	98	2.381	1.98	0.05
Widowers	50	26.42	3.273				

The statistical analysis in the table above reveals that there is significant difference in the mean( $\bar{X}$ ) 23.50 and 26.42 and also difference in the SD 2.851 and 3.273. T-calculated (2.381) is also greater than the t-

critical (1.98) at 0.05 level of significance. The implication of this is that the  $H_{02}$  is also significant using a degree of freedom of 98.

*Table 3*

*There will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved Young and Aged Couples in Oyo Town*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>N</b>	<b><math>\bar{X}</math></b>	<b>Sd</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>T-cal</b>	<b>T.Cri</b>	<b>P</b>
Bereaved Young Couples	50	34.38	6.38	98	3.812	1.98	0.05
Bereaved Aged Couples	50	36.57	7.78				

The table above indicates that there is a significant difference in the means of variable such as  $\bar{X}$  34.38 and 36.57 and also a difference in the Standard Deviation (SD) 6.38 and 7.78. In addition, the t-calculated value is 3.812 which is greater than the t-critical 1.98 indicating that the  $H_{03}$  is significant at 0.05 level of significance.

psychological implications of Bereaved Christians and Muslims in Oyo Town. The statistical analysis revealed that there is a mean ( $\bar{X}$ ) difference between the variables and the standard deviation. The statically analysis showed that there is a significant difference between the variables. This study is in contrary to the findings of Olaniyan (2012) which found that there is no significant difference in the attitudes of Nigerians towards widowhood based on Religion. However, this is accounted for by the belief of Muslims who might have more than one wife. Item 6 in the instrument also confirmed this result.

*Discussion*

Hypothesis one states that there will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of Bereaved widow and widower in Oyo town. The statistical analysis revealed that there is a significant difference. This finding corroborates Gbenda (2007) study which found that widowhood affect women much than the men financially, psychologically sexually and socially.

Hypothesis Three states that there will be no significant difference in the psychological implications of bereaved young and aged couples in Oyo town. The result from the study indicated that there is a significant difference between the psychological implications of the variables. This study corroborated the findings of Lopata (1979) on aged widow or widower who had all their children married out and feel loneliness, grief as well facing the challenges of living like a single again while those who experienced bereavement with their children very young will have the trauma of having to comfort their children when they feel the sense of loss. In a similar vein, the psychological trauma may

Similarly, Kitson and Zygancki (1987) also found that widowhood is associated with anger and intense grief which widows suffer most. This is also in line with the findings of Adesina (2012) on early widowhood and it effects on rural women in Nigeria. It is found that widows suffered most than their widowers who after some months and years face reality and move on with life.

Hypothesis two states that there will be no significant difference in the

be very devastating in the young couples than the aged couples. This devastating condition may sometime result to early death. The study is also in line with the study of Abolarin (1997) which found that younger widows were mostly supported by their relations while older widows got their own support mainly from siblings and children.

#### *Conclusion*

Since it has been established that bereavement is also associated with various experiences such as psychological trauma, intense grief, loneliness, isolation, unwholesome cultural practices and religion beliefs, it is important to place a widow or widower under surveillance to prevent possible psychiatric symptoms that may occur.

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## **The Influence of Students' Experience in the Past Academic Success on Convergent Thinking**

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This was a bivariate analysis that explored the influence of students' experience in past academic success on convergent thinking in Dodoma, Tanzania. A total of 444 students, 217 males and 227 females were exposed to the Assessment of Convergent Thinking Test Using Insight Problems (ACTT) adopted from the Insight Problems tasks (Dow & Mayer, 2004). Their performances on the ACCT were then studied against their experience in the past academic success traced from the school records. An analysis using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient indicated that there were moderate to strong positive correlations between students' past academic success and their performance on convergent thinking. While school location (being in rural or urban district) had no significant influence on the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking, that relationship was influenced by the type of school based on ownership criterion. Practical and theoretical implications of the findings are discussed on the basis of the Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development.

*Key concepts:* Academic success, Convergent thinking

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of students' experience in past academic success on convergent thinking in secondary schools. Specifically, this investigation sought to address two major questions. First, what is the relationship between past academic success and performance on the convergent thinking test? Second, could the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking (if any) be influenced by the school ownership (traditional government, non-government, and community) and location (rural district versus urban district)? These questions have been thoroughly addressed, but before embarking on the detailed discussion on the questions, it is important to clarify some key concepts. Convergent thinking refers to the ability to come up with a single but correct solution to a given potential or actual problem (Santrock, 2004). Throughout this paper the term has been operationalized to mean one's ability to

produce correct solution to the mathematical insight tasks, verbal insight tasks, and spatial insight tasks. On the other hand, academic success in this manuscript has been used to mean relatively high performance in examination results.

The role of academic success has been placed high among the societies of the world for years. Arap-Martim (1986) citing Dubois (1964) reports that around the year 2200 B.C., the emperor of China examined his officials every third year and after three examinations, he either promoted or dismissed them from civil service. In Tanzania, academic success is carrying a similar role due to the fact that from one cycle of education ladder to the other, examination results are used as a major selection criterion. In addition, examination results have been used to place students in specific streams such as science, business, or arts especially in transition from form two to form three, and from form four to

form five. The placement role of examination results extend to the decisions as to what type of school one will study. The common types of schools in the country are such as government schools, including traditional government schools and community schools; non-government schools, including religious schools and private schools. However, for the convenience of this study, the types will be named government (traditional government), community, and private (both religious and private) schools. The role of examination results is further reflected in placing students to the specific profession at the university level upon completion of form six to prepare the students for their career life. Even after completion of education at the university level, academic success usually reflected in examination results is still used as the major criteria to shortlist candidates for employment interviews by some employing organizations, especially when one wants to work as an academic member of staff in higher learning institutions.

#### *Past Academic Success and Convergent Thinking*

Bandura (2000) suggests that past success gives rise to a single-minded persistence that may be beneficial when people must overcome obstacles. On the other hand, past success might be harmful when individuals must face changes in the environment that need novel strategies necessary for survival (Audia, Locke, & Smith, 2000). The opinion that past academic performance predicts rigid strategies applied in the face of novel problem solving requirement has led to the rise of a debate among scholars as to whether such rigidity may be viewed as resilience and therefore necessary for future academic performance, or whether such rigidity may stagnate and eventually lead to academic underperformance (Whyte, 1998). Despite this debate, research tend to indicate that past academic performance narrows people's focus of attention, an issue commonly conceptualized as convergent thinking (Mayer, 1992). It would then seem past experience success in academic performance may indeed lead to

convergent thinking, but there might be a reciprocal relationship where convergent thinking might also predict academic performance in the future.

Gongalo (2004) conducted an experimental study among 160 students at a large North-American university. Participants were assigned to groups on the basis of voluntary sign ups. All participants were put in the same-sex groups of four, which resulted in a total of 40 groups. The aim of the study was to explore if the relationship between group success and convergent thought would depend on the attributions generated to explain their performance. The researcher found a positive and significant relationship between past success and convergent thinking, and the relationship depended on the attributions generated to explain the performance. The researcher concluded that the results suggested not only that group-focused attribution for success gives rise to convergent thought, but also that individual-focused attributions may stimulate groups to think convergent. On the other hand, Sak and Maker (2005) examined the relationship between performance in mathematics problems and performance in convergent thinking tasks among 857 grades one to six students using a DISCOVERER Assessment technique. The researchers found moderate and positive correlations between convergent thinking and achievement in mathematical tasks. In another study, Sak and Maker (2003) used a DISCOVERER Assessment again to investigate the relationship between science subjects and convergent thinking. Generally, they found that convergent thinking correlated positively and significantly with performance in science subjects among grade six students.

Nezhad and Shokpour (2013) administered convergent versus divergent thinking task types among 93 Iranian students aged between 18 and 26 to explore the influence of the convergent and divergent thinking on reading comprehension performance. Students were given the Torrance Divergent Thinking Test and were assigned to two groups so that there were roughly equal numbers of

divergent and convergent thinkers in each. Next, the two groups took the Nelson's reading comprehension test to ensure initial reading ability homogeneity. The experimental and the control groups then received treatment in the form of task-based instruction through either divergent or convergent tasks respectively over a period of one semester. To assess the reading comprehension gains of the participants at the end of the treatment, four types of reading multiple choice items, i.e., simple factual, referential, inferential, and multiple-response items were used. Multivariate ANOVA indicated that the best results were achieved when divergent thinkers of the divergent task type group answer referential, and multiple-response items whereas the worst results were obtained when convergent thinkers in the convergent task group's performance on multiple-response items was used as the criterion for reading assessment. The researchers further found that a task-based course of instruction through convergent or divergent tasks cause the participants to have respectively lower or higher gains on the divergent thinking test respectively.

This review hardly found a study of this nature in Tanzania, making it unclear as to what is the situation in the country. The motive to extend the study of the influence of past academic success on the convergent thinking in Tanzania finds its basis on the theoretical argument by Vygotsky (1978, 1986). The Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) theory of cognitive development puts forward three major arguments. First, the understanding of children's cognitive skills is subject to the developmental analysis and interpretations of such cognitive skills. Second, children's cognitive skills are mediated by words, language, and forms of discourse, which serves as psychological tools for facilitating and transforming mental activity. Third, cognitive skills originate in social relations and are embedded in a socio-cultural background. For Vygotsky, developmental analysis and interpretations of cognitive skills means examining the origins and transformations of child's cognitive functioning from earlier to later forms. Therefore, any mental act such as using inner speech or understanding the

strategies one uses to overcome one's weakness in learning a paragraph in academic text cannot be viewed accurately in isolation but should be evaluated as a step in a gradual developmental process (Santrock, 2004).

Vygotsky believed that the development of cognitive functions such as memory, attention, reasoning, and convergent thinking involved learning to use the inventions of society such as language, mathematical systems, and memory strategies. Thus, to Vygotsky, since knowledge is distributed among people and environments, which include objects, artifacts, tools, books, and the communities in which people live, knowing can best be advanced through interaction with others in cooperative activities. Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development has explained the development of convergent thinking through its three major constructs such as transference, scaffolding, and the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky assumes that social interaction plays a major role in the origin and development of higher mental functions such as convergent thinking. To Vygotsky, convergent thinking would appear first on the interpsychological level and only later on the intrapsychological level. Vygotsky (1978) states:

*Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of ideas. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (Pp.57).*

This means that, significant others in the society must play the role in fostering learning and convergent thinking of the individual.

According to Papaleontiou-Louca (2008), most cognitive acts such as convergent thinking are at first 'experienced in social settings, but with time, the results of such experiences become internalized. Initially, parents, teachers, peers, and other people the child interact with, lead the child to the societal rules and generalizations, starting

from simple to complex, familiar to unfamiliar, and slowly guide the child to master the same. The whole process, however, becomes internalized during the process of development and children become able to accomplish some of higher mental functions for themselves through self-regulation and self-interrogation.

Papaleontiou-Louca (2008) relates development of convergent thinking to the notion of scaffolding, which, according to Bruner, refers to interactional support, often in the form of adult-child dialogue structured by the adult to maximize the growth of the child's intrapsychological functioning. Such gradual withdrawal of adult control and support as a function of children's increasing mastery of a given task gives the child a room for independence in approaching problem-solving situations in the way seems appropriate by the accustomed cultural principles, partly accounts for effective development of convergent thinking. Vygotsky's theory also poses the idea that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain time span, referred to as zone of proximal development, which refers to the gap between what a given child can achieve alone, their potential development as determined by independent problem solving, and what they can achieve through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Wood, 1997).

Experience shows that in Tanzania, students who achieve relatively higher in examination results are usually placed in the best traditional government schools. In these schools there is good learning climate such as text and reference books, libraries, laboratories, sufficient number of teachers, residential houses for teaching members of staff, etcetera. Some non-government specifically religious schools and few private schools follow in terms of quality of school environment while community schools are usually poor in the same. It follows then that students who are comparable good in terms of academic success but do not get

chance to the traditional government schools are enrolled in the community schools. However, those whose parents are capable economically, make a deliberate decision to enroll their children to the best religious or private schools, where it is believed that these children will learn better than in the community schools. The community schools therefore, comprise students of two kinds. First, those who are moderately good but their parents are not economically capable and second, those whose academic success is relatively poor. On the other hand, there is a location difference of these schools. There are schools of all three kinds in urban districts and in rural districts.

It was not clear as to what impact this cultural division could have on the development of convergent thinking and its ultimate future academic success. Therefore, the present study intended to investigate the influence of students' experience in past academic success on convergent thinking in secondary schools. Specifically, this investigation sought to address two major questions. First, what is the relationship between past academic success and performance on the convergent thinking test? Second, could the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking (if any) be influenced by the school ownership (traditional government, non-government, and community) and location (rural district versus urban district)?

## **Methods**

### *Characteristics of the Subjects*

The subjects in this study were heterogeneous in nature. About 48.9 percent (217) were males and 51.1 percent (227) were females. Their age varied between a low of 16 years and a high of 23 years with a mean age being 17.76 and a standard deviation of 1.19. Participants came from both urban and rural schools, the proportions of which are indicated together with other variables in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables	Levels	Proportion	
		F	%
Sex	Males	217	48.9
	Females	227	51.1
School Ownership	Government	165	37.2
	Private	76	17.1
	Community	203	45.7
Location of the School	Urban	186	41.9
	Rural	258	58.1

*Measures*

Past experience in academic success, which was a determinant variable for the study was measured using Form Two national examination results done in 2011. These were traced from students’ academic records in their respective schools. Form Two national examination records were considered acceptable as the examinations are done nationwide directly to test the students’ level of academic performance, and questions are professionally prepared by the National Examination Council of Tanzania. Form Two national examination in Tanzania involves all academic subjects such as civics, history, geography, Kiswahili, English, physics chemistry, biology, and mathematics. However, some schools sit for unique subjects which are not done by other schools. For example, subjects like Agriculture, Islamic Knowledge, Bible Knowledge, Nutrition, and Fine Arts are unique to some schools. It was decided to select few academic subjects that are compulsory and done by all Form Two students in the secondary schools visited for that purpose. The selected subjects were civics, history, geography; Kiswahili, English, physics, chemistry, biology, and mathematics. The students’ scores for all the selected subjects were then totalized and averaged to get a measure of past academic success.

Convergent thinking, an outcome variable for the study, was measured using an Assessment of Convergent Thinking Test Using Insight Problems (ACTT). The test was adopted from the Insight Problems tasks (Dow & Mayer, 2004). The instrument was developed by Dow and Mayer (2004) for

the purpose of measuring convergent thinking. It is a three factor test comprising the tasks measuring mathematical insights, verbal insights, and spatial insights. In the test, there are about 65 tasks measuring mathematical insights, 40 tasks measuring verbal insights, and 16 tasks for spatial insights. Examples of mathematical insight tasks are:

1. Smith Family: In the Smith family, there are 7 sisters and each sister has 1 brother. If you count Mr. Smith, how many males are there in the Smith family?

Solution: *Two (the father and the brother)*

2. Water lilies: Water lilies double in area every 24 hours. At the beginning of summer there is one water lily on the lake. It takes 60 days for the lake to become completely covered with water lilies. On which day is the lake half covered? Solution: *Day 59 then it doubles on the 60<sup>th</sup>*

Examples for verbal insight tasks are:

1. Hole: How can you cut a hole in a 3 x 5 card that is big enough for you to put your head through?

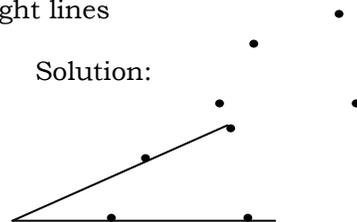
Solution: *Cut a spiral out and unwind it*

2. Prisoner: A prisoner was attempting to escape from a tower. He found in his cell a rope, which was half long enough to permit him to reach the ground safely. He divided the rope in half and tied the two parts together

and escaped. How could he have done this? Solution: *Unwind the rope and tie the ends together*

Examples for spatial insight tasks are:

**1. 4 dots:** Without lifting your pencil from the paper, show how you could join all 4 dots with 2 straight lines



**2. Trees:** A landscaper is given instructions to plant four special trees so that each one is exactly the same distance from each of the others. How is he able to do it?

Solution: *Plant them on a hill: three at the base one on the top like the four corner points on a pyramid*

Only five items from each factor category were adopted and tested to the subjects in this study, making a total of 15 items in total. The subjects were allowed to proceed with the test for convergent thinking for 50 minutes. After 50 minutes, all the subjects had to stop writing whether or not they finished. The test was scored by awarding one point for every correct response. Then the correct responses were totalized for each factor category, and then for the whole test so that the higher the score the higher the convergent thinking and the lower the score the lower the convergent thinking.

#### *Sample Schools and Sample Size*

The selection of the sample secondary schools adopted a purposive and strategic sampling technique. The great heterogeneity and uneven distribution of secondary schools in the region ruled out the use of random sampling. In the final analysis, twelve secondary schools, six from one urban district and six from one rural district were selected. These were selected on the basis of set criteria such as national and regional rank in form four

examinations of the year 2011, school ownership to include traditional government, community, and non-government secondary schools. In each of the two districts, schools were arranged in their academic performance rank both at national and regional level to obtain the high performing schools and the low performing schools. This balancing was considered to be consistent with the objectives of the study. Thus, the sampled schools from the group of high performing schools included one traditional government secondary school, one community secondary school, and one non-government secondary school in each district, making a total of six secondary schools from a group of high performing schools. The same procedure was followed to obtain schools from a group of low performing secondary schools. The subjects were Form Four students for the year 2013 who in the year 2011 were the Form Two Examination candidates. To select individual pupils to participate in the study, the school academic masters assisted in obtaining the form four students during their free time. The total subjects included in the sample size were 580.

#### *Response Rate and Analysis Procedure*

Then the test scripts were checked for their clarity, and those well filled were given identification numbers before data screening. A few incomplete test scripts were excluded from the analysis. The net effect of this was that test scripts actually subjected to the analysis were 444, which is about 76.6 percent of the total administered test scripts. This response rate was considered acceptable and not chancy since the distribution of incomplete instruments was not systematic but rather random. The items in the instruments were coded and entered in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program version 21, alongside the pupil's scores from academic subjects. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was then computed so as to analyze the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking.

*Validity and Reliability of the Test Materials*  
 The test items were originally written in English. It was necessary to translate them into Kiswahili, because the respondents were more likely to express themselves better in Kiswahili than in English. This process required the maintenance of construct validity of the test items while addressing cross-cultural issues in sharing the meanings of the concepts. For example, during translation of the items, in the second question of the *Assessment of Convergent Thinking Test*, the term 'lilies', is not common in Kiswahili culture. The term 'magugumaji', which is a common plant in Tanzania, normally grows and covers large part of lakes and rivers, was selected. Though the term was not a direct translation, it maintained the original meaning since the emphasis was on a plant covering a water body and not the type of plant or specific species. In the same test, in question number 5 under mathematical insight tasks, direct translation for the term 'horse' was supposed to be 'farasi' in Kiswahili. However, because the animal is not common and not known by most children in Tanzania, the term was replaced by the term 'ng'ombe', which means 'cow' in English. The animal (cow) was selected because cows are common and familiar animals reared and sold among people of Dodoma region, which was the area of study. The use of 'US\$' in the same question was also replaced by the use of 'Tshs' (meaning Tanzanian shillings).

In question two in verbal insight tasks section of the same test, the use of 'inches' units was replaced by the use of centimeters and hence conversion of the measurements was made. This was done because students in secondary schools in Tanzania are learning measurements in metric system instead of empirical system, which was originally used in the instrument. The term 'triplicates' which is the answer for question three of the same section, is almost missing in Kiswahili, since most people use the phrase 'mapacha watatu' for the term triplicate. Thus, during scoring of the instrument it was necessary to accept the phrase 'mapacha watatu' literally meaning 'three twins' response

instead of the ought to be answer which is 'triplicate' as instructed in the original professional guide. In all these translations, the avoidance of direct or literal translation did not change the central focus of the items since the measured skills were maintained. *The Reliability* of the instrument was checked by calculating the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The items in the Divergent Thinking test were found as having an internal consistency of Cronbach alpha coefficient of  $\alpha = .91$ . The Cronbach alpha coefficients for Convergent thinking test items were:  $\alpha = .92$ , for mathematical insight tasks,  $\alpha = .93$  for verbal insight tasks, and  $\alpha = .90$  for spatial insight tasks.

## Results

### *The Relationship between Past Academic Success and Convergent Thinking*

The relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking was analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Generally, there was a moderate, positive correlation between the two variables,  $r = .48^{**}$ ,  $n = 444$ ,  $p = .01$ , with high levels of past academic success associated with high levels of convergent thinking. This was a 23 percent shared variance, meaning that past academic success explained about 23 percent of the variance in respondents' scores on the convergent thinking test.

### *The Relationship between Past Academic Success and Convergent Thinking by School Ownership and Location*

#### *The Influence of School Location*

Table 2: School Location and the relationship between Past Academic Success and Convergent Thinking

School Location	Correlation (r)
Urban District Schools	.41** (N = 186)
Rural District Schools	.39** (N = 258)

There were moderate positive correlations ( $r = .41$ ,  $n = 444$ ,  $p = .01$ ) and ( $r = .39$ ,  $n = 444$ ,  $p = .01$ ) for urban and rural schools respectively between past academic success and convergent thinking. These correlations mean that the higher one scored in the

form two examination (past success) the higher one performed on the convergent thinking test. Comparing these two correlation coefficients, it was found that the two coefficients were not statistically significantly different,  $Z_{obs} = 0.248$ . This was interpreted that the influence of the school location on the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking did not suggest any practical importance.

*The Influence of School Ownership*

*Table 2: School Location and the relationship between Past Academic Success and Convergent Thinking*

<b>School Ownership</b>	<b>Correlation (r)</b>
<i>Government</i>	.40** (N = 165)
<i>Private</i>	.66** (N = 76)
<i>Community</i>	.33** (N = 203)

A comparison between the correlation coefficients of government schools ( $r = .40$ ) and private schools ( $r = .66$ ) indicated that with two-tailed test at  $\alpha = .05$ , the coefficients were statistically significantly different,  $Z_{obs} = -2.53$ . Likewise, Comparing the correlation coefficients of private ( $r = .66$ ) and community ( $r = .33$ ) schools, it was found that with two-tailed test at  $\alpha = .05$ , the coefficients were statistically significantly different,  $Z_{obs} = 3.291$ . On the other hand, a comparison between the correlation coefficients of government schools ( $r = .40$ ) and community schools ( $r = .33$ ) indicated that with two-tailed test at  $\alpha = .05$ , the coefficients were not statistically significantly different,  $Z_{obs} = 0.77$ . This led to an interpretation that the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking was influenced by the type of pre-school school one attended in terms of ownership whereby the relationship was very strong in private pre-primary schools than in the government and community schools.

*Discussion*

These findings have indicated the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking regardless of whether the school is located in urban or

rural district. However, there has been a systematic pattern of difference of such a relationship by the type of school in terms of the ownership of the school. The correlation between past academic success and convergent thinking has been very strong and positive among respondents from private schools relative to the moderate positive correlation among respondents from the government and community schools.

This difference might lead to twofold interpretations: first, because private schools in the country are commercially run and their survival depends on high performance in examinations, teachers in these schools might be struggling to teach their students specific techniques to solve specific problems in academic subjects with the purpose to help the student pass examinations.

This practice might be shaping students to be focused in thinking leading to strengthening convergent thinking in a similar principle suggested by Gongalo (2004) that not only that group-focused attribution for success gives rise to convergent thought, but also that individual-focused attributions may stimulate groups to think convergent. Second, some cultural variables are very strong in an attempt to explain the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking. Had this relationship been direct as suggested by Bandura (2000) that past success gives rise to a single-minded persistence that may be beneficial when people must overcome obstacles; one would expect higher correlations in government secondary schools in Tanzania. This is because students placed at these traditional government schools have very high experience in academic success than students in private schools. On the other hand, though students in the community schools are not excellent in terms of the past academic success, it is known that students in both government and community schools in Tanzania are not spoon-fed as is practiced in the private secondary schools.

The fact that respondents, who performed higher on the form two

examinations also performed higher on convergent thinking test, partly support the argument by Bandura (2000) that past success gives rise to a single-minded persistence that may be beneficial when people must overcome obstacles. However, the argument presented in this paper is that the relationship past academic success and convergent thinking suggests a reciprocal interaction whereby some social-cultural aspects such as sub-cultural interactions inherent in the type of school based on ownership for example, that take place in the school must be checked in a causative equation. This argument is consistent with the Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) theoretical belief that the development of convergent thinking involve learning to use the inventions of society such as language, mathematical systems, and memory strategies. Thus, the strategies shared among students and their teachers in an effort to approach academic performance in the school, slowly shapes the thinking of students to the point of improving their divergent thinking if such interaction puts much emphasis on specific strategies approved by teachers. Supporting the theoretical thought of Vygotsky, Papaleontiou-Louca (2008) relates development of convergent thinking to the notion of scaffolding, which, according to Bruner, refers to interactional support, often in the form of adult-child dialogue structured by the adult to maximize the growth of the child's intrapsychological functioning.

The practical implications of these findings in Tanzania are obvious in relation to the education system in the country. The common practice in Tanzania is that education, which starts at homes, usually puts emphasis on obedience to parents and other elders in the community. This automatically forces children to trust adults and mistakenly believe that these parents and adults are infallible. Even when exposed to school life, students are introduced to certain pseudo facts and the so called 'right' answers by their teachers. These early practices potentially lead children to believe that imaginations, intuitions, criticisms, and different opinions are associated with arrogant people who are

likely to be punished. It is not until children reach higher learning institutions, when university lecturers insist that learners in higher learning institutions should be critical and creative thinkers. This emphasis usually appears strange to students whose entire life in education has been that of returning to teachers the 'right answers' in a word to word form, of which small mistakes in memorization lead to a negative feedback in a form of a wrong mark (Stevens, 2000).

Even in higher learning institutions, some lecturers still demand the same from the students. When providing their lectures, some of these lecturers read some prepared class notes in a form of dictation to enable students write every word they are saying in lecture hours. In these lecture theaters, it is a common practice to hear students shouting, '*excuse sir, would you please repeat the last sentence?*' Indeed, the 'sir' repeats twice or three times to ensure everyone is comfortable with taking the notes without skipping even a single word from the 'sir' lecturer. This follows then that examinations constructed to fulfill a course work requirement, and at the end of semester, usually place high demands upon students, without necessarily employing any thinking, to reproduce a word to word response from the lecture notes. Showing discontent with the education systems similar to that in Tanzania and emphasizing the need to inculcate in students the highest degree of understanding Gardner (1991) remarks,

*...even when school appears to be successful, even when it elicits the performances for which it has apparently been designed, it typically fails to achieve its most important mission. ...investigations document that even students who have been well-trained and who exhibit all the overt signs of success - faithful attendance at good schools, high grades and high test scores, accolades from teachers - typically do not display an adequate understanding of the materials and concepts with which they*

*have been working (p.5).*

The quotation indicates how Gardner is insisting the need to aim at deeper understanding by the learners instead of superficial learning which is usually a characteristic of most students in our school systems. This does not mean that facts and correct answers do not exist or that students should not cram the facts or correct answers. Indeed, these are the basic skills as means in developing higher order thinking abilities but not in themselves the end. Convergent thinking has been known for its weakness in coming up with alternative solutions to existing or new problems. In addition, this system might continue to benefit the few whose opinions and point of view are matching those of their teachers and close the doors for those with constructive thoughts that do not necessarily match those of the examiners. Marshall and Tucker (1992) argues that the future now belongs to societies that organize themselves for learning and that nations that want high incomes and full employment must develop policies that emphasize the acquisition of knowledge and skills by everyone, not just a select few. This thesis argues for the need to incorporate and sustain creative thinking that exist in children and develop them throughout their school experience, for meaningful tangible outcomes of education in the education practices of Tanzania.

### *Conclusion*

This study intended to investigate the influence of students' experience in past academic success on convergent thinking in secondary schools. Specifically, this investigation sought to address two major questions, which are first, what is the relationship between past academic success and performance on the convergent thinking test? Second, could the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking (if any) be influenced by the school ownership (government, private, and community) and location (rural district versus urban district)? From the findings of this study therefore, the following conclusions can be

made: first, past experience in academic success is indeed associated with convergent thinking. Second, the association between past experience in academic success and convergent thinking is intensified by the type of sub-cultural interactions associated with learning in the specific schools. The sub-cultures may differ from one type of school to the other such as the types based on the ownership of the schools in Tanzania. Lastly, the Vygotsky's theory (1978, 1986) was applicable in explaining the relationship between past academic success and convergent thinking in the present study.

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## **Predicting the Effect of Emotional Intelligence, Self-Efficacy, Job Interest, Life Satisfaction and Pay Incentives as Correlates of Effective Community Policing in South-West, Nigeria**

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This study was carried out to predict the effect of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, job interest, life satisfaction and pay incentives as correlates of effective community policing in South West Nigeria. The participants were three hundred police officers (300) which were randomly selected from South West Nigeria. Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and life satisfaction scale were adapted while pay incentives and job interest were adopted by the researchers. Multiple Regression Analysis and ANOVA were used to analyse research questions. Finding revealed significant influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. This buttresses the finding of why policemen and public are still at loggerheads thereby leading to lack of cooperation and ineffective policing in Nigeria. The findings have implications on the public, government, policy makers and authority of the Nigerian police.

*Keywords:* Community policing, Emotional intelligence, Self-efficacy, Job interest, Life satisfaction and Pay incentive.

It has been long time observed that the public and the police in Nigeria are not best of friends. Literatures have consistently supported this assertion (Mastrofifski, Shapes and Supina 1996; Bittner, 1970; Aremu, 1996; Black, 1980 and Nwolise, 2004). The Nigeria Police has strong public relations departments both at the State level and the Federal Capital Territory. There has always been a profile of dissatisfaction of police job on the part of the public and non-cooperation of the public on the part of the police. It is a situation of buck-passing syndrome. In spite of the Nigeria Police presumed proactive through its public relation department, the long-held view of the public disenchantment of the police still holds.

Aremu (2002) notes that no good relationship exists between the public and the police. Alemika and Chukwuma (2000) report that the police-citizen relationship in Nigeria is characterized by deep suspicion and violence. Adebayo (2005) notes that the incursion of the military into the body polity

of Nigeria in which the police were used to silence opposition also aggravated police condemnation. More succinctly, Alemika and Chukwuma (2000) and Adebayo (2005) submit that the historical origin of the Nigeria Police as an instrument of coercion and oppression gave birth to the age-long hatred and stigmatization of the police by the public.

Ehinderu (1996) contends that there is the need for the police to cooperate with the public. He submits that modern police force realizes that its efficiency depends much on the cooperation of the public. Ehinderu (1986) then highlights the following as causes of friction between the police and the public. These according to him are; arrest, processes, exercises of the discretion of prosecute, enforcement of unpopular laws, demonstration control; and allegation of corruption.

Aremu (2006) affirms that the Nigeria police image has never been so called to question as it has in recent times. He concluded that the Nigeria police has image

problem with the public. He categorise the image into three: overall image, perception of outcomes, and perception of police processes. Aremu (2006) operationalises the first two (overall image and perception of police outcomes) as police interpersonal relationships and concludes that the consumers of police services, the public, best describe them. Studies by police scholars (e.g. Mastrofifski, 2000; Bayley, 1996; Carter, 1996) have shown that the best way to measure police performance is through the public satisfaction of police services. These, are at best very low in Nigeria, where the public see the police as enemies in uniform. Bayley (1996) is of the opinion that the police are only as good as the public think they are and that public opinion is the best measure of police performance. The underlying contention from the foregoing is that Nigeria police have next to zero in interpersonal relationship with the public.

Aremu (2006) after x-raying some activities of Nigeria police in the last five years (particularly as touching extra judicial killings) concludes that the bad image of the police in Nigeria occasioned by poor interpersonal relationships with the public is pronounced. This affects the public attitude to policing in Nigeria.

#### *Literatures Review on Community Policing and the Predicting Variables*

There are many definitions as far as the concept is concerned; the reason being that, there are debates on it by both the police and academics for more than two decades (Cordner, 1995; More, 1994; Friedmann, 1992; Goldstein 1990; Rosenbaum, 1988). This makes Oliver and Bartgos (1998) to submit that the majority of the definitions focus on an increase in police and community interaction, a concentration on "quality of life issues", the decentralization of police, strategic methods for making police practices more efficient and effective, a concentration on neighbourhood patrols, and problem oriented or problem-solving policing. All these features best describe what community policing is all about.

Wilson and Kelling (1982) affirm this by contending that community policing operates on the assumptions that increased

police and community cooperation and partnership are aimed at improving the quality of life at the neighbourhood level. This means that community policing in which the police and the public are involved will reduce the rate of crime. Community policing requires new responsibilities for both the police and the community. It is a partnership form of policing in which the police take the community into confidence; and in which the community assists the police. Correia (2000) refers to it as the community involvement in the problem solving process (a collective action). He states further that in so doing, the police are able to strengthen a community's social fabric (e.g. social responsibility) and assist citizens in building (or restoring) a sense of community in their neighbourhood thereby providing the means for the cooperation of order between police representatives and citizen.

Ehindero (2007) submits that community policing was pioneered in Enugu State of Nigeria in February 2004. It now has a presence in eighteen out of thirty-six states including the Federal Capital Territory in Nigeria. The fact that community policing is not yet rooted in the Nigeria police like what obtains in America and Europe however has further widened that gulf between the police and the public.

Emotions are the base of human integrity, honesty, fairness and other important human actions. In fact no human action whether good or bad is emotion free. Actions on the other hand affect emotion. Thus, emotions and action are mutually dependent while character is the foundation of all human behavioural function. Emotional Intelligence (EQ) largely determines human character. In fact EQ is now describe as the major determinant of human success, accounting for 80% of human performance while general intelligence (IQ) account for 20% (Goleman, 1998).

A relationship-based definition of emotion was suggested by Steiner (2001) which describes EQ as the development of emotional literacy. Steiner's application involves four stages.

- 1) Knowing what feelings we have, and how strongly and why.

- 2) Recognizing the kind strength and reason for other peoples' feelings.
- 3) Developing the love-centred ability to express or holdback our feelings to enhance the quality of our lives and of those around us.

Akinboye (2002) definition of EQ is emotion + thorough creativity – driven skilled. EQ describes the ability to organize emotion driven perception, intuition, creativity and thorough process plus the ability to organize emotion as well as interpersonally relationship in order to build trust, honesty, integrity, fairness, human charity and integrity in life.

Self-efficacy is distinct from other concepts of self, such as self-concept, self-worth, and self-esteem in that, it is specific to a particular task. Individual efficacy beliefs are better predictors of individual behaviour than self-concept and self-esteem (Payeres & Miller, 1994). The meaning and the measure of police sense of efficacy have been the subjects of considerable debate among scholars and researchers. For example police sense of efficacy is a significant predictor of productive policing. A policeman with lower theory self-efficacy beliefs, police with strong perceptions of self-capability tend to employ policing strategies that are more organize and better planned. This provides considerable explanation for the positive link between police sense of efficacy and police ability to withstand frustration during his lawful duties. The more higher police sense of efficacy the more likely they are tenaciously overcome obstacles. This foster effective policing (Bandura, 1997).

This is widely considered to be a central aspect of human welfare. Many have identified happiness with it and some maintain that well-being consist largely or wholly in being satisfied with one's life. Life satisfaction is not merely a judgment about one's wellbeing or belief that one's life is going well, but it is widely thought it involves affirming, endorsing, appreciating or being pleased with one's life (Summer, 1996, p. 145).

Hayborn (2001) and Alex Michalous (1980) has long maintained that life satisfaction and happiness are distinct, with happiness taking something like an emotional state form. This account differ

from hedonism mainly by focusing more on mood related affects and on non-conscious aspect of affect, such as individual's emotional disposition.

Pay is one of the key success factors in managing the organization. Effective design of pay policies and mechanisms can positively draw talented workers from the market, encourage the development of existing tool, and thereby increases the performance of both the organization as a whole and members of the organization. Discussing pay therefore is useful as it will promote the sharing of experience and ideas for improving the performance of organization.

The World Health Report (2000), defines incentives as "all the rewards and punishment that provide as a consequence for personnel by the organization or institutions under which they operate and the specific interventions they provide". The definition suggests that the organization, the work that is done and the setting in which work takes place will determine the incentive used and its resulting impact. An incentive refers to one particular form of payment that is intended to achieve some specific change in behaviour.

Organization researches have long sought to determine the motivational basis behind employed behaviour and attitude. Some research findings suggest that positive beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization or its representative contribute to the establishment of high quality exchange relationship that create obligation from employees to reciprocate in positive beneficial (Shore and Wanye, 1983).

Allen (1995) in a study revealed that employees perception of management generally affect expression of support for employees, formal positive feedback directed towards individuals and decision-making input are strongly relate to perceived organizational support. A recent research on school and work place by Reyes (1992) discovered that police organizational commitment is based upon a belief.

#### *Statement of the Problem*

The problem of insecurity is rampant in Nigeria and the bad image of the Nigeria

policemen has not convinced the community to assist maximally in combating crime or given them information about the perpetrators of crime. The fear of divulging information to the criminal by police further debilitates the relationship between the Nigeria police and the populace thereby exposing the citizenry to danger in the hands of the criminals. The researchers of this work therefore deemed it fit to look at some variables and predict their effectiveness on community policing and crime prevention in Nigeria.

#### *Research Questions*

- 1) What is the relative effect of each of the independent variables (emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, job interest, life satisfaction and pay incentives) on the community policing and crime prevention among the Nigeria police?
- 2) What is the combined effect of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, job interest, life satisfaction and pay incentives on community policing and crime prevention among the Nigeria police?

#### *Purpose of the Study*

The study aimed at predicting the effect of each variable on community policing in the South West Nigeria. This in no doubt helps in stemming the tide of crimes in Nigeria.

#### *Significance of the Study*

Through this study, a better interpersonal relationship between the police and the citizenry will be enhanced. There will be an improved confidence in the Nigeria Police by the Nigerian people. The government can use the findings of this study to enhance the efficiency of the police and the resultant effect in reduction in crime waves.

### **Methods**

#### *Research Design*

This study employed expo-facto research design. This is because the research will examine variables that are either in existence or not in the participants. Such an approach does not involve the manipulation of variables in the study. It neither adds to nor subtracts from the existing fact. It only carefully observes and records information as they naturally

occurred at the time the study was being conducted.

The research collected data which quantitatively measured life emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, life satisfaction, pay incentives and job interest as predictors of effective community policing in Nigeria.

#### *Population and Sample*

The target population is the whole police officers in the South West Nigeria. However, the sample consists of three hundred police officers in the South West. In which fifty personnel were randomly selected from each state which include Ekiti, Ondo, Osun, Oyo, Ogun and Lagos States.

#### *Instrumentation*

The following instruments were used.

- *The general self-efficacy Scale*

This scale measures individual perception and judgment about a task to be performed. The scale was originated by Jerusalem and Schwazer (1979) and has been used by numerous researchers. The scale yielded internal consistencies between alpha .75 and .19, its stability has been examined in several longitudinal studies for examples; 246 cardiac surgery patients in Germany who filled out the questionnaire before surgery and again half a year later, had a retest-reliability for  $r = .66$  (Schneider, 1998). Among 140 teachers in Germany, a stability coefficient of  $r = .75$  was found after one year. Over the same time period 2,846 students, also in Germany, filled out the scale twice whereby a test-reliability of  $r = .55$  was found (Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1999). In addition, for a two year period, there were coefficients of  $r = .47$  for men and  $r = .63$  for women who had left East Germany as refugees (Schwazer, et al, 1993).

- *Emotional Intelligence Scale*

Emotional intelligence scale measures human integrity, honesty, fairness and other important human actions. The questionnaire contains a 5-point scale with higher score indicating a higher level of emotional

intelligence. The scale was found to be correlate with theoretically related constructs such as the Toronto Alexithmia scale ( $r = .65$ ), and the attention sub scale of the trait meta modulo scale ( $r = .63$ ). A Cronbach alpha of .87. was found for internal consistency of the scale also, a two week test retest showed a retest reliability of .78. The scale also show evidences of validity as scores on the scale were shown to be related to eight of nine measures predicted to be related to emotional intelligence.

- *Pay incentives scale*  
Pay incentive measured, if the salary packages paid to the police are satisfied or not. The scale was adopted by the researchers of this work. The questionnaire is named pay incentives scale (PIS) which comprise by the expert in the field of psychology. The instrument was administered twice on the respondents with a distance of three weeks in between. Thereafter the data was collected and analyzed using test-retest reliability estimation, the Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient formula. The reliability coefficient obtained ranged between  $r=0.78$  to  $0.84$  which was considered to be reasonable to be used in this study.
- *Job Interest*  
This questionnaire was self-designed by the researchers. It contains 10 items and named job interest scale (JIS). The academics in the police force and the clinical psychologist assisted in its validation. The questionnaire was administered twice between three weeks. The data was analyzed after collection using Pearson's product correlation coefficient formula. The reliability coefficient obtained ranged between  $r=0.76 - 0.88$  which is also reasonable to be used in this study.
- *Satisfaction with Life Scale*  
Satisfaction with Life Scale is designed to evaluate a person's judgment of his life satisfaction dependent upon comparison with his life circumstance as compared to his life standard. It has been shown to have good internal

reliability and temporal stability. A coefficient alpha of .87 and a 2 month test-retest stability coefficient of .82 have been reported (Pavot and Diener, 1993). This scale is a sample 7 items scale containing five questions. The range of possible score is 5 to 35 with a higher score indicating a higher level of life satisfaction. The Satisfaction With Life Scale yields relatively high reliability in the current study ( $\alpha = .82$ ) (Lassari, 2000).

#### *Data Collection*

Two research assistants were employed to help with the administration of the questionnaires. They were trained to intimate them with the purpose of the research, the nature and content of the questionnaires. A total of 300 questionnaires were administered. The administration of the questionnaire form was done under positive testing conditions. Free from pressure, intimidation and discomfort. No time limit was set for the completion of the questionnaire forms. However, respondents were encouraged to respond to all items with all honesty.

#### *Data Analysis*

The data collected were subjected to multiple regression analysis. Multiple regression (backward solution) also provide information on the joint, the relative contributions of the five (5) factor variable measure (life satisfaction, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, pay incentive, job interest), to the prediction of effective community policing in Nigeria. The multiple regression analysis also contains some derivatives such as analysis of variance, inter-correlation matrix and standard regression weight tables. All at 0.05 level of significance.

### **Results**

The data collected were analyzed using multiple regression, one-way analysis of variance and t-test, these statistical tools were relevant to the design of the study and could provide answer to the two research questions raised in the study.

*Research Question 1:* What is the relative effect of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy,

job interest, life satisfaction and pay incentives on effective community policing.

Table 1: Intercorrelation Matrix between Effective Community Policing

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Community Policing	1.000					
Self-efficacy	-.041	1.000				
Job interest	0.86	.001	1.000			
Emotional intelligence	-.007	.146	.012	1.000		
Pay incentives	1.69	.29	.019	.068	1.000	
Life satisfaction	.058	-.031	.064	.144	.045	1.000
Mean	54.76	26.30	29.16	54.61	28.02	22.59
SD	12.62	3.93	4.714	13.170	5.93	3.65
Total Number	300	300	300	300	300	300

N = 300, Df = 295, significant at 0.05

- a) Predictors (life satisfaction, self-efficacy, pay incentive, job interest, and emotional intelligence).
- b) Dependent variable: community policing

In Table 1, the Regression Analysis yielded an R<sup>2</sup> adjustment of 0.023 which is translated into 2.3% of the total observed variables in the effective community policing. The analysis further showed a Standard Error (SE) of 12.46 and f-ratio value of 2.4 significant at 0.05 margin of error. This indicated that a significant relationship exist between the predictive variables (life satisfaction, self efficacy, pay

incentive, job interest emotional intelligence) and effective community policing of the participants.

*Research Question 2:* What is the combined effect of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, pay incentive, job interest and effective community policing?

Table 2

R	.199				
R <sup>2</sup>	.0440				
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.023				
SE	12.47				
<b>ANOVA</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	1895.46	5	379.093	2.436	.05
Residual	45753.25	294	155.623		
Total	47649.72	299			

Significant at 0.05

The results in Table 2 showed the co-efficient values of the predicting variables of 0.041, 0.086, 0.007, 0.169 and 0.58 on the life satisfaction, self-efficacy, pay incentive, job interest, emotion intelligence and effective community policing. The results

indicate a positive significant contribution of the predicting variables to community policing of the surveyed police officers.

Table 3: Standard Regression Weight Table shows the predicting variables as correlates of effective community policing.

Unstandardised and standardized co-efficient

		<b>B</b>	<b>Std</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
	(Constant)	39.463	8.572		4.603	.000
1.	Self-efficacy	-.134	.185	-.042	-.722	N.S
2.	Job interest	.213	.153	.080	1.389	N.S
3.	Emotional intelligence	-1.929	.056	-0.20	-.344	S*
4.	Pay incentive	.358	.122	.168	2.932	N.S
5.	Life satisfaction	.161	.200	.047	.802	N.S

Dependent Variable: Community Policing

Table 3, (the contribution of each variable to effective community policing in the police force) indicated that pay incentive contributed most to the effective community policing. Beta = .168; t = 2.932 (0.5). However, the effects of other variables on the sampled in the current study were not as significant as pay incentives.

#### *Discussion*

From Table 1, the result obtained with the use of multiple regression analysis yielded an R<sup>2</sup> adjustment of 0.023 which translated into 2.3% of the total observed variables in the effective community policing. The analysis further showed a standard Error (SE) of 12.46 and f-ratio value of 2.4 significant at 0.05 margin of error. This indicated that relative effect exist between the predictive variables. (Life satisfaction, self-efficacy, pay incentive, job interest, emotional intelligence and effective community policing). This finding supports the finding of Goleman (2003) which confirmed that emotional intelligence and pay incentives are significantly related to organization performance. Emotional intelligence in the world is relevance and it makes individual to be effective. Also knowing one's emotion, it means recognizing a feeling as it happens. In the study conducted by Salako (2008), it was revealed that police officers and men whose job conditions are poor will not be committed to their chosen career. Another evidence by the study of Pajares (1997) Pajere and Miller found significance relationship between job interest and performance.

Table 2, shows that there is significance relationship between the predictive variables (emotional intelligence self-efficacy, pay incentives, job interest, life satisfaction) and effective community policing. The result showed the co-efficient values of the predicting variables of 0.041, 0.086, 0.007, 0.169 and 0.58 on the life satisfaction, self-efficacy pay incentive, job interest, emotional intelligence and community policing. The result indicate a positive significant contribution of the predicting variable to community policing of the survey police officers. This findings is consistent with study of Gusky (1996) and

life satisfaction influenced by the reward received from an organization. Also in the study of Wilson (1997) it was found that low level of commitment of police officers might notably be due to a culmination of diverse poor experience with the management of the organization.

From Table 3, the contribution of each variable to effective community policing was noticed from the result Beta = .168; t= 2.932 (0.5). This indicated that pay incentive has highest significant relationship over others. In this study the researchers observed that pay incentives given to the police officers in Nigeria does not correlate with the work done and this contribute a lot to the issue of tow collection and bribes among them. This result is in line with Aremu (2005) who observed that employees who hold challenging, enriched jobs tend to be more satisfied and internally motivated than employees who work on relatively simple job.

#### *Implication of this Study*

This type of research is very important because of the insecurity which Nigeria is experiencing most especially in the hand of militancy and armed robbers. One thing the researchers of this work want the populace to know is that lack of mutual relationship between the Nigeria society and the police contribute to ineffective policing. The image of the police which has already being battered is also a great factor to insecurity. But if these could be salvaged things would change for better since criminals are part of the society. The police should therefore cooperate with the society and vice versa in order to maintain law and order.

Deeper understanding of the concept of community policing is very important in order to promote mutual understanding between the community and the police. Creating awareness in the community that criminals live within the community and without giving information to the police by the community, police cannot successfully combat crimes.

#### *Recommendations*

The following recommendations emerged:

- 1) The government should improve on the standard of living of the security agents most especially the police.
- 2) The policemen and women should see themselves as part of the society and they should be ready to help the members of the public without demanding for gratifications of any form.
- 3) The people should see police as their friends and should be ready to expose any criminal to them.
- 4) The police should treat all information given to them as confidential. This would make the public to have absolute confidence on them.
- 5) Lastly, the police should try as much as possible to display their emotional intelligence when dealing with public. The police should have the feeling of the public and should be proactive whenever they have contact with them.

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## **Free Speech Attitudes of Nigerian University Students at National Universities Games Association Event in Benin, Edo State, Nigeria**

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This research adopted a descriptive survey design with the use of self-reported instruments to generate data and responses from the research participants. The setting of the study was the main campus of the University of Benin, Edo State, Nigeria where the 23<sup>rd</sup> edition of the Nigerian Universities Games (NUGA) took place in 2011. The independent variables of the research were socio-economic status, political orientation, age, and gender. The dependent variable was desire for freedom of speech or free speech attitudes (FSA) and this was measured in line with each of the respondent's score on a 20-item, 3-point Likert questionnaire which measured Freedom of Speech. One hundred and fifteen (115) Nigerian athletes consisting of 70 males and 45 females and aged between 18 and 38 were involved in the study. Males constituted 60.87% while females accounted for 39.1%. Their mean age was 23.57 (SD = 5.34). Due to the fast pace of activities and time pressure at the venue of the games, it was not easy to get hold of athletes to participate in the study; hence the accidental sampling method was used. Thirty four of the respondents reported being liberal in political orientation, 36 reported being moderate, and 45 reported being conservative in political orientation. Political orientation was assessed by Peterson (2007)'s political orientation scale. Participants were of different socio-economic backgrounds. In relation to the variables studied, four hypotheses were tested using simple Pearson correlation, independent t-test, and one-way ANOVA. Results showed that age positively correlated with FSA significantly while political orientation significantly influenced FSA. Results also showed that gender and socio-economic status did not significantly influence FSA. Discussion centered on the way and manner that FSA and factors influencing it can be studied, understood and put to productive use. Specifically, age and political orientation identified as very important factors influencing FSA. It was concluded that age and political orientation are important variables in shaping FSA and a better understanding of them will partly lay a good foundation for citizens' contribution to democratic growth and good governance.

**Key words:** Free speech, attitudes, athletes, spectators, Nigerians

Liberty to speak free of government interference and political equality are both essential to democracy (De Luca, 2007). But free speech is illusory unless each individual has an equal opportunity to speak (Ma, 1995). Individuals and institutions such as universities cherish free speech. Indeed, universities need free speech to make their most valued contributions of generating new knowledge through science and other methods of inquiry (Kneipp, Canales, Fahrenwald, and Taylor, 2007). Yet political equality requires

governmental regulation of resources needed for political speech (De Luca, 2007). There is a debate regarding the delicate balance between the need for national security and the pursuit of academic freedom (De Luca, 2007). In academic institutions, it is desirable for scholars or intellectuals to, while promoting and maintaining academic freedom, balance free speech with protection of national security.

Although academic freedom can be defined in many ways, there are four

primary tenets of freedom in an academic environment: freedom to research, freedom to publish, freedom to teach, and freedom to speak (Lynch, 2006). Ivie (2006) describes John Dewey's conceptualization of academic freedom as entailing the principle of unfettered intellectual inquiry. On the other hand, Barry (2007) defines workplace freedom of expression as the ability to engage in acts of expression at or away from the workplace, on subjects related or unrelated to the workplace, free from the threat of discipline or discharge. Stemming from the foregoing definition, Barry (2007), referred to freedom of expression here as the ability to engage in acts of expression on issues, free from the threat of discipline or personal loss. Barry (2007) also critically assessed the state of freedom of expression in the workplace, arguing that it is excessively and unnecessarily limited in both law and management practice. But one of the strongest defenses of free speech holds that autonomy requires the protection of speech (Moles, 2007)

Redish and Finnerty (2002) have noted the troubling paradox that the intersection of democracy and education gives rise to. They note that, on the one hand, a viable democratic system requires an educated electorate, so that its citizens may make informed decisions as they participate in the process of self-government. On the other hand, Redish and Finnerty (2002) note that an educational system is an inherently authoritarian institution in which agents of the state are provided a unique opportunity to shape the values of impressionable students. Through an educational system, government can effectively mold the minds of its citizens before they enter the adult world. This is a strategy commonly employed by governments in totalitarian societies. It is noted, therefore, that the educational system gives rise to an indirect but nevertheless serious threat to the freedom of thought that is so essential to the successful operation of any democracy (Redish and Finnerty, 2002).

Although the past few decades have produced gains for political freedom, there has emerged series of worrisome trends

such as growing authoritarian "push back" against organizations, movements, and media which combine with a systematic effort to weaken or eliminate pro-democracy forces in authoritarian regimes throughout the world (Puddington, 2007). However, an increase in freedom of expression promotes societal peace and government accountability while a decline in freedom of expression and freedom of the press brings about a weakness in the rule of law which results in an upsurge in violence, and pervasive corruption and lack of government transparencies ranked as a crucial impediment to democratic governments (Puddington, 2007).

Blasi (1999), in agreement with early proponents of the freedom of speech, such as John Milton, John Stuart Mill and Louis Brandeis, avers that expressive liberty plays an important role in strengthening the character of persons entrusted with such freedom. Thus, it is argued that individual character traits such as civic courage, independence of mind, and the capacity to learn from experience and adapt are dividends of guaranteed free speech (Blasi, 1999).

However, freedom of speech is not an absolute condition (Sivanandan and Shanmugaratnam, 2006). Indeed, there is occasionally a great price to be paid for freedom of speech. For instance, in September 2005, the Danish newspaper *Jyllands-Posten*, seemingly in exercising its freedom of expression, published 12 specially commissioned cartoons that were judged, by Muslims and many non-Muslims, to be racist and offensive. In January 2006, this resulted in an explosion of angry mass protest in Muslim countries (Codina, 2007).

#### *Conceptual and Theoretical Review*

Freedom of speech, though generally desirable and theoretically problem-free, has been observed to be idealistic. Peterson (2007) observes freedom of expression as a liberal fantasy. While observing that 'freedom of expression' is constructed as a core American liberty, Peterson further argues that this construction is an example of ideological fantasy, which relies on a fetishization of individual expression as

proof of freedom . The constructed, according to her, is that of exaggerated 'freedom' that focuses on individual and sexual elements of speech and ignores economic constraints on speech (Peterson, 2007).

In a multifactorial experimental survey of 1,004 randomly selected faculty members from top-ranked institutions, Ceci, Williams, and Mueller-Johnson (2006) observed few differences in freedom of speech related either to gender or type of institution, and behavioral scientists' beliefs were similar to scholars from other fields. In another study designed to investigate the conceptions of freedom of speech in youth and college students, Hasegawa (2001) noted among other findings that the participants recognized the importance of freedom of speech; and that they understood its features in general. Hasegawa (2007) also noted that there were age differences in some aspects of the participants' judgments.

A person's political orientation is also assumed to influence his or her free speech attitudes. Lakoff (2002) has noted conservatives' belief in personal responsibility, limited government, free markets, individual liberty, traditional values and a strong national defence. They also believe the role of government should be to provide people the freedom necessary to pursue their own goals. Policies, conservatives also believe, should generally emphasize empowerment of the individual to solve problems. An example of a conservative orientation will be the belief that human life begins at conception and consequently abortion is the murder of a human being, hence nobody has the right to murder a human being.

Liberals, according to Lakoff (2002), believe in governmental action to achieve equal opportunity and equality for all, and that it is the duty of the State to alleviate social ills and to protect civil liberties and individual and human rights. They also believe the role of the government should be to guarantee that no one is in need. Liberals further believe people are basically good; therefore, liberal policies generally emphasize the need for the government to solve people's problems. A

liberal belief, for instance, will be that a fetus is not a human life and that the decision to have an abortion is a personal choice of a woman regarding her own body and the government should stay out of it. In this wise, women, according to liberals, should be guaranteed the right to a safe and legal abortion, including partial birth abortion. Moderate political orientation favours some conservative beliefs as well as some liberal beliefs at the same time. This is to say that moderates are midway between conservatives and liberals (StudentNewsDaily.com, 2005).

So much attention is obviously paid to freedom of speech in developed countries of the world. However, very limited attention is paid to the same issue in developing countries, including Nigeria. More specifically, very minimal or no literature sources exist on freedom of speech among Nigeria University students in spite of the importance of this population in the development of a nation. Thus, it becomes necessary to fill this research gap. Indeed one will be interested in knowing if the threat to freedom of speech that was reportedly orchestrated by military leadership (Redish and Finnerty, 2002) has left some traces even with the coming of civilian government in Nigeria.

In an attempt to fill the research gap reported hitherto, this study surveyed free speech attitudes of 115 university students (aged 18-38) who were athletes at the 23rd edition of the Nigerian Universities Games (NUGA) held at the University of Benin, Edo State. It was hypothesized first that age will significantly correlate positively with free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students. Secondly, it was hypothesized that political orientation will significantly influence free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students. Thirdly, it was predicted that gender will significantly influence free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students. Lastly, it was also hypothesized that socio-economic status will significantly influence free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students.

## **Method**

### *Design and setting*

The independent variables in this study are

socio-economic status, political orientation, age, and gender. Socio-economic status was categorized into low, medium, and high; political orientation was categorized into conservative, liberal, and moderate. The dependent variable is desire for freedom of speech or free speech attitudes (FSA) and this was measured in line with each of the respondent's score on a 20-item, 3-point Likert questionnaire developed by the researcher. The scale was similar to Oyetayo (2001)'s freedom of speech scale. The research adopted a descriptive survey design with the use of self-reported instruments to generate data and responses from the research participants. The setting of the study was the main campus of the University of Benin, Edo State, Nigeria where the 23<sup>rd</sup> edition of the Nigerian Universities Games (NUGA) took place.

#### *Sample and procedure*

Questionnaires were administered to each of the participants after a rapport had been established with them and they were told to respond to the items truthfully. There was no time limit but the average time spent was 20 minutes. Due to the fast pace of activities and time pressure at the venue of the games, it was difficult to get the athletes to participate in the study; hence the accidental sampling method was used. Participants were sampled individually and accidentally at different spots on the University of Benin's main campus in Benin where most of the sporting events of the 23<sup>rd</sup> Nigerian University Games (NUGA) were held.

Entry to all the events sites was free throughout the Games. There were an estimated 6,000 accredited athletes and officials, and an estimated 80,000 spectators at all the spots for the games. It was among this pool of athletes and spectators that 115 participants were accidentally drawn. There were 70 male and 45 female participants aged 18 to 38. Males constituted 60.9% while females accounted for 39.1%. Their mean age was 23.57 (SD = 5.34).

Thirty four of the respondents reported being liberal in political orientation, 36 reported being moderate, and 45 reported

being conservative in political orientation. Participants were of different socio-economic backgrounds. Participants were of different ethnic backgrounds in Nigeria.

#### *Measures*

Free speech attitudes were measured using a 20-item self-developed questionnaire. The 3-point Likert scale, similar to Oyetayo's (2001) Free Speech Scale, had "Strongly Disagree," "Neutral," and "Strongly Agree" response options with a total of 100. Strongly Disagree options were on the left end of the continuum with lower points while Strongly Agree options were on the right end of the continuum with higher points. The mid points on the continuum indicated a neutral position.

While 12 items in the questionnaire were positively worded, 8 were negatively worded. Examples of positive items are "A government that allows and encourages its citizens to speak freely is a better one" and "As far as I am concerned, conflicting views are beneficial views. Examples of negative items are "It is unacceptable for an employee to disagree with his boss" "All said and done, people who are wealthy should be allowed to express themselves more than poor people." Political orientation was assessed by Peterson (2007)'s political orientation scale. This is an 8-item, 3-point Likert scale. All the items in the scales were considered adequate and relevant by experts. An individual who scored within the mean or above the mean was regarded as on freedom of speech, while those who scored below the mean were said to be low on freedom of speech.

During analysis, scores on all negative items were reversed to rhyme with scores on positive items. An item total correlation that was done with the questionnaire items yielded a coefficient alpha of .77 while a split-half reliability analysis yielded coefficient alpha of .67 for part 1 and .70 for part 2. Pearson product moment correlation, independent t-test and one-way ANOVA were employed to analyzed the data collected and test hypotheses formulated for the research.

#### **Results**

The correlation between age and free

speech attitudes of university students was examined by Pearson Product Moment Correlation. Result of the Pearson Correlation in Table 1 confirm this

hypothesis ( $r = .22$ ,  $df=113$ ,  $P<.05$ ). It means that as university students are increasing in age their desire for freedom of speech also increases.

1: Table Summary of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Showing the Relationship between Age and Freedom of Speech Attitudes (FSA)

Variables	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	Age	FSA.
AGE	115	23.57	5.34	-	
FSA.	115	58.64	10.45	.22*	-

FSA = Free Speech Attitudes

\*Significant

Political orientation was assessed by Peterson (2007)'s political orientation scale. This is an 8-item, 3-point Likert scale. The influence of political orientation on FSA Nigerian university students was assessed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Result of the ANOVA in Table 2 show that political orientation indeed significantly influenced free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students ( $F = 3.24$ ,  $df=113$ ,  $P<.05$ ). However, observation of the mean scores further revealed that, university students with conservative political orientation ( $\bar{x}= 62.83$ ) had more desire for freedom of speech than university students with liberal political orientation ( $\bar{x}= 61.85$ ) or university students with moderate

political orientation ( $\bar{x}= 56.84$ ). Furthermore, multiple comparisons test (Least Significant Difference) again showed that, university students with liberal and moderate political orientation ( $\bar{x}= 5.01$ ;  $P < .05$ ) significantly desired freedom of speech than university students with liberal and conservative political orientation ( $\bar{x}= -.98$ ;  $P > .05$ ). There was no significant difference between university students with conservative and liberal political orientation ( $\bar{x}= .98$ ;  $P > .05$ ) and university students with conservative and moderate political orientation ( $\bar{x}= 5.99$ ;  $P > .05$ ) regarding desire for freedom of speech.

Table 2: Summary of One-way ANOVA Showing Influence of Political Orientation on Free Speech Attitudes

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	681.89	2	340.95	3.24	< .05
Within Groups	11254.37	107	105.18		
Total	11936.26	109			

Gender was predicted in hypothesis 3 to influence free speech attitudes of Nigerian

students significantly. The results in Table 3 did not confirm this hypothesis.

Table 3: Summary of Independent t-Test Showing Influence of Gender on Free Speech Attitudes

Sex	N	$\bar{X}$	df	t	P
Male	80	59.09	110	.73	> .05
Female	32	57.47			

Contrary to the statement in hypothesis 4, socio-economic status did not significantly influence free speech attitudes of Nigerian university students as seen in Table 4. University students who were reportedly from the upper socio-economic class did not more significantly desire freedom of speech than university students who were

reportedly from the lower socio-economic class or university students who were reportedly from the middle socio-economic class. This means that, there was no significant difference among university students from the upper, middle, and lower socio-economic status in their desire for freedom of speech.

Table 4: Summary of One-way ANOVA Showing Influence of Socio-economic Status on Free Speech Attitudes

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	288.31	2	144.16	1.32	> .05
Within Groups	12129.48	111	109.28		
Total	12417.79	113			

*Discussion and implication*

The confirmation of hypothesis one is an indication that age was a significant factor in the FSA of Nigerian university students. This means that there are age differences in FSA among Nigerian university students. Specifically, as age increases, the desire for free speech also increases. This finding suggests that as university students' ages increase, they are more likely to get exposed to different life experiences that will in turn increase their desire for free speech. This finding is in line with Blasi's (1999) conclusion that people learn from experience and experience shapes free speech. This finding also supports Hasegawa's (2001) view that there are age differences in some aspects of people's judgments.

Political orientation also influenced free speech attitudes of university students Nigerians significantly. Specifically, conservatives desired more free speech than, followed by liberals, and moderates. This finding in respect of hypothesis 2 is in

line with Lakoff's (2002) observation that a person's political orientation is assumed to influence his or her free speech attitudes. Conservatives may seem to desire more free speech as an instrument for helping them conserve social values they so much cherish (maintain status quo). However, liberals favour free speech more than moderates because of the former's belief in the protection of civil liberties and individual and human rights. Moderates may cautiously cherish free speech to maintain their middle position between liberals and conservatives.

The failure of gender to predict FSA as stated in hypothesis 3 does not support the findings of Ceci, Williams, and Mueller-Johnson (2006) who observed few differences in freedom of speech related either to gender or type of institution. We presume, however, that it is not unlikely to corroborate Ceci's aforementioned position if a similar study is done involving a larger sample of Nigerian men and women of more diverse cultural and institutional

backgrounds.

As well, it is worth noting that socio-economic status did not significantly influence free speech attitudes of young adult Nigerians significantly as predicted in hypothesis 4. To a reasonable extent, Nigeria is a class conscious society and one expects that this class consciousness would reflect in FSA of young Nigerians. Again, it is hoped that when similar studies are done in the future involving larger samples educated Nigerian with more diverse educational and socio-economic backgrounds, the influence of socio-economic on free speech may be significant.

#### Conclusion

This study established a significant correlation between age and FSA among young adult Nigerians. Therefore, it is suggested that more opportunities should be made available to Nigerians, especially those who are still growing up, to express their opinions on diverse issues that may interest them. This entails creating effective communication channels within and outside educational systems for students and young people to express themselves on issues that interest them. For this to be effective, age-specific needs and considerations should be identified and recognized.

Political orientation was also identified as a significant factor influencing FSA of Nigeria university students. It is further suggested that Nigerian governments and institutions at all levels should take deliberate steps towards recognizing and according due respect to university students and young people, especially those of divergent political orientations. Imposing preferred political views on the citizenry and persuading or coercing people to 'think in the box' are steps that are likely to be resisted first by citizens, especially young and educated citizens, due to their volatility. Further research is indicated in the area of the connection between gender and FSA on the one hand and the connection between socio-economic-status and FSA on the other. Freedom of speech is an important ingredient in the development of democracy and the advancement of society. Thus there is serious need for

freedom of speech attitudes to be understood deeper and better.

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## **Socio-Psychological Factors as Determinants of Reproductive Health Behaviour among Couples in Nigeria**

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The study established the influence of socio-psychological factors on the reproductive health behavior among couples in Ibadan, Nigeria. A total of three hundred men and women were randomly selected from five different professions in Ibadan constituted the sample for the study. The two instruments used were author-constructed questionnaires with 0.71 and 0.69 reliability co-efficient, respectively. The data obtained were analyzed using multiple regression analysis. The results indicated that significant relationships existed between extramarital sexual partners ( $B=0.0075$ ;  $t= 4.985$  p.  $< 0.05$ ), family size ( $B= 0.0066$ ;  $t= 3.851$  p.  $<0.05$ ), prenatal care ( $B= 0.236$ ;  $t= 3.038$ , p.  $<0.05$ ), contraceptive use ( $B= 0.0271$ ;  $t= 2.712$ , p.  $<0.05$ ) and breastfeeding ( $B= 0.50$ ;  $t= 2.680$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and reproductive behavior but not with birth spacing practices. The results also indicated that a combination of the independent variables significantly predicted reproductive behavior and relationship ( $F$ - ratio= 10.212 p.  $<0.05$ ). The result therefore, indicates the need for those in the helping professions to design intervention programmers for couples on reproductive health behavior.

*Keywords:* Gender Roles, Family size, Couples, Reproductive Behaviors. Nigeria

Understanding gender provides insights into men's and women's behavior, relationships, and reproductive decisions (United Nations (UN), 1995; US Agency for International Development, 1997; and US Agency for International Development, 1998). "Gender" refers to the different roles that men and women play in the society and also the rights and responsibilities that come with these roles (Brett, 1991; Williams et al., 1994; Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA), 1996; and Riley, 1997). "Gender" differs from "Sex" which refers to the biological and physical differences between men and women (Centre for Development and Population Activities (CEDPA), 1996; Hamm, 1996; Mason, 2000; and Moser, 2001).

Gender roles are so strong that they are taken for granted. They are reflected in virtually every social institution, including family structures, household responsibilities, labour markets, schools, health care systems, law, and public policies. The influence of gender is similar in strength to that of religion, race, social status, and wealth (Centre for Development and Population Activities, 1996; Riley, 1997; and Moser, 2001). "In all parts of the world, women are facing threats to their lives, health, and well-being as a result of being overburdened with work and of their lack of power and influences, United Nations (1995).

In many countries, traditional male and female gender roles deter couples from discussing sexual matters, condone risky sexual behavior, and ultimately contribute to poor

reproductive health among both men and women (Moser, 2001). Programs can encourage men to adopt positive gender roles, such as being supportive husbands and caring fathers.

Gender roles and gender norms are culturally specific and thus vary tremendously around the world. Almost everywhere, however, men and women differ substantially from each other in power, status and freedom. In virtually all societies' men have more power than women have (Berer, 1996; Evaluation Project, 1997; Riley, 1997; Helzner, 2000; and Moser, 2001). Gender has a powerful influence on reproductive decision-making and health behavior (Mcfarlane et al., 1994; Blanc et al., 1996; and US Agency for International Development, 1997).

In many developing countries men are the primary decision-makers about sexual activity, fertility, and contraceptive use. Men are often called "gatekeeper" because of the many powerful roles they play in society-as husbands, fathers, uncles, religious leaders, policy-makers, and local and national leaders (Danforth and Jezowski, 1994; Green et al., 1995; and Greene and Biddlecom, 1997). In their different roles men can control access to health information and services, finances, transportation, and other resources (Mbizvo and Bassett, 1996; and Robey et al., 1998).

Little is known about the dynamics of couples' sexual and reproductive decision-making or about how gender roles affect these decisions. Such decisions can include whether to practice family planning, choosing when and how to have sexual relations, engaging in extramarital sexual relations, using condoms to prevent STDs, breastfeeding, and seeking prenatal care (Hull, 2000; Jolly, 2001; and Magnani et al., 2001). Gender is just one of many factors that influence couples and affect their reproductive decisions. Education level, family pressures, social expectations, socioeconomic status, exposure to mass media, personal experience,

expectations for the future, and religion also shape such decisions (Hull, 2000; and Hollerbach, 2001)

In some developing countries husbands dominate reproductive decision-making, whether regarding contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing, or extramarital sexual partners (Storey et al., 1997; Fort, 1999; Kulu, 2000; and Magnani et al., 2001). In Ghana, for example some men in focus group discussions claimed to make all family decision. As one man asserted: We control them from the initial stage. When she comes to the house and may be she thinks she is now the lady of the house and does something contrary to your regulations, you warn her. We don't allow our women to have influence on us (Ezeh, 2001).

A study of more than 3,000 urban Nigerian couples found that, while men do not dominate decision-making, they still wield more power than women do. Men and women were asked who decides such matters as family size, when to have sex and how long periods of sexual abstinence should last. Close to 60% of men said that they decide, and 40% to 50% of women agreed that men decide (Isiugo-Abanihe, 2000).

A study of the fertility decisions made by five generations of one South Indian Family also found that the men tended to control contraceptive use and to make fertility decisions. The men in the older generations chose to limit their own fertility by getting vasectomies, usually without telling their wives. The men said that economic pressures were their main motivation to limit the number of children. A survey of all five generations in this family revealed that more than half of the men thought the decision-making was mutual, but only 38% of their wives saw it that way (Karra et al., 1997).

Men's control over reproductive decision-making may be weakening, particularly among younger generations and in certain cultures. In many societies, as social, economic and educational opportunities for women increase, traditional gender roles are

starting to change. As a result, power is being redistributed between men and women. Evidence from several countries demonstrates that, increasingly, reproductive decisions are being made jointly by couples, not by men alone.

In Sri Lanka, where women's levels of education and literacy are high, a study among couples currently using contraception reported that more than half of the wives and about two-thirds of the husbands said that decisions about family planning were made jointly (De-Silva, 2000). Also, Japan's patriarchal culture has been changing away from decision-making primarily by husbands and parents towards decisions made jointly by couples (Ogawa and Hodge, 1999).

Most research work on gender and reproductive health behavior is focused on helping men become full partners in better reproductive health. It is also not to the knowledge of the researcher that studies on gender roles and norms on couples reproductive health behavior in Nigeria has ever been conducted. It is against this background that this study becomes relevant in filling such missing gaps in our knowledge in the issues of gender roles and norms as determinant of reproductive health behavior among couples in Nigeria.

#### *Objective of the Study*

The study examined the relationship of couples reproductive decision-making on mater regarding contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing, breastfeeding, extramarital sexual partners, and seeking prenatal care justify the reproductive health behavior among couples. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following research questions were answered:

- i. To what extent would reproductive decision-making on contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing, breastfeeding, extramarital sexual partners, and prenatal care justify reproductive health behavior among couples?
- ii. What is the relative contribution of the factors to the prediction?

## **Method**

### *Research Design*

This study adopted a descriptive survey research design in which questionnaires were employed in collecting data from the respondents on the variables studied.

### *Sample*

The study was conducted in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. A total of three hundred (300) participants both married men and women were randomly drawn from (i) 41 military officers (27 males and 14 females) representing 13.6%; (ii) 70 from teaching profession (39 males and 31 females) representing 23.3%, (iii) 60 from Nursing (21 males and 39 females) representing 20%; (iv) 34 professional bankers (19 males and 15 females) representing 11.3%; (v) 52 university lecturers (30 males and 22 females) representing 17.3%; (vi) and 43 Administrative staff (19 males and 24 females) representing 14.3%.

The range of participant's age was between 36 and 55 years with a mean age of 45.4 years and standard deviation of 9.7. All the participants are married with a minimum of two and maximum of five children. In addition the participants were both Muslims and Christians whose level of education ranged from General Certificate in Education to University degree Certificates.

### *Instrumentation*

The two major instruments used in this study were: (i) Self-Responding Questionnaire on Social and Psychological variables on contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing, breastfeeding, extramarital sexual partners, and prenatal care and (ii) Reproductive Health Behaviors Inventory. The two instruments were author-constructed. The Self-responding questionnaire on Social and Psychological factors contained six sub-scales:

- 1 Contraceptive Use Scale (10 items)
- 2 Family Size Scale (10 items)
- 3 Birth Spacing Scale (10 items)

- 4 Breastfeeding Scale (10 items)
- 5 Extra-marital Sexual Partner Scale (10 items)
- 6 Prenatal Care Scale (10 items)

In all, the self-responding questionnaire on social and psychological factors contained 60 items rated on a 4 point Likert-type Scale. It has 0.71 and 0.76 as the internal consistency and revalidation reliability respectively. The Reproductive Health Behaviors inventory is meant to measure couple's attitudes and intentions towards reproduction. It has 20 items response format anchored on partly True to Very untrue. The test-retest reliability of the inventory was found to be 0.69 and 0.73 respectively.

*Procedure for Data Collection*

The participants for the study were administered the two questionnaires with the assistance of two Guidance Counselors. The collected

questionnaires were scored and the data obtained from them were analyzed to answer the research questions. On the whole, 300 copies of the questionnaires were distributed and returned fully filled, giving a return rate of 100%.

*Data Analysis*

The data collected were analyzed using multiples Regression Analysis to establish the relationship of couples reproductive decision-making on matters regarding contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing, breastfeeding, extramarital sexual partners, and seeking prenatal care justify reproductive health behavior among couples. Also, frequency counts and percentages was used of determine the socio-demographic characteristics of the couples reproductive health behavior.

**Results**

*Table 1: Frequency and percent distribution of socio-demographic factors of couples' involved in the study*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<i>Sex</i>		
Male	155	51.7
Female	145	48.3
<i>Total</i>	<i>300</i>	<i>100.0</i>
<i>Educational Status</i>		
GCE/SSCE	39	13.0
N.C.E	51	17.0
Diploma	89	29.7
University Education	121	40.3
<i>Total</i>	<i>300</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Marital State</i>		
Widow	15	5.0
Married	265	88.0
Separated	19	6.3
Divorce	02	0.7
<i>Total</i>	<i>300</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Religion</i>		
Christians	153	51.0
Muslims	147	49.0
<i>Total</i>	<i>300</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>No of Children</i>		
Two	53	17.7
Three	169	56.3
Four	49	16.3

Five	29	9.7
Total	300	100
<i>Age in years</i>		
36-40	64	21.3
41-45	101	33.7
46-50	96	39
(300 Total)	300	100

The table 1 showed the frequency and percent distribution of socio-demographic factors of the couples' involved in the study. It showed male and female participation of 155 and 145 respectively, and the educational background of the participant shows that university graduates (121) with 40.3%, Diploma (89) with 29.7%, N.C.E. (51) with 17.0% and General Certificate holder (39) with 13.0% in that order.

The participants marital status showed that 265 for married (88.0%), 19 for separated (6.3%), 15 widow (5.0%) and 02 for divorce (0.7%) in that order. The religious affiliation of the couples shows that, 153 were Christians (51.0%), and 147 Muslims

(49.0%). The couples number of children showed that, 169 (53.3%) with three children, 53(17.7%) with two children, 49(16.3%) with four children, and 29(9.7%) with five children respectively. The age range of the participant is 36-55 years. A total of 101 (33.7%) falls between 41 - 45 years, 96 (32.0%) falls between 46-50 years, 64(21.3%) falls between 36-40 years, and 30(13.0%) falls between 51-55 years respectively.

*Research Question 1*

*Using a combination of the independent variables to predict reproductive health behavior among couples*

*Table 2: Regression analysis on sample data using a combination of independent variables to predict*

Multiple R = 0.5447

Multiple R-Square = 0.6604

Adjusted R-Square = 0.0251

Standard Error = 13.038

Analysis of variance					
Sources of Variation	Df	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F-ratio	P
Regression	10	2184.20	312.029	10.212	* 0.05
Residual	290	343	556.11		
Total	300	36540.31	178.938		

\* Significant at 0.05 alpha level.

Table 2 indicates that, a combination of the six independent variables (contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing practices, breastfeeding habit, extramarital sexual partners, and prenatal care) in predicting reproductive behavior among couples yielded a coefficient of multiple regressions (R) of 0.6604 accounting for 66.04% of the variance in reproductive behavior. The table also shows that, the analysis of variance for the multiple regression

data produced an F-ratio of 10.212 (significant at 0.05 level.) indicating that R2 value is not due to chance. This in essence means that, the combination of the variables is capable of predicting reproductive health behavior among couples.

*Regression Question 2*

*What is the relative contribution of the factors to the prediction?*

Table 3: Testing the significance on relative contribution to the prediction of regression weight of independent variables.

S. No.	Variable Description	STD Reg Wt. (B)	Seb	Beta	T-Value	P-Value
1.	Contraceptive use	1.276	0.471	0.0271	2.712	.05
2.	Family size	-1.449	0.376	-0.0066	-3.851	.05
3.	Birth Spacing practices	-0.786	0.563	-0.1121	-1.396	NS
4.	Breastfeeding habit	1.209	0.451	0.50	2.680	.05
5.	Extramarital Sexual partners	2.330	0.469	0.0075	4.959	.05
6.	Prenatal Care	1.319	0.434	0.236	3.038	.05
7.	Constant	48.472	3.851	12.587	000	

Table 3 showed for each independent variable, the standardize Regression Weight (B), the standard error estimate (SEB), the Beta, the T-value, and the level at which the T-ratio is significant. As indicated in the table, the T-ratio associated with only one variable (Birth-spacing practice) not significant at 0.05 alpha levels.

*Discussion*

The results on Table 1 showed the frequency and percent distribution based on the socio- demographic characteristics of the couples' involved in the study vis-a-vis sex, educational status, marital status, religion, number of children, extramarital sexual partners, and the age in years of the respondents.

The results from this study indicates that the six independent variables (Social and Psychological factors) when taken together were effective in predicting reproductive health behavior, relationship, and decision-making among couples involved in the study. The significant F-ratio at 0.05 alpha levels confirms this. The extent to which each gender roles and norms variables contributed to the prediction is shown by the T-ratio values associated with the different variables shown in Table 2. The data on Table 2 shows that, contraceptive use, family size, birth spacing practices, breastfeeding, and prenatal care contributed significantly to the prediction of reproductive health behavior and relationship among couples. The values of the standardized regression weights (B) associated with

the variables indicates that, the variable, extramarital sexual partner is the greatest contributor to the prediction of the behavior followed by family size, prenatal care, contraceptive use and breastfeeding in that order.

The extramarital sexual partners were shown to significantly relate to reproductive health behavior and relationship among couples and this result agree with Berer (1996); Riley (1997); Evaluation Project (1997); Helzner (2000); and Moser (2001). The result obtained in this study also showed that family size and prenatal care were significant contributors to the prediction of reproductive health behavior and decision-making among couples. Similar observations have been observed by Danforth and Jezowski (1994); Green et al. (1995); and Greene and Biddlecom (1997), Mbizvo et al. (1996); and Robey et al. (1998). However, the above result is at variance with Hull (2000), Jolly (2001) and Magnani et al. (2001).

Contraceptive use and breastfeeding were also shown to significantly predict reproductive health behavior and relationship among couples. The result above is in agreement with the findings of Storey et al. (1997), Fort (1999), Kulu (2000), and Magnani et al. (2001). The result of the above findings is also consistent with Isiugo-Abanihe (2000). However, the above findings are at variance as given by Ogawa and Hodge (1999), and De-Silva (2000).

Birth spacing practices could not significantly predict reproductive behavior and relationship among the

couples involved in the study. This finding is however at variance with Ilkhamov, and Saksvig (1997), Fort reproductive health behavior, relationship and decision-making.

Secondly, counselling psychologists need to consider those variables tested when designing intervention programmers for modifying male attitudes towards reproductive behavior, relationship and decision-making.

Finally, all those in the helping professions should design programmers for newly married couples on the social and economic benefit when couples decision-making on reproductive behavior are jointly made.

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## Post-traumatic Stress Disorder and Psychological Well-being among University of Maiduguri Students

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Boko Haram insurgents in north east Nigeria made many people seek psychiatric treatment because of psychological complications including PTSD. This cross-sectional study used a judgemental (non-probability) sampling technique, to examine post-traumatic stress disorder and psychological well-being among university of Maiduguri students. Two hundred and forty-six (141 (57.3%) males and 105 (42.7%) students with mean ( $\bar{x}$ ) age of 22.97 years and SD ( $\pm$  4.48) participated in the study. The results showed a prevalence of 17.8% for PTSD and psychological well-being had a significant relationship with PTSD ( $r = .638$ ,  $df = 245$ ,  $P = .000$ ). Similarly, marital status ( $\chi^2 = .000$ ,  $P = .000$ ), history of sexual abuse ( $\chi^2 = .003$ ,  $P = .010$ ) and family history of mental illness ( $\chi^2 = .000$ ,  $P = .000$ ) correlated significantly with PTSD. Governments, NGOs and Health Care Providers (HCP) must help provide social support for these people, assist in the treatment (psychosocial interventions/drugs) and prevention of PTSD.

**Keywords:** Post-traumatic Stress Disorder, psychological well-being, students, Maiduguri

Emotional disorders may follow a variety of traumatic life events. People diagnosed with posttraumatic stress disorder experience or witness life threatening traumatic events that elicit feelings of horror, terror, and fear (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). A diagnosis of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is made when traumatic stress reactions become persistent and debilitating.

The prevalence rate of 10%-12% was reported for PTSD in the general population (APA, 1994). Similarly, Okulate and Jones (2006) found a rate of 22% for PTSD in hospitalised Nigerian army veterans. In addition, a controlled study by Iteke, Bakare, Agomoh, Uwakwe and Onwukwe (2011) reported rates of 26.7%, 8.0% and 8.7%, respectively, for PTSD among road traffic accidents victims and two groups of none victim population. However, the exact prevalence of the disorder in the community is a matter of debate.

The exact prevalence of the disorder in the community, however, remains a matter of debate. It is difficult to compare the rates PTSD because of differences in methodology, and diagnostic criteria used for the studies. In fact, some of the studies reported lifetime rates while others reported current rates of the disorder. Breslau et al. (1998) found that 11% of women, and 6% of men had a lifetime history of PTSD. Kessler, Sonnega, Bromet, Hughes and Nelson (1995) found a PTSD lifetime prevalence of 7±8 % for women being twice that of men (10±4 % *v.* 5%).

Some risk factors predispose or precipitate PTSD in people. Kessler et al. (1995) found a high prevalence of PTSD among rape victims. Approximately, 65% of men and 46% of women rape victims met the diagnosis of PTSD at some stage in their lives. Other high-risk categories include combat or physically abused men (39% and 22%, respectively), physically abused

women or women threatened with weapons (49% and 33%, respectively). Breslau et al. (1998) found that the highest risk of PTSD was associated with violent assault and rape. Adverse childhood predict future development of mental health disorders and parental psychopathology. A family history of instability is also associated with increased prevalence of PTSD (King, King, Foy & Gudanowski, 1996).

Many studies suggested familial transmission of PTSD. True et al. (1993) examined the prevalence of PTSD in monozygotic and dizygotic twin pairs and reported that about 30% PTSD symptoms had genetic basis. Davidson, Swartz, Storck, Krishnan and Hammett (1985) found that trauma survivors with PTSD had more parents and first-degree relatives with mood, anxiety, and substance abuse compared with trauma survivors without PTSD. More recently, Yehuda, Schmeidler, Giller, Binderbrynes and Siever (1998b) demonstrated that Holocaust survivors with PTSD were more likely to have children with PTSD, compared to holocaust survivors without PTSD.

Gender is a risk factor for PTSD, and females are more vulnerable (Kessler et al., 1999). In addition, married men and women (separated, divorced, or widowed) are at greater risk than those currently married. An earlier study by Kessler et al. (1999) found evidence for increase in the prevalence of PTSD for men but not women.

Similarly, Busari (2010) studied 38 women with traumatic life events and reported a history of unexpected death of a close friend or relative (81.2%), something terrible happening to a close friend or relative (60.1%), and sexual assault by a non-relative (42.1%). Some reported history of robbery (52.6%), natural disaster (57.9%), seeing someone killed or seriously injured (31.2%), sexual assault by a relative (21%) and serious accident (13.2%).

Symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) are typically associated with a wide range of acute psychological distress and psychiatric co-morbidity (Keane & Wolfe, 1990), poor quality of life (Zatzick et al., 1997). Co-morbidity in PTSD

is common, Kulka et al. (1990) found that 99% of Vietnam veterans with chronic PTSD compared with 41% of those without PTSD, had at some stage DSM-III-R psychiatric diagnosis. The most prevalent co-morbid disorders in that study were substance abuse or dependence (75%), generalized anxiety disorder (44%) and major depression (20%). Furthermore, Busari (2010) showed in her study that the most prevalent categories of comorbid diagnosis for women with posttraumatic stress disorder were mood disorders, followed by substance-related and anxiety disorder.

Social support has been the focus of extensive research in the past 30 years (Wethington & Kessler, 1986; Veiel, 1985). Solomon, Mikulincer, and Avitzur (1988) found an association between good social support and decrease symptoms. Also, Mueser, Rosenberg, Goodman and Trumbetta (2001) found that some variables (e.g., social support, coping and competence and personality disorder) intervene and proposed a relationship between PTSD and severe mental illness. Perceived social support and family stability related low with rates of PTSD or decreased severity of PTSD symptoms (Fontana, Schwartz & Rosenheck 1997; King et al., 1996).

There are few studies on the psychological well-being of residents of Maiduguri since Boko Haram insurgence. People living or schooling in the affected areas of the town witnessed or experienced different forms of trauma, including attacks by terrorist groups and military personnel.

This study aimed to determine the prevalence and socio-demographic correlates of PTSD and psychological well-being of students in Maiduguri. The hypotheses for the study were that no statistically significant difference exists between (i) socio-demographic characteristics of participants with and without PTSD, and (ii) PTSD and psychological well-being of participants.

## Methods

### *Research Procedure and Design*

This cross-sectional survey was conducted at the University of Maiduguri, Maiduguri, Borno state, northeast Nigeria. We obtained clearance from the Research and Ethics Committee of University of Maiduguri, and sought the consent of students to administer the questionnaires.

### *Participants and Setting*

A convenient, non-probability sample of 246 undergraduates from the science-based courses of University of Maiduguri, with a mean age of 22.97 years and SD ( $\pm 4.48$ ), 141(57.3%) males and 105(42.7%) females participated in the study.

### *Instruments*

The students completed a pre-designed socio-demographic questionnaire, English versions of PTSD Checklist (PCL civilian version), and General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), divided into four sections (AI, AII, B & C).

*Section AI & II:* Section AI recorded demographical variables (age, gender, religion, ethnicity, marital status, level of study and department) and section A II covers risk factors PTSD (history of physical abuse, sexual abuse, childhood neglect, substance use, mental illness and early separation).

*Section B:* GHQ-28 (Goldberg and Hiller, 1979) a self-rated version measured the psychological well-being/mental health of the participants. It has four subscales: somatic symptoms (subscale A1-A7), anxiety and insomnia (subscale B1-B7), social dysfunction (subscale C1-C7) and severe depression (subscale D1-D7). The subscales represent dimensions of symptoms rather than distinct diagnosis and depend on each other. We used the binary method of scoring for this study, only pathological deviations indicated a significant response; scores of "not at all" and "no more than usual" were scored 0, and scores of "rather more than usual" and

"much more than usual" were scored 1. Overall scores above 4 and 2 in any of the subscale indicated the presence of a distress or caseness, respectively. Idemudia (2011) reported a test-retest reliability of 0.90 among HIV/AIDs & Cancer patients in South Africa. Gureje and Obikoya (1990), Aderibigbe and Gureje (1992) validated GHQ in Nigeria. In addition, G.H.Q. and Assessment Schedule (P.A.S) showed a positive correlation of 10.88.

*Section C:* Weathers, Litz, Herman, Huska, and Keane (1993) developed the self-report scale, PTSD Checklist (PCL Civilian version) for rating DSM-III-R PTSD symptoms. It consists of 17-items that reflect 17 DSM-III-R criteria rated on a five-point severity scale as follows, Not at all = 1, A little bit = 2, Moderately = 3, Quite a bit = 4, Extremely = 5. A total score of 44 and above indicated PTSD. The scale has three areas of DSM-IV PTSD symptoms; re-experiencing symptoms (items 1-5), emotional avoidance symptoms (items 6-12); and hyperarousal symptoms (13-17). PCL has good test-retest reliability (0.96) and moderate concurrent validity as indicated by a kappa of 0.64 for PTSD. Ruggiero, Del Ben, Scotti and Rabalais (2003) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients (.94, .85, .85, and .87) for the PCL total, re-experiencing, avoidance, and hyperarousal scores, respectively) were indicative of high internal consistency.

### *Statistics*

The data obtained were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 16 (SPSS-16). We used descriptive statistics to analyse the summarised data, assessed associations between categorical variables with Chi-square test, and used Pearson correlation to assess the relationship between psychological well-being and PTSD (statistical significance set at  $p = 0.5$ , two-tailed). The independent variables included diagnosis of PTSD, age, gender, marital status and risk factors for PTSD and psychological well-being a dependent variable

**Results**

*Table I shows socio-demographic characteristics of the participants and risk factors for PTSD*

	PTSD NEGATIVE N (%)	PTSD POSITIVE N (%)		
<b>1.</b> Gender				
Male	117 (59.9%)	24 (54.5%)	.682	.738 (ns)
Female	85 (42.1%)	20 (45.5%)		
<b>2.</b> Marital status				
Single	181 (90%)	35 (87.5%)	.000	.000
Married	16 (8.0%)	3 (7.5%)		
Divorced	2 (1.0%)	1 (2.5%)		
Widow/widower	0 (0%)	1 (2.5%)		
<b>3.</b> History of physical abuse				
No	171 (85.1%)	34 (77.3%)	.205	.258 (ns)
Yes	30 (14.9%)	10 (22.7%)		
<b>4.</b> History of early separation				
No	175 (85.1%)	38 (86.4%)	.901	1.00 (ns)
Yes	26 (12.9)	6 (13.6%)		
<b>5.</b> History of sexual abuse				
No	194 (97.0%)	38 (86.4%)	.003	.010
Yes	6 (3.0%)	6 (13.6%)		
<b>6.</b> History of child neglect				
No	191(96.0%)	37 (88.1%)	.040	.055 (ns)
Yes	8 (4.0%)	5 (11.9%)		
<b>7.</b> History of substance use:				
No	188(94.0%)	38 (86.4%)	.079	.106 (ns)
Yes	12 (6.0%)	6 (13.6%)		
<b>8.</b> Family history of mental illness:				
No	191 (96.5%)	34 (77.3%)	.000	.000
Yes	7 (3.5%)	10 (22.7%)		

Significant at < .05

Two hundred and forty-six students (24 (54.6%) males and 20 (45.5%) females) participated in the study. Forty-four (17.8%) had a current DSM-IV diagnosis of PTSD. Thirty-five (87.5%) were single, 3 (7.5%) married, 1 (2.5%) divorced, and 1

(2.5%) widow/widower. Only three risk factors: history of sexual abuse ( $\chi^2 = .000$ ,  $P = .000$ ), mental illness ( $\chi^2 = .000$ ,  $P = .000$ ), and being single ( $\chi^2 = .000$ ,  $P = .000$ ) that correlated significantly with PTSD (Table I).

*Table II shows relationship between PTSD and Psychological well-being.*

<b>PTSD</b>	1.179	.384	.638	245	.000
<b>Psychological well-being</b>	1.289	.454			

Significant at < .05

Significant relationship exist between PTSD and psychological well-being ( $r = .638$ ;  $df = 245$ ;  $P = .000$ ) (Table II).

*Discussion*

The prevalence of 17.8% for PTSD among undergraduate students in Maiduguri failed to support rates of 22% among Nigerian army veterans (Okulate & Jones, 2006) and

26.7% among road traffic accident (RTA) victims (Iteke et al., 2011). Breslau et al. (1998) found violent assault as the highest risk for PTSD. Residents of Maiduguri recently experienced/witnessed violence and traumatic events, Boko Haram activists attacked and killed many people. Sampling bias may explain the low rate of PTSD in the present study.

Contrary to the findings of Breslau et al. (1998), gender (female sex) showed an insignificant relationship with PTSD. The Islamic activists targeted and assaulted people indiscriminately without any regard for women. The suggested risk factors for PTSD in our sample, in addition to violence included perceived social support and family instability (Fontana et al. (1997); King et al. (1996)).

Our study found a significant relationship between marital status (single/never married) and PTSD, similar to the finding of Kessler et al. (1995) that marital status (previously married but separated, divorced or widowed) was a risk factor for PTSD. Three-quarters (73.6%) of the participants in this study were adolescents/young adults, single/never married and most likely without emotional and social support.

Family history of mental illness and sexual abuse correlated significantly with PTSD, similar to the findings of Kessler et al. (1995), Busari (2010) and Breslau (1998) who reported rates of 65% for men and 46% for women, 42.1% for sexual assault, respectively. In addition, Breslau et al. (1998) reported an association between PTSD with violent assault (including rape) and parental psychopathology. Furthermore, True et al. (1993) reported a rate of 30% for PTSD symptoms with genetic basis, and Davidson et al. (1985) found that trauma survivors with PTSD had parents and first-degree relatives with mood, anxiety and substance abuse compared with trauma survivors without PTSD. Some of the participants in our sample might have experienced sexual abuse because of the civil crises in Maiduguri.

History of physical abuse, early separation from parent, child neglect and substance abuse had insignificant relationship with PTSD in this study. This finding disagreed with findings of Kessler et al. (1995), and Breslau et al. (1998) who found an association between physical abuse and adverse childhood experience and PTSD. Similarly, Kulka et al. (1990) reported comorbidity between substance abuse and PTSD. However, Mueser et al. (2001) opined that factors such as coping mechanism, competence, personality disorder, and social support intervene in the disorder.

The present study found an association between PTSD and psychological well-being of the participants, in agreement with findings of Keane and Wolfe (1990), and Zatzick et al. (1997) who reported that symptoms of PTSD correlated significantly with a wide range of psychological distress, psychiatric comorbidity and poor quality of life.

#### *Conclusion*

In this preliminary cross-sectional study, we selected students (about 75% of them adolescents/young adults and never married/single) using a purposive (non-probability) sampling technique, based on the assumption that University of Maiduguri attracts students all over Nigeria. Therefore, results of the present study are not generalizable to the rest of north-eastern Nigeria or the country. Future studies should assess the prevalence of PTSD in the community and explore the relationship between genes/hereditary and PTSD.

This preliminary study despite its limitations contributes to the data on PTSD in Nigeria, and provide basis for asking governments, NGOs and Health Care Providers (HCP) to assist in the treatment (psychosocial interventions/drugs) and prevention of PTSD.

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## **An Empirical Description of Political Thuggery and Democratization in Kogi State Nigeria, 2003 – 2010**

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This study examined political thuggery and democratization process in Kogi State from 2003-2010. The introductory part this paper examined the ethics and tenets of democratic governance and politics which revolve around mass participation and free choice of representatives by the people. Political ethics is concerned with organizing and controlling the distribution of public goods in the society and regulation of social relations to produce peace, justice and harmony among people of a given State. Both primary and secondary sources of data collection method were explored with the administration of 1,600 questionnaires out which 1500 were returned and analyzed. The package used for data analysis was the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This package made it easier to list the frequencies of different responses and calculate the mean, percentage and standard deviation. The decision rule adopted in this study was such that a response with a mean score of 3.0 and above was taken to have positive effect while any response with a mean score below 3.0 was taken as having negative effect and inconsequential. The paper identified the fact that the political attitude and behaviour of the operators of democracy in Kogi State failed to conform to democratic ethics and tenets. It recommended among others that politicians and all political office seekers should desist from the usage of thugs to win election so as to enable the political process remain democratic and that the National Assembly should enact a law prohibiting thuggery in Nigeria. Such law should make thuggery a treasonable offence.

*Keywords:* Political Thuggery, Democratization

In the submission of Ugbaje (2007), after a trial of many forms of government across nations of the world, many scholars and philosophers have come to the conclusion that democracy is the best form of government. These individuals in the analysis of Richard Rorty (1979) in Kaufman-Osborn (2000), includes the three most important (democratic) philosophers of the twentieth century- Ludwig Wittgenstein, Martin Heidegger, and John Dewey. This conclusion was based on the fact that it is only in democracy that the masses can take their destiny in their own hands by representative democracy which gives room for effective mass participation in decision making in government. Representative democracy in the context of our discussion in this paper refers to a situation where the masses (populace)

freely select or elect their representatives at the various levels of government to speak for, and act on behalf of the electorates. Free selection or election is the hallmark of democracy. It is the belief in this principle of free selection or election that makes democracy as opined by Arinze-Ogwu (2008) to become so popularized all over the world to the extent that it is unquestionable in its essence and only discussable in its variety. Hence, the political options open to individuals and nation states today are simply not between democracy and other forms. Odimegwu (2007) observed that in spite of all the flaws inherent in democracy, it still remains the best form of government for Nigeria in the midst of all known and tried options as it engenders goodwill and raises humanity to higher level.

The qualities that set democracy apart from other forms of political system in the words of Odimegwu (2007) include freedom of expression, equality before the law, respect for, and protection of fundamental human rights of the citizenry. Thus, most democrats have asserted that there is a positive relationship between democracy (in the real sense of the word) and development. This results from conceiving democracy broadly as any system that enhances the general well being of the people by enamoring them with some basic civil and political freedoms (Chukwuokolo, 2007). Modern economists of development have also argued that certain basic preconditions of development are created by democratic regimes. Such preconditions include legal and contractual superstructure, freedom and enforceable property right. Democracy therefore brings about credible machinery for execution of the rule of law which will engender development. Democracy is adjudged as a political system that has inbuilt mechanisms for accountability and democratic checks and balances.

Having examined thus far how democracy can contribute to socio-economic and political development of a nation, it is however germane to note that these democratic ethics and tenets could be realized only when the polity is allowed to properly democratize. Democratization of the polity simply refers to a situation where the people (masses) are allowed to freely elect or select their representatives in accordance with democratic ethics and principles.

It is however disheartening to note that in many states in Nigeria (and particularly in Kogi State), democratic processes have been obstructed, marred, frustrated and scuttled by the activities of political thugs. The activities of political thugs pose a serious threat to democracy in Nigeria and Kogi State in particular as the legitimacy of the state and local government elections which took place in 2003 and 2007 respectively have been put to question due to activities of thugs during the elections. The situation, as analysts observed, has reached a point where democratic processes and governance seem

to lack principles and ethics. The state of affairs, if continued unchecked, may mar future general elections and could lead to a state of lawlessness, anarchy and underdevelopment. Politics and democracy have their ethics. Political and democratic ethics naturally revolve around political behaviours or actions that are in keeping with what could be judged to be good in promoting human life and the well-being of the society (Ekpo 2007).

Any democratic process that negates those principles mentioned above is not only anti-democratic, but could be classified as political terrorism. A close observation of the activities of thugs in the political process in Nigeria and particularly in Kogi State since 2003 to 2010 will make one to conclude that the state in particular is facing a political terrorism.

The activities of political thugs in Nigeria and Kogi State have not only seriously destabilized and destroyed the fundamental political structures in the state but have also created tension, lawlessness and political apathy. In view of the foregoing backdrop, this paper examined the extent to which political thuggery has affected the democratization process and development of Kogi State in particular from 2003 to 2010 with a view to proffering workable solutions that could lead to proper democratization of the polity which can bring about development.

#### *Statement of the Problem*

There is a common belief that in a democratic arrangement, sovereignty (supposedly) resides in the masses who delegate their powers to a person (representative) or a group of persons (representatives) who is or /are to exercise such powers on the behalf of the people for the common good.

However, in Kogi State politics, the concept of power has no concern for ethical or moral behaviour because moral bankruptcy is rooted in the acquisition of power and this has given negative conception to political power. Hence, political power in Kogi State as some parts of Nigeria is all about gain and the capacity to control and dominate and not for the maintenance of law and order and

promotion of common good. The democratic process in Nigeria, and in particular Kogi State can be referred to what Awa (1997), described as pseudo/totalitarian democracy. Pseudo-totalitarian democracy according to Awa (1997) defiles or abhors checks and balances; sovereign power is exercised by the person in power over the people and he uses this absolute power to oppress the people and suppress any perceived opposition (Awa 1997).

The above situation aptly describes the democratic process in Kogi State, especially from 2003 - 2010 as the government used thugs to oppress and suppress the people and impose unpopular candidates and unpopular decisions on the masses. The situation is so battered that right from party primaries to general elections the democratic processes have been hijacked by the thugs to the point that the people (electorate) have become so frustrated and many people have become politically alienated. This situation, if continued, will degenerate to the state of anarchy as in many parts of Kogi State there had been politically motivated killings, arsons and in some places political terrorism.

This study is therefore out to address the following problems;

- Why has political thuggery become dominant in the political scene of Kogi State?
- In what way has the activities of political thugs affected the democratization process in Kogi State?
- What are the effects of political thuggery on socio-economic and political development of the state?
- What remedial measures are feasible to overcome the problem of political thuggery and enthrone people-oriented democracy in Kogi State?

#### *Objectives of the study*

The broad objective of this study is to examine the effects of political thuggery on democratization process and socio-economic development of Kogi State especially from 2003 to 2010. More specifically the study shall:

- Identify the causes of political thuggery in Kogi State politics.
- Examine the effects of political thuggery on the democratization process in Kogi State.
- Determine the effects of political thuggery on socio-economic development of the State.
- Proffer workable solutions to overcome political thuggery and institutionalize democratic processes that can lead to sustainable democracy and development.

#### *Significance of the study*

The study is theoretically and empirically significant. From the theoretical point of view, the study will serve as a very useful reference material to students and researchers in this and other related fields. Theoretically too, the study has added another volume to the existing literature/information on this topical issue. From the empirical perspective, the study is significant, especially to policy makers as it will help them to formulate appropriate policies that can put a stop to political thuggery and institute a true democratic process in the Nigerian polity and Kogi state in particular. The study will also enable the politicians to know the evil of political thuggery and avoid its usage. The study will equally help to educate those who are recruited as thugs to know the damaging effects of thuggery on their persons and their family and avoid.

#### *Literature Review*

##### *Democracy and democratization process: A Conceptual Analysis*

Democracy is seen as a government that is characterized by the 'general will' of the majority. Thus, democracy is defined as a system of government under which the people exercise the governing power either directly or indirectly through representatives periodically elected or selected by them (Mbaegbu, 2007).

Democracy, according to Ezeugwu (2007), connotes popular participation by the people not only in exercising the right to vote but also the right to run the affairs of the state directly or through their elected representatives. Ezeugwu further observed

that a flaw in the electoral system diminishes or reduces this vital ingredient which most often turns democracy into a mere slogan since the people are alienated.

Pericles, the great Athenian statesman in Ezeugwu (2007), defined democracy in the following terms:

Our constitution is named democracy because it is in the hands not of the few but of the many. But our laws secure equal justice for all in their private duties and our public opinion welcomes and honours talent in every branch of achievement ....on ground of excellence alone our citizens attend both public and private duties and do not allow absorption in their various affairs to interfere with their knowledge of the city's .... We decide or debate, carefully and in person all matters of policy, holding .... That acts are foredoomed to failure when undertaken undiscussed.

The definition of democracy by Pericles brings out the following cardinal points of democracy.

- Government by the people with the full and direct participation of the people;
- Equality before the law;
- Respect for talents, pursuits and view points;
- Respect for a separate and private (as opposed to public) domain for fulfillment and expression of an individual personality.

The above principles remained the defining characteristics of democracy despite whatever cultural or ideological tinges that may be imposed on it. That is why Udebunu (2007) observed that in democracy, liberty is the ground on which the people lay claim to government. Noting that although there can be nuances in the world's democracies, it is generally a government in which power and civil responsibilities are exercised by all citizens directly or through their freely elected representatives. The foregoing statement by Udebunu corroborates the cardinal principles of democracy as enunciated by Pericles. However, the history of democratic process in Nigeria, according to Izunwa (2007) is but a res'ume of incidences of

hydra-headed problem which include ethnic politics, electoral malpractices, injustices in resources allocation, and political thuggery. These factors and others conspire to mar the democratic process in Nigeria. Among the various factors that impinge on the democratic process in Nigeria, according to Izunwa (2007), thuggery is considered one of the major debilitating. The activities of thugs cripple democratic choice and subsequently shrink democratic space. This often creates serious electoral and governance problems.

Another major factor militating against democratic process in Nigeria as literatures revealed, is over monetization of electoral process and political offices. Excessive use of money in the electoral process can dilute or compromise genuine expression of the popular will as the individual or party that has money gains undue advantage over the one or individual that has no money. This situation, according to the Transition Monitoring Group (TMG 2002), is a negation of the cardinal principles of genuine democratic process, which stipulates that every individual shall have the right to vie for elective public office without any unreasonable encumbrances calculated to frustrate the individual.

#### *Political Thuggery and Democratic Process*

Political thuggery has been described as the use of private army or any form of illegal forces and dangerous weapons to intimidate oppress and suppress potential or perceived political opponents and their supporters in order to have upper hand in an election. Political thuggery according to Agba (2010), is a political behaviour characterized by violence, fighting and attacks on political opponents and their supporters so as to create room for rigging in an election. Hence, Human Rights Watch, (2006), observed that political thuggery could result in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, deprivation and under-development.

Political thuggery has become so entrenched in the Nigerian polity, especially since 2003 to the extent that thugs have been tagged with some local names in various parts of the country. The various

names for thugs in different parts of the country according to Kushee (2008) include: *ECOMOG* in Borno State; *Yankolare* in Gombe; *Yan Sara Saka* in Bauchi; *Yandaba* in Kano; Sokoto state calls them *Area Boys*, while in Katsina and Kaduna, they are *Kawaye* (Kushee, 2008). In Kogi State, they are known as *Boys* (Kehinde 2009) in Ugbaje (2009).

Political thuggery has taken obnoxious and dangerous dimensions that pose a great threat to democracy in Nigeria. Political thuggery in Nigeria has degenerated to the point that ethnic, religious and regional tensions have become wide-spread in the country. The Human Rights Watch (2006) observed that episode of violence that are ethnic or religious on the surface are often caused by competition for political and economic influence, in a country where politics is seen as one of the few avenues to wealth and comfort. Human Rights Watch also noted that thugs commit heinous political crimes with impunity because no punishment had been given to thugs who commit any form of crime. This situation, as noted by Human Rights Watch, arose from the fact that influential politicians who sponsor thugs always intervene any time any thug is arrested by the police for any criminal act, Human Rights Watch (2006). This situation has made thugs to commit many heinous crimes such as killing, arson, maiming, intimidation and threat with all impunity. For instance in Kogi State, the situation has degenerated to a point that almost all political appointments, contracts, and even core civil service employments are directed and manipulated by the thugs (Ugbaje 2009). The situation in Kogi State as Ugbaje (2009) noted has reached its apogee where the thugs have penciled down themselves for the various political posts in the 2011 general elections.

Political thugs manifest their ugly and obnoxious activities in the electoral process of the three tiers of government in Nigeria. During election to various offices in the three tiers of government in 2007, thuggery manifested and marred the democratic process. The activities of thugs during elections according to Kushee (2008) include snatching of ballot boxes and voters cards, falsification of results, and large

scale voter intimidation. The dimension of political thuggery at all levels of government in Nigeria was acknowledged by Polygreen (2006), when he observed that nowhere in Nigeria's democracy is in deeper trouble than at the state and local government levels where the most bruising contests for power takes place in a bloody winner-takes-all system in which the voters are all but superfluous. The activities of thugs acknowledged by Polygreen include killing, assassination, blackmail, and kidnapping.

Other dimensions of thuggery acknowledged by Ekpo (2007) include recklessness, lack of courtesy and moral bankruptcy which threatens the polity. The Human Rights Watch, (2006) noted that there are numerous instances of violence threats to human life spearheaded by political thugs for the purpose of controlling power. Such instances reported by Human Right Watch (2006), include (but not limited to) the attack on Umaru Danmaliki in 2002 at Sokoto, the assassination of Marshal Harry an ANPP Vice Chairman for the South-south zone in Abuja in 2003, the attack on the then presidential candidate of the National Conscience Party, Gani Fawehenmi (late) in 2003, the assassination of Bola Ige (the then Attorney General) in his residence at Ibadan, and the murder of Funsho Williams, the then Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) gubernatorial candidate in Lagos in 2006, and a host of others. The dimension in which thuggery has penetrated into the political terrain of the country has some debilitating effects on the democratic process and development if continued unchecked.

#### *Development of Political Thuggery in Nigeria*

The development of political thuggery in Nigeria, and indeed Africa, is linked to the liberal democracy which is characterized by the wellbeing of the majority based on individualist and liberal ideology which encourages despotism and tyranny of the majority where self-interest (as against communal) predominates. Liberal democracy, according to Onyibor, (2007) encourages politicians to play *majoritarian* politics, (that is, the view that minority may have their say, but the majority must have its way). Onyibor further observed that

liberal democracy in Africa is a mere ideological slogan used to foster the views and ideas of dominant groups and the economic interest of the few. The majoritarian politics in the Nigerian context is what Onyibor described as 'monetary majoritarian', that is, people with wealth always make their views to dominate irrespective of the views of the majority (masses). Thus, political thuggery has its root from struggle for power and domination. The history of political thuggery and violence in Nigeria dates back to the colonial and post colonial eras; occasioned by struggle for supremacy.

In the First Republic, various political crises erupted in the polity. During these crises, the services of thugs were employed by politicians to outwit their opponents (Mbaegbu, 2007). Some of such political crises outlined by Mbaegbu included the Western Nigeria Crisis of 1962, 1963 Census Crisis, the 1964 General Election Crisis, and the Western Regional Election Crisis of 1965 which later culminated into the 1966 military intervention. In each of these crises, the services of thugs were employed by the politicians.

The Second Republic of 1979 – 1983 also witnessed some form of political crises and usage of thugs to perpetuate heinous and dastard acts against oppositions and perceived political enemies. This situation terminated the Second Republic and General Babangida ushered the country into the Third Republic. In the Third Republic, military junta sponsored thuggery was dominant. The military regime of General Ibrahim Babangida unleashed terror by the usage of thugs on perceived enemies which included the assassination of Dele Giwa (Ogunmola, 2006). Under the leadership of General Sani Abacha, Government sponsored thuggery predominated the affairs of the regime. The activities of government thugs such as Sgt Rogger and his cohorts, who killed, maimed and hunted perceived enemies of General Abacha were pointers to the assertion (Ogunmola, 2006). The death of General Sani Abacha in 1998 terminated regime of terror and despotism. General Abdulsalami Abubakar who emerged conducted successful general elections and handed

over power to a civilian President, Olusegun Obasanjo in May, 1999.

The assumption of duty by Obasanjo in May 1999 institutionalized political thuggery. Obasanjo regime introduced what Ekpo (2007) called, 'totalitarian or pseudo-democracy' which abhorred checks and balances. Human Rights Watch (2006) reported that political violence in Nigeria occasioned by the use of thugs did not allow the democratic process to evolve. Human Rights Watch further reported that the political violence in democratic campaign in October 2000, in Gusau, Zamfara State where four people were killed and nineteen critically injured during a clash between the then All Peoples Party (APP) and People's Democratic Party (PDP) supporters were typical examples of the usage of political thugs to perpetuate violence. Similar report was also made in Kwara State where conflicts between Governor Mohammed Lawal and his former boss, Olusola Saraki led to the killing of Ahmed Pategi, the then chairman of ANPP. This also led to killings and counter killings among the supporters of Mohammed Lawal and Olusola Saraki (HRW, 2006).

In Kogi State, political violence has claimed many lives, and properties worth billions of naira destroyed especially in Kogi Central (Ahmed 2009). Similar incident took place in Kogi East Senatorial District during 2007 general elections (Ahmed 2009). The Human Rights Watch (2006) cautioned that the danger of political clashes will not necessarily subside after elections. Therefore, the Nigerian government was advised to take serious steps to bolster Nigerians' confidence in the electoral system and thereby prevent the post-election phase from degenerating into a period of violent protest and revenge in response to perceived electoral injustices. Reports have shown that many ethnic and regional clashes and violence such as Jos Crisis of 2009/2010 have political undertone (Human Rights Watch, 2009).

#### *Causes of Political Thuggery in Nigeria*

Many factors have been adduced as responsible for the existence of thugs and thuggery which are situated in the socio-economic and political environment of

Nigeria. From the social point of view, the social gap between the political office holders and the rest members of the society creates room for most people to seek for political office at all cost.

Therefore, in Nigeria, public political offices have been seen as the only easiest way for someone to change his/her social status. Hence, most political office seekers *have taken politics as seek you first political kingdom, and all other wealth shall be added unto you*. Thus, political office seekers employ the services of thugs to enable them get to office and loot public treasury for wealth accumulation and status boosting (Agba, 2010). That is why Olusanya (2004) observed that, until Nigerians stop using political offices as business, politics of thuggery and violence will not stop. Politics of Zero-sum competition has been adduced as one of the factors responsible for political thuggery in the country. Zero-sum competition politics, according to Ahmed (2009), is a political arrangement where the winner takes all the benefits accruable to political offices at the expense of other competitors. This situation, as Ahmed observed, does not create room for all inclusive government as parties that loose electrons go into oblivion with their numerous supporters. This state of affairs makes political competition very stern and a 'do or die' affair.

Ifechukwu (2007) observed that, there are several African peculiar factors that challenge democratic development in Nigeria. Therefore from the economic angle, poverty and unemployment have been adduced as some of the economic factors responsible for thuggery in Nigeria. Ezeugwu (2007) noted that political thuggery receives a boost because of the large army of unemployed youths who are ready to be lured for a fee. Ezeugwu further observed that because of the large scale poverty, youths have organized themselves into cult groups ready to be recruited by any person who may want their services. For instance, in Kogi State, Ahmed (2009) observed that because thuggery has become a means of livelihood and survival, many youths have organized themselves for that purpose and ready to be aligned or attached to one political office holder or the other for any fee or reward.

According to Ekpo (2007), thuggery in Nigerian polity is essentially a reflection of general indiscipline which plagues the society. He observed that the general indiscipline among the political elite is responsible for the prevalence of thuggery. He further noted that the ideals and virtues of democracy are still very strange to the political practitioners and that it is only when politicians abandon individual interest and pursues the course for common good that the ideals of democracy can be attained in Nigeria and the use of thugs eliminated.

In the views of Oladimeji (2008), the cause of present ugly experience in Nigerian politics emerged from the impact of colonialism which made Africans to abandon their traditional values (communalism) to embrace the western culture of individualism, and from humanism to materialism. Oladimeji further observed that it is a combination of excessive materialism and uncontrolled crave for wealth acquisition that the traditional value of being a 'brother's keeper' disappeared into oblivion, while greed, avarice, dishonesty, ruthlessness, and thuggery become the order of the day. In the same vein, Onyibor (2007) argued that for liberal democracy in Africa to work for the good of the society and development, it must be based on African traditional ontology which is centered on peaceful coexistence and communalism.

Other writers such as Oladimeji (2008) and Inajoh (2009) have argued that thuggery triumphed because those in position of authorities have not seen it as a social problem and have not come out categorically to find social solution to the menace. The triumph of thuggery, especially in Kogi State as pointed by Inajoh (2009) emanated from the fact that the government in power in the state believes that it derives its power and legitimacy from the thugs. This singular belief, according to Inajoh, has made the government to rely on thugs in every activity as they become the major contractors of government and also dominate in virtually all political appointments. This state of affairs strengthens and institutionalizes thuggery.

*Consequences of Political Thuggery on Socio-Economic and Political Development*

The activities of political thugs have negative consequences on political, social, economic and cultural development of Nigeria. On the political scene, thuggery does not allow democracy to thrive in Nigeria. As explained by Locke, a government can continue to rule a people only if it pays heed to their wishes. He concluded that if the acts of government are contrary to the interest of the community as a whole (such as sponsoring thuggery), it is possible for the people to change the government without destroying the continuity of the unity of the society itself. In the words of St. Thomas Aquinas (1225 - 74) in Ajayi (2008), no man can make himself Emperor or King (as no man makes himself president or governor), a people sets a man over it to the end that he may rule justly, giving to every man his own; aiding good men and coercing bad; in short, that he may give justice to all men, if then he violates the agreement according to which he was chosen disturbing and confounding the very things which he is meant to put in order, reason dictates that he absolves the people from their obedience: and if he failed to fulfill his implied pact with his people he ceased to deserve that the pact should be kept by the people. The above statement aptly describes the political affairs in Nigeria and Kogi State in particular since 2003-2010 where the political leaders who ought to be role models violate all laid down rules, regulations and government principles with impunity (Ahmed 2009).

Socially, thuggery encourages, perpetuates and institutionalizes social indiscipline, social malaise and disorder. Ajayi (2008) noted that political thuggery in Kogi State has dangerously destroyed the youths as they no longer have respect for the elders and any constituted authority. Ajayi further observed that if the situation continues unabated it will result in the state of lawlessness and anarchy which will pose great threat to democracy and development. As noted by Omale (2009), the positive reinforcement received by thugs by those in political powers has negative social implications on Nigerian youths as it gives them wrong value system and wrong

political socialization/orientation which portends danger for the political and socio-economic development of the country. Since thuggery has become a lucrative business, youths no longer think of going to school to acquire formal knowledge, rather many young men who would have sought for formal knowledge are busy joining one political thuggery organization or the order making Nigeria and Kogi State insecure (Omale, 2009).

In the economic sphere, political thuggery constitutes set back to the economic development of the nation. As reported by the Human Rights Watch (2006), it was noted that political thuggery and violence constitute great stigma to Nigeria internationally as Nigeria's international business partners found Nigeria as an insecure place for business investment. In similar vein, Attah (2008) observed that political thuggery has negatively affected economic development of Kogi State as frequent clashes among political thugs in Ejule town (which hosts the largest market in Kogi State) has made many business-men/women to desert the market. He noted that Ejule which is the commercial nerve centre of Kogi East has become a place where many people could no longer go for business activities because of the terror unleashed to unsuspected victims by the activities of thugs. In Kogi Central, Onavi (2008) observed that many local government areas, notably among which are Okene and Adavi, have suffered economic retardation since 2003 due to the frequent clashes among political thugs thugs which have claimed many lives, many houses burnt, properties destroyed and many homes deserted. He further noted that even travelers fear to travel along the road because of the terror of thugs. Business activities have paralyzed because many shops have been burnt down or vandalized and many business owners have deserted their businesses (Onavi, 2008). The same situation was also reported in Anyigba, the commercial centre and University town in Kogi East. The activities of thugs in Anyigba, according to Omale (2009), can be compared with terrorism in US of September 11, 2001 as some group of thugs referred to as "Osama"

frequently come to terrorize the town, kill, maim and vandalize. These in the view of Ebiloma (2009) constitute a great setback to economic activities of the state and the nation at large.

Okolobia (2006) asserted that, there are so many alien cultures which have influenced the conducts of citizens of the third world countries. Culturally, the activities of political thugs are alien and have impacted negatively on cultural development of the Nigerian people. Culture relates to the totality of life of a people. Culture within specific society consists of values and norms which are guides and standards that influence the behaviour of members of the society. Thus value system defines what is important, worthwhile and worth striving for in a society (Ojomah, 2005).

One major change in African culture and value system according to Ojomah is in the area of communal life system, where people are their 'brothers' keepers'. He noted that this cultural value system has been jettisoned by the activities of political thugs in the Nigerian polity. Apart from communal life style, African cultural value also acknowledges respect for the dignity of human person.

This sacred cultural value has been ignored by thugs as killing of human beings is done with reckless abandon (Human Rights Watch, 2006). Other dimensions of political thuggery which affect African cultural value system include kidnapping, gender abuses, and disrespect for elders and constituted authority etc. This situation, if not curbed on time, will lead to a state of terror and portends danger to the political and social development of the country.

*Political Thuggery and Democratic Dividends*  
Events in the Nigerian polity and particularly in Kogi State since 2003 have shown that the government has not been able to adequately deliver the dividends of democracy to the masses. This is as result of many factors, which political thuggery is one. The activities of political thugs have created a big gulf between the citizenry and the government. The situation according to Ugbaje (2007) is such that the domination of thugs in the corridors of power in Kogi

State does not allow the people to have access to the government as they (thugs) have 'shielded' the government from the people. Corroborating the above, Attah (2008) observed that the occupation of political thugs in government house in Kogi State prevents the electorate from having access to government and put their demands across to the government to enable them have the dividends of democracy. The state of affairs, as Attah noted, is so pathetic and frustrating that any group of people that wants to visit the government house must be subjected to the 'approval' of the political thugs who may or may not allow such group access to the government to present their demands.

The above situation has led to the poor performance of government in the delivery of democratic dividends to the people. For the most parts, the Nigerian public feels that they have failed to see the expected democracy dividends and they are increasingly critical of government, ambivalent about the democratic regime, and divided about the future direction of the economy (Agba, 2010). The state of affairs described by Agba aptly speaks for Kogi State as the electorates are becoming more frustrated and disenchanted with democratic governance.

#### *Theoretical Framework*

According to Ojokwu (2000), theoretical framework involves linking the problem being investigated to the assumptions, postulations and principles of a given or chosen theory. Theoretical framework therefore provides legitimacy to a research being undertaken.

In the same development, the theoretical framework adopted in this study, is the Learning Theory as propounded by Rapaport (1967). Learning theory, according to Rapaport is defined as the selective accumulation of behaviour patterns which makes a learner to come out different from whom he was. Accumulation, according to Rapaport (1967), refers to the fact that the learner comes out of learning process with something (new) which he does not have when he goes in, and that is 'behaviour patterns and dispositions or associations' between stimuli and responses.

Learning theory according to Alans (1975), assumes that two ways account for stimulus-response connections. The first which is called association theory assumes that people learn through observing or experiencing associations or relationships of various kinds. A typical example is child-parent association relationships. Admittedly, Bandura, & Walters (1963) said, a child watches his parents behave or react to situations and thus learns to behave in similar manner.

Linking the foregoing to political behaviour, it can be deduced that the youths (young ones in a country) observe the political activities of the older ones (who employ them as thugs), listen to their political discourse, and become aware of their political attitude. If the older ones believe in the use of violence and political fraud to win elections (and make use of the youths to actualize their aims), because of the observed relationship, it is natural for the youths to think and assume that politics and struggle for political power cannot be divorced from violence and fraud – which is the political attitude they have learnt from their older ones (their political mentors) (Merelman, 1996).

The second part of Learning Theory, according to Dollard et al (1941), assumes that a connection between stimulus and response usually requires reinforcement. Reinforcement theory argues that people learn to make certain connections when they are rewarded (positive reinforcement) and not to make others when the result is punishment, (negative reinforcement). The learning-reinforcement theory is very relevant to the discourse of political behaviour of thugs in Kogi State. The positive reinforcement which the thugs have received from their political god-fathers and mentors (in form of political appointment, contract works etc) has made thuggery a lucrative business in Nigeria (and Kogi State in particular) to the extent that more youths are being selected to join the association on daily basis.

The foregoing analysis reveals that learning theory as employed in this study can be used to explain dispositions, attitudes and behaviours in political arena. It is also a useful theory of general politics

based on stimulus response relationships which could account for political change and political attitude.

Learning theory, as applied in this study, exposes us to the fact that the political attitude the thugs have learnt from the political class (their political mentors) is that of violence and use of force to acquire political power. This gives wrong political socialization to the younger generation as they have come to believe that acquisition of political power is synonymous with violence and use of force. This situation has become so entrenched in the Nigerian political system (and of Kogi State in particular) to the point that the thugs (based on the positive reinforcement they have received from government) have come to propose that since they could be used by the political class to ascend to political power, they could do same to enthrone themselves in the same political positions. That is why in Kogi State, thugs earmarked themselves for various political positions in the 2011 general elections and this actually manifested.

The transmission of this political attitude to the younger generation and the kind of attitudes that are being internalized by the youths being inducted into the political culture of thuggery portends danger for the political development of the State and the nation at large. As noted from this study, the learning theory has made us to understand that political socialization means the acquisition of the basic political orientations by new members of a political system or the process by which people learn to adopt the norms, values, attitudes and behaviours accepted and practiced by the on-going system. The sustainability or otherwise of what has been learnt and internalized in the people and the system is a function of the reinforcement (positive or negative) from the governmental system. This has a prima-facie validity because where the political class makes use of thugs and empowers them (as is the case in Kogi State) thuggery persists but where otherwise, thuggery cannot take root in such a polity.

*Research Questions*

As guides to this study, the following research questions have been posed.

- How does political thuggery impact on democratic process in Kogi State?
- What are the causes of political thuggery in the democratic process in Kogi State?
- What are the effects of political thuggery on socio-economic development and democratic dividends in Kogi State?

**Method**

The major sources of data collection in this study were primary and secondary sources. The primary sources were derived from the information obtained directly from the subjects by the researcher using the instrument of data collection employed in this study. The secondary sources were the information obtained from documented sources such as textbooks, journals, periodicals, internet and other information obtained from the print media.

*Population Frame*

The population frame for this study comprised of the political class all the card carrying members of all registered political parties and the senior civil servants in Kogi State.

*Population Sampling Techniques*

The population sampling techniques used in this study were simple random sampling and multistage sampling techniques. The sampled population was drawn from the population frame used for this study. The sampled population was drawn from the three senatorial districts of the state, (Kogi Central, Kogi East and Kogi West). The

population was drawn from all the card carrying members of all registered political parties in the state. This category of people was selected for this study because of their level of political awareness. For the card carrying members, they constitute the political class in the state and as such they were in a better position to respond to the questions. On the part of the senior civil servants, they constitute the citizen elite class in the state who understand the political dynamics of the state.

*Instrument for Data Collection*

The primary instrument of data collection used in this study was the questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured with multiple choice responses using Liker five (5) point scale of strongly agreed, agreed, undecided, disagreed, and strongly disagreed.

A total of 1,600 copies of questionnaires were administered (with the assistance of twenty-one (21) Research Assistants spread across the three Senatorial Districts) out of which 1,500 were correctly filled and returned. This number therefore formed the basis of analysis in this study.

The package used for data analysis was the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This package made it easier for us to list the frequencies of different responses and calculate the mean, percentage and standard deviation. The decision rule adopted in this study was such that a response with a mean score of 3.0 and above was taken to have positive effect while any response with a mean score below 3.0 was taken as having negative effect and inconsequential.

*Data Presentation and Analysis*

Table 1: Thuggery and Democratic Process

S/No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1	Std	Mean	Decision
1.	Thuggery helps to make electoral process very democratic	50	50	0	200	1200	0.91	1.37	False
2.	Thuggery makes electoral process very undemocratic	1400	0	0	100	0	0.75	4.8	True
3.	Thuggery facilitates mass participation in election	50	0	100	150	1200	1.34	1.75	False
4.	Thuggery allows for free, fair and credible elections	50	0	100	150	1200	0.88	1.37	False
5.	Thuggery paves way for responsible democracy	50	0	50	200	1200	0.83	1.33	False
6.	Thuggery makes way for electoral transparency and integrity.	60	40	0	300	1100	0.94	1.44	False

Table 2: Causes of Thuggery

S/No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1	Std	Mean	Decision
7	Thuggery persists because it is the only viable means to win election	250	150	0	50	1050	1.60	2.0	False
8	Thuggery persists because govt. in power encourages it.	1300	50	0	0	150	1.20	4.57	True
9	Thuggery is encouraged due to mediocrity of the political class	1000	200	0	300	0	1.19	4.27	True
10	Lukewarm attitude of the masses paves way for thuggery .	1200	0	100	0	200	1.40	4.33	True
11	General Societal decadence is responsible for thuggery in Nigeria.	1000	350	100	0	50	0.89	4.50	True
12	Poverty and unemployment contribute to thuggery in the country	1200	0	250	0	50	0.88	4.57	True
13	Thuggery persists because of the inordinate desire to win election	1000	300	0	0	200	1.34	4.27	True
14	Thuggery persists because elections are perceived as zero-sum game (winner takes all affair).	1000	100	0	0	400	1.75	3.87	True
15	Too much money attached to political offices encourages thuggery.	1200	0	50	0	250	1.50	4.27	True
16	Lack of popularity of some political office seekers brings about thuggery.	1000	0	100	0	400	1.75	3.80	True

Table 3. Thuggery and Socio-Economic Life of the State

17	Thuggery contributes positively to economic dev.	100	0	100	0	1300	1.40	1.08	False
18	Thuggery creates insecurity	1200	250	50	0	0	0.50	4.77	True
19	Thuggery creates tension	1300	0	0	200	0	1.02	4.60	True
20	Thuggery constitutes threat to economic activities	1200	250	50	0	0	0.50	4.77	True

Table 4: Thuggery and Dividends of Democracy

S/No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1	std	Mean	Decision
21	Thuggery makes it easy for dividends of democracy to reach the people	0	150	0	50	1300	0.90	1.33	False
22	Thuggery does not allow the masses to get the dividends of democracy	1150	200	0	50	100	1.11	4.50	True
23	Thugs constitute the major contractors of government in the state	1000	100	0	0	400	1.74	3.87	True
24	Thugs dominate in political appointments	1250	200	0	0	50	0.77	4.73	True

### Discussion

The discussion in this part of the paper shall reflect the various statements of the problems stated earlier.

### Thuggery and Democratization Process

The analysis in table 1 revealed that the activities of political thugs in Kogi State have made the political process very undemocratic (93%) of the respondents made this assertion, prevent people from

effectively participating in the elections (66.7%), hinder free and fair elections (80%), mar responsible democracy and above all stultify electoral transparency and integrity (80%). These states of affairs make mockery of the entire electoral and democratic process as the cardinal principles of democracy have been thwarted by the activities of political thugs.

### *Causes of Thuggery*

In table 2, which sought to unearth why thuggery has become dominant in the political scene of Kogi State, the analysis showed that various factors were responsible for the existence of thuggery in the political landscape of Kogi State. Such factors include (and not limited to) the encouragement thugs get from the government in power. This opinion was expressed by 80% of the respondents. Other factors include the fact that the political landscape of the state is dominated by the mediocre (67%), lukewarm attitude of the populace (80%) and the general societal decadence which has resulted in general indiscipline (66.7%); poverty and unemployment (80%) which made youths to be so vulnerable for easy recruitment into thuggery.

Other factors as revealed in the analysis include the inordinate desire by political office seekers to win election at all cost (66.7%), the zero-sum game (winner takes all) syndrome in the Nigerian politics (73%); much money accruable to political offices (80%) and lack of popularity among some political office seekers (66.7%). These factors and others connive to make thuggery a means to an end in the political life in Kogi State. These corroborated Olusanya (2004), and Agba (2009) who opined that until Nigerians stop using political offices as business thuggery will not stop.

### *Thuggery and Socio-Economic Development*

In table 3, the main focus was to determine the effects of political thuggery on socio-economic life of Kogi State. From the analysis, the study revealed that thuggery creates tension (86.7), it also leads to insecurity (80%), and constitutes threat to socio-economic affairs of the country (80%). The revelation in this study also confirms the assertions in literature where it was noted that activities of political thugs have negatively affected economic activities/development of Kogi State (Attah, & Omale 2008).

### *Thuggery and Democratic Dividends*

Table 4 was concerned with effects of political thuggery on the delivery of dividends of democracy to the people of

Kogi State. The analysis revealed that thuggery does not allow the dividends of democracy to reach the majority of the people in Kogi State (76.7%). Thugs dominate in political appointments (83%) and constitute the major contractors of government in the state (66.7%). These affect the delivery of democratic dividends to the masses as masses are alienated and frustrated by the anti-social behaviour of thugs.

### *Findings*

Based on the analysis of this study, the following findings have been made.

- Political thuggery has made political process in Kogi State very undemocratic and this does not augur well for the polity in the present era of global democracy.
- Political thuggery does not allow for free, fair and credible elections. This is a great challenge to the electoral process in Kogi State in the face of Independent Electoral Commission's desire to conduct free, fair and credible elections in the country.
- Thuggery does not pave way for electoral transparency and integrity and therefore mars responsible democracy.
- Thuggery persists because of encouragement thugs receive from the political class, and dominance of mediocre in the political landscape of the state.
- Lukewarm attitude of the masses, general societal decadence, poverty and unemployment, inordinate desire of the politicians, zero-sum game politics, much money accruable to political offices and lack of popularity of some political office seekers are also factors responsible for political thuggery in the state.
- The study also revealed that political thuggery leads to tension, insecurity, and threatens socio-economic development of the state.
- Political thuggery alienates the people and does not allow the masses to have the dividends of democracy and thus makes people to be disenchanted with the entire political process.

### Conclusions and Recommendations

It is no doubt true that democracy is the best form of government. This is based on the fact that democracy creates opportunity for peoples participation in the governing process. However, the practice of democracy in Kogi State falls short of requirements of true democracy. There is little doubt that Kogi State will continue to experience severe devastating political, social and economic development crisis as long as political thuggery and violence persist. Government is the custodian of collective commitment to protect and preserve the instrument of people's authority to ensure peace, justice fairness. Hence, government is solely established for and in the interest of common good. But when the government fails to fulfill its obligation, individuals are left with no choice than to look for alternative coping strategies which may heighten sentiment, culminating into violence, lawlessness and anarchy. Going by the prevailing political situation in Kogi State, if no immediate step is taken to curb it, the government may end up reinforcing structural conditions which may make structural violence inevitable. The situation that could lead to structural violence include deep and widening inequality of life chances, social and economic exclusion of the hardworking and law-abiding citizens, corruption in high places, arbitrariness and condescending state. As remedial measures to overcome political thuggery in Kogi state, the following recommendations have been made.

- Politicians and all political office seekers should desist from the usage of thugs to win election so as to enable the political process to remain democratic.
- The National Assembly should enact a law prohibiting thuggery in Nigeria. Such law should make thuggery a treasonable offence. Any politician that encourages thuggery should be labeled a political terrorist and every penalty meant for terrorism should be applied to such a person. Any person that is found guilty of thuggery should be seen as a terrorist and should be penalized as such.

- The populace in Kogi State is challenged to wake up from their slumber and lukewarm attitude to political matters.

They are advised to wake up from their political slumber and show interest in political issues so that they can demand for their political rights from political office holders. This requires serious political education and awareness for the masses. The determination and commitment of the masses to political matters will make it possible for credible persons to come into politics and phase out the mediocre from dominating the political scene of the state. For the Bible says: *evil triumph because the righteous keep quite*. All stakeholders in the political project of Kogi State are therefore called upon to wakeup to this challenge and the clarion call.

- It is recommended that frantic efforts be made by the Federal government and the Kogi State government to address the general societal decadence such as impunity and insecurity which constitute impediments to socio-economic development of the state.
- It is also recommended that opportunities should be created for all-inclusive governance so as to enable parties that have lost elections to make contributions to state development.
- It is recommended that the Salaries and Wages Commission should as a matter of urgency, review downward salaries and allowances paid to political office holders at all levels of government. This will go a long way to reducing political thuggery and violence.
- It is also recommended that efforts be made by Kogi State Government to create job opportunities for the teeming youths as this will reduce idleness which is an impetus for thuggery recruitment/selection.

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## **Developing the Entrepreneurial Orientation of Owner-Managers of Small and Medium Enterprises in Nigeria**

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Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria have not been able to adequately carry out their traditional and conventional roles as the foundation of indigenous and overall economic development as the case with countries in Europe, America and Asia despite supports by governmental and non-governmental institutions. This is not unconnected to dearth of information on the compositions and potentialities of the entrepreneurial posture of Nigerian SMEs that made designing appropriate interventions relatively difficult. Therefore, this paper primarily provided information on the entrepreneurial orientations (EO) of Nigerian SMEs and how they can be developed and harnessed for SMEs development. Hence, it examined the levels, patterns, strengths and weaknesses in the entrepreneurial orientation of SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria. Multi-stage sampling techniques were adopted in data collection, the data were collected through questionnaire administered on 279 SMEs in Lagos state and Ibadan area of Oyo State, Southwestern Nigeria. The data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The result showed that the SMEs were moderate entrepreneurial oriented and at best, the SMEs are more risk-taker than proactive and least innovative. The paper suggested ways of improving the entrepreneurial orientation and observed that it is a task for all primary stakeholders (government, organised private sector, and multilateral institutions) providing assistance to SMEs in Nigeria.

*Key words:* Entrepreneurial orientation, Small and Medium Enterprises, Owner-managers

The entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is the firm's overall strategic and competitive orientation in its intention to take advantage of opportunities (implying a focus on perceiving and pursuing business opportunities) and to consider new combinations of resources (Stevenson and Gumpert, 1985). The EO concept therefore described a type of behaviour concerns with opportunities and resources utilisation, and it can be pursued in big as well as small and medium enterprises. This entrepreneurial behaviour fuels the engine of change and growth for any economy and the economic outcomes of the small and medium scale enterprises (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996).

The recent studies on entrepreneurial orientation (EO) established that EO has positive relational effect on performance of firms (Dess, Lumpkin and Covin, 1997),

and the dimensional variable innovativeness is the centrepiece of entrepreneurship, hence, industrial development. Despite, the increasing understanding and agreement of results of the positive effect of entrepreneurial orientation on firm's performance, studies on factors affecting performance of Nigerian SMEs largely neglected entrepreneurial orientation as a contributory variable to performance but emphasised the effect of physical resources (land, labour and capital), personal resource (entrepreneur's education) on performance. The entrepreneurship development programs emphasised the teaching of managerial competences of accounting and recordkeeping, human resource management (Nassar, Akindele, Osotimehin and Alarape 2007) at the neglect of promoting entrepreneurial competencies

(Alarape, 2008), particularly, the development and practices of the right entrepreneurial posture.

Therefore, it is not surprising that the SMEs in Nigeria is unable to adequately perform its traditional functions of the leading employer of labour (at least in private sector) as it is the case in countries in America, Europe and Asia. For examples, the SMEs in United States of America are approximately 23 million and they employed more than 50 percent of the private workforce and 60 percent of the total employment (US Bureau of Census, 1991), In Japan about 78 percent, in Latin America about 90 percent, in India about 80 percent. Also, in European Union (EU), small and medium enterprises accounted for 99.8 percent of all companies, 65 percent of the business turnover (Liedholm, McPherson and Chuta 1994) and 80 – 95 percent of total employment (Barrow and Gibbs, 1992), whereas in Nigeria, SMEs provide 20% to 45% of full-time employment and 30% to 50% of rural household income (Debbie Ariyo 2005). In essence the Nigerian SMEs has not been able to adequately carry out their traditional and conventional roles as the foundation of indigenous and overall economic development, the largest employer of labour as it's the case in many countries of Europe, America and Asia.

#### *Research Problem or Objectives of the Research*

The primary issue is, why has SMEs in Nigeria has not been able to take their leading role in economy and adequately carry out their traditional functions of being the watershed of sustainable socio-economic development of promoting indigenous entrepreneurship, employing large share of industrial workforce, aid the development of local technology and reduce rural-urban migration of productive people that would have contributed immensely to the development of rural areas (Burch, 1986; Adebusuyi, 1997) as it is the case with developed and developing countries of America, Europe and Asia, despite various fiscal, monetary and export incentives provided by government. Many reasons have been adduced for the non-encouraging

situation of the SMEs in Nigeria and many scholars have documented financial resources, poor infrastructure, managerial inefficiency, and unnecessary interventions by government as factors affecting SMEs performance (Osotimehin, et al, 2012; Udjo, 2011)

However, the problem is while the governments of these developed countries see their SMEs as crucial to their continued growth and development, the Nigerian government, to put it mildly, does not have concrete idea of the hidden potential that lies within the entrepreneurs of SMEs. In other words, the government do not understand the entrepreneurial posture (i.e. entrepreneurial orientation) of the SMEs not to talk of how to develop it and harness it for sustainable industrial development. Whereas, researches (Covin and Slevin, 1991; Merz, Weber and Laetz 1994; Zahra and Covin, 1995; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Dess, Lumpkin and Covin, 1997) have shown that the nature of entrepreneurial orientation and its dimensional variables of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking are the key to high firm performance. This is because the performance of entrepreneurial orientated firms that take advantage of emerging opportunities is better than the performance of conservative firms (Piore and Sabel, 1984).

Therefore, the primary goal of the paper is to shed light on the hidden entrepreneurial potentials of Nigerian SMEs and how these can be developed and harness for SMEs development in Nigeria. Towards achieving this goal, in specific terms the objectives are:

- to examine levels of entrepreneurial orientation of SMEs in Nigeria
- analyse the patterns of entrepreneurial orientation exhibited by the SMEs
- highlights the strength and weaknesses of the SMEs as it relates to their entrepreneurial orientation
- Based on the findings, recommend ways to enhance their entrepreneurial orientation and harness it for SMEs development in Nigeria.

### *Literature Review*

Scholars have described the term entrepreneurial orientation differently. Entrepreneurial orientation has been used to describe the set of personal psychological traits, values, attributes, and attitudes strongly associated with a motivation to engage in entrepreneurial activities (McClelland, 1962; Dunkelberg and Cooper, 1982; Hornaday and Aboud, 1971; Timmons, 1978). Entrepreneurial orientation is a firm-level construct (Covin and Slevin, 1991) that is closely linked to strategic management and the strategic decision making process (Birkinshaw, 1997; Burgelman, 1983; Kanter, 1982; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Naman and Slevin, 1993). Entrepreneurial orientation is a process construct that concerns 'the processes, practices, and decision-making activities that lead to new entry' (Dess and Lumpkin, 2001). Thus, entrepreneurial orientation involves the intentions and actions of individual business owners and/or key management decision makers functioning in the complex process of making strategic choices aimed at the achievement of desired business objectives

A popular measure for operationalising entrepreneurial orientation in both the entrepreneurship and strategic management literature was developed by Covin and Slevin (1989), based on the earlier work of Khandwalla (1977) and Miller and Friesen (1982) is the three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (3D of EO). In developing this measure, Covin and Slevin theorized that the three dimensions (3D) of entrepreneurship orientation (EO) - innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking (Covin and Slevin, 1989).

Innovativeness reflects a firm's tendency to engage in new ideas, experimentation, creative processes that may lead to new products, new technology and services. Proactiveness is an opportunity seeking, forward looking perspective involving the anticipation and acting on future needs which may or may not related to the present line of operation and the aggressiveness in responding to trends and demand that already exist in the marketplace (Covin and Slevin, 1991; Dess

and Lumpkin, 2001). Risk-taking refers to a firm's tendency to venture into uncertain and unknown environment or commit a large portion of resources to ventures with uncertain outcomes (Lumpkin and Dess, 2001)

The three EO's dimensional variables interacted with one another to positively affect the firm entrepreneurial orientation. Innovativeness and proactiveness would be positively related because firms in being proactive and guarding against future developments, achieving and sustaining competitive advantage over others (in the market), firms have to be innovative. Also, proactiveness and risk-taking should be positively related because as firms competed to gain competitive advantage and position itself to take advantage of and/or guard against future developments, they have to develop strong propensity towards risk-taking, therefore, proactiveness and risk taking should be positively related.

The relationship between innovativeness and risk-taking could be conceptualised in two ways: firstly, a positive relationship between innovativeness and risk-taking since risk-taking propensity positively influences innovativeness, especially product innovativeness because product innovativeness requires a certain degree of tolerance for failure that is associated with risk-taking, or secondly innovativeness and risk taking is negatively related because the firm in its effort at being proactive, seek information and get informed about developments in the business environment and thus become innovative. Wherein innovativeness is not propelled by uncertainty, innovativeness and risk-taking will be negatively related.

Therefore, the hypotheses of study can be stated as follows:

*Hypothesis 1: The firm's entrepreneurial orientation and its dimensional variables of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking are positively related.*

*Hypothesis 2: The three-dimensional variables of EO are unidirectional and thus positively related.*

**Method**

*Data Collection and Sampling Technique*

The data for the study were collected under a non-contrived environment. Primary data were collected through questionnaire administered on owners/managers of small and medium enterprises (SMEs). Multi-stage sampling technique was adopted in selecting the sample size. The first-stage involved the application of cluster sampling principle in selecting Lagos business area of Southwestern Nigeria, namely Lagos State and extending to Ota area of Ogun State and Ibadan area of Oyo State. This is because it responsible for 30 percent of industrial activities in Nigeria and not less than 70 percent of industrial activities in the organised private sector of Southwestern Nigeria (according to the Corporate Affairs Commission).

In the second stage, the proportionate stratified sampling technique was adopted in selecting two hundred and seventy nine (279) firms from a sample frame of one thousand and forty seven (1,047) SMEs. The questionnaires were distributed to the owners/mangers of SMEs through experienced Field assistants over a period of four months. However, before actual administration the questionnaire (i.e. research instrument) was pilot-tested to ascertain whether it actually measures the construct (i.e. face and content validity).

The assessment of internal consistency of the test items (i.e. reliability test) returns acceptable Cronbach’s alpha ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.6.

*Measurement of Variable - Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO<sub>i</sub>)*

The entrepreneurial orientation was evaluated via the entrepreneurial orientation index (**EO<sub>i</sub>**). To calculate the entrepreneurial orientation index, an eighteen-item entrepreneurial measurement scale (6-items measures each of the dimensional variables of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk taking). Seven of the questions were drawn from Covin and Slevin (1989) nine-item EO measurement scale, seven questions from Wiklund (1998), three are reconstructed from Dess and Lumpkin (2005) and one is self-constructed.

The EO scale was constructed in “two-word” format on interval scale of “**1 - 5**”. As you move to the right of the scale the level of entrepreneurial orientation increases and as you move to the left, the level of entrepreneurial orientation decreases. In accordance with the 5-point Likert’s scale adopted in structuring of the EO’s scale and computation, the interpretation is as shown in Table (1a) below

Table 1(a): *Classes of Entrepreneurial Orientation and Interpretation Scale*

Likert’s Scores	Percentage Equivalent	EO Classes	Interpretation
1	20	$EO_i < 60$	<i>Low Entrepreneurial oriented</i>
2	40		
3	60	$60 < EO_i < 80$	<i>Moderate Entrepreneurial orientation</i>
4	80	$80 \leq EO_i < 100$	<i>High Entrepreneurial orientation</i>
5	100		

As done for Entrepreneurial Orientation index ( $EO_i$ ), the indexes of the entrepreneurial orientation dimensional variables: *Innovativeness (INOVATE<sub>i</sub>)*, *Risk-taking (RKT<sub>i</sub>)* and *Proactiveness (PROACT<sub>i</sub>)* are calculated using the same methodology. However, rather than computing for the whole eighteen items, the item(s)

operationalising or measuring each of the dimensional construct were applied.

*Data Analysis*

In analysing the data, both descriptive inferential statistics were employed. Frequencies, percentages, crosstabs and means were adopted in describing the

entrepreneurial orientation of the SMEs. The parametric inferential statistics like Jonckheere-Terpstra test, Pearson correlation and non-parametric Kruskal-wallis, chi-square tests were employed testing the significance and non-significance of the hypotheses.

An exploratory factor analysis, employing the principal component method with varimax rotation was used to determine the factors that primarily develop into the EO construct. Eleven items having component loadings greater than 0.4 were extracted in line with the approach of Gerbing and Anderson (1988).

### Results, Findings and Discussion

#### Levels and Patterns of Entrepreneurial Orientation of SMEs in Nigeria

There are two hundred and seventy five (275) valid responses. Four firms did not

respond to this section measuring entrepreneurial orientation. Hence, they were not included in the analysis. Seventy-four respondents (26.9%) were *lowly entrepreneurial* oriented, one hundred and seventy two respondents (62.6%) were *moderately entrepreneurial* oriented and twenty-nine (10.5%) were *highly entrepreneurial* oriented. The minimum entrepreneurial orientation index  $EO_i$  among the firms is 33 percent, the maximum value is 97 percent. The mean entrepreneurial orientation index ( $EO_i$ ) among the SMEs is 67.54 percent and the modal  $EO_i$  is 67 percent. This implies that the SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria are moderately entrepreneurial oriented inasmuch  $EO_i$  index of 67.54 percent is falls within the moderately entrepreneurial category so also the majority of them (i.e. 62.6 percent). This is further presented in Tables 2 (a) and (b).

Table 2(a): Percentage Distribution of the SMEs Based on Levels of Entrepreneurial Orientation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Lowly entrepreneurial oriented	74	26.6	26.9	26.9
	Moderately Entrepreneurial oriented	172	61.6	62.6	89.5
	Highly entrepreneurial Oriented	29	10.4	10.5	100.0
	Total	275	98.6	100.0	
Missing	No Response	4	1.4		
Total		279	100.0		

Source: Field Survey 2011

Table 2(b): Central Tendencies of the Entrepreneurial Orientation and Dimensional Variables

		Innovativeness Index	Proactiveness Index	Risk-taking Index	EO Index
N	Valid	275	275	275	275
	Missing	4	4	4	4
Mean		73.60	69.60	59.42	67.54
Mode		100	60	60	67
Minimum		20	30	20	33
Maximum		100	100	100	97

Source: Field Survey 2011

Almost half of the firms (47.6%) are highly innovative, less than 40 percent (38.5%) are highly proactive and less than one-third

(30.5%) are highly risk-taking oriented. Thirty seven percent (36.7%) and 15.6 percent of the firms are either moderately

or lowly innovative. 37.1 percent and 24.2 percent are moderately or lowly proactive. 35.3 percent and 34.2 percent are moderately and lowly risk-taking oriented. However, not all lowly entrepreneurial oriented firms are lowly innovative, proactive or risk-taking and not all highly entrepreneurial oriented firms are highly innovative, proactive or risk-taking. For examples, among the seventy-four lowly entrepreneurial oriented firms, twenty of them (27%) are highly innovative, thirty-nine (52.78%) are moderately innovative and only fifteen (20.3%) are lowly innovative. In respect of proactiveness, twelve respondents (16.2%) are highly proactive, thirty (40.5%) of the SMEs are moderately proactive and thirty-two (43.2%) are lowly proactive. Four respondents

(5.4%) are high risk-taker, three (4.1%) are moderate risk-taker and sixty-seven (90.5%) are low risk-taker.

Likewise, not all highly entrepreneurial oriented SMEs are highly oriented in the three-dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (3D of EO). Although, a very large percentage (96.6%) of the highly entrepreneurial oriented SMEs are highly innovative and proactive but only about half (i.e. 51.7%) are highly risk-taking. However, 3.4 percent of the SMEs are lowly innovative and another 3.4 percent are moderately proactive. Whereas, the highest proportions (i.e. 48.3%, 62.3% and 62.5%) of the SMEs that are highly innovative, proactive and risk-taking respectively are moderately entrepreneurial oriented (see Tables 3, 4 and 5).

Table 3: Cross-tabulation of EO and Dimensional Variable Innovativeness

			Innovativeness Class			Total
			Lowly innovative	Moderately innovative	Highly Innovative	
EO's Levels	Low entrepreneurially oriented	Count	15	39	20	74
		% within EO's Levels	20.3%	52.7%	27.0%	100.0%
		% within Innovative Class	34.9%	38.6%	15.3%	26.9%
		% of Total	5.5%	14.2%	7.3%	26.9%
	Moderate Entrepreneurially oriented	Count	27	62	83	172
		% within EO's Levels	15.7%	36.0%	48.3%	100.0%
		% within Innovative Class	62.8%	61.4%	63.4%	62.5%
		% of Total	9.8%	22.5%	30.2%	62.5%
	High entrepreneurially Oriented	Count	1	0	28	29
		% within EO's Levels	3.4%	.0%	96.6%	100.0%
		% within Innovative Class	2.3%	.0%	21.4%	10.5%
		% of Total	.4%	.0%	10.2%	10.5%
Total	Count	43	101	131	275	
	% within EO's Levels	15.6%	36.7%	47.6%	100.0%	
	% within Innovate_Index_Class	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	15.6%	36.7%	47.6%	100.0%	

Source: Field Survey 2011

Table 4: *Cross-tabulation of Entrepreneurial Orientation by Dimensional variables Proactiveness*

			Proactiveness class			Total
			Lowly Proactive	Moderately Proactive	Highly Proactive	
EO's Levels	Low entrepreneurially oriented	Count	32	30	12	74
		% within EO's Levels	43.2%	40.5%	16.2%	100.0%
		% within Proactiveness class	47.8%	29.4%	11.3%	26.9%
	Moderate Entrepreneurially oriented	% of Total	11.6%	10.9%	4.4%	26.9%
		Count	35	71	66	172
		% within EO's Levels	20.3%	41.3%	38.4%	100.0%
	High entrepreneurially Oriented	% within Proactiveness class	52.2%	69.6%	62.3%	62.5%
		% of Total	12.7%	25.8%	24.0%	62.5%
		Count	0	1	28	29
Total	% within EO's Levels	.0%	3.4%	96.6%	100.0%	
	% within Proactiveness class	.0%	1.0%	26.4%	10.5%	
	% of Total	.0%	.4%	10.2%	10.5%	
Total	Count	67	102	106	275	
	% within EO's Levels	24.4%	37.1%	38.5%	100.0%	
	% within Proactiveness class	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	24.4%	37.1%	38.5%	100.0%	

Source: Field Survey 2011

Table 5: Cross-tabulation of Entrepreneurial Orientation by Dimensional variable Risk-taking

			Risk-taking Class			Total
			low Risk taker	Moderate Risk Taker	High Risk taker	
EO's Levels	Low entrepreneurially oriented	Count	67	3	4	74
		% within EO's Levels	90.5%	4.1%	5.4%	100.0%
		% within Risk-taking Class	71.3%	3.1%	4.8%	26.9%
		% of Total	24.4%	1.1%	1.5%	26.9%
	Moderate Entrepreneurially oriented	Count	27	80	65	172
		% within EO's Levels	15.7%	46.5%	37.8%	100.0%
		% within Risk-taking Class	28.7%	82.5%	77.4%	62.5%
		% of Total	9.8%	29.1%	23.6%	62.5%
	High entrepreneurially Oriented	Count	0	14	15	29
		% within EO's Levels	.0%	48.3%	51.7%	100.0%
		% within Risk-taking Class	.0%	14.4%	17.9%	10.5%
		% of Total	.0%	5.1%	5.5%	10.5%
Total	Count	94	97	84	275	
	% within EO's Levels	34.2%	35.3%	30.5%	100.0%	
	% within Risk-taking Class	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	34.2%	35.3%	30.5%	100.0%	

Source: Field Survey 2011

In addition, the correlation test in Table 6 showed that the relationship between the EO and innovativeness is strong (i.e.  $r_1 = 0.747$ ,  $\rho \leq 0.001$ ), that of proactiveness is moderate ( $r_2 = .561$ ,  $\rho \leq 0.001$ ) and with risk-taking it is weak ( $r_3 = 0.335$ ,  $\rho \leq 0.01$ ). This implied that you need more than double (223%) of the effort extended on innovativeness to be extended on risk taking and one-half (i.e. 150%) of that effort to be extended on improving proactiveness (at any time) before these three-dimensional variable of EO would pull equal influence on firm's entrepreneurial orientation. In other words, innovativeness would affect EO more than proactiveness or risk-taking, although, they all interacted to produced the firm's entrepreneurial orientation. This supports the findings of (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). Also, the relationship between

EO and the dimensional variables is positive, therefore upholding hypothesis 1 – that entrepreneurial orientation and its dimensional variables of innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking are positively related.

Then, what is the pattern of the relationship among the dimensional variables? Innovativeness is negatively related to risk-taking, while proactiveness is positively related to risk-taking but the relationship between innovativeness and proactiveness is not significant (see Table 6). This implied that the dimensional variables of EO are not covariates as concluded by Covin and Slevin but their variations are unequal and may not necessary be unidirectional.

Furthermore as shown in Table 6, the dimensional variables are significantly

related less innovativeness and proactiveness whose relationship is not significant. Proactiveness and Risk-taking are positively related, however, Innovativeness is negatively related with Risk-taking. This suggested that

Innovativeness strives more on adequate information and informed environment, while, Risk-taking strives more with uncertainty and probability condition as expressly stated under *hypothesis 2*.

Table 6: Correlation Test of Relationship between Entrepreneurial orientation and the Dimensional variables

		EO Index	Innovativeness	Proactiveness	Risk-taking
EO Index	Pearson Correlation	1	.747(**)	.561(**)	.335(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	275	275	275	275
Innovativeness	Pearson Correlation	.747(**)	1	-.023	-.180(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000		.355	.001
	N	275	275	275	275
Proactiveness	Pearson Correlation	.561(**)	-.023	1	.279(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.355		.000
	N	275	275	275	275
Risk-taking	Pearson Correlation	.335(**)	-.180(**)	.279(**)	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	
	N	275	275	275	275

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level ( $p < 0.001$ )

Source: Field Survey 2011

Hence, “Are the SMEs more risk-taking, proactive or innovative oriented? The answer to this is provided through Jonckheere-Terpstra test. The value of the observed J-T statistics and Standardized (Std.) J-T statistics for Risk-taking is significantly

higher than the value for proactiveness or innovativeness, (see Table 7). Therefore, the SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria are relatively more risk-taking oriented, followed by proactiveness and least in innovativeness.

Table 7: *Jonckheere-Terpstra Test<sup>(a)</sup> of the Occurrence of the Entrepreneurial orientation's Dimensional Variables among SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria*

	Innovativeness	Proactiveness	Risk-taking
Number of Levels in EO's Levels	3	3	3
N	275	275	275
Observed J-T Statistic	14322.000	16314.000	17061.500
Mean J-T Statistic	9931.000	9931.000	9931.000
Std. Deviation of J-T Statistic	647.657	647.627	650.749
Std. J-T Statistic	6.780	9.856	10.957
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

“ a” Grouping Variable: EO's Levels

Source: Field Survey 2011

*The Strength and Weaknesses in the Entrepreneurial Orientation of SMEs in Nigeria*

The item-by-item assessment of the EO based on central tendency measures (mean, standard deviation and variance) further provided useful information on the strength and weaknesses in EO of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs). These are:

(a) The SMEs are not innovative in terms of product development, production process/methods because they market true tried product and imitate the method of production of other firms in their business environment. They are moderately innovative in the aspect of marketing new product lines or introducing changes into the product lines or service lines marketed by them. This implied that the SMEs are innovative to some reasonable extent in developing strategies for the development and servicing of their product lines but they have problems with product and process development. This is further exemplified by moderate importance attach to research and development (R&D) (This is expressed by Items 1 – 6 in Table 8).

(b) The SMEs are not proactively oriented in terms gaining competitive advantage over rivals in the market place. The SMEs do not have strong tendency to be ahead of competitors and thus do not have aggressive posture towards their market or periodically monitors the development in their business environment (see Items 7 – 9 in Table 8).

(c) The SMEs risk-taking orientation is moderate, the firms have proclivity for high risk project but not strong. Actions taking by the firm are neither extensively forethought nor powered only by intuition before implemented (Items 10 and 11 in Table 8)

Therefore, our findings can be summarised as follow:

(a) The SMEs in our study area, hence Southwestern Nigeria were largely moderately entrepreneurially oriented

(b) The SMEs exhibited the three-dimensional orientations of risk-taking, proactiveness and innovativeness in variant degrees. The SMEs are not innovative in terms of product development, production process/methods. They are moderately innovative in the aspect of marketing new product lines or introducing changes into the product or service lines marketed by them. Also, SMEs are not proactively oriented in terms of gaining competitive advantage over rivals in the market place since they do not have strong tendency to be ahead of competitors in their business environment. Furthermore, the SMEs risk-taking orientation is moderate since their proclivity for high risk project is not strong.

(c) The more entrepreneurially oriented the SMEs the more innovative, proactive, risk-taking and verse versa. Therefore, to improve the firm EO, one or all of the dimensional variables of innovativeness,

- proactiveness and risk-taking should be improved.
- (d) The EO dimensional variable Innovativeness has the strongest relationship with the EO and thus would influence the overall EO more than other dimensional variable (i.e. proactiveness and risk-taking),
- (e) The EO dimensional variable of Innovativeness is negatively related to Risk-taking, while Proactiveness is positively related to Risk-taking.
- (f) At best, the SMEs are more risk-taking oriented than being proactive and least in innovativeness (based on Joncheere-Terpstra test).

*Table 8: Factor by Factor Assessment of the Components of Entrepreneurial Orientation of Small and Medium Enterprises in Southwestern Nigeria*

Components of Entrepreneurial Orientation	N	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	Variance	Interpretation of Mean Score Based on 5-point Likert's Scale (two – worded format)
Item (1): Innovativeness of Product: emphasis on Research and Development (R&D), and Technological leadership	275	2.63	1.644	2.702	The firms are <i>not innovative</i> in terms of product development. They market true tried product
Item (2): Innovativeness of Methods base on experimentation and original approaches to problem solving	275	2.93	1.686	2.841	Firms are <i>not innovate</i> in terms of production methods, they imitate the methods of production of other firms
Item (3): Innovativeness in Product lines – many new lines of product in the last 3 years	275	3.50	1.493	2.229	Firms has introduced new product lines in the last 3 years development but not very many – <i>not highly innovative</i>
Item (4): Innovativeness - Dramatic change in Product lines	275	3.41	1.448	2.098	On the average, there has been changes in product line but not so dramatic – <i>not highly innovative</i>
Item (5): Innovativeness - Uniqueness of Method of production	275	3.86	1.249	1.560	On the average, the firms production methods are moderately unique – Firms are <i>not highly innovative</i>
Item (6): Innovativeness - investment in R and D is safeguarded during difficult economic period.	275	3.43	1.266	1.603	On the average, R&D is of moderate importance. The Firms are <i>not highly innovative</i> in this respect.
Item (7): Proactiveness - typically adopts undo the competitors strategy	275	3.27	1.351	1.825	The firms tilted towards adoption of “undo the competitors strategy” but not competitively aggressive. <i>Firms Moderately proactive</i>
Item (8): Proactiveness –strong tendency to be ahead of competitors.	275	2.92	1.333	1.778	The Firms are not market leaders or pioneers, they are <i>laggards</i> . Thus, <i>not proactive</i>
Item (9): Proactiveness – environmental scanning is a continuous exercise.	275	2.87	1.660	2.757	Firm do not periodically or continuously monitors the business environment. Thus, <i>not proactive</i>
Item (10): Risk-taking – strong proclivity for high risk project	275	3.44	1.439	2.072	The firms have proclivity for high risk project but not strong. On the average firms are <i>moderate risk taker</i> in this respect
Item (11): Risk-taking is powered by intuition, action are taken without recourse to forethought and research	275	3.23	1.214	1.475	Action taking by the firm are neither extensively forethought nor only powered by intuition before implemented. They are <i>moderate risk taker</i>
Valid N (listwise)	275				

Source: Field Survey 2011

*Improving the Entrepreneurial Orientation of the SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria*

As previously stated, many studies have established that entrepreneurial orientation is positively related to firm's performance, thus, one way of improving the firm performance will be to improve the firm entrepreneurial orientation which is always an extension of the orientation of the owner-managers, therefore, all the primary stakeholders (government, organised private sector, and multilateral institutions) providing assistance to SMEs in Nigeria have roles to play in evolving better entrepreneurial orientation among the Nigerian SMEs. In specific term, these include:

(a) The stakeholders in SMEs development should concentrate their effort at promoting the product and process innovativeness among the SMEs. This can be by defraying the cost of undertaking innovative activity in product and process development and build their innovative capacity. In order words, government should subsidise research and development activities of the SMEs and/or facilitate accessibility of SMEs to research outputs from various industrial research institutions in the country. To facilitate this, The Nigerian government should develop the capacity of the existing raw materials and techno-managerial development institutions in Nigeria that are of relevance to SMEs, such as Industrial Development Centres (IDCs); Raw material research & development institutions (RMR&DC, CRIN); Technological development institutions/unit (Project Development Agency – PRODA, Enugu) and other allied institutions.

(b) Training programmes emphasising product and process development, marketing of products (achieving and sustaining competitive advantage) both in local and international markets should be organised for the entrepreneurs of SMEs. Relevant multilateral institutions like United Nations Industrial Development Organisation (UNIDO), New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) can "backstopped" this programme by providing the technical expertise and finance in collaboration with the Nigerian government

both at the states and federal levels in order to build up the capacity of the SMEs.

(d) Government in collaboration with the other stakeholders, particularly, the organised private sector should promote linkages (i.e. subcontracting, networking and ancillary) between small and medium enterprises and the large businesses in order to promote knowledge spill over in the production process and enhance their innovative capabilities. The government may establish a network comprising the stakeholder to oversee its development and administration to ensure its achievement for the benefit of all because of its cost implication.

(e) The risk-taking orientation of the firm needs to be supported. This may be by encouraging them to insure their businesses. Hopefully this will promote their risk-orientation by reducing the fear that is associated with risk-taking. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs should be trained on risk analysis in order to understand what involve in taking risk and how to handle risks.

*Summary and Conclusion*

SME across the world have been the leading employer of labour at least in the private sector and watershed of sustainable industrial development, albeit, in Nigeria the SMEs have not been able to carry out this prominent role because of neglect by government. The improvement of entrepreneurial orientation of the SMEs has not been consciously included in SMEs development, despite, many studies establishing positive relationship between EO and SMEs performance and the dimensional variable innovativeness is the centrepiece of entrepreneurship and firm growth

This study has shown that the SMEs in Southwestern Nigeria are not highly entrepreneurially oriented but rather they are moderately entrepreneurially oriented. However, the SMEs are oriented toward the EO dimensional variables in variant degrees but deficient in innovativeness relative to their degree of proactiveness and risk-taking. Innovativeness has the highest correlation with entrepreneurial orientation; thus, it is the most important of the EO

dimensional variables for intervention when the task is to improve firm's entrepreneurial orientation. However, this should be done with a caveat because as you are improving the innovativeness orientations of these SMEs, their risk-taking orientations may decline. Thus, the "best-fit" result would be achieved, if the stated suggestions on how to improve the entrepreneurial orientation is adhered to by government and other stakeholders.

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## **Flexible Work Hour and Tenure Impacts on Time-based Work Interference with Family**

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This study investigated the impacts of flexible work hour and tenure on time-based work interference with family. The study comprised a Cross-sectional Survey of 118 female nurses between the ages of 27 to 59 years ( $M=40.35$ ) at University of Nigerian Teaching Hospital and Orthopedic Hospital Enugu using Multi-stage sampling. Eight (8)-item Time-based Work Interference with Family Scale drawn from Okonkwo (2011) 32-item Work-family Conflict Scale was administered. 2x2 Analysis of Variance F-test revealed a significant influence of flexible work hour on time-based work interference with family  $F(1,117) = 19.96$ ,  $p < .05$  while tenure had no influence,  $F(1,117) = 0.07$ ,  $p > .05$ . These results were discussed in the light of Conservation of Resources Theory. It was concluded that flexible work hour has implications for time-based work interference with family among this segment of women.

*Keywords:* Flexible Work Hour, Tenure, Time-based Work Interference with Family.

Women's participation in the workforce has increased all around the world (Davidson & Burke, 2004) and Nigerian women are no exception to this trend. This participation in the workforce has often left women especially those with children with conflict between work and family responsibilities. Conflict between work and family usually results in limited time for this segment of women leading to work time interference with family. Work interference with family occurs when participation in work responsibilities makes it difficult for an employee to carry out family responsibilities (e.g. cooking, washing, child care e.t.c.).

Research (e.g. Adebola, 2005) has shown that job-related variables such as hours (time) spent on the job, flexibility of work hours and tenure have strong bearing on work interference with family and primarily determined by excessive work demands and predicts negative family outcomes. Time commitment to work was found to be positively related to work-family conflict (Voyandoff, 1988). Work-family conflict increases in proportion to the amount of time spent in the work and family domains

(Duxbury & Higgins, 1994). For working women, the time spent on work activities was strongly associated with work interference with family (Frone, 1992). Time-based conflict occurs when the time spent on activities within one role (e.g. work) makes it difficult to participate in another role (e.g. family). This form of conflict is positively related to the number of working hours, the amount and frequency of overtime, and the presence and irregularity of shift work (Pleck, 1980). The possibility of flexible work hours is likely to alleviate this form of work-family conflict while a rigid schedule may have an opposite effect (Pleck, 1980). Flexible work hour which reflects the autonomy and control one has regarding time schedule and work location is another job-related factor which has bearing on work-family conflict. High flexibility at work facilitates job-family compatibility and thus reduces work-family conflict (Ngo, 1992). With increasing working hours, employees experience higher work demands (Frone, 2000) which affect work-family balance (Alam, Sattar & Chaudhury, 2011). Long

and inflexible work schedules were found to relate to work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and extensive working hours as lethal contributor to work-family conflict (Alam, Biswas & Hassan, 2009). Research has shown that number of hours worked predicted work-family conflict (Beauregard, 2006), and number of hours spent weekly on work activities positively related to work-family conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001). Female nurses who work in critical situations in hospitals encounter higher conflict between work and family due to long hours of work per week, working overtime and demanding responsibilities (Adibhahajbahi, Mehnosh & Fazlallah, 2004).

Time-based work-family conflict is more likely to occur in work interference with family (Carlson, Kacmer & Williams, 2000). Thus, work time was found to be positively correlated to work interference with family (Major, Klein & Ehrhart, 2002). Among working women especially those with children, spending much time on work responsibilities might reduce the amount of time spent on family responsibilities resulting in work interference with family. Demands from such role interference are expected to be greater for individuals with infants or young children (Wallace, 1999), thus, this present study has hypothesized that flexible work hour will not have negative influence on time-based work interference with family.

In the case of tenure, researches infer that the staff with lifelong employment status experience less role conflict (Netemeyer, 1996) and role conflict increases with increasing experience in organizations (Netemeyer, 1996). In contrast, female nurses with more years of experience perceived lower level of work interference with family (Namayandeh, Yaacob & Juhari, 2010) and this could be as a result of reduced career and job involvement which occur with time. For instance, career salience, that is, the psychological identification with work role may lead to a higher level of work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Conflict is greater from the domain that is more salient to the person's identity (Cooke

& Roussoau 1994). This shows that when a woman's career identity grows, she will become more involved in that work role and exhibits higher levels of motivation. This, in turn, may increase time commitment to that work role and produce strain that may interfere with her family role. As a result, role pressures and inter-role conflict emerge. Work involvement (the degree to which a person actively participates in his/her work role) is another job-related factor which determines work interference with family. It has been found that high work involvement is associated with higher levels of work-family conflict (Wiley, 1987). These contradicting findings from previous studies on the influence of tenure on work-family roles conflict have strengthened the need for this present study using Nigerian sample.

#### *Theoretical Background*

##### *Conservation of Resources Theory*

This theory holds that individuals possess resource pool (e.g. time and energy). This resource pool can either increase or deplete (Hobfoll, 1998). In view of this theory, female nurses with flexible work hours/schedules and more job experience accruing from spending many years on the job could be likened to individuals with greater pool of resources. That is, because the flexible work schedules allow freedom, autonomy and control, they give the nurses less pressure and more time since they spend less time and energy taking care of job responsibilities. Thus, they are less vulnerable to resource loss or depletion, and more capable of resource gain. This gain translates into more time and energy being given to family and other non-job responsibilities. Gaining more experience because of long exposure to the job creates additional resource pool which might enable the female nurses to balance with ease their work and family time. Invariably, this will reduce work time interfering with family time.

In contrast, female nurses with rigid work hours and little or no job experience because less exposure to the job might spend more time on job responsibilities and

will not have enough resources (time and energy) for family responsibilities. Thus, effort to share the weak resource pool between work and family responsibilities results in a continuous draw on resources, leaving them with depleted resources resulting in time-based work interference with family.

## **Method**

### *Participants*

The participants comprised a Cross-sectional Survey of 118 female nurses between the ages of 27 to 59 years (M=40.35) at University of Nigerian Teaching Hospital and Orthopedic Hospital Enugu using Multi-stage sampling technique (cluster and criterion). All came from various departments in the two hospitals.

The data indicated that these participants were Registered Nurses. Moreover, each participant had spent at least one year in the hospital. They were married and living with their husbands, had at least one child, and were living with at least one of their children. Widows and divorcees were not included to avoid confounding the results.

### *Measures*

Two instruments were used which included demographic information and 8-item time-based work interference with family scale drawn from Okonkwo (2011) 32-item work-family conflict scale.

### *Demographic Information*

Demographic information included age, years of experience on the job, educational qualification, number of hours spent on the job every day, marital status, number and ages of children.

### *Time-based Work Interference with Family Scale*

The item loadings of the 8 items measuring time-based work interference with family ranged from 0.53 to 0.85 and were considered acceptable for validation of the instrument since Mitchel and Jolley (2004) noted that item loading of 0.30 is good and

0.70 very high. These 8 items yielded split-half reliability of 0.79 and was accepted as a good index of internal consistency since Mitchel and Jolley (2004) noted that an index of 0.70 (and preferably above 0.80) is needed to say that a measure is internally consistent.

These items drawn from Okonkwo (2011) 32-item work family conflict Scale were in Likert form and had direct scoring for all the items. Thus, a response of strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, undecided = 3, disagree = 2 and strongly disagree = 1.

### *Procedure*

A total of 123 copies of the questionnaire measuring demographic variables and time-based work interference with family were administered using cluster and criterion sampling techniques among married registered female nurses of University of Nigeria Teaching Hospital and Orthopedic Hospital Enugu.

The two hospitals comprised two clusters. In the clusters (hospitals) criterion sampling was applied. Criterion sampling involves selecting, cases (participants) that meet some predetermined criteria of importance (Patton, 1990). Following the criteria set for the sample selection, the female nurses selected for the study had spent at least a year as nurses in the hospitals, were married and living with their husbands, had at least one child, and were living with at least one of their children. Widows and divorcees were not included. The Chief Nursing Officers of the hospitals facilitated the sample selection by helping to identify those who met the set criteria. This was to ensure that all the participants combined work and family responsibilities.

However, of the 123 copies of questionnaire distributed, 118 (95.93%) copies were properly filled and returned with the assistance of the Chief Nursing Officers who served as research assistants. The 118(95.93%) copies that were properly filled and returned were used for analysis.

*Design/Statistics*

This study used Cross-sectional Survey design. 2x2 Analysis of Variance F-test was used as statistical test for data analyses.

**Results**

**Table 1:** Mean Scores on Flexible Work Hour and Tenure on Time-based Work Interference with Family

Work Hour	Tenure	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Flexible	Long Tenure	15.5333	7.06972	15
	Short Tenure	15.0204	4.99787	49
	Total	15.1406	5.49420	64
Inflexible	Long Tenure	21.0909	7.10570	11
	Short Tenure	22.3488	7.41583	43
	Total	22.0926	7.30538	54
Total	Long Tenure	17.8846	7.48506	26
	Short Tenure	18.4457	7.21623	92
	Total	18.3220	7.24761	118

Dependent Variable: time-based work interference with family.

Long Tenure: (15 years & above)

Short Tenure: (14 years & below).

The means in table 1 indicated that female nurses who had inflexible work hour with short tenure experienced the highest level of time-based work interference with family ( $x = 22.35$ ), followed by female nurses that had inflexible work hour with long tenure ( $x = 21.09$ ), female nurses that had flexible work hour with long tenure ( $x = 15.53$ ), and least by those who had flexible work hour with short tenure ( $x = 15.02$ ).

Similarly, female nurses who had inflexible work hour experienced higher level of time-based work interference with family ( $x = 22.09$ ) than those who had flexible work hour ( $x = 15.14$ ).

Also, female nurses who had short tenure experienced higher level of time-based work interference with family ( $x = 18.45$ ) than those who had long tenure ( $x = 17.88$ ).

*Table 2: 2x2 ANOVA on Flexible Work Hour and Tenure on Time-based Work Interference with Family*

Source	Type III sum of square	DF	Mean square	F	Sig	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected model	1432.373	3	477.458	11.548	0.000	.233
Intercept	27206.537	1	27206.537	658.029	0.000	0.852
Work Hour	825.131	1	825.131	19.957	0.000	0.149
Tenure	2.758	1	2.758	0.067	0.797	0.001
Work Hour & Tenure	15.583	1	15.583	0.377	0.540	0.003
Error	4713.389	114	41.346	-	-	-
Total	45758.000	118	-	-	-	-
Corrected total	6145.763	117	-	-	-	-

Dependent Variable: time-based work interference with family.

As shown in table 2, flexible work hour had significant influence on the female nurses' experience of time-based work interference with family,  $F(1,117) = 19.96$ ,  $p < .05$ . Tenure had no significant influence on their experience of time-based work interference with family,  $F(1,117) = 0.07$ ,  $p > .05$ . No significant interaction influence of work hour and tenure on their experience of

time-based work interference with family,  $F(1,117) = 0.38$ ,  $p > .05$ .

The overall findings from the study, using the 8-item scale described above, were that flexible work hour influenced the experience of time-based work interference family among the female nurses while tenure did not.

## *Discussion*

### *Flexible Work Hour*

While the findings are contrary to previous research findings (e.g. Netemeyer, 1996, Fu & Schaffer, 2001), they support the views that inflexible work schedules and long work hours relate to work-family conflict (e.g. Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, Frone, 2000, Alam, Biswas & Hassam, 2009, Alam, Sattar & Chaudhury, 2011).

The flexible work hour which is in line with the advocated family-friendly organizations enabled the female nurses to take care of non-job responsibilities thereby giving working Nigerian mothers enough time to balance work and family responsibilities. This research evidence does not support the view of role strain theory that work and family responsibilities compete for limited amount of time resulting in negative consequences (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, Small & Riley, 1990) rather it supports flextime-which is a situation whereby a worker has the choice of scheduling work hours in a manner that allows time for other non-job responsibilities such as family. This gives the worker sense of autonomy and control over work. Thus, enabling these female nurses to invest more time and energy in their nursing responsibilities, hence protecting their resources (e.g. time) and gaining more resources (e.g. time) in the workplace and family.

### *Tenure*

Based on previous contrasting research findings that role conflict increases with increasing experience in organizations (Netemeyer, 1996) and female nurses with more years of experience perceived lower level of work interference with family (Namayandeh, Yaccob & Juhari, 2010), it was expected that tenure would have significant influence on time-based work interference with family among the female nurses studied. In contrast, tenure had no influence.

The inconsistency between these present results and those that emerged from previous research can be partly accounted

for by the poor working conditions in African organizations especially the hectic nature of the healthcare sector in Nigeria. The general poor working conditions such as obsolete equipment, inadequate funding, poor remuneration and limited number of trained healthcare personnel often mete out harsh conditions (e.g. spending too much time on the job) to the few available healthcare providers such as nurses. Thus all the female nurses experienced time constraint irrespective of one's tenure (number of years one has served as a nurse).

### *Summary and Recommendations*

Although the hectic nature of the healthcare industry can create work-family conflict for the healthcare workers (Rittippant, Tongkong & Thamma-Apiroam, 2011), work conditions such as flexible work schedules can alleviate this resulting in work and family responsibilities benefiting each other thereby supporting the view that it is the quality of roles rather than the quantity of roles that matters (Barunch & Barnett, 1987). Flexible work arrangements which provide alternative work schedules may serve as a buffer against distress experienced in one role, that is the difficulties or demands in one role may be offset by the positive attributes of the other roles (Oomens et al, 2007). Thus, having flexible work schedules can be family-friendly and give a working mother enough time to juggle work and family responsibilities mother resulting in sense of happiness and fulfillment.

Against the above background, the following are some of the policy recommendations that are worthy of consideration by Nigeria and other sub-Saharan African countries:

- Policies that support family-friendly provisions such as flexible work hours in organizations in order to strengthen the already existing resilience of African women in shouldering work and family responsibilities.
- Policies that can improve the quantity and quality of health care providers (e.g. female nurses). This will increase the

number and services of personnel in this segment of the workforce thereby enabling them to enjoy flextime needed for balancing work and family roles.

- Policies that will continue to provide state of the art facilities in health institutions. This will enable healthcare personnel especially female nurses to discharge their nursing responsibilities effectively and efficiently, thus paving way for more time for family responsibilities.

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## **The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Test Anxiety, Stress, Academic Success and Attitudes of High School Students Towards Electrochemistry**

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The study investigated relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety, stress, academic success and attitudes towards electrochemistry of chemistry students in high schools. This study employed correlational research design. Stratified sampling technique was used to select six hundred Senior secondary school three chemistry students from 24 secondary school in Lagos state. Two instruments were used to collect data from the participants. One was Students' Emotional Intelligence, Stress and Test Anxiety Questionnaire (SEISTAQ) with reliability coefficients of 0.76, 0.83 and 0.71 respectively using Cronbach Alpha. Electrochemistry Achievement test contained multiple choice items with options A to D and the reliability coefficient was 0.79 using Kuder-Richardson-20 formula. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics to answer the research questions while Pearson product moment correlation was utilised to test hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. The results revealed that moderate emotional intelligent, low stressed and test anxious chemistry students had highest academic success in electrochemistry. Low emotional intelligent, highly stressed and high test anxious chemistry students had most favourable attitudes to electrochemistry. It was also discovered that low significant positive relationship existed between emotional intelligent and academic success and also for stress and academic success but the low insignificant relationship between test anxiety and academic success in electrochemistry. Low significant negative relationship existed between emotional intelligent and chemistry students' to electrochemistry and also between stress and attitude to electrochemistry meanwhile low positive and insignificant positive relationship existed between test anxiety and attitude to electrochemistry. It is therefore recommended that chemistry students in high schools should be intimated on how emotional intelligent, test anxiety and levels students' stress could affect their academic success and attitude towards electrochemistry. Teachers should also discover the emotional intelligent, test anxiety and stress levels so as to reduce these psychological effects on chemistry students' academic performance and learning attitudes towards electrochemistry.

**Keywords:** Emotional Intelligent, Stress, Test Anxiety, Academic Success, Attitude, Electrochemistry

Education is the most important instrument for change and national development. In today's highly competitive world where education becomes an agent of success and prosperity of individuals (Amusan, 2006), academic achievement is

the main measure of the level of education attained and this is meant to achieve the curriculum objectives of each subject taught in schools. This implies that academic achievement distinguishes between students and predicts their

success at work. Scholars have noticed a great decline in the academic performance of students in chemistry in the recent years and this decline can be attributed to the standard and quality of education offered to the learners and also the personality of the learners themselves (Raimi, 2001; Igwe, 2002 and Lin, Yang, Chiu & Chou, 2002). Academic success can be explained using attribution theory (Weiner, 1986). Attribution theory is cognitive theory of motivation which states that a relationship between students' beliefs regarding cause of success or failure and the ways these beliefs are internalised will influence students' academic achievement, expectation to success and self concept.

Attitude is inclination to gaining a skill and it is identified as individual characteristics that provide a background for accepting a positive subject or denying a negative one. According to Eagly and Chaiken (1998), an attitude can be defined as a positive or negative evaluation of people, objects, event, activities, ideas, or just about anything in your environment, but there is debate about precise definitions. An attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. Though it is sometimes common to define an attitude as affect toward an object, affect (i.e., discrete emotions or overall arousal) is generally understood to be distinct from attitude as a measure of favourability. This definition of attitude allows for one's evaluation of an attitude object to vary from extremely negative to extremely positive, but also admits that people can also be conflicted or ambivalent toward an object meaning that they might at different times express both positive and negative attitude toward the same object. This has led to some discussion of whether individual can hold multiple attitudes toward the same object (Aizen, 2001). Wood (2002) identified attitudes as explicit (i.e., deliberately formed) versus implicit (i.e., subconscious) has been a topic of considerable research. Research on implicit attitudes, which are generally unacknowledged or outside of awareness, uses sophisticated methods involving people's response times to stimuli

to show that implicit attitudes exist (perhaps in tandem with explicit attitudes of the same object). Implicit and explicit attitudes seem to affect people's behaviour, though in different ways. They tend not to be strongly associated with each other, although in some cases they are. The relationship between them is poorly understood. Calson (2010) reported that attitudes can be changed through persuasion and an important domain of research on attitude change focuses on responses to communication. The factors that can affect the persuasiveness of a message include target characteristics, source characteristics, message characteristics and cognitive routes. According to him target characteristics refer to the person who receives and processes a message using intelligence; sources characteristics are expertise, trustworthiness and interpersonal attraction or attractiveness; message characteristics focuses on the nature of message play a role in persuasion through message processing and cognitive routes is a message that can appeal to an individual's cognitive evaluation to help change an attitude.

Review of relevant literature depicts varying opinions and findings on the students' attitudes towards science and their performances. According to Yara (2009), attitude of students can be influenced by the attitude of the teacher and his methods of teaching. He further showed in his work that teachers' method of mathematics teaching and his personality greatly accounted for the students' positive attitude towards the subject and that without interest and personal effort in learning by the students, they can hardly perform well in the subject. According to Keeves (1992), attitudes towards science, chemistry inclusive are, in general, highly favoured, indicating strong support for science and the learning of science. There is also consistency across countries and age levels within a country in the average level of attitude towards chemistry and general science. However, in countries where a high level of technological

and industrial development had been achieved, the findings showed that attitude towards science were more neutral. Collaborating these reports, Olatoye (2001) found that students attitude towards chemistry have significant direct effect on student achievement in the subject.

Adesokan (2002) asserted that in spite of the recognition given to chemistry among the science subjects, it is evident that student still show negative attitudes towards the subject thereby teaching to prior performance and low enrolment. Our nation needs to attract all the academically gifted female students into the pursuit of chemistry. There is also the need to maximize the scientific literacy of young female students, and to achieve equity in participation in chemistry. Bennett *et al.*, (2001) argued that girls and boys start off on equal footing in chemistry and other science subject but once physical science and mathematics become optional at the secondary school level, there is a downward spiral of female enrolment accompanied by decrease in achievement and interest. This implies that there are underlying factors affecting the attitudes of young female students towards chemistry that needs to be addressed at the high school level (Santonimo, 2005, Salta and Tzougraki, 2004). A number of curriculum evaluation projects included student attitude to chemistry as one of the dependent variables (Adesoji and Raimi, 2004; Thompson and Soyibo, 2002), but they are not emphasised because they focused on the effectiveness of a curricular or instructional innovation rather than the attitudes of males and females toward chemistry lessons at different levels of schooling. Students' attitude towards chemistry generally was also an indication of their attitudes towards electrochemistry aspect especially when some psychological factors are taken into consideration.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) saw emotional intelligence as the ability to monitor one's

own and others feelings, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions. Five specific domains were identified in their model of self awareness, managing emotions and realisation of what prompted a specific emotion; motivating self; empathy and ability to manage others emotions and exercising social competence. Emotional intelligence involves one's awareness of one's feeling and the feelings of others and the capacity to utilize this in directing one's behaviour. Goleman (1996) stated that emotional intelligence increases with age and it can be learned, cultivated and increase in adulthood. The people can change their emotional intelligence competencies over two to five years in a series of longitudinal studies (Boyatzing, Goleman & Rhee, 2000).

Emotional intelligence is positively correlated with such variables as empathy, verbal intelligence, extroversion, openness to feelings, self esteem and life satisfaction (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000). Higher emotional intelligence has been found to constitute positive interactions with peer and family, good academic performance and obedience to the school and authority while lower emotional intelligence is associated with violent behaviour, illegal use of drugs and running away from school (Abisamra, 2000). Moss (2001) found positive relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. Law and Wong (2002) working with difference samples found that age is positively correlated with emotional intelligence across different job situations. Parker (2002) discovered emotional intelligence as a predictor of academic success and retention in college. It was also observed that individuals scoring highly on the managing emotions were more likely to report positive relations with others (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003; Jager, 2003). Drago (2004) analysed the relationship between academic success and emotional intelligence on non-traditional college students and found that the lower the students' emotional intelligence, the lower the academic success and that higher levels of emotional intelligence could be correlated with improved academic performance. From the foregoing,

literatures have not sufficiently shown relationship between emotional intelligence and academic success in chemistry generally and electrochemistry aspect in particular.

Another factor that affects academic success is test anxiety. According to Zeidner (1998), test anxiety is a multidimensional signs that can be described as a group of phenomenological, physiological, and behavioural reactions to appear with possible negative consequences or failure on an examination or similar evaluative situation. Test anxiety, especially worry has impact on academic success and working memory (Eysenk, 2001). Sarason (1984) as cited in Keoghi, Bond, French, Richards and Davis (2004) found that test anxiety decrease attention span, memory and concentration, then leads to low academic success. It was also confirmed through various studies by researchers that high school students with high test-anxiety has a poor school performance (Masson, Hoyois, Pcadot, Nahama, Petit & Ansean, 2004). Consequently, test anxiety contributed to academic success in view of the vulnerability to distractions and interference experienced by the students. Test anxiety is also linked to memory and can have effect on academic success because both of them disrupt attention and concentration. When attention and concentration are impaired this would disrupt memory and as a result lead to low academic success (Needham, 2006).

Sarason and Stoops (1978) determined that individuals with high test anxiety exhibited the following cognitions when facing an evaluative task: the individual sees himself or herself as ineffective in handling, or inadequate to, the task at hand; the situation is seen as a difficult, challenging, and threatening; the individual focuses on undesirable consequences of personal inadequacy; self-deprecatory preoccupations are strong and interfere or compete with task-relevant cognitive activity; and the individual expects and anticipates failure and loss of regard by others. Sullivan (2002) study results indicated that test anxiety had a negative impact on performance scores for high test-

anxious individuals, though only on some cognitive measures. This result was similar to the results of Blankstein, Toner and Flett (1990) who found that high test-anxious individuals reported more intrusive thoughts relative to low-anxious individuals. Eysenck cited in Dutke and Stober (2001) asserted that restriction in working memory capacity is responsible for the decrements in cognitive performance of high test-anxious individuals.

Seip (1991) meta-analysed one hundred twenty six American and European students and found a negative correlation between test anxiety and academic performance. Seip explained that the size of this negative correlation translated into academic test performance, meant that low-test anxious students by almost half a standard deviation and that is why 39.0% of low-test anxious would fail, whereas 61.0% of high-test anxious would pass. The result of the study carried on undergraduate students by Campbell, Blanding, Takahashi, Silverstein and McCann (2005) showed that there was a significant negative relationship between undergraduate test anxiety scores and GPA.

Stress is one of the psychological traits often being observed on school learners. Garnnett (2001) emphasised that stress is a common element in the life of every individual, regardless of race, or cultural background. Studies have shown that stress is a familiar reactions to demands made on the body include increased heart rate, respiratory rate, blood pressure and blood glucose level. These compensatory reactions occur to ensure the muscles and vital organs have an ample supply of oxygen, energy and nutrient to handle the challenging situation (Nathan, 2002). Nathan further states that prolonged and severe stress may be psychologically damaging in that it may hinder a person's ability to engage in effective behaviour. Meeks-Mitchell and Heit (cited in Oyerinde, 2004) saw stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it. College students have a unique cluster of stressful experiences (Garnett, 2001). Ross, Neibling and Heckert (1999) enumerated some reasons for increased stress levels in college learners. Such

reasons include students have to make significant adjustment to college life and due to the pressure of studies, there is strain placed on interpersonal relationships. Also, housing arrangements and changes in life styles contribute to stress experienced by college students. Academic requirements, support systems and ineffective coping skills among high school students cause stress. Rucker (2012) studied the relationship between motivation, perceived stress and academic achievement in students and reported that the feeling of stress was significantly correlated with the failing rate of courses among undergraduate students. But in the study of Womble (2005), it was found that the stress of surveyed college students' GPA though adduced reasons of small amount of surveys, inaccurate grades and other extraneous variables to such a finding.

Awofolu and Emi (2007) asserts that from investigation of the relationship between stress and academic achievement of biology students in Nigerian universities that the stress of the surveyed students perceived was not significantly correlated with grade point average (academic performance). Therefore, studies have not really focused on emotional intelligence, test anxiety and stress in relation to students' academic success and attitudes to electrochemistry on which this study is concentrated.

#### *The Problem*

Chemistry is an important secondary school science subject that links science students to their areas of study in higher institutions. Learning of this subject is being affected by psychological factors which have adverse effects on students' performance. Emotional intelligence, stress and test anxiety have been examined to affect performance of students in subjects like mathematics and biology but the relationship of these factors have not been established in general chemistry and specifically in electrochemistry aspect. The low performance of students in chemistry generally might be as a result of levels of emotional intelligence, stress and test anxiety. Emotional intelligence was found to correlate positively with students'

academic success. Stress also had negative effect on students' performance on some subjects while test anxiety was found to have impact academic success and working memory. Therefore, this study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, test anxiety and stress on students' academic success and attitudes to electrochemistry.

#### *Research Questions*

- a) What is the pattern of students' academic success and attitudes towards electrochemistry based on their emotional intelligence?
- b) Do levels of stress of students affect their academic success and attitudes towards electrochemistry?
- c) How does test anxiety affects the academic success and attitudes of students towards electrochemistry?

#### *Hypotheses*

- 1) There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and (i) academic success (ii) attitudes of students towards electrochemistry
- 2) There is no significant relationship between test anxiety and (i) academic success (ii) attitudes of students towards electrochemistry
- 3) There is no significant relationship between stress and (i) academic success (ii) attitudes of students towards electrochemistry.

### **Methods**

#### *Design*

The study employed a correlational research design in which the relationship was established between the variables of the study (Kerlinger & Lee, 2001). The variables were not manipulated but were used as they existed.

#### *Population, Sampling Procedures and Sample*

The population comprised all senior secondary school three (SSS3) Chemistry students from public secondary schools of Lagos state. Stratified sampling technique was used to select participants for the study. Lagos state was stratified to six educational districts. Four schools

were randomly selected from each of the districts. Twenty five SSS3 chemistry students were selected using simple random sampling. The total number of chemistry students used for the study was six hundred. Among this sample, 324 were male while 276 were female.

*Instrumentation*

Two instruments were used to collect data from the participants. One was Students' Emotional Intelligence, Stress and Test Anxiety Questionnaire (SEISTAQ) and the other was Electrochemistry Achievement Test (EAT). SEISTAQ had four sections. Section A requested for students background information. Section B was an emotional intelligence scale adapted from Wong and Law (2002) emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS). SEISTAQ contains 15 items with response format of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. Section C was the stress scale which was adapted from Cohen and Mermeistein (1983) perceived stress scale. The scale also contained 15 items that asked the respondents to answer a series of questions on Likert scale format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Twenty item test anxiety scale were contained in section D. This was constructed by the researcher with responses to each of the items as often, sometimes and never. The instrument was pilot tested to 30 chemistry students who did not participate in the actual study. The reliability coefficients of each of the scales were ascertained using Cronbach Alpha resulted in 0.76, 0.83 and 0.71 for emotional intelligence, stress and test anxiety scales respectively. All of the SEISTAQ scales exhibited high internal consistency. EAT contained 40 multiple

choice items with options A to D. Test blueprint was constructed on five main electrochemistry related topics: Definition of Terms, Preferential Ion discharge, Redox reaction and Faraday's laws of electrolysis. The reliability coefficient of 0.79 was obtained after the trial testing of the instrument using Kuder-Richardson 20.

*Data Collection Procedure*

The instrument was administered to twenty five randomly selected SSS3 chemistry students from each of the schools used. Chemistry teachers from these schools assisted in the administration and also ensure orderliness of the students. Data collection took three weeks. They were asked to read instructions and answer the questions as honestly and they possibly could.

*Scoring and Data Analysis Procedures*

The emotional intelligence and stress subscales were scored on a four-Likert scale of strong agree (4), agree (3), disagree (2) and strongly disagree (1). The maximum score on each of these scales was 60 while the minimum score obtainable was 15. For test anxiety scale, the highest a student could score was 60 and the lowest score obtainable was 20. The correct answer on the electrochemistry achievement test was awarded 1 while zero was given to every wrong response. The maximum mark obtainable was 40 while zero was the minimum. Descriptives statistics was used to answer the research questions. Hypotheses generated for the study were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation to ascertain the levels of relationships and 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance.

**Results and Discussion**

*Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Academic Success and Attitudes towards Electrochemistry by Emotional Intelligence Levels*

Emotional Intelligence Levels	N	Academic Success in Electrochemistry			Attitudes to Electrochemistry		
		Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error
Low	114	30.32	3.075	.288	55.19	8.956	.842
Moderate	366	35.56	5.712	.299	52.06	12.821	.670
High	120	31.00	4.981	.455	52.18	12.754	1.164

From Table 1, the mean academic success of low emotional intelligent chemistry

students was 30.22 while 35.56 and 31.00 were mean academic success for moderate

and high emotional intelligent students respectively. This implies that moderate emotional intelligent students had highest academic success in electrochemistry followed by high and low emotional

intelligent students. The attitudes towards electrochemistry among low emotional intelligent students were most favourable compared to that of high and moderate emotional intelligent chemistry students.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Academic Success and Attitudes towards Electrochemistry by Stress Levels

Stress Levels	N	Academic Success in Electrochemistry			Attitudes		
		Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error
Low	300	32.96	4.795	.277	52.33	12.399	.716
Moderate	258	30.51	5.347	.333	53.01	12.084	.752
High	42	31.71	5.870	.906	53.19	11.888	1.834

The academic success in electrochemistry was highest among chemistry students that had low stress level ( $\bar{X}$ =32.96, SD=4.795), followed by high stressed students ( $\bar{X}$  =31.71, SD=5.870) and moderately stressed students (Table 2). High stressed chemistry students had a very highest favourable attitude ( $\bar{X}$ =53.19, SD=11.888) towards electrochemistry while those with moderate ( $\bar{X}$ =53.01, SD=12.084) and low ( $\bar{X}$ =52.33, SD=12.399) stress followed in quick succession. High school secondary students with low stress tendency cope easily with electrochemistry concepts of

electrochemical series, balancing of redox reaction and half cells reactions. This would aid higher performance in electrochemistry than highly stressed students. The most favourable attitude of low stressed chemistry students might be due to fact that low state of stress fosters favourable psychological stability in form of spending more time in reading and studying of electrochemistry. Nathan (2002) found that prolonged and severe stress was psychological damaging and affecting behaviours and attitudes.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Academic Success and Attitudes towards Electrochemistry by Test Anxiety Levels

Test Anxiety Levels	N	Academic Success in Electrochemistry			Attitudes		
		Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Dev'n	Std. Error
Mild	180	31.87	4.992	.372	52.09	12.454	.928
Moderate	144	30.42	5.587	.466	52.38	13.588	1.132
Severe	276	32.52	5.090	.306	53.22	11.289	.679

Table 3 shows that high test anxious chemistry students had greatest academic success in electrochemistry ( $\bar{X}$  =32.52, SD=5.090) while low and moderate anxious students followed with mean academic success scores of 31.87 and 30.42 respectively. Considering the attitudes of chemistry students towards electrochemistry, the attitude of high test anxious students was the highest ( $\bar{X}$ =53.22, SD=11.289), then that of students with moderate test anxiety ( $\bar{X}$  =52.38, SD=13.588) and students with low test anxiety had the least favourable attitude towards electrochemistry ( $\bar{X}$  =52.09, SD=12.454). This result is contrary to

Boyinbode (1988) and Afolabi (2007) who argued that moderately test anxious subjects are likely to be really more adversely affected by worry than their low or high test-anxious counterparts. It was argued that the reason that high test-anxious students most often belong to the high ability group with strong needs to achieve but their anxiety, like those of low test anxious, low ability groups, hardly brings impairment to their academic performance. Maehr and Midgley (1991) discovered that the impact of test anxiety on students' performance is often influenced by the evaluation practices of the classroom teacher. This may affect

their responses to the test questions and performance (Sullivan, 2002).

Table 4: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations between Students' Emotional Intelligence, Test Anxiety, Stress and Academic Success in Electrochemistry

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. EI	44.58	6.630	....			
2. TA	45.23	11.428	-.048	....		
3. Stress	40.12	5.255	.211**	-.053	....	
4. ASE	31.82	5.243	.098*	.051	-.141**	....

Note: EI= Emotional Intelligence; TA = Test Anxiety; ASE = Academic Success in Electrochemistry

\*p<0.05. \*\* p<0.01

Results shown on Table 4 reveals that there is a low positive significant relationship (r=.098, p<0.05) between emotional intelligence and students' academic success in electrochemistry. No significant positive relationship exist between test anxiety and academic success in electrochemistry (r=.051, p>0.05). The relationship between stress and academic success in electrochemistry was negative but significant (r=-.141, p<0.01). It is therefore deduced that students with high emotional intelligence also had high academic success in electrochemistry while those with high stress level are likely to have low academic success in electrochemistry. Result from the present study was in agree with Drago (2004) who analysed the relationship between academic success and emotional intelligence for non-traditional college students. It was discovered that

incorporating emotional intelligence awareness into academic programmes obtained a higher academic success and potentials. This finding also corroborates Lopes, Salovey and Straus (2003) that reported that individuals scoring highly on the management of emotions. A learner who understands his emotions would more academically stable in classroom lessons, individual studies and writing of test and examination. The result was also at variance with Yousefi, Talib, Mansor, Juhari and Redzaum (2010) that observed a significant negative between test anxiety and academic achievement among adolescents. The reason test anxiety impacted on academic success is its effect on chemistry students attention and concentration, that later translated to low influence on memory and academic performance.

Table 5: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations between Students' Emotional Intelligence, Test Anxiety, Stress and Attitudes towards Electrochemistry

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. EI	44.58	6.30	....			
2. TA	45.23	11.428	-.048	....		
3. Stress	40.12	5.255	.211**	-.053	....	
4. ATE	52.68	12.214	-.113**	.022	.008	....

Note: EI= Emotional Intelligence; TA = Test Anxiety; ATE = Attitudes towards Electrochemistry

\*p<0.05. \*\* p<0.01

Table 5 shows that there was a significant low negative relationship (r=-.113, p<0.01) between emotional intelligence and students' attitudes to electrochemistry. Low positive relationship existed between test anxiety and ATE but not significant (r=.022, p>0.05). Also, non-significant and very low positive relationship existed between stress and ATE (r=.008, p>0.05). Therefore, chemistry students with high emotional intelligence had low favourable

attitudes to electrochemistry. This could have been caused in view of the peculiarities of the sample used by the researcher and the nature of electrochemistry as of senior secondary school chemistry. High intelligent would want to undertake activities like regular electrochemistry class attendance, completion of electrochemistry related assignment and aiming at taking up courses in higher institution that are

related to electrochemistry. The higher the test anxiety of chemistry students, the higher their favourable attitudes towards electrochemistry.

#### Conclusion and Recommendations

Students with moderate emotional intelligence attained greater academic success in electrochemistry than those with low and high emotional intelligence. Low emotional intelligent students had most favourable attitudes to electrochemistry. The more a chemistry student is stressed up the higher the attitude but low stress results in high academic success in electrochemistry. High test anxiety in students makes them to succeed academically and also develop favourable attitudes towards electrochemistry. In view of the findings of this study, it is therefore recommended that

- i. Chemistry students need orientation or training for them to able to ascertain their emotional intelligent, test anxiety and stress levels and how these psychological traits influence academic success and attitudes towards electrochemistry.
- ii. Conducive chemistry classrooms and laboratories should be provided by educational authorities to enhance chemistry emotional intelligent and reduce to barest minimum the test anxiety and stress of chemistry students.
- iii. Electrochemistry teaching and learning in high schools should be undertaking considering various status on of chemistry students' emotional intelligent, test anxiety and stress.
- iv. Stress among chemistry students could be lessened if electrochemistry practical, assignment and other learning activities are well scheduled to give required relaxations in order to boost students' academic success.

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## Gender Based Violence: A Nigeria Experience

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The paper has examined the prevalence of Gender Based Violence (GBV) in Nigeria. It was discovered that violence against women is a common phenomenon in society and that the majority of the Nigerian people do not consider it a problem or crime. The paper recommended aggressive education and training that cuts across every strata of the society. Furthermore, it insisted that a collective measure that comprises all stakeholders such as the local, state and federal government as well as all the international agencies are required for the effective eradication of Gender based Violence in Nigeria.

Gender based violence (GBV) is known as Violence Against Women (VAW). The two would be used interchangeably in this paper. According to a paper from the United Nations in 1997, gender based violence, is *“any act of gender based violence the results of which is likely to result in physical sexual, psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such act, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty whether occurring in public or private life (WHO,2005)*

From this definition, GBV refers to different forms of harmful behaviours directed against women and girls as result of their sex. There are therefore many types of GBV; physical and psychological. These could be in the form of wife battering, torture, early force marriage, sexual harassment, assault or rape, female genital mutilation (FGM) widowhood and inheritance, human trafficking, violence against women and legal constraints, kidnapping or Abduction, Acid bathing and so on.

GBV predominantly occurs worldwide despite the provision for equal rights and status as stipulated in international legal instruments which have dealt extensively with this issue. These legal instruments include:

1. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1945
2. The Convention the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) 1979

3. The Declaration of the Elimination of Violence against Women, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1993.
4. The Vienna Declaration and World Conference on Human Right
5. The platform for Action from the United Nations Fourth World Conference on women held in Beijing.

All those instruments established that any type of GBV is a violation or abuse of women’s rights (Kira, 2004).

In spite of these efforts which were ratified by many countries, violence against women is on the increase. This was attested by the UN General Secretary: *“Violence against women and girls continues unabated in every continent and culture. It takes a devastating toll on women’s lives of their families, and society as a whole. Most societies inhibit such violence-yet the reality is that too often, it is covered up or tacitly condoned”*. (Ban Ki-Moon, 2007)

Rand [1997] noted that cases of domestic violence are the most prevalent of all forms of GBV. It is observed to be a major international social and public health problem, regardless of the economic status of the nation UN [2006]

Globalization has subjected many countries in the world today to economic and social pressures, which affect the behaviour of many individuals. It is estimated that about 50% of the world’s female population have suffered some form of abuse at some point in their lifetime from someone related to them (Reprowatch,

2000). The UN also estimated that at least one in every three women suffers domestic violence in form of being coerced into sex or otherwise abused in her lifetime from the hands of those who claim to either protect or love them; the abuser is usually known to them (UN, 2006). Millions of women and girls suffer from violence in times of peace as well as war. These can occur at the hands of state or in the home. Resultantly, women are beaten, raped, mutilated and killed, usually with impunity (WHO, 2013; Lawson, 2003; Dutton, 2006).

Likewise, Otoo-Oyortey (10) commented on the response to this worldwide problem. He lamented that even though more than 166 countries have ratified the UN convention on the elimination of all forms of violence against women and have made provisions to protect women against violence in their constitution and criminal codes, only 44 countries particularly protect women against domestic violence.

The collaboration of the leadership of countries with the UN to take primary, secondary and tertiary preventive measures is urgently required. This paper gives an overview of gender based violence with some cases in Nigeria and highlights some ways forward in reducing all forms of gender based violence in Nigeria, if not totally eliminating them.

#### *Overview of GBV*

It has been well noted that:

*“Violence against women is a serious cause of death and a greater cause of ill- health than traffic accidents and malaria combined”* (CWDR, 1993)

Websdale [1999] observed that one in every five women faces some types of violence during her life time leading to serious injury or death in some cases. Annually in the USA, 1000-1600 women die at the hands of their male partner. This follows a long escalating pattern of battering in most cases (CWDR, 1993). Robinson [2002] noted that in North America, there still is a high prevalence despite the fact that women have equal rights and status. He also discovered that forty to fifty-one percent of women experience so many form of violence

in their lifetime which includes child abuse, physical violence rape and domestic violence.

The yearly prevalence of domestic violence in Canada was found to be between 0.4% and 23% with severe violence ranging between 2% and 10% (Clark &Mont, 2003). In Mexico, where there is no legislation specifically against such violence, a 1995 survey by the Mexican Association against violence revealed that 74% of the abused individuals were women. A study on 200,000 cases of abuse by partners in Spain similarly revealed that women are usually the victims and of domestic violence [Galindo & Serrano, 1994].

The lifetime prevalence of domestic violence against women in the United Kingdom was stated as 39% and 60% in two different studies (McGibbon, Cipper & Kelly, 1989; Stanko, Crip, Hale & Lucraft, 1997). Another survey conducted in the community revealed that 23% of women had ever been physically assaulted by a partner or former partner and 4% had been so assaulted within the last 12months (Mirrlees-Black,1999). In Serbia the online survey conducted by the staff of the SOS hot line for women and children victims of violence indicated that about 94% callers were victims of violence from family members or intimate partners (Misevic & Hughes, 1990-1993).

A study in Korea indicated that domestic violence such as wife battering occurred more than once in a month but the survey conducted by the Korean women hot line revealed that 42% of those interviewed had been assaulted more than a once in a week (Wha-Soon,1994). In Bangladesh, a study carried out in a rural area of Bhurya in 2000 indicated that 50.8% of the women admitted to being victims of battering from their husbands and 2.1% were abused by other family members (Bhuiya, Sharmin & Hanifi, 2003). In India, a survey conducted among 1842 rural women of reproductive age revealed that both men and women considered wife beating acceptable and that 40% of the wives have been beaten by their husbands (Otoo-Oyortey, 2003).

In Africa, violence is not only the common practice. It is also socially

accepted. For instance, violence against women by their male partner is widely condoned by many African societies. This is due to the belief that men are superior and that the women with whom they live are seen as possessions to be treated as they deem fit (Kiragu, 1995; UNCSDHA, 1993). In South Africa, a cross-sectional study on the prevalence of physical, sexual and emotional abuse of 1306 women revealed that the lifetime prevalence of experiencing physical violence from a current or ex-husband or boyfriends was 24.6% and 9.5% of the women in the study had been assaulted within the period of one year (Jewkes, Levin & Penn-kekana, 2003). In Uganda, a survey conducted among 5190 women of reproductive age in the Rakai District indicated that 30% of women had experienced physical threats or physical abuse from their current partner (Koeing et al., 2006). In Ghana, a cross-sectional survey of women and children revealed that violence is still on the increase, an average rate of domestic violence being 54.5% (Obeng, 2003)

#### *Overview of GBV in Nigeria*

From the global overview above, it is certainly obvious that GBV cuts across countries with the degree differing from society to society, women taking the lion share of the suffering and pain. As a result of traditional practices in Nigeria and in many other African countries, the beating of wives and children for instance is widely accepted as form of discipline (UNICEF, 2001). Parents believe that beating their children is the way to instil discipline in them, much the same way as husbands beat their wives who are considered as their possessions (Kiragu, 1995; UNCSDHA, 1993).

The African society is basically patriarchal and the woman's place within the scheme is decidedly subordinate. This can be observed in the usual prayer for a girl each morning after greetings that God would allow her to find a good husband to take care of her. During traditional marriage ceremonies, the prayer for husband is that he would be able to provide good care for his bride. This kind of socialization takes place on a regular basis in Nigeria. Domestic violence therefore

functions as a means of enforcing conformity. The role of a woman within customary society as well as in religious practices where the husband is known to be the head of family, gives him the power to exert over all. It thus does not matter if the woman is economically dependent or not. Her position, like that of the children, is subordinate.

GBV is generally regarded as family affair which has to remain solely at home, without outside interference. The victims have no option but to remain silence when considering the stigma attached and the response from the law enforcement agencies, which usually reinforce the act. For instance Shija [2006] observed that in Nigeria, an average of 300-500 women are killed annually by their husbands, ex-partners, lovers or male relations and in most cases, the police still consider them to be family affairs to be settled at home (29).

McDonnel [2006] noted that Nigerian do not discuss domestic violence because they consider it to be a part of marriage that must be kept secret. He made known that 40 percent of the women who participated in studies conducted both in Lagos and Ibadan urban settings have been victims of domestic violence (30). Similar findings were also obtained from project Alert in 2001: In both Lagos and Oyo states, studies on violence against working women, market women as well as female secondary school and university students revealed that 64.4% of the 45 women interviewed in the workplace confirmed that they had been beaten by their partner or husband while 56, 6% of 45 interviewed market women admitted same (Project Alert, 2001).

Obi and Ozunba [2007] conducted a study on domestic violence in South East Nigeria and found that 70% of the interviewee claimed to be abused in their family. Also, in the annual report on violence against women in Nigeria by project Alert there was an increase in cases, with 169 cases between 2002 and 2003 as against 142 cases reported for the two previous years. The pattern indicated the following: physical assault and murder- 73 cases, domestic violence- 40 cases, rape/sexual assault- 32 cases, kidnap/abduction- 21cases and acid bathing- 3cases. Unfortunately, accurate

data is not possible because of unreported cases. The media report in November 2005 indicated: rape/ incest- 46, domestic violence -43, murder of women -40, kidnap/abduction-19, acid bathing -10 (Project Alert,2004). Oyeniran and Isiugo [2005]’s findings on women’s perception of wife-beating in Nigeria revealed that 64.4% of women who had ever married and 50.4% of unmarried women felt that wife beating was alright. This showed clearly that many people view wife-beating as normal in Nigeria. It was also discovered that some women who had been abused do not even realize it (Afro/News, 2007).

#### *Overview of Some Cases in Nigeria*

##### *Case One*

The Punch Nigerian Newspaper reported an acid attack with the intent to kill involving Mr. O. M., the alleged attacker on F. A., the victim, who was rendered blind. It was brought to the court on December 30, 2011 at aboru, Lagos [Eniola, 2012].

##### *Case Two*

Another report from Punch Newspaper revealed that a man, U.S., murdered his wife, A., after beating her throughout the night in their residence in Rivers State [Aasike, 2012].

##### *Case Three*

D. S. was another man who poured acid on his fiancé, C. E., a university student who had to be hospitalized in the Lagos State Technology Hospital (LASUTH) with massive tissue destruction involving her face, chest and other parts of her body [Ifeanyi, 2012].

##### *Case Four*

As reported by the premium Times, 50 year old man, O. T. in Ondo State was sent to prison by the Magistrate Court for killing his 40 year old wife, A.T. [Abimbola, 2013].

##### *Case Five*

The PM News reported that a man named M. Y. murdered his wife on the 17th of the November 2011 for refusing to have sex with him. He was sent to the prison by the Ilorin Magistrate Court [PM News, 2012].

##### *Case Six*

As documented by the African Examiner online, in 2010, the King of Akure, Ondo state, Oba Oluwadare Adesina beat his wife, Olori Bolanle in public and sprayed a substance believed to be acid on her. She was hospitalized and the king was eventually disposed.

##### *Case Seven*

The Prime Times reported that a man, A. A., murdered his wife, T. A., a banker and mother of one, in their home in Lagos. He was charged to court on June 24, 2011 [Olurounbi, 2012]. The following cases [from nine to thirteen] were reported by Amnesty International on 03 May 2007:

##### *Case Eight*

“Fatima”, a domestic worker aged 12years old, was reported to have been doused with kerosene and set on fire after she was accused of stealing meat from her employer. The alleged perpetrator was charged in connection with her death, but the outcome of the case is not known

##### *Case Nine*

“Shehi” said that she was regularly subjected to violence by her husband. After one such act, she was left permanently blind in her left eye. Her husband had reportedly suspected her of having a sexual relationship outside their marriage. She obtained a dissolution of the marriage from the Lagos High Court and later sought damages for the grievous bodily harm.

##### *Case Ten*

“Ronke” from Lagos, died from injuries after she had acid throw over her, allegedly by her husband’s younger brother. Her husband had died from a stroke but when she attended his funeral in Delta State, she was apparently “accused of wanting to kill/him”

##### *Case Eleven*

“Women reported in the news media to have been killed by their husband in Lagos have included 22-years-old “Tunde” allegedly beaten to death in 2003, “Abiola” in July 2003; and “Amina,” who allegedly died

before she could receive medical treatment for a severe beating on 18 June 2001.

#### *Case Twelve*

“A middle- aged teacher with a university degree was brought by her sister after she collapsed from the last set of battering by her husband. Her husband had just left her on the floor. She was advised to go to the police but she wanted to go home for the children and did not want to prosecute. She kept being beaten and went to LUTH (Lagos University Teaching Hospital) to have an operation where they removed a clot of blood ... (her husband was suspected to be jealous of her success)”.

#### *Case Thirteen*

“The nurse fled to a friend’s house and stayed there until the family begged her to come back home. On her return, she was not beaten but was verbally abused. When her seven year-old daughter was raped by a neighbour, the problems of the man beating his wife increased. After examination, the father preferred to settle financially with the neighbour rather than carry out the necessary tests or prosecute. (Amnesty International, 2007)

All the above cases had further confirmed the Amnesty International (2005) report on the violence against women in Nigeria:

*“on the daily basis, women are beaten and ill-treated for supposed transgressions, raped and even murdered by members of their family. In some cases, vicious acid attacks leave them with horrific disfigurements. Such violence is too frequently excused and tolerated in communities and not denounced. Husbands, partners and fathers are responsible for most of the violence against women”* (Amnesty International, 2007)

#### *The Way Forward*

Provision of education or training on reproductive and human rights should be aggressively made available to all strata of the society. The focus of the training should be based on preventive measures. There should be compulsory courses on reproductive and human rights at all levels

of education and every teacher should be trained through seminars and workshops because they cannot give out correct information if they do not have any. Similarly, traditional and religious leaders should be trained because they play an important role in upholding culture and values. Every cadre of professionals as well as market women should also be trained. Organizations and associations in Nigeria would also benefit from such education. Since gender inequality is a part of the Nigerian norm, change cannot come overnight. It has to be gradual process. The media need to be involved.

International bodies such as UNICEF, WHO, National Coalition Against Violence (NCADV), Department for International Development (DFID) and Women Empowerment Against Violence (WEAVE) e.t.c. should work in collaboration with the government at every level in order to achieve the desired change. The WHO launched and released a guideline on 20 June 2013 with the “aim to help countries improved their health sector’s capacity to respond to violence against women” (WHO, 2013). This is a welcome gesture. There is further need for collaboration with the government to fight this cankerworm of society. Most important of all, the law Empowerment Agencies as well as members of legislature should be sensitized. Welfare for victims should be urgently provided. This would include shelter as well as support available in every town in Nigeria to enable them obtain counselling and protection. Presently, there are no established services in Nigeria.

#### *Conclusion*

The paper examined the prevalence of Gender Based Violence in Nigeria which, like in many African countries and indeed globally, is a common practice with grave effects. This menace is mitigated by perception of GBV as being a normal phenomenon in the Nigerian society, making it very difficult to report and handle such cases. The paper has therefore demonstrated the need for aggressive action in order to protect women and human rights. There is the need to effect a change in the mindset of the society regarding women. Specific measures in training and

reorienting every stratum of the Nigerian society are required in order to permanently reduce, if not eliminate Gender based violence. This must be done as a collective measure involving all the stakeholders such as the local, state and federal levels of government as well as international Agencies in order to achieve effective change in Nigeria.

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